

MSc Thesis:

Internationalisation of Higher Education. China and Vietnam: from importers of education to partners in cooperation.



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Table of Contents

| | |
|---|----|
| Summary..... | 6 |
| Chapter 1 | 8 |
| Recent Changes in Higher Education in East Asia. | 8 |
| The Purpose and Methodology of this Study..... | 8 |
| 1.1 Introduction | 8 |
| 1.2 Purpose and Scope of this Study | 10 |
| 1.3 Research Questions..... | 10 |
| 1.4 Methodology..... | 10 |
| 1.5 Why these two countries? | 11 |
| 1.6 Why the three foreign university campuses? | 12 |
| 1.7 How to go about choosing the cases? | 14 |
| 1.8 The structure of the thesis | 14 |
| Chapter 2 | 16 |
| Theory and Analytical Framework | 16 |
| 2.1 Internationalization and Globalization | 16 |
| 2.1.1 <i>Globalisation</i> | 17 |
| 2.1.2 <i>Internationalisation and Globalisation: dialectical relationship</i> | 18 |
| 2.2 OECD Internationalisation approaches..... | 19 |
| 2.2.1 <i>What is capacity development?</i> | 20 |
| 2.3 Cross-border higher education and the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) and (TRIPS) | 22 |
| 2.3.1 <i>The GATS' four modes of supply</i> | 23 |
| 2.3.2 <i>Fundamental rules of WTO GATS and TRIPS</i> | 24 |
| 2.3.3 <i>Factors influencing the undertaking of commitments on educational liberalisation</i> | 27 |
| 2.3.4 <i>The theoretical premises of GATS and TRIPS</i> | 29 |
| 2.3.5 <i>Controversial views on theoretical premises of WTO/ GATS</i> | 31 |
| 2.3.6 <i>Free trade, War and Peace</i> | 32 |

| | |
|--|----|
| Chapter 3 | 33 |
| Case study: cross-border higher education in China and Vietnam..... | 33 |
| 3.1 Higher education reform in China | 33 |
| 3.1.1 Partnerships with foreign universities..... | 35 |
| 3.2 The University of Nottingham Ningbo, China | 36 |
| 3.3 Sino-Danish Centre for Education and Research in China | 40 |
| 3.4 Higher Education in Vietnam | 44 |
| 3.5 The Entry of RMIT in Vietnam | 44 |
| Chapter 4 | 50 |
| Cross-border Education in China and Vietnam: Case Analysis and Comparison | 50 |
| 4.1 Parameter 1: The Model of Partnership..... | 50 |
| 4.2 Parameter 2: Student Recruitment: Market Size and Affordability of Customers | 52 |
| <i>RMIT Vietnam: a challenging start-up.....</i> | 53 |
| <i>Partnerships with bankers to offer student loans</i> | 55 |
| 4.3 Parameter 3: Rationales for Internationalisation of Higher Education | 57 |
| <i>Rationale 1: Capacity building</i> | 57 |
| <i>Rationale 2: Quantity - Increasing access to higher education</i> | 59 |
| <i>Rationale 3: Academic Quality.....</i> | 60 |
| <i>Rationale 4: Developmental goals</i> | 61 |
| <i>Rationale 5: Mutual understanding: Political and cultural exchange</i> | 64 |
| Chapter 5 | 70 |
| The WTO/GATS Agreement and National Policies on Cross-border Education | 70 |
| 5.1 GATS mode 2 and capacity building at individual level..... | 70 |
| 5.2 GATS mode 1 and 3 and capacity building at organisational level..... | 72 |
| Chapter 6 | 77 |
| Conclusions and Reflections | 77 |
| 6.1 The key answers to question 1 | 77 |
| 6.2 The key answers to question 2..... | 78 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 6.3 The key answers to question 3 | 79 |
| 6.4 Some further reflections | 80 |
| 6.5 Future perspective and research | 81 |
| References | 82 |
| Appendix 1: List of the Chinese universities sponsored by the Chinese Government's Project 985 | 87 |
| Appendix 2: List of Influential People for Interviews | 89 |
| Appendix 3: Sector Specific Commitments | 91 |
| Appendix 4: Insurance Policy at Bao Minh CMG and Priority Enrolment at RMIT Vietnam | 98 |
| Appendix 5: Partnerships with Banking sector to offer student loans to cover tuition fees | 102 |
| Appendix 6: 2010 UG Entry requirements and admissions process | 104 |
| Appendix 7: Organisational Chart of RMIT Vietnam 2010..... | 107 |

Summary

The last decade has seen internationalisation of companies pervasive in the business world as well as internationalisation of universities in the academic world. The noticeable changes that affect higher education in Asia are: 1) expansion has driven the growth of the private sector in higher education, including international programmes and foreign campuses, 2) vast number of students from Asia goes to study abroad, mostly in developed countries, 3) for various reasons there is a desire in many Asian countries to build “world class” universities to compete with the best academic institutions worldwide, 4) students and teachers are increasingly required to use English for study, research and teaching.

Asian countries adopted different strategies to cope with these challenges. Internationalisation of higher education with the establishment of foreign university campus onshore is gaining importance. Chinese and Vietnamese higher education systems are two typical examples of this transformation, although the differences between the two countries are as great as the similarities.

Cross-border university campus is a relatively new area of research, many characteristics and models of this form of education export are unexplored. Therefore, this thesis explores the internationalisation of higher education with particular focus on cross-border education in the form of foreign university campuses in China and Vietnam.

The thesis addresses three main questions:

- 1. Why did China and Vietnam engage in internationalisation of higher education in the last decade?**
- 2. On which parameters do the Vietnamese higher education internationalisation strategies differ from those of China given the two countries share many similarities? How can these differences be explained?**
- 3. To what extent does the WTO/GATS Agreement influence cross-border higher education policies and practices in China and Vietnam?**

Through examining three case studies of foreign university campuses, Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology campuses in Vietnam, the University of Nottingham Campus in Ningbo, China and the Sino- Danish Centre for Education and Research in Beijing, China, the thesis arrives at some findings as follows:

- Both countries have many reasons to engage in internationalisation of their higher education. Most obviously, it is the demand for national economic growth and competitiveness. Both countries need a more qualified and skilled workforce, and new knowledge in many fields. Higher education is seen as a way to achieve these objectives, especially through international cooperation and cross-border in various forms.
- In addition, academic motivations and intellectual stimulation for scholarly exchanges and quality education are also an important reason and a strong driving force for internationalisation strategies of all countries involved, especially the host countries.
- It is evident that cross-border education supports mutual understanding and capacity building at both individual and organisational levels. This capacity building, especially in the case of foreign campuses, is becoming a two-way process, which signifies the improvement of educational institutions and individuals in both host and home countries. In short, though at different levels, the two host countries, China and Vietnam, are becoming partners in educational cooperation than just importers of education.
- The two higher education systems have different patterns of development, different agendas and different points of departure for internationalisation. China seems to have more to offer to their partners in terms of research capacity and resources, therefore China has more equal decision making power or even takes more control over the partnerships.
- Vietnam has shown considerable courage in opening its doors to foreign providers in education services. Its resolve to internationalise its higher education and training is very strong but is clearly hampered by lack of human and financial resources, and long-term strategic plan.
- Not only are there differences in the two countries, but also within China there different models of partnerships presented in the two cases.
- Both China and Vietnam ratified commitments to the WTO/GATS agreement in educational sector and allowed all 4 modes of supply at higher education level. This integration will potentially lead to more structural changes in the legal frameworks for higher education systems in each country.

Chapter 1

Recent Changes in Higher Education in East Asia.

The Purpose and Methodology of this Study.

1.1 Introduction

The last decade has seen internationalisation of companies pervasive in the business world as well as internationalisation of universities in the academic world. The considerable increase in cross-border higher education, which is defined as the international mobility of students and teachers, educational programmes or higher educational institutions (Knight, 2004), forms major part of this process.

Higher education has been moving between countries through missionary work, development cooperation, academic exchanges for a long time and nowadays through commercial initiatives, noticeably in Asia. As in other parts of the world, Asian universities are undergoing a dramatic transformation. A significant portion of the world's higher education expansion is taking place in Asia – a trend that will continue in the coming decade (Altbach and Umakoshi, 2004). For instance, China has recently overtaken the United States in having the largest postsecondary education system in the world. Not only in China, the challenge of massification is very much part of the whole Asian higher education situation because Asia has the majority of the world's population and many Asian countries increasingly demand university- trained human resources to ensure the success of sophisticated globalised economies in the 21st century. The trend manifests itself not only in growth in student number but also in diversification of demand.

The noticeable changes that affect higher education in Asia are: 1) expansion has driven the growth of the private sector in higher education, including international programmes and foreign campuses, 2) vast number of students from Asia goes to study abroad, mostly in developed countries, 3) for various reasons there is a desire in many Asian countries to build “world class” universities to compete with the best academic institutions worldwide, 4) further, students and teachers are increasingly required to use English for study, research and teaching.

Asian countries adopted different strategies to cope with these challenges. Chinese and Vietnamese higher education systems are two typical examples of this transformation, although

the differences between the two countries are as great as the similarities. The demand is growing, but the capacity of the domestic public universities is limited. Generally, this is due to budget constraints, the changing role of government, and increased emphasis on market economy and privatisation. However, the scale and scope of the two higher education systems are hugely different. The last fifteen years witnessed not only increasing number of Chinese and Vietnamese students going to study abroad but also growing joint programmes and foreign university campuses being established in the two countries. Again, the two countries adopted different policies and rationales for such international education provision even though they both are members of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and their communist governments still retain control in education to implement socialist principles and social justice. This apparent paradox prompts a curiosity about how such new educational provision enters and functions in these national higher education systems.

This phenomenon inspired many debates and researches. Some researchers and policy makers contend that education can be seen as a kind of service which can be traded and regulated by the global General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). In this respect, cross-border education also corresponds to economic motivations it is often perceived as an economic development lever by governments and as a competitive advantage by the institutions (Knight, 2002). Others view it as academic and cultural exchanges, and capacity development (OECD, 2006; Vincent-Lancrin, 2007). Perhaps, it is necessary to look into what happens in reality in order to find out to what extent these two perspectives are separated.

As mentioned at the outset, cross-border higher education has various forms. Student mobility is the most significant in terms of volume. Programme mobility, which encompasses distance learning, generally completed by face-to-face education in local partner institutions, is the second most common. The relationships between the foreign and local institutions may result in a variety of arrangements ranging from development aid to market contracts (Vincent-Lancrin, 2009). Institution mobility in the form of opening of campuses or training centres abroad has become an important part of cross-border higher education. According to the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education's recent survey, there are 82 campuses around the globe in 2006, from only 24 in 2002. These campuses are substantial bricks-and-mortar physical presence (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2009). This form of internationalisation has evolved differently

depending on various aspects of national higher education systems, socio-economic contexts, as well as strategies and rationales for the internationalisation of both home and host countries.

1.2 Purpose and Scope of this Study

Since this is a relatively new area of research, many characteristics and models of this form of cross-border education are unexplored. Therefore, this thesis makes an attempt to explain this emerging social phenomenon through exploring the concepts of internationalisation and globalisation of higher education in a broader sense, and examining three cases of foreign university campus in China and Vietnam. The first case is the wholly foreign-owned campuses set up in Ho Chi Minh City and Hanoi, Vietnam in 2001 and 2004 respectively by the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT), Australia. The second case is the Chinese campus of the University of Nottingham established in 2004 in Ningbo, Southern China. The third case is the emerging Sino- Danish Centre for Education and Research, which started in 2010 in Beijing, Northern China.

1.3 Research Questions

The thesis will explore three main questions as follows

- 4. Why did China and Vietnam engage in internationalisation of higher education in the last decade?**
- 5. On which parameters do the Vietnamese higher education internationalisation strategies differ from those of China given the two countries share many similarities? How can these differences be explained?**
- 6. To what extent does the WTO/GATS Agreement influence cross-border higher education policies and practices in China and Vietnam?**

1.4 Methodology

For the theoretical part of this thesis I use cross-disciplinary literature review to develop a conceptual and analytical framework. The two main bodies of literature are in development studies and sociology of education, which complement each other to enhance the understanding of the research topic.

For the empirical part of the thesis I choose case study method because my research questions seek to explain a complex social phenomenon, that is: cross-border education increasingly becomes a new form of cooperation between economically advanced countries and developing countries. The 'How' and 'Why' questions are more explanatory and these questions deals with operational links in specific cases rather than mere frequencies or incidence, therefore other methods (e.g. survey) may not be relevant. The case study method also enables me to understand and analyse a real-life phenomenon and such in-depth understanding encompasses important contextual conditions of the countries in question.

1.5 Why these two countries?

First of all, I am familiar with the two countries and have certain knowledge about their higher education systems and the recent changes in cross-border education segment. More importantly, China and Vietnam share many similarities in political settings and global challenges, but the two countries also have diverse historical influences and patterns of higher education development, disparate levels of wealth and stages of economic growth, hence there is much to be learnt from their specific experiences in international educational partnerships.

Since the reform launch in 1978, neo-liberal Chinese leaders such as Deng Xiaoping have tried hard to pursue a path of modernisation at all levels and all aspects of the country (Li and Lin, 2008). From 1978 to 2005, China's real gross domestic product (GDP) has grown at the average annual rate of 9,5 % (Guo, 2007). As economy grew, literacy levels and secondary schooling became more widespread, more people acquired some wealth and middle class developed, the demand for higher education also increased. The total Chinese student enrolments increased from 6.4 million in 1998 to 19,4 million in 2004 (Wang, 2008). In 2009, China had 29.79 million college students, with a gross enrolment rate of 24.2% (Peng, 2010). China's efforts towards developing "world class" universities started with two national projects that received special funding from both the central and local governments. One is the 211 project, launched in 1995, which aimed to build 100 higher education institutions or national academic centres of excellence. The other is Project 985, code-named after the launching date year 98 month 5. This project selected nine top research universities to be built into world class universities and that received substantial government funding. See appendix 1 for full details.

Following the sample of China, Vietnam was in transition to a market-oriented economy under the Doi moi (Renovation) policy launched in 1986. From 1991 to 2000, the gross

domestic product (GDP) increased at an average annual rate of 7,4 %, despite the Asian financial crisis in the late 1990s (Tran, 2003). As a result, there has been rapid expansion across all levels of education, notably the demand for higher education has increased dramatically. The gross enrolment rate has risen from 2% of school leavers in the early 1990s to about 13% in 2004, making the student population of 1.3 million (World Bank, 2007). Vietnam has borrowed USD 150 million to reform its higher education.

One may curious to find out how these two countries' economic achievements guarantee success in higher education in the long term? The two countries present interesting examples at different scales in developing and emerging economies. The Chinese economy, along with Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore, becomes more and more sophisticated and requires different contributions from higher education, whereas the Vietnamese economy is catching up and therefore sets different priorities for higher education.

1.6 Why the three foreign university campuses?

Although these three cases are seen on the surface as foreign university campuses, they exemplify different stages of campus development, different models of partnership, different academic traditions of partners, different entry points, different scale of operation, and different geographical areas in the two countries. Therefore it is interesting to look at each them and compare them. The cases also allow me to retain meaningful characteristics of contemporary events, such as the processes of establishing university campuses in other countries and entering different national higher education systems, and the involvement of influential actors. A corpus of documents , such as policy papers, partnership agreements, administrative regulations, academic papers, presentations at meetings, press releases, news clippings, statistical data and reports about each case, were examined to shed light on the research questions.

The two other important sources of evidence of case study method are: direct observation of the events being studied and interviews of the persons involved in the processes (Yin, 2009). Therefore I have participated in three meetings, visited the RMIT campuses in Vietnam and also conducted 6 focus interviews with key people who engaged in setting up and running these foreign university campuses. They are 2 senior officials from ministries in Vietnam and Denmark, and 4 universities leaders from Australia, Denmark and the United Kingdom.

These are influential people who shape the start-ups and developments of the three cross-border education projects in question. For the SDC case, the interviewees are: Mr Uffe Toudal Pedersen, permanent secretary from the Danish Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation which is a sponsor for the Danish universities and a government partner with Chinese counterpart; professor Lauritz Holm-Nielsen, who is heavily involved in SDC both in the capacity of the vice chair of Universities Denmark and the rector of Aarhus University which houses the SDC Secretariat in Denmark; professor Hans Gregersen, the executive director of SDC Secretariat, which coordinates collaboration between the 8 Danish universities, Danish ministries, Danish companies in China and Denmark, and other stakeholders with interest in SDC. For the Nottingham Ningbo case, I have interviewed Professor Nick Miles who is provost and CEO of the University of Nottingham, Ningbo, China. For the RMIT Vietnam, the interviewees are Dr Nguyen Ngoc Hung, former deputy director general of the International Cooperation Department, Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training, and Professor David Wilmoth, former director general of RMIT Vietnam. Further details about the roles of these key people and the relevance to interview them are in Appendix 2 of this thesis.

These semi-structured interviews gave more insights into each model of cooperation, which serve as unit of analysis and comparison. A set of common key questions was used in all interviews to find out about agendas, rationales and priorities of different stakeholders in setting up campuses, financing models, short-term and mid-term targets, legal frameworks, and challenges in working across boundaries, quality, and capacity development, influences of GATS on national education policies. Further questions were posed according to details given in the answers of each interviewee to obtain clarifications, special and unique features of each case, as well as perspectives of influential actors from both host and home countries. Appendix 2 of this thesis also lists a set of key questions used for the interviews.

The multiple case studies show the explanatory and not just descriptive or exploratory function of single case study. The three cases in this thesis can be the basis for analytic explanations and generalizations. However, I am also aware of some limitations, such as the size of only three samples in only two countries in one region, the interviewees are those who work to make these partnerships, therefore some of their views may be biased. Despite these limitations, the three cases represent a variety of partnership models and range of partner

countries from English-speaking and non-English speaking nations in three continents. Within a modest scope of this thesis, these cases and their complexity prove to be sufficient.

1.7 How to go about choosing the cases?

I have chosen the cases because I have done initial research and collected information about each case. The case of the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology is the first and unique foreign campus in the higher education system in my own country. As I worked in international education field, this phenomenon drew my attention since its inception in the early 2000s.

The University of Nottingham was active in Asia since early 2000s and worked closely with the British Council, the UK Government's International Education and Culture Agency, which has 110 offices as part of the British Embassies around the globe. I was a staff member of the British Council's education team in South East Asia region during my 10 year employment there until 2006. I had the chance to follow the project of establishing Nottingham University campus in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia and Nottingham University campus in Ningbo, China from the early stages.

In 2009, I had 3-month internship at the international office of Aarhus University, which now houses the Secretariat of the Sino-Danish Centre and I have written a report on the process of establishing the centre. I have also got access to the network of people from various Danish universities and Ministry of Science who are engaged in SDC. After four years of study in Denmark I have gained a certain level of knowledge of the Danish higher education system.

The topic of this thesis is also relevant to my programme at CBS- Business, Language and Culture with specialisation strand in Business and Development Studies. All these reasons give me the inspiration and courage to conduct this study.

1.8 The structure of the thesis

The thesis will be organised into six chapters. The first chapter introduces the background information about the recent changes in Asian higher education with focus on the situations in China and Vietnam. The chapter also present three key research questions of the thesis and methods used to explore the questions. The second chapter delineates a theoretical framework drawn from literature in development studies and sociology of education. The third

chapter introduces the three cases and comparison of empirical data across cases to highlight the main features of each partnership model. The fourth chapter presents the case analyses in contextual conditions of each country and identify the key parameters that show the differences between the cases. Chapter five explores and explains the influence of GATS on national higher education policies in order to draw answers to the last research question. The sixth and final chapter summarises the main conclusions of the study and shares several reflections, which might be useful for the universities and governments interested in cross-border education, especially in setting up foreign university campuses.

Chapter 2

Theory and Analytical Framework

2.1 Internationalization and Globalization

The concepts of internationalisation and globalisation have been subject to a wide range of interpretations even within the higher education sector alone. These three terms are employed to address various issues in the sector. As Teacher (2004) notes new terms and concepts often have the power to organise our thoughts as to how the world of higher education works. He also adds that terms with the ending ‘-sation’ usually signal that there was a problem in the past and an opportunity for improvement, or in other words, the old terms and concepts no longer fully reflect the emerging reality.

However, precise demarcation of ‘internationalisation’ and ‘globalisation’ is complicated and these two terms are often used in an inconsistent way.

2.1.1 Internationalisation

University has always been regarded as an inherently international institution. The fact that students and scholars travelled between nations, missionaries and colonialists transported education to other countries, suggests that from its earliest times the university transcended national borders. But the borders between states and communities, between temporal and spiritual power were very different then from the borders of the modern world today (Scott, 1998). It can be argued that the wandering scholars of the Middle Ages may have been replaced by teleconferencing, but this is simply a transitory manifestation of the same basic idea that science and scholarship know no borders and universities are inescapably international. For Scott (1998), the concept of internationalisation consists of various aspects, such as international mobility of students and academics, collaboration in various forms between institutions in different countries and the flows of ideas around the world. Academic values are the core dimension in the concept.

Wächter (2004) concurs that internationalisation in Western Europe was initially concerned with mobility, and its scope was later extended to international curricula (double and joint degrees) and recognition (mainly a mobility-facilitating mechanism) in the 1990s. He proposes new terminology: ‘old’ and ‘new internationalisation’. By ‘old internationalisation’ he

means 'activities in the course of which a person literally crosses a country border (mobility) or does so mentally (e.g. international degree, comparative studies), whereas 'new internationalisation' mainly concerns systemic and regulatory issues, such as structural reform, standard setting, etc. He stresses that 'new internationalisation' essentially concerns core issues of education policy, which has become 'internationalised' and is often discussed, and more importantly, implemented in a supranational or inter-regional context (e.g. Lisbon strategy, Bologna process, Asia- Europe education process promoting policy reforms). As he puts it, 'one might claim that 'old internationalisation' rose in reputation because it rode on the back of 'new internationalisation' (ibid. p.9).

2.1.1 Globalisation

The concept of globalisation came late to the HE debate because the HE has until recently been concerned with economic development and other regional issues. Moreover, universities were initially national institutions with a nation building mission, protecting and promoting the national cultural values and preparing the future leaders (Beerens, 2003). Universities then grew up alongside and under the protection of nation states. Scott (2003) contends that the current growing size and influence of HE are closely related to their perceived capacity to fulfil national objectives in terms of strategic power, economic efficiency and so forth in the modern world today. As such, the international exchanges and links must be seen in a new light: market-driven and multi-faceted.

Rightly or wrongly politicians believe investment in HE can be translated into comparative economic advantage, a belief encouraged by theories of post-industrial society which suggests that 'knowledge' has become the primary resource in advanced economies. Therefore, the concept of globalisation is often associated with the idea of a 'Knowledge Society' (Scott, 2003). Both Daniel Bell (1973) and Robert Reich (1992; cited in Scott, 1998) concur that investment in scientific research and in HE has now become a key factor in international competitiveness, as the instruments of international rivalry are now 'intellectual property', in the shape of both basic science and commercial patents, and 'human capital', in the form of highly skilled workforces. Stromquist & Monkman (2000) call technology a 'main motor' in today's globalised world, where knowledge assumes a 'powerful role in production', making its possession a necessary condition for sustained economic growth. This mirrors the

finding of Marginson et al. (1995)¹ in a survey that a considerable majority (9 in 10) of multinational firms rated skilled workforce as a factor influencing their decisions to invest. Dale (2005) also refers to the 'knowledge economy' as an increasingly 'common component of the discourses around globalisation and education', an apparently 'ubiquitous phenomenon', and one that seems 'intrinsically related to higher education' because HE institutions are knowledge producing enterprises.

Globalisation process also lies in the spread of new public management in HE, which has in the last two decades rendered the different national systems more similar to each other in form and organisational language (OECD, 2009a). For instance, the new public management facilitates Anglo- American educational practices and advocates an entrepreneurial, revenue-oriented approach to cross-border relations, or partial replacement of tenured employment by part-time teaching contracts. Even in the context of strong egalitarian traditions in the Nordic countries or in the socialist China, the new public management is associated with loosening of traditional academic practices and a stronger executive steering capacity. This facilitates a faster global engagement and routes some cross-border activities via institutions as institutional joint-ventures for enhancing competitiveness rather than mere academic and cultural exchanges among individual faculty. The case of the Sino- Danish Centre for Education and Research presented in the next section will elaborate more on this point.

2.1.2 Internationalisation and Globalisation: dialectical relationship

According to Marginson and van der Wende (2006), globalisation and internationalisation in higher education are 'potentially conflicting', while at the same time also 'interactive' and 'mutually generative'. Internationalisation is a process 'more readily steerable by governments' than is globalisation.

This suggests that if internationalisation is being seen more or less as an active process implemented by universities or nation states when they see the need for it, globalisation somehow puts universities in a more passive position. As Scott (1998) remarks 'not all universities are particularly international, but all universities are subject to the same processes of globalisation – partly as objects, victims even, of these processes, but partly as subjects or key agents' (p122).

¹ Cited in Ashton & Green, 1996. Education, Training and Economic Performance: the Empirical Evidence, p.64

He goes on to say that the relationship between internationalisation and globalisation may be dialectical. Internationalisation reflected- and maybe still reflects – a world order dominated by nation states. This view is also supported by Green (1997) and Teichler (2004) and further elaborated by Luijten-Lub et al. (2005) who claim that nation states continue to play a role in economic, social and cultural systems, while they are becoming more interconnected. Cooperation between nation states is expanding and national policies place a stronger emphasis on regulating or facilitating cross-border activities.

Globalisation, however, is a very different phenomenon, in which the role of nation states is blurring or even disappearing (Teichler, 2004). The de-nationalisation and integration of regulatory systems are taking place (Luijten-Lub et al., 2005) - these can reduce national sovereignty and power (Sadlak, 1998). The liberalisation of international trade and global markets in educational sector, are often viewed as the strongest move in this direction.

In sum, globalisation makes national systems become more *integrated* whereas internationalisation makes national systems become more *interconnected*. These trends continually reinforce each other.

2.2 OECD Internationalisation approaches

Unlike the above mentioned perspectives on internationalisation, the OECD views internationalisation in HE as a shift from 'student mobility to educational trade', and gives 'equal weight' to economic and cultural/educational rationales (Rizvi & Lingard, 2006). In this interpretation, the distinction between internationalisation and globalization is blurred. The OECD identifies four main approaches that reflect different rationales and policy instruments, namely *mutual understanding*, *skilled migration*, *revenue generation*, and *capacity building* (OECD, 2006).

a. The **mutual understanding** approach mainly emphasises political, cultural, academic and developmental goals. It encourages the international mobility of domestic as well as foreign students and staff through grants and academic exchange programmes and it supports academic partnerships between institutions of higher education.

b. The **skilled migration** approach encompasses the goals of the mutual understanding approach, but also involves a more active and targeted approach to recruit students and scholars and aims to attract them to work in the host country's economy or to help make its higher education and research sectors more competitive.

c. The **revenue generation** approach incorporates the goals of the two above mentioned approaches, but it emphasises commercial aspects of the mobility, namely tuition fees.

d. The **capacity building** approach encourages the use of imported higher education in the forms of franchised and collaborative programmes, etc. This approach is commonly viewed as a relatively quick way of capacity building for the emerging market economies.

Although their outcomes may vary considerably, these approaches are not mutually exclusive, one of them - mutual understanding - is the traditional approach in this field and is associated with *Internationalisation* of HE. The other three emerged in the 1990s (OECD, 2006), and are based on a strong economic drive associated with *Globalisation* concept discussed above. In summary, with these approaches OECD advocates the view that education policies related to global economic competition should be prioritised and that markets are generally considered a 'good' thing. In conceptualising these developments, the principles introduced by the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) provide a helpful framework.

As mentioned earlier, capacity building approach to internationalisation of higher education is more prevalent in developing countries which perceive cross-border education as a means to cater for unmet demand both in terms of quantity and quality as well as to assist in building the capacity of higher education (OECD, 2006). Before exploring the impacts of cross-border education on capacity development, it is important to understand what is meant by capacity development.

2.2.1 What is capacity development?

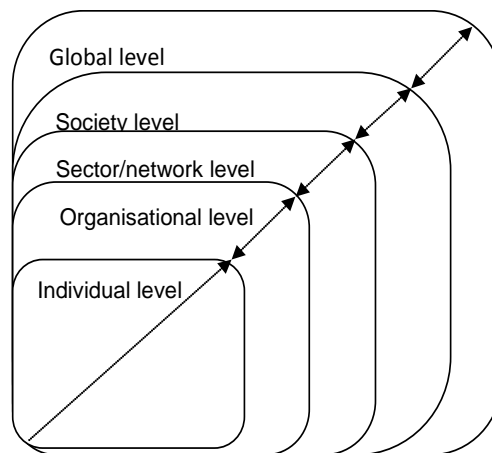
Capacity building or capacity development appeared in the late 1980s and has become the buzzword of development in the 1990s. This concept emphasised the need to build development on indigenous resources, ownership and leadership and to bring human resources development to the fore (Vincent-Lancrin, 2007). In development community the concept of capacity building signal a shift from assistance to a less dependent 'help yourself' attitude, which is often illustrated by the well-known proverb 'give someone a fish and he eats for a day; teach someone to fish, and he can feed himself for a lifetime'. However, this conventional concept may be deficient to explain the equal partnership and mutual learning in establishing the Sino-Danish Centre.

The OECD has recently defined capacity and capacity development as follows:

Capacity is the ability of people, organisations and societies as a whole to manage their affairs successfully. Capacity development is the process whereby people, organisations, and society as whole unleash, strengthen, create, adapt and maintain capacity over time (OECD, 2006, quoted in Vincent-Lancrin, 2007).

An important dimension of capacity building is found within its systemic or multi-level approach to development as shown in the figure 1 below.

Figure 1- Capacity Development: a multi-level conceptual framework



Source: OECD, adapted from Vincent-Lancrin, 2007, p.55

Vincent-Lancrin (2007) explains the multi-level capacity development as follows:

At the individual level, capacity development refers to the acquisition of knowledge and skills through formal education and/or other forms of learning.

At the organisational level, capacity development focuses on infrastructure and institution building, the availability of resources and the efficiency of processes and management to achieve effective and quality results. In education, this level signifies the improvement of domestic educational institutions (e.g. universities), through additional resources and better use of those already available.

At the sector/network level, capacity development could for example aim at improving links between vocational and academic educational institutions, between research and teaching, or improve the co-ordination of institutions across different academic fields.

The society level refers to the human frameworks (values, regulations, policies, political regimes, habits, etc.) within which development takes place. The society level can enable or constrain development.

The global level is the international context in which the country operates. This includes multilateral agreements, international laws, etc. At this level, capacity development seeks to improve a country's participation in, and utilisation of, international organisations, treaties and agreements, such as WTO GATS/TRIPS.

2.3 Cross-border higher education and the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) and (TRIPS)

2.3.1 The genesis of GATS

The World Trade Organisation (WTO), established in 1995, but originated from the 1948 General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), provides regulatory frameworks, GATS and TRIPS, to encourage global trade in more products. GATS expands the idea of free trade from just free trade in goods to free trade in services. GATS defines 'supply of a service' as to include the production, distribution, marketing, sale and delivery of a service (GATS' article 18, quoted in Spring 2009, p. 84). This has opened the door to the prospect of free trade in educational materials and services, and the marketing of higher education across border. In addition, TRIPS provides protection for the global sale of knowledge-related products, which are more than just copyrighted printed materials. The protection also covers software, data compilation, recorded media, digital online media, patents on industrial, health, and agricultural technologies, integrated circuit designs, utility models, industrial designs, trademarks, trade names, and geographical names.

2.3.2 The importance of GATS

The GATS is one of the main agreements that have come under the WTO. This is due to the economic importance of the service sector in the world economy: at present, services represent 71% of the GDP in developed countries and 19% of global trade (Verger, 2008). The aim of GATS is 'to establish a multi framework of principles and rules for trade in services with a view to the expansion of such trade under conditions of transparency and progressive

liberalisation and a means of promoting the economic growth of all trading partners and the development of developing countries (GATS preamble).

GATS regulates the liberalisation of 12 service sectors, among which are educational services. These services are not negotiated 'in a block' as a whole sector, but in various subsectors, for example educational sector has five sub-sectors a) primary education, b) secondary education, c) higher education, d) adult education, and e) other educational services, including English language training.

The architecture of GATS is more complex than that of trade agreements on goods due to the technical difficulties associated with the commercialisation of services. For example, services are usually consumed where they are produced and are both produced and consumed simultaneously (Francois and Woodton, 2000, quoted in Verger, 2008).

2.3.1 The GATS' four modes of supply

Given the above difficulties, it has been established that there are four modes of commercialising services based on supply-and-demand principle. The four modes of supply in education are:

- GATS mode 1 '**cross-border supply**': the service crosses the border, but both the provider and customer remain in their home country. This mode may include distance education, online learning. Currently there is still a relatively small market. It has great potential, particularly in disciplines like business and management that has strong international components, and through the use of new ICTs (Information and Communication Technologies), especially the internet.
- GATS mode 2 '**consumption abroad**': the customer moves to the country of the provider. This mode includes traditional student mobility, where institutions recruit students internationally to study all or part of their programmes at the home campus. Currently this mode represents the largest share of the global market for education services and is growing. The mobility of student under this mode was estimated as worth more than USD 40 billion in export income in 2004 (OECD, 2009b:43)
- GATS mode 3 '**commercial presence**': the service provider establishes facilities in another country. In its initial forms, this includes franchising part of a programme or entire degree, and also some validation arrangements. More recently this

mode involves the establishment of international campuses and twinning partnerships in a host country. Examples are the University of Nottingham's campuses in Malaysia and China, Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology campuses in Vietnam and most recently the Sino-Danish Centre for Education and Research in Beijing, China.

- GATS mode 4 '**presence of natural persons**': this mode is most obviously manifested in the growing number of professors and researchers, who temporarily travel to another country to provide educational services. This mode is used extensively by MBA providers in China and other East Asian countries.

(Knight, 2006 & 2007; Spring, 2009)

These four modes give a clear and neat categorisation of different delivery options, but in practice it is becoming increasingly apparent that providers are combining different modes to offer a novel approaches. For example, mode 1 'e-learning' is combined with mode 4 'fly-in professors', or mode 2 'study abroad' and mode 3 'study at international campus' at home.

2.3.2 Fundamental rules of WTO GATS and TRIPS

As every other WTO agreement, the objectives of the GATS rules are to remove barriers to trade. It is worth noting that there are natural and artificial barriers. Dunkley (2004) categorises five types of barriers to trade in goods and services. They are:

- 1) Natural barriers: physical distance, geographical impediments (mountainous terrain) which cause transport and communications costs
- 2) Cultural barriers: traditions, language, negative attitudes to trading or foreign contacts and divergent commercial practices
- 3) Market barriers: imperfect competition, market-sharing tactics, monopolistic and oligopolistic trading strategies
- 4) Policy barriers: tariffs, quota, licensing, subsidies to local production, import bans, wide range of non-tariff barriers such as administrative technicalities, environmental, health policies, etc.
- 5) Service regulations: constraints applied to ban or limit the entry of foreign providers (banking, education, etc.)

GATS and TRIPS aim to remove as many barriers as possible and they are governed by the three fundamental obligations of WTO members.

As of July 2008 WTO has 153 member countries and 31 observer countries, and trade agreements and rules are enforced by the membership as the whole (Spring, 2009). The overall framework of GATS contains a number of general obligations applicable to all trade in services. These are called unconditional obligations and are often referred to as the “top-down rules” because they apply regardless of whether a country has made a specific commitment to sectors or not. On the other hand, each WTO member country lists in its national schedules those services for which it wishes to provide access to foreign providers. Country can choose which service sectors (or sub-sectors) to be committed and determines the extent of commitment by specifying the level of market access and the degree of National Treatment it is prepared to guarantee. These commitments are known as “bottom-up aspects” of GATS because individual countries are making these decisions. For example, China's commitment to market access and national treatment towards mode 4-“presence of natural persons” allows foreign individual education service suppliers to enter into China to provide education services when invited or employed by Chinese schools and other education institutions and provided that the person possesses a Bachelor's degree or above; and an appropriate professional title or certificate, with two years' professional experiences. See appendix 3 for further details on concrete scheduled commitments to educational sector and its sub-sectors of China, Vietnam and Denmark, Denmark as part of the European Community's agreement.

To summarise, GATS and TRIPS are governed by the four fundamental obligations of WTO members as shown in the table below.

Table 1: Fundamental Rules and Obligations of GATS in Educational Sector

| GATS obligations/ rules | Explanation | Application |
|--|--|---|
| Unconditional obligations (Top-down rules) | 4 unconditional obligations exist in GATS: - Most Favoured Nation (MFN) - Transparency - Dispute Settlement - Monopolies | Apply to all 12 service sector (banking, telecoms, tourism, education, etc.) regardless of whether a country has a scheduled commitment or not. |
| Most Favoured | Equal and consistent treatment of all foreign trading | |

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| Nation (MFN) | partners. Under GATS, if a country allows foreign competition in a sector, equal opportunities in that sector should be given to service providers from all WTO members. This also applies to mutual exclusion treatment. For example, if China allows Nottingham University establish a campus on its soil, then China must afford all WTO members the same opportunity/treatment. Or if China chooses to exclude Denmark from providing a specific service, then all WTO members are excluded. | May apply even if the country has made no specific commitment to provide foreign access to its markets. Exemptions, for a period of 10 years are permissible. |
| Transparency | Member countries must publish all measures at all levels of government that affect services, inform the WTO about changes and respond to any request from other members concerning information about any changes. | Apply to all sectors and all countries. |
| Conditional Obligations (Bottom-up Aspects) | The conditional obligations attached to national schedule are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - National Treatment - Market Access | Apply only to commitment listed on national schedules. The degree and extent of obligation is determined by country. |
| National Treatment | Equal treatment for foreign providers and domestic providers. Once a foreign provider has been allowed to supply a service in one's country there should be no discrimination in treatment between the foreign and domestic providers. | Apply only where a country has made a specific commitment. Exemptions are allowed. |
| Market Access | The degree to which market access is granted to foreign providers in specified sectors. Market access may be subject to one or more of six types of limitations defined by GATS: limitations on the number of suppliers, on the total value of service transactions, on the total of natural persons employed, on the participation of foreign capital, other restriction measures ² . | Each country determines limitations on market access for each committed sector or determines whether to make a commitment at all. |

² countries can eliminate or maintain an unlimited number of measures. The WTO Secretariat points out eight of them: 1) taxes and levies; 2) subsidies and grants; 3) other financial restrictions; 4) requirements on nationality; 5) requirements on residency; 6) qualifications, licences, standards; 7) requirements on registration; and 8) requirements on authorisation.

Source: Adapted from OECD, 2002: 59-63; WTO, 2005:7-9; 71-72 and Knight, 2006:32.

To sum up, the WTO/GATS agreement can be regarded as a means of constituting neo-liberalism and promoting freer trade, making it potentially more powerful than any other international organisation of global governance (Robertson, 2003).

2.3.3 Factors influencing the undertaking of commitments on educational liberalisation

Many scholars comment that the liberalisation in educational sector goes more slowly than in other sectors because education, as with health or water supply, are sectors in which the state provision normally predominates and which are fundamental services for the effective implementation of a series of social rights. Free trade in education brings about direct and indirect effects, such as limitations on state regulation in various areas of the education policy (Robertson, Bonal and Dale, 2002), especially regarding the extension of the private educational sector, brain drain issue (Knight 2003), and educational quality (Knight 2002).

Member Countries' right and GATS

This section will explore how member countries undertake their commitments to GATS and argue that member countries have the right/choice to decide over their commitments to GATS in educational services. There are factors that influence the establishment of educational liberalisation. These are:

- a) Specific characteristics and needs of member countries' education systems
- b) The economic inequality between member countries in the North and the South
- c) The date of joining the WTO

a) Influence of education systems characteristics

Several authors contend that the commitment to liberalisation by member countries is influenced by the characteristics and needs of their education systems. Specifically, some authors examine the relationship between private share of education spending (Mundy and Iga, 2003) and the intensity of commitments established within the GATS framework, while other authors look at the enrolment share in private sector and at the percentage of state subsidies that the private sector receives at the higher education level (Verger, 2008). The private share of education spending may show whether countries establish commitments or not, but the

calculation may not capture the degree of intensity of commitments. For example, in Denmark, China and Vietnam the private education sector spending is relatively small but the countries are open up to foreign education provision. In contrast, the larger the presence of private sectors in higher education the lower commitment to liberalisation, such as in the U.S. This may be due to the fact that the governments believe the domestic educational supply (state and private) to be sufficiently wide and, consequently, deem it unnecessary to facilitate the entrance of foreign suppliers into their educational system by means of GATS. Another plausible explanation is that, due to its strong position, the private sector has the ability to bring pressure to bear on governments so that they do not liberalise education in the framework of GATS and therefore avoid having to compete with foreign suppliers as in the case of private universities in the US, their lobby is very active and effective when exercising pressure on Congress not to liberalise the higher education sector (Mundy and Iga 2003). The third argument is that those countries that provide more subsidies to the private sector acquire fewer commitments to GATS as in the case of the Scandinavian university sector. This relationship may indicate that those countries that subsidise heavily the private (domestic) sector are not ready to apply the same rules on subsidies to foreign suppliers.

By and large, all the above explanations indicate that member countries have the power to decide over their commitments to GATS

b) Influence of countries' economic development

Using the North and South approach, several authors contend that the degree of economic development of member countries is correlated positively with the undertaking of commitments on liberalisation in the educational sector. Verger (2008) observed that the Southern countries- developing countries and less-developed countries- are more reticent to establish commitments than are the Northern countries- developed countries. Furthermore, for many Southern countries, GATS is perceived as a suitable instrument to attract direct investment and expertise to educational systems, especially for those educational levels that are under-financed by the state. That is, GATS can be a market solution for the shortage of state educational budget. However, most of the Southern countries opt for a timid opening up because many of these countries have great difficulties in accessing global educational markets, and often they are net importers of education. They are also aware that the liberalisation in educational sector under the GATS could introduce considerable complexity and

limitations into the domestic regulations and financing of education systems. Finally, less-developed countries do not have suitable legal and technical mechanism to evaluate the quality of international or domestic educational centres. The reality shows that this is a sensitive issue because the internationalisation of higher education in many Southern countries has often led to the multiplication of 'diploma mills' or 'garage-universities' that point to the low quality of the services provided (Verger, 2008).

Additionally, under the WTO framework many less-developed countries recognise that educational sector might become a 'bargaining chip' during negotiations concerning other areas, in which they have more offensive interests (agriculture, cotton, textiles, etc.). Therefore these Southern countries may have opted for liberalisation of education in exchange for other countries liberalising sectors or areas in which they have offensive interests.

c) The date of joining the WTO

The accession process to the WTO reveals that most of the new members were, at the time of joining, externally conditioned to liberalise various sectors within their economy. This is also applicable to their services because the process of joining the WTO means that countries aspiring to full membership have to adopt a substantial package of liberalising measures. In practice, it means that when a country makes an application to join the WTO, a Working Group is set up to evaluate the candidate's trade policies and to put forward a list of sectors that require liberalisation for full membership of the WTO to be granted. The working group is made up of delegates from member countries. These delegates bring pressure to bear on the candidate country to liberalise sectors in which their countries have offensive interests. Each member of the working group can effectively veto the accession if it does not secure the commitment it wants. China and Vietnam became members of the WTO in November 2001 and January 2007 respectively, but the negotiations started several years before the entry.

In sum, member countries do have the choice to make their commitments and decide on the extent to which a specific sector is liberalised.

2.3.4 The theoretical premises of GATS and TRIPS

GATS and TRIPS transform university into a business enterprise, that sells services and knowledge because 'universities as idea-generating powerhouse are prime targets for investment, by knowledge-based industries... and their potential has been enhanced by the

protection of ideas, as intellectual property generated by research, under copyright and patent laws and global trade agreements' (Raduntz, 2005, quoted in Spring, 2009). While its supporters see GATS as an opportunity, others view it more as a threat. For some, the notion of higher education as a tradable commodity is a challenge to the traditional values of higher education and the idea of higher education as a public goods and a public responsibility.

The WTO and GATS are based on the assumption that free trade in goods and services will contribute to the economic growth of all nations. Governments sometimes also see themselves as deriving reputational benefits from the export of higher education. For instance, the international export of Australian higher education is embedded in its national goal of being a clever country, which focuses on the value-added education sector of the economy and reduces its reliance on the export of raw materials (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2009). The frequently cited example of success is the fact that education had become Australia's third largest export industry in 2007, having grown six-fold as a percentage since 1982, surpassed only by coal and iron ore (Hall & Hooper, 2008:12, quoted in McBurnie & Ziguras, 2009).

Hence, the WTO bases its free trade argument on the theory of 'comparative advantage' articulated by English economist David Ricardo in 19th century. According to the WTO official pronouncement, 'the principle of "comparative advantage" says that countries prosper first by taking advantage of their assets in order to concentrate on what they can produce best, and then by trading these products for products that other countries produce best' (WTO, 2010). This theory also underpins GATS. However, it is evident that free trade applied to higher education might financially benefit those countries which already have well-established higher education systems that can be globally marketed.

Additionally, trade often results in the exchange of culture and knowledge. A foreseeable global impact of GATS could be that free trade might change local cultures and contribute to the making of world culture because 'services, particularly those with intellectual content, carry far deeper messages than goods' (Arup, 2000, p.97 quoted in Spring, 2009, p.88). Many of us still tend to think of education as social and cultural relations, but not as segmented commercial goods (Devidal, 2009).

In summary, cross-border education carries characteristics of both internationalisation and globalisation of higher education as it includes academic exchanges as well as knowledge trading and competitiveness raising. Globalisation and free trade in education provide the

external environment of a rapidly integrating world economic order which pushes universities to adopt internationalisation ideologies, strategies and approaches.

2.3.5 Controversial views on theoretical premises of WTO/ GATS

There is a widespread view amongst the more ideological globalists that 'free trade is generally best for all people in all countries at all times and that it brings assured gains, leading to long-term economic growth and development' (Dunkley, 2004, p.18). The WTO (GATS) posits its new world order on such assertion.

GATS supporters argue that free trade is the 'optimum' trading policy compared with protection because, in theory, it supposedly leaves everyone better off economically without making anyone worse off, and, in practice, because it allegedly produces higher incomes and faster economic growth than protection. The relative virtue of the two policies - free trade or protection, depends upon which can produce the higher income, and free traders claim free trade almost always does. However, Dunkley argues that a wider range of criteria than just income or growth should be used.

According to the classical theorists, Smith and Ricardo, each country has a '*comparative advantage*' in certain exports and specialisation in those export lines will bring '*gains from trade*'. Trade is driven by 'comparative advantage'. The idea is that trade stimulates the economy.

Traditionally the basis of national advantage, whether absolute or comparative, was seen as a combination of nature, tastes and factor productivities, particularly related to production techniques. The theory of comparative advantage was further developed in the 1930s with a hypothesis by Swedish economists, Heckscher and Ohlin, that it is based on resource abundance- for example, labour-abundant countries would have comparative advantage in, and would export, labour-intensive goods. Whereas Smith and Ricardo described a country's comparative advantage as natural or God-given advantages (such as soil, climate and situation), Heckscher and Ohlin later added 'factor abundance' (land, labour, capital) and more recently, 'increasing returns' or 'economies of scale' have become a possible basis of trade (Dunkley, 2004). Markets with large capacity in Asia have this factor. Additionally, comparative advantages are not always constant but changing with regard to, for example,

machinery, structural shifts and skills improvements Skills derive 'not so much from nature but from habits, custom and education' (Smith 1776, quoted in Dunkley 2004, p.25)- that is from traditions, policies and changes therein.

The 'gains from trade' doctrine claims that nations will normally obtain higher consumption and income from trading freely than from extensive trade restrictions. A country can, by trading, consume more than it produces by specialising in products for which it has a comparative advantage, rather than trying to produce everything; then it exports the surpluses of its specialities in exchange for import, this supposedly providing greater efficiency of resource-use (p.26). However, this assumption is questionable because it does not always lead to higher income if a country, specialising in making bread, is trading with a country, which specialises in making cars. Also it is not precise to measure the gains from trade by measuring the increased import consumption.

2.3.6 Free trade, War and Peace

Free traders claim that free trade brings not only growth but also alleged virtues including variety, competition, opportunity, less parochial views and peace. Trade arguably does increase product variety; competition can be enhanced through imports and FDI. Increased trade is supposed to bring opportunities for innovation, skills enhancement and new market (Dunkley, 2004).

Trade can also bring more outward-looking attitudes to a society. Of course trade alone may not be sufficient to do so, but wider and deeper education, travel and cultural exchange are also necessary conditions for fostering broader, more tolerant, more understanding world outlooks. Many free traders also claim that the profits of commerce are more valuable than the spoils of wars, so that trade can bring world peace.

Chapter 3

Case study: cross-border higher education in China and Vietnam

This chapter will examine how and why China and Vietnam have engaged in internationalisation of higher education in the last decade by presenting selected case studies in cross-border education establishments, namely the University of Nottingham Campus in Ningbo, China, the new Sino-Danish Centre for Education and Research in Beijing, and the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology in Vietnam. These cases exemplify the provision mode 3 ‘commercial presence’ under GATS. After presenting each case, the chapter will compare and explain how this specific form of cross-border education works in country-specific context.

3.1 Higher education reform in China

Higher education in China was highly centralised for more than 50 years under the planned economy. Higher education is an area under tight control of the government. For example, the establishment of a university is approved by the Ministry of Education, the president of a university is appointed by the government, students are recruited according to government plans, and assessment of academic titles are still under strict government administration (Yutian and Ping, 2009).

However, Chinese higher education underwent a major reform since the opening up of the economy in 1978 (Ennew & Fujia, 2009). With the introduction of the ‘Decision to promote the development of the tertiary industry’ in 1992, education, which was considered to be a public good in China, was classified under the service industry. This triggered a debate on the industrialisation of education in China. Although Chinese ministerial leaders insisted that the Chinese government had denied considering industrialisation of education as a policy alternative, higher education, as part of the service industry, is developing in a market-oriented manner in several aspects, to certain extent (Yutian and Ping, 2009). This industrialisation or reform process has been characterised by four components: commercialisation, decentralisation, expansion and marketisation (Ennew & Fujia, 2009).

The *commercialisation* of higher education introduced tuition fees or co-funding model in which students and their parents share costs with the state. This was considered a significant change because between 1949 and 1988 Chinese students paid no fees, on contrary they received financial support from the government and they were also given a job after graduation.

Following pilot scheme of admitting fee-paying students in early 1990s, the principle 'user-pays' was legitimised in 1994 with some support arrangements for students from low income families (Mok, 2000). The introduction of tuition fees is a response of the higher education sector to the change of the market-oriented economic reform in China. With the new tuition fee system higher education becomes a quasi-public good, thus, beside the government, individual and society have all responsible to share part of the costs of education.

The *decentralisation* of higher education in China occurred from the mid 1990s when the control of about 90% of higher education institutions was transferred to the relevant provincial and city authorities. Previously, there were three groups of universities: group 1 was under direct management of the Ministry of Education, group 2 was under line management of other central Ministries and group 3 was under line management of provincial and city authorities. As a result of the reform, from 1995 the Ministry of Education retained control over 107 key national universities, which were research-oriented and were to become internationally competitive and received special funds from the government through a competitive mechanism (Ennew & Fujia, 2009).

The third theme in the reform process focused on *expansion* of provision due to rapid increase in demand for higher education. In 2006 the number of Chinese students in regular higher education institutions reached 17,39 million compared to less than 3 million in 1995 (China Statistical Yearbook 2007, quoted in Yutian and Ping, 2009). Many universities opened new campuses; smaller institutions were merged to create more multi-disciplinary universities and response to the growing enrolment.

This also led to the development of non-state institutions in higher education, which is the fourth strand in the reform process, namely *marketisation*. Before 1980 there was no private provision of higher education in China, but by 2007 there were 1521 non-state higher education institutions (Yutian & Ping, 2009). Guided by the central government, these non-state institutions were emerged in three types. The first type is non-government regular higher education institutions, which are invested and operated by non-government institutions or firms. In principle, they have the same status as state-owned universities. The second type is 'independent college' which is attached to a state-owned university but invested by a non-government institution or individual. This type of college uses the reputation and teaching resources of the state-owned universities, but operates in corporate mechanism. They are independent legal entities. The third type includes the transition of state-owned higher education

institutions to non-state ones. Because the transfer of state assets is much complicated and politically sensitive, the development of this type is slow. Zhejiang Wanli University is among a few successful examples of this type (Yutian & Ping, 2009). This type manifests both decentralisation and marketisation strands of the higher education reform in China.

Since China's entry into the WTO in November 2001, Chinese higher education system faced with both opportunities and challenges. In keeping with the commitments China made to the WTO/GATS, there is no restriction on foreign universities' recruitment of Chinese students to study abroad, and foreign universities are allowed to operate in China with Chinese partners. As a result, more highly qualified students and teachers were attracted to foreign countries or to foreign universities operating in China. Also more Chinese professionals were leaving the academic profession for higher-paying positions in corporations (Min, 2004).

In sum, the reform process has led to diversified higher education system in China, in which tuition fees were introduced and various types of institutions provide higher education. However, none of the four components of the reform mentioned above explicitly addresses the position of foreign universities and programmes.

3.1.1 Partnerships with foreign universities

China also realised that the country could resolve its internal limits with external interventions, like Deng Xiaoping said 'China cannot develop by closing door, sticking to the beaten track and being self-complacent. [...] it will be quite difficult for us to realise the four modernisations (industry, agriculture, national defence and science and technology), without learning from other countries and we must obtain a great deal of foreign assistance'³.

One of the key challenges throughout this process was the desire to learn from foreign, particularly Western systems and institutions, while maintaining the distinctive character of Chinese higher education. This trend was reflected in the increasing number of Chinese students and researchers going abroad to study over the past two decades. At the same time China has become one of the most important host countries for cross-border provision of higher education. Partnerships between Chinese and foreign universities were actively welcomed by the authorities as a means for the transfer of expertise in relation to both teaching and research. Noticeably, the WTO membership of China in 2001 has called for a revolution of the Chinese

³ Deng Xiaoping's talk to a press delegation from Germany on 10 October 1978, <http://web.peopledaily.com.cn/english/dengxp/vol2/text/b1240.html>, accessed in August 2010.

In 2001, the University appointed Professor Yang Fujia⁴, former president of Fudan University, one of the most prestigious universities in China, as its Chancellor in Nottingham, UK (Ennew & Fujia, 2009).

Following a series of meetings and visits to various locations in Eastern China, the University of Nottingham has agreed to enter into a partnership with Wanli Education Group to develop a campus in the famous port city of Ningbo in Zhejiang province. Ningbo is situated 100 kilometres from Hangzhou, the capital of Zhejiang province, and 150 kilometres across the water from Shanghai. In 2000 the population of Ningbo was six million. Ningbo has been a location for car component industries with early development of spark plugs and car wheels. The rapid and dynamic development of Ningbo arises from a combination of excellent infrastructure, a strong private entrepreneurship and foreign direct investment (FDI) plus the government support at all levels.

Ningbo does not want to remain only in knowledge application but in knowledge creation too. For this objective Ningbo has established four national-scale development zones, one hi-tech park and 10 provincial and municipal level development zones which cater to shipping and trade sectors. It used incubators to stimulate new technologies. The Ningbo hi-tech park is an important hi-tech zone in the region, jointly developed by the Chinese Academy of Sciences and the Ningbo Municipal Government, and it was opened in July 1999 (Sigurdson, 2005).

Among other activities, Wanli Education Group operated and managed



Zhejiang Wanli University located in Ningbo hi-tech park. Discussions started in early 2003 and

⁴ Professor Yang Fujia, whose family comes from Ningbo, is an internationally eminent physicist and a distinguished academician of the Chinese Academy of Sciences. He is also Vice-Chairman of the Chinese Science and Technology Union. Professor Yang is also the Bohr Professor of Fudan University, the first professor of physics named after Bohr in China. Niels Bohr was a Danish physicist who made fundamental contributions to understanding atomic structure and quantum mechanics, for which he received the Nobel Prize in Physics in 1922.

the agreement to set up a campus was signed in October 2003. Following further negotiations, a joint venture agreement was signed in March 2004. Shortly after the signing of the joint venture agreement, the Ministry of education of China gave official approval for the establishment of the University of Nottingham, Ningbo, China (UNNC). UNNC was the first and so far the only joint-venture university to obtain legal status as an independent campus in China. There is another Sino-British joint-venture university, but of a slightly different nature. That is Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University - a new international university, which was officially approved by the Chinese Ministry of Education and established on 22nd May, 2006 in Suzhou Industrial Park, 90km west of Shanghai. As the name indicates, the University is a partnership between Xi'an Jiaotong University in China and the University of Liverpool in the United Kingdom and is run by a team of prestigious academicians from two countries. However, this new international university is not an extended campus of Liverpool University and students do not automatically receive Liverpool University degrees.

The objectives of Nottingham University Ningbo

The overarching objectives of the University of Nottingham which guided the new campus initiative are:

- To bring together the best of UK and Chinese educational values and practices;
- To educate generations of students as truly international citizens, rooted in their own cultures but aware of, and sympathetic towards, other cultures;
- To encourage international research, not by 'staying home' but by working in a host country and concentrating upon subjects that are mutually beneficial to Nottingham researchers and Chinese society.

Using the premises of Zhejiang Wanli University, UNNC was able to recruit undergraduate students for September 2004 through a direct entry examination set by the University of Nottingham and via Chinese national university entrance examination, GaoKao. A total of 254 students joined the University in September 2004. The construction of a purpose-built campus with capacity of 4000 students began in April 2004 and completed for the second intake of students in September 2005. This campus occupies a site of approximately 144 acres and costs some RMB 600 million to build (Sigurdson, 2005). Following a soft opening in September 2005, joined by the UK then Prime Minister, Tony Blair, by video link, the campus

was formally opened by the UK's Deputy Prime Minister John Prescott and State Counsellor Madam Chen Zhili in February 2006 (Ennew & Fujia, 2009).

Student recruitment and courses

The original course offerings at UNNC in 2004 were undergraduate programmes in four broad subject areas: business and management, computer science, international studies and international communications. Today the range of subject areas is augmented by additional undergraduate degree courses on English studies, architectural environment engineering, civil engineering, environment engineering, electrical and electronic engineering. In 2005 UNNC was given approval to offer masters programmes. PhD programme is in the pipeline. UNNC uses English as medium of teaching and learning. It offers UK accredited degrees from the University of Nottingham. These degrees are to be equivalent in terms of quality and standards to those offered at the University of Nottingham in the UK. Students receive the same degree certificates as those awarded in the UK. Teaching materials are imported from Nottingham, UK and staff are seconded from Nottingham, UK or appointed in open international competition.

UNNC is also active in research within China and internationally. Significant collaborations and investment are in areas in which the University of Nottingham, UK has specific strengths and which are relevant to the economic and social development of China. Currently the university has a series of research institutes, such

Centre for Global Finance, Centre for Research in Applied Linguistics, Institute for Comparative Cultural Studies, Institute of Asia Pacific Studies, International Centre for Behavioural Business Research, International Finance Research Centre, Learning Science Research Centre, the Ko Lee Institute of Sustainable Development, the Leverhulme Centre for Research on Globalisation and Economic Policy.

Since its first intake in 2004, the number of students has grown rapidly. It currently has over 4300 undergraduate and postgraduate students⁵, which is over its target of 4000 students. Recruitment has extended to 27 different provinces in China (not only in Zhejiang province) and 180 international students. The university aims at having 25% of the student population to be international in the long term. Moreover, students have opportunity to study at

⁵ UNNC website <http://www.nottingham.edu.cn/en/about/index.aspx> accessed in September 2010

the University of Nottingham UK or to go on exchange programmes at other top universities around the world.

Table 2: University of Nottingham Ningbo Growth in Total Student Numbers

| Academic year | Total student numbers | Undergraduate | Postgraduate |
|---------------|-----------------------|---------------|--------------|
| 2004-2005 | 254 | 254 | 0 |
| 2005-2006 | 935 | 716 | 119 |
| 2006-2007 | 1851 | 1601 | 250 |
| 2007-2008 | 2773 | 2513 | 260 |
| 2008-2009 | 3666 | 3384 | 282 |
| 2009-2010 | 4300 | N.A | N.A |

Source: Ennew and Fujia, 2009, p.32 and UNNC website. (N.A: not available)

The partnership between the University of Nottingham and Wanli Education Group proved to work effectively because considerable emphasis was placed on ensuring that each partner contributed in the areas in which it has specific strengths. While Nottingham retained responsibility for all academic matters to ensure strict equivalence in relation to curriculum, pedagogy, quality and standards, Wanli Education Group was able to draw on its expertise in relation to education sector in China to provide the appropriate logistical and financial support for the campus. Over the first 6 years of operation, UNNC has provided education for 13.779 students.

3.3 Sino-Danish Centre for Education and Research in China

After two-year preparation, on 12 April 2010 Denmark and China signed the important agreement on the establishment of the Sino- Danish Centre for Education and Research (SDC). The centre is the collaboration between a consortium of all eight Danish universities and one of China's most prestigious universities, the Graduate University of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (GUCAS).

A Danish-designed Centre will be built on the new campus of GUCAS, 60 kilometres north of Beijing at Lake Yanqihu, known as a holiday resort area close to the Great Wall. The building is scheduled to complete in March 2013. It is expected to accommodate 300 master's

and 75 PhD students as well as 100 researchers, with half from each country. It is estimated that it will cost around EUR13 million a year to run the Centre, which will be financed jointly by GUCAS, Danish universities and the Danish state. The Centre plans to have its first intake in 2011 on the premises of GUCAS. The main specialist fields for research and education are:

- Biotechnology, health and biomedicine
- Nanoscience and nanotechnology
- Renewable energy, climatic and environmental science
- Information and communication technology
- Agricultural and food technology
- Management studies and social science
- Design and architecture

The Danish Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation has set the following objectives for its first and only Danish university campus overseas:

- Create greater visibility for Danish research and education in China
- Intensify Danish-Chinese collaboration in the field of research
- Improve the facilities for Danish students who wish to study in China
- Increase the recruitment of talented Chinese researchers and students to
Denmark (DMSTI, 2009).

The Universities Denmark (consortium of all eight Danish universities) articulated their objectives more explicitly:

- Branding of Denmark's as a knowledge-based economy in China
- Expansion of knowledge of China among Danish youth
- Formation of intense R&D collaboration between Chinese and Danish researchers and companies
- Screening and recruitment of talent and high-skilled labour to Denmark and Danish companies in China
- Provision of knowledge and training services to staff of Danish companies in China

(Danske Universiteter, 2009)

It is obvious that the priorities of Danish government and Danish Universities are different from those of Nottingham University. First, Sino-Danish Centre is not aiming at large

recruitment for tuition fees for the time being. Second, it focuses much on developing competences for Danish students, teachers and company staff. Third, it wants to enhance Denmark's competitiveness through R&D and partnership between universities and enterprises. Fourth it aims at attracting highly skilled professionals to the Danish limited workforce. In short, Danish agenda is to obtain 'minds and market' in China.

Choosing partner and political support for the Sino- Danish Centre

In May 2008, a fact-finding delegation from the Danish Ministry of Science and Universities Denmark visited GUCAS and discussed prospects for an overall collaboration. In September 2008, a Danish delegation led by Professor Ole Fejerskov visited GUCAS again. After the meetings and visits to GUCAS' four campuses in Beijing, the delegation declared that GUCAS would be recommended to the Danish Ministry of Science as the first choice among the potential Chinese partners to host a Danish University Centre in Beijing. GUCAS was established in 1978 by CAS (Chinese Academy of Sciences) to consolidate its graduate education throughout the academy. CAS was set up in 1949 mirroring the Soviet research system which separated research function from teaching and reduced research capacity of universities (Min, 2004). The major research function of the country was carried out by CAS and its hundreds of research institutes throughout the country. At present, with an annual enrolment of more than 10,000 graduate students, currently GUCAS has over 30,000 graduate students among whom 51% are PhD students.

In October 2008 the then Danish Prime Minister, Anders Fogh Rasmussen, and his Chinese counterpart, Premier of the State Council, Wen Jiabao, witnessed the signing of the memorandum of understanding on establishing the Sino-Danish Centre for Education and Research between GUCAS and the Danish Ministry of Science and the consortium of eight Danish universities.

On 12 April 2010, the official joint venture agreement on research and education collaboration was signed by the president of GUCAS, Dr. Bai Chulin, and Professor Jens Oddershede, chairman of the Danish Rectors' Conference cum Vice Chancellor, University of Southern Denmark on behalf of the eight Danish universities. The special donation agreement on the building of the Danish Industrial Foundation House was also signed on the same day by the Danish Minister of Science, Charlotte Sahl-Madsen and Dr. Bai Chulin. The ceremony took

place at the Great Hall of the People in the presence of the Danish Prime Minister, Lars Løkke Rasmussen and the Chinese Premier, Wen Jiabao (Danish Embassy in China, 2010⁶).

Trust building, equal partnership and long term commitment

Long term commitment to the Centre is deemed to be essential and vital to build trust with both governmental and institutional partners. The purpose-built Danish Industry Foundation House will occupy a site of 10 000 square metres with a donation of EUR 11 million (DKK 80 million) from the Foundation. The partners signal their long term commitments through investment in physical infrastructure and academic excellence. The Danish partner invests in the construction of the building, which shall have an architectural character representing Danish culture and tradition, and among other facilities the building shall contain a showroom for Danish products (DMSTI, 2010). The Chinese partner agrees to allot the land space of 10 000 square metres and give the Centre the right to use it in 40 years without paying rent. Danish universities commit to send senior researchers and lecturers to outstation in China for a period of 2-3 years, guest scientific staff to spend a semester, PhD advisors and teachers of specialised courses to work with the Centre.

In addition to this historic establishment, there have been concerted efforts from the various Danish governmental agencies to make a robust start of the Centre. Noticeably, the DANIDA Fellowship Scheme under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs offers 10 fellowships per year to Chinese scientists in the same subject fields as the Centre for post-doctoral researchers for 10 month stay in Denmark. The Danish Research Council under the Ministry of Science creates a special industrial PhD scheme with DKK 13 million as seed money in 2009 alone for Chinese top graduates to conduct their research in Danish companies which have branches in both Denmark and China. The PhD students are expected to spend half of their time working in the company and the other half at a Danish university. It is interesting to note that the candidates must have a master's degree from a Chinese university. This reflects the strong recognition of Chinese academic qualifications and paves the way for the student recruitment of the Sino-Danish Centre at GUCAS in the coming years as well as builds a closer links between university and business.

6

<http://www.ambbeijing.um.dk/en/menu/TheEmbassy/News/DenmarkAndChinaSignAgreementsOnUniversityCentreInChina.htm?printmode=True>

In summary, although the University of Nottingham Ningbo and the Sino-Danish Centre share common feature under GATS mode 3- 'foreign campus' in China in partnership with Chinese partner institution, these two educational establishments present many differences in philosophy and objectives of cooperation, subject areas, levels of study, objectives, number of partner institutions, targeted number of students, curriculum design, and revenue targets.

3.4 Higher Education in Vietnam

Similar to China, socio-economic context of Vietnam has changed in the past decades, especially from 1986 when the policy reform, known as Doi moi (Renovation) was introduced. Doi moi consists of three inter-related fundamental moves: 1) shifting from a centralised planned economy to a multi-sector economy operating under a market mechanism with state management and a socialist orientation; 2) democratising social life and building a legal state of the people, by the people, and for the people; 3) implementing an 'open-door' policy and promoting relations between Vietnam and all other countries in the world (Nguyen, T.C et al., 2000:ix). The 'Doi moi' policy has brought about major changes in every aspect of Vietnamese society, including education sector. The high economic growth, greater openness and a booming young population created increasing demand for higher education to prepare people for jobs in new sectors, especially when Vietnam integrates in the international market and becomes one of the largest recipients of foreign direct investment (World Bank, 2005).

3.5 The Entry of RMIT in Vietnam

Vietnam's leaders also saw that they would face social unrest from a growing middle class with increasing demand for higher education; therefore they reviewed the experience of other countries in the Southeast Asian region and decided to open up the education sector to foreign providers. Universities in Australia by far the largest foreign higher education providers to Vietnam, at first concentrating on attracting fee-paying and scholarship holding Vietnamese students to Australia, and then later became interested in providing university programmes in Vietnam through twining partnerships with local institutions. A breakthrough in this endeavour was the establishment of The Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT) campus in Ho Chi Minh city in January 2001 as the first and only fully foreign-owned university in Vietnam

(RMIT Vietnam). This event happened even before Vietnam became a member of the WTO in January 2007.

RMIT's international strategy classified Vietnam as a high-priority country with long-term growth prospects and immediate opportunities for development assistance and community service. There is a large Australian Vietnamese community in Melbourne. By the time feasibility studies were under way for RMIT Vietnam, in 1999, RMIT had 250 fee-paying and scholarship students from Vietnam studying in Melbourne and more than 1,100 Vietnam-born Australian residents (Wilmoth, 2004). Therefore RMIT has already had the plan to internationalise its programmes. After setting up successful twinning programmes with Hanoi National University and large training programme with Ford Motor Company, RMIT recognised a willingness of many Vietnamese families to assemble private resources for social advancement through education. RMIT submitted a proposal to the government of Vietnam that addressed the patterns of demand and particular needs of Vietnam by matching them with the technological and vocational strengths of RMIT. The direction of the government's invitation was towards full foreign ownership and independent international curricula so that a new university, with a technical and vocational emphasis, might quickly come into being as a model and training ground to assist the development of local capacity.

The objectives of the RMIT Vietnam are to

- provide professional and vocational education and training programmes;
- provide outcome-related research and consultancy services;
- contribute to economic, social, and environmentally sustainable development; and
- provide appropriate levels of return on investment.

The viability of RMIT Vietnam rests on three criteria: meeting demands in a number of discrete areas, addressing national needs in Vietnam, and mobilising RMIT capability in its areas of strength.

After a feasibility study, in 1998, a provisional license to operate a foreign owned university in Ho Chi Minh city was granted. After further work, in April 2000, an investment license was issued by the Ministry of Planning and Investment to RMIT for a period of 50 years. RMIT Vietnam operates within the Law on Foreign Investment in Vietnam and its regulations to deliver undergraduate, postgraduate, training and research programmes. It has an independent ability to set curricula, collect fees, and manage its academic and other programmes. The

University has a governing board and RMIT in Australia is the crediting body for the institution and its academic programmes. All degrees are awarded by RMIT University in Australia and all teaching and learning is in English. More than 90% of academic staff are foreigners and internationally qualified with masters and doctoral degrees. Many also have extensive industry relevant experience. All teaching staff are located in Vietnam and come from a wide range of countries including Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Singapore, Thailand, the United Kingdom and the United States.

First intake commenced in Ho Chi Minh city in 2001. Hanoi campus was open in 2004. New purpose-built university campus began operation in Saigon South in 2005. In 2007, second building opened for Hanoi campus to deal with rapid growth in student enrolment. The total student population on both campuses now exceeds 5,000, having grown rapidly from small numbers in 2001 (RMIT, 2010b⁷). Undergraduate courses are offered in business, communications, design, information technology, English. Postgraduate courses are in systems engineering, education management, information technology and MBA. Besides the university offers various industry training and customised short courses through enterprises. Research and development is also seen as a high priority of RMIT and the emphasis is on meeting the needs for the practical development of product and services such as sustainable water and sanitation, software engineering, and appropriate product design.

In summary, RMIT Vietnam case provides another interesting example of how internationalisation of higher education works in country-specific context. RMIT Vietnam focuses vocational and technological programmes and train mainly undergraduates for the workforce in Vietnam's current development stage, whereas Sino-Danish Centre offers postgraduate courses only and focuses more on research in cutting-edge areas. RMIT Vietnam is a fully foreign-owned university whereas both UNNC and Sino-Danish Centre are joint-ventures. This is also indicates the level of liberalisation in education sectors in the two countries.

The table below summarises key features of the three cases:

⁷ http://www.rmit.edu.vn/432_ENG_HTML.htm accessed in September 2010

Table 3: Key features of RMIT Vietnam, Nottingham University Ningbo and Sino-Danish Centre

| Key features | RMIT Vietnam | University of Nottingham | Sino-Danish Centre for Education and Research |
|----------------------------------|---|---|---|
| Country and city | Ho Chi Minh city, Southern Vietnam Hanoi, North Vietnam | Ningbo, Southern China | Beijing, Northern China |
| Year of establishment | 2001 | 2004 | 2010 |
| Legal status | 100% foreign owned independent university | Independent campus, joint-venture | A Centre affiliated to GUCAS, joint-venture |
| Constituencies of partnership | RMIT Melbourne, Australia | University of Nottingham, UK and Zhejiang Wanli Education Group | GUCAS, China and all 8 Danish Universities |
| Initial investment | USD 32.1 million | RMB 600 million (USD 90 million) | EUR 24 million (USD 33,6 million) |
| Main Investors | International Finance Cooperation, World Bank Group (USD 7,5 million), Asia Development Bank (USD 7,5 million) and RMIT Australia ⁸ | Wanli Education Group and Ningbo municipality | Danish Industrial Foundation for the building, Danish Ministry of Science, 8 Danish Universities and GUCAS for operation |
| Funding and sustainability | Tuition fees | Tuition fees | Mainly sponsored by Danish universities and governments, research revenue and GUCAS. Partly tuition fees |
| Language of teaching | English | English | English |
| Level of study | Mainly undergraduate, Some masters courses | Mainly undergraduate, Some masters courses, 50 PhD students | Only masters and PhD |
| Other training and projects | Community development projects | 5Research projects with enterprises | Research projects |
| Degrees awarded | The same degree as in RMIT Australia | The same degree as in Nottingham University | Double degree: Chinese degrees and/or specific |

⁸ Van Lutsenburg Maas, 2001 (Please see the reference list at the end of this thesis)

| | | | |
|---------------------------|---|--|--|
| | | UK | Danish University degree depending on courses and subjects. |
| Tuition fee | USD 7000/ year (UG) USD 18000/MBA USD 1600 /Engineering masters course ⁹ | RMB 60 000/year (UG) (USD 9000) RMB 80 000/year (masters) (USD 12000) ¹⁰ | Not yet published |
| Student population (2010) | Over 5000 | 5000 | Not yet up and running |
| Target student population | 13 000 in both campuses after 12 years of operation | 4000 after 4 years of operation. Will expand to 8000 in the next few years. | Expected 300 masters and 75 PhD students, with half comes from each country. Expect international students in the future, but not the main goal. |
| Curriculum | By RMIT | By Nottingham University | Jointly designed by Danish and Chinese GUCAS academics |
| License | Granted by Ministry of Planning and Investment as an FDI project | Granted by Ministry of Education | Granted by Ministry of Education |
| Type of organisation | Private | Private | Special public-private partnership |
| Quality Assurance | By RMIT Melbourne | By Nottingham University UK | Information not yet available |

⁹ Tuition fees for undergraduate programmes http://www.rmit.edu.vn/357_ENG_HTML.htm and for postgraduate programmes http://www.rmit.edu.vn/256_ENG_HTML.htm . Last access in January 2011 and fees were converted into USD by the author based on current exchange rate between Vietnamese currency and USD.

¹⁰ Tuition fees for programmes at Nottingham University, Ningbo <http://www.nottingham.edu.cn/en/Admissions/MoneyMatters/Intl.aspx> accessed September 2010

In summary, GATS mode 3 'commercial presence' (foreign campus) opens up different types of partnerships and patterns of operation even within one country, like in the case of Nottingham University and Sino-Danish Centre in China. Whereas Nottingham and RMIT are more revenue-driven and set targets for their student recruitment, Sino-Danish Centre seems to have modest and fixed number of students and gears its efforts towards top-research projects with enterprises.

There are many different characteristics between the three universities; the reasons for these differences are rooted in the contextual conditions of each location, especially the rationales for internationalisation of each partner. There are also common features between three cases, which lie in the impacts of this particular form of cross-border education- foreign university campuses, on capacity development of domestic higher education systems in China and Vietnam. The next chapter will analyse these differences and similarities in more depth.

Chapter 4

Cross-border Education in China and Vietnam: Case Analysis and Comparison

This chapter will analyse each of the cases to explain how different models of cross-border educational partnerships work in practice. The chapter will highlight the key parameters for comparison between cases in China and Vietnam and also between two cases within China. These comparisons will also shed light on how WTO/GATS agreement was translated into operational level. In other words, this implementation of GATS in specific case reflects the extent to which national higher education policies are influenced by GATS.

Through a set of various stories and real-life anecdotes the chapter will also argue that cross-border education can make positive impacts on capacity building for both home and host countries. However, the capacity and the readiness of the Chinese and Vietnamese higher education systems to transform themselves from importers of education to equal partners in education partnerships are at different levels.

4.1 Parameter 1: The Model of Partnership

As mentioned in previous chapter, RMIT, University of Nottingham and Universities Denmark established different models of partnership with the host countries. The table below

Table 4: Compare educational partnership models and strategies in three cases

| <i>Partnership Models</i> | <i>Vietnam</i> | <i>China</i> |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|
| Joint venture | | Sino- Danish Centre for Education and Research, Beijing |
| Outsourcing- Greenfield Investment | RMIT International Vietnam 100% foreign owned | University of Nottingham, Ningbo Independent status, equity owned by local partner. |

In the SDC case, both partners have equal investment and decision making power, Danish partner pays for the construction of the house at start-up phase, Chinese partner gives the land and maintains the building. All programme curricula are jointly designed Danish and Chinese

academics and accredited by national accreditation agencies in both countries according to national regulations. Professor Holm-Nielsen affirmed:

“...the 50/50 is about who owns who has established the centre, who is directing the centre. 50/50 of the money and power. It is 100% equal. We share it 1 to 1.

The Danish House... I believe the Chinese Government and GUCAS will maintain the building, so in a sense it is also 50/50. The building belongs to China when is built and they maintain it.”

(Professor Lauritz Holm-Nielsen, Rector of Aarhus University, Chair of University Partnership on SDC¹¹)

On contrary, the Australian partner in the RMIT Vietnam sees themselves as a Greenfield direct foreign investment project, which was the single largest FDI project of any kind that year with value of over USD 30 million and regulated by the Ministry of Planning and Investment, not the Ministry of Education¹².

While the SDC's education programmes are jointly designed and accredited by both Danish and Chinese national accreditation agencies, RMIT Vietnam is a 100% foreign-owned establishment with three full rights:

- RMIT designs all curricula
- RMIT is free to set tuition fees
- RMIT Australia is responsible for quality assurance with the same standards at home.

In terms of finance to set up the campuses, RMIT had its own investment and received loans of USD15 million from the International Finance Corporation, part of the World Bank Group and the Asian Development Bank.

Regarding legislation, in response to the proposal from the Ministry of Planning and Investment, the government of Vietnam promulgated Decree 06 in 2000 governing wholly foreign-owned, for profit educational and medical institutions, and RMIT Vietnam was the very first company licensed under this decree (van Lutsenburg Maas, 2001). In fact, RMIT Vietnam was granted the license to set up campus in Ho Chi Minh city long before Vietnam officially became a member of WTO, however, the process of negotiation with individual existing WTO members has began. The above-mentioned Decree 06 and RMIT Vietnam are evidence of

¹¹ Personal interview at the Information meeting on 23 November 2010 in Copenhagen

¹² Information from the interview with Professor David Wilmoth in October 2010.

market opening to foreign providers and confirmed the Vietnamese government's position which views education as a service. Undoubtedly, this gave Vietnam a step closer to its accession to the WTO and also affected its higher education policies, accepting new type of institutions and competition, relinquishing protection of its universities.

The University of Nottingham's local partner Wanli Education Group paid for the building and Nottingham UK contributed with academic inputs and the Nottingham University Ningbo has independent status and responsible for academic content and quality assurance¹³. However, Nottingham University Ningbo does not really have full control over the recruitment of student. In practice, the university receives an approval on recruitment from the Chinese Ministry of Education. For example, in 2010 the university was allowed to recruit 1200 Chinese students from 27 specific provinces.¹⁴ The tuition fee of 60.000 RMB for 2010 was also approved by Zhejiang Provincial Prices Control Bureau. See appendix 6 for full details.

To sum up, the three models of partnership are different in terms of finance investment, decision making power on all matters from curriculum, tuition fee, recruitment and quality assurance. Two cases of RMIT Vietnam and Nottingham Ningbo seems to look similar, however, they are different in practice, RMIT has more autonomy while the latter seems to be under close control from the host country. However, autonomy may have a cost as well. The next section will gives a specific example of how a private university operates offshore.

4.2 Parameter 2: Student Recruitment: Market Size and Affordability of Customers

Although Danish students will receive government funds to study in SDC campus in China, Danish universities are afraid that they may not be able to recruit sufficient number of Danish students to meet their targets because the outbound mobility of Danish students is low (DMoE, 2010:38).

The Nottingham University Ningbo started with 254 students in 2004 and after six years it has about 5000, whereas RMIT started with 30 students in 2001 and after 9 years of operation it has just over 5000 students in its 2 campuses. Ningbo and its neighbouring region are one of the most advanced regions in China. Despite the control quota on recruitment from the

¹³ Information from the interview with Professor Nick Miles in October 2010

¹⁴ <http://www.nottingham.edu.cn/en/admissions/undergraduateadmissionsinformation/2010ugentryrequirementsandtheadmissionsprocess.aspx>
accessed in January 2011.

government, Nottingham Ningbo's student number has been steadily increased. Perhaps the better incomes of the population and the one-child policy have made parents more willing to invest in their's child education. RMIT Vietnam operated in a different context.

RMIT Vietnam: a challenging start-up

Until the early 2000s, the enrolment in higher education in Vietnam was mainly limited to children from the families of privileged political elites and urban-based state officials. As higher education also gives social status, therefore many elite parents were afraid of "losing face" if their children failed the very competitive entrance examinations to Vietnamese universities, which let only 13% of school leavers to get places at HE institutions, affluent families in urban areas often looked to send children overseas at the end of the first year or second year at high school to avoid taking Vietnamese university entrance exams, and take preparatory foundation year(s) overseas prior to entering universities there.

RMIT Vietnam was new, had limited choice of subjects and programmes on offer, also needed more time to build the public trust in quality. While many universities from other countries such as the Canada, the US, the UK, Germany, France, Singapore, New Zealand and even Australia run aggressive promotion campaigns to recruit students from Vietnam. The young RMIT Vietnam University had to cope with fierce competition.

Furthermore, the level of English of Vietnamese school leavers then was much lower than today due to poor quality of English language training ten years ago. As a result almost all students had to take at least 1 year English language and preparation course before starting their bachelor or masters programmes. This made their study time longer than their friends studying in Vietnamese universities and also the costs of study higher.

Due to low affordability of Vietnamese families and the concept of paying for education was still new to many people in this socialist country, RMIT Vietnam had to find various ways of financing their potential students. Back in 2002, the concept of bank loan for education was very new to both the local banking sector and Vietnamese people, who traditionally prefer to save rather than taking a loan.

In 2002 as a new institution, RMIT Vietnam faced with challenging situation, where it needed to fund start-up losses and ensure long term cash flow, but Vietnamese students and families were very reluctant to take loans. Therefore, in 2003 RMIT Vietnam formed a strategic alliance with a Vietnamese-Australian joint venture insurance company - Bao Minh CMG, to

introduce a special insurance product called “Priority Enrolment Programme”. This programme aims to help Vietnamese families save for their children’s education through an Education Savings Life Insurance Policy and allows those students who meet the academic and English requirements to gain priority enrolment status for entry into RMIT Vietnam.

In February 2006, RMIT Vietnam president, Mr Michael Mann presented the case of insurance-based student financing scheme as an innovative model at the International Investment Forum for Private Higher Education organised in Washington DC by the International Finance Corporation. The key features of this scheme are that the insurance company sells policies with a time frame for saving between 5 to 15 years, which give automatic right of nominated party to enter RMIT Vietnam if they meet educational requirements in force at time of entry. See appendix 4 for sample of a certificate of priority enrolment and other marketing materials. The customers can also transfer to sibling or receive refund with interest at any time. However, this was the highest cost personal saving insurance in Vietnam, with minimum USD 15000 required per insurance policy.

The positive results for the strategic alliance were the increasing sales, with about 500 policies sold per month and total of over 8000 policies sold in 3 years (see figure 5 and 6 below), and the face value was in excess of USD 80 million. RMIT vetted all the marketing materials and had free advertising through 5000 sale persons and direct marketing to potential customers.

Figure 5:
**Total Number of Priority Enrolment
Certificates issued in each year**

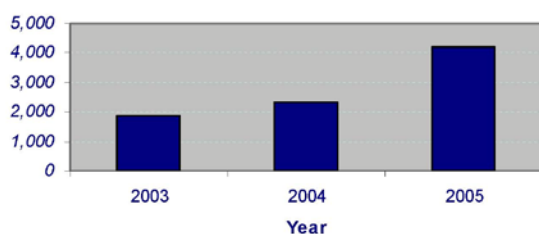
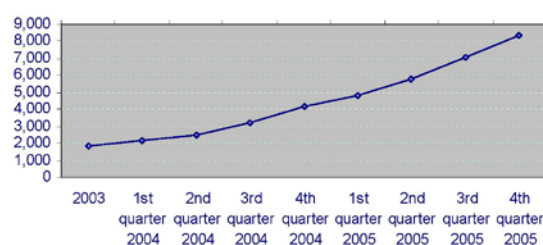


Figure 6:
**Total Number of Priority Enrolment
Certificates 2003-2005**



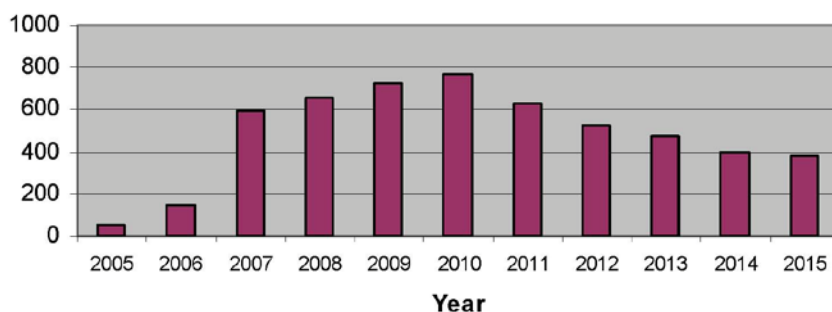
Source: Mann, 2006

Operating in a country where education is highly regarded and parents prefer to save up for future education of children, schooling quality is improved and household income is increasing, RMIT has a reason to be optimistic about the future enrolment and in its development plan 1000 places per year for this insurance-based scheme are designated for the period between 2005

and 2025. See figure 7 below for the take-up projection. In addition, the insurance company also announced in July 2006 to offer scholarships in 2007 with a total value of USD 60000.

Figure 7:

Number of Issued Priority Enrolment Certificates Per Year
at 31 December 2005



Source: Mann, 2006

However, it was too early to determine the take-up rate as it was difficult to predict future circumstances of all parties involved. There were risks in this alliance, notably in January 2007, the partner - Vietnamese-Australian insurance company - was acquired by a Japanese insurer. Although the rights and interests of the existing customers were maintained after the acquisition, the customer trust was in turmoil.

Partnerships with bankers to offer student loans

A few years later, when the World Bank granted the government of Vietnam 2 loan package to reform the higher education system. A part of these 2 projects was to promote privatisation and to introduce user fees. In other words, introduce neo-liberal idea that views education as private good and encourages individuals to invest in their own education. A state loan scheme emerged from that idea. Therefore local banks introduced new financial services and enter academic world. The university president, Mr Michael Mann, who used to be the Australian Ambassador to Vietnam and Laos for over 4 years before becoming the leader of RMIT, good contact with businesses. Therefore he was actively approached banks to set up loan schemes for students.

For example, in August 2006 RMIT Vietnam and the Asia Commercial Bank (ACB) signed an agreement to provide financial loans with preferential interest rates to students who wish to study at RMIT Vietnam. The terms and conditions include a 30% repayment of the loan amount during the student's tenure at the University and the remainder can be repaid after graduation (RMIT Vietnam 13, 2006).

Four months later, in December 2006, RMIT Vietnam signed another agreement with the Vietnam Technological and Commercial Joint Stock Bank (Techcombank) that provides student loans to cover tuition fees. Applicants can opt for a secured 72-month loan of up to 80% of the fees, or an unsecured loan for a maximum of 70% of course fees over a 48-month repayment schedule. RMIT President Michael Mann said "RMIT Vietnam graduates' higher than normal salaries helped them to repay loans" (RMIT Vietnam 15, 2006). (See appendix 5 for further details)

It is noteworthy that this was seen as a completely new phenomenon in Vietnam because for the first time Vietnamese people observed a university is eager to recruit students and goes out of its way to mobilise financial sources for students to undertake an education. Students and parents were invited to open days, information sessions where they could see premises of a university and were given counselling to plan their future study path. This was not the practice at any Vietnamese universities at that time. Unlike RMIT Vietnam, the local universities were closed-door places without websites and adequate information on programme contents, subject options for students. The Vietnamese universities were heavily subsidised by the government, they didn't need to make any effort to recruit students because each university has a quota from the Ministry of Education and Training of how many students they are allowed to recruit each year and entrance exams were centrally managed by the Ministry as well. As mentioned above, only small portion of school leavers who took the university entrance examinations get a place at university. The demand was obviously far bigger than supply. Therefore the local universities saw no needs and had no motivations to promote themselves and increase student recruitment. However, RMIT presented an example of a private university operating in market mechanism, which gave both inspiration and concerns to the local universities.

In sum, SDC and Nottingham Ningbo may not have the same challenges as RMIT since they operate in major cities and regions in China - a more affluent market than Vietnam. RMIT

Vietnam's recruitment tells another story about entrepreneurial university which operates per market rules as many providers of other services. It had a business manager, who was the president of the university, not academic professor in conventional practice. This new practice spilled over into the local higher education sector.

4.3 Parameter 3: Rationales for Internationalisation of Higher Education

Rationale 1: Capacity building

While the importance of education goes well beyond economic values, education is widely considered as a significant engine of economic growth. Education in general and the higher education sector in particular has a unique privilege as a built-in feature of any capacity building strategy because education, similar to health or trade, is cross-sectional in the sense that it impacts on all sectors in the economy (Vincent-Lancrin, 2007). Capacity development relies on the strengthening of individual capacity through training and learning, in order to raise domestic stock of human capital in a specific field.

Capacity building at individual level

Individuals get important private returns from higher education. Generally, there is a correlation between higher educational attainment and higher wage. This individual returns are typically much higher in developing countries than in developed countries because there is smaller proportion of populations obtain higher education compared to more advanced countries. For example, there is less than 20% of a age cohort enter higher education in China and less than 15% in Vietnam, whereas more than 40% in Western European countries like Germany, Britain, Denmark (OECD, 2006). For the society at large, higher educational attainment of the population raises the overall quantity of human capital and productivity. However, it is worth noting that it is more difficult for developing countries to raise tertiary education attainment in the short term because many countries have just managed to ensure provision of primary and secondary education. Many developing countries view cross-border education as a means to achieve three main goals in capacity development strategy: to increase the quantity, the quality, and the variety and relevance of domestic higher education provision.

Moreover, a rise in human capital could have a significant effect on economic growth and determine the growth rate of a country. This implies that developing countries must find

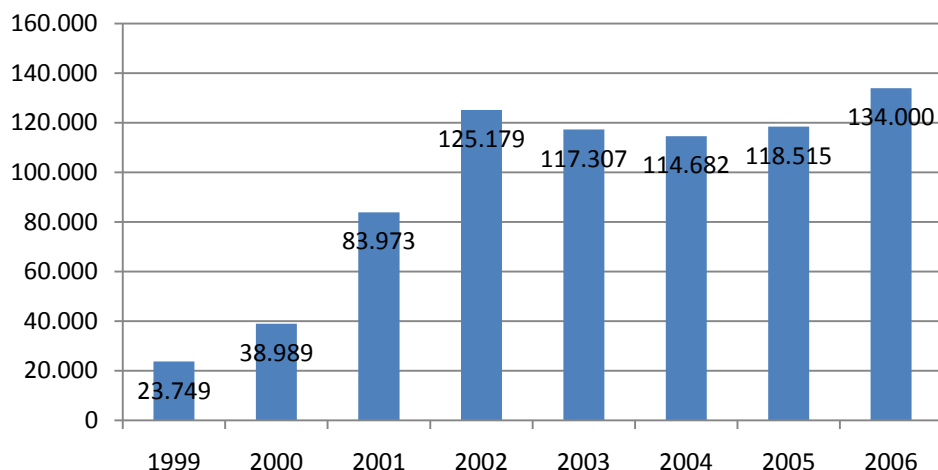
ways to catch up in terms of human capital if they want to narrow the gap between them and the developed countries. The underlying mechanism is that economic growth is driven by innovation and investment in research and development (R&D) generating ideas for new goods. For this to happen a country needs a population with different levels of education, but higher education attainment is particularly important. Furthermore, education can have positive effect on social capital as well because education contributes to better health, higher life expectancy, lower crime, better parenting, better governance, enhanced trust, etc. (World Bank, 2003).

Capacity Building at organisational level: Improve the quality of higher education

Many commentators believe that higher education in developing countries requires significant improvement of quality. For instance they may not have a sufficiently large number of researchers, they lack sufficient financial resources to attract and retain the best academics, and they lack resources to offer competitive teaching and research facilities, compared to developed countries they are less engaged in international network of knowledge. Cross-border education may offer a partial answer, through mobility of students and teachers, but also through mode 3 in GATS, which is the presence of foreign programmes and campuses in country.

Enhancing quality of higher education requires a critical mass of high quality academics. When this capacity is not available domestically, quality cross-border education can help reach the goal of improving quality. China is an example of a country using student and academic mobility (GATS mode 3- 'consumption abroad') to improve the quality of its higher education. Between 1978 and 2005 total number of Chinese students and scholars studying abroad was about 1 million. The peak time was from 1999 to 2006 as shown in the figure 8 below.

Figure 8: Number of Chinese students studying abroad



Source: China Statistical Yearbook 2007, adapted from Yutian and Ping (2009), p. 37.

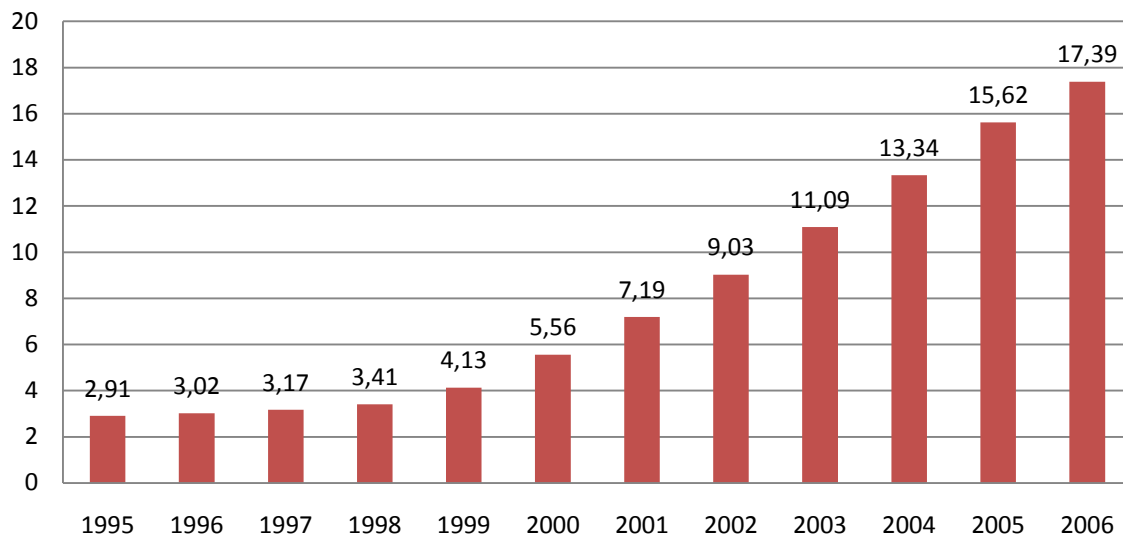
The table shows a sharp increase in 2001 and 2002 in terms of the import of educational services, but the figure remains relatively stable in the recent years. This is most probably influenced by the expansion of higher education sector domestically, including foreign programmes.

Vietnam is a much smaller country than China, but in 2008, there were over 60,000 Vietnamese students studying abroad and the government has since 1999 launched a national scholarship scheme to send Vietnamese citizens to study at postgraduate level overseas (Foreign Press Centre, 2008). With a population of over 86 million and more than 60% under the age of 35 (source: General Department of Statistics of Vietnam, 2009) the demand for educational services is not small.

Rationale 2: Quantity - Increasing access to higher education

Many developing countries face a problem of increasing demand for higher education and insufficient domestic provision. For instance, in China the number of enrolled students increased dramatically since 1995 (figure 9 below).

Figure 9: Number of enrolled students in Chinese regular higher education institutions (million persons)



Source: China statistical year book 2007, adapted from Yutian and Ping (2009), p. 30.

A similar situation happened in Vietnamese higher education since mid 1990s. There were approximately 162 thousand higher education students in 1993, but in 2007 the figure went up to 1.3 million students (World Bank, 2007). The country's rapid economic growth has resulted in a growing middle class with an increasing demand for higher education. Domestic higher education sector is unable to meet this demand. Therefore cross-border education, both sending student abroad and bringing in foreign programmes, is seen as a solution to increase access to and participation in higher education. A simple principle is that the less human resources a country has, the less it is able to produce new human resources (Vincent-Lancrin, 2007). In other words, the fewer people with higher education qualifications, the less a country is able to raise participation in higher education. Therefore these countries use cross-border education to train their population for the labour market as well as improve the domestic higher education systems, which as a consequence could develop more rapidly.

Rationale 3: Academic Quality

Increase the relevance and variety of higher education

Cross-border education may also be able to offer students a wider range of study opportunities than those available in domestic institutions. Furthermore, this provision can assist domestic institutions in adjusting their courses to become more relevant to serve the areas regarded as important in the national capacity development strategy. For instance the range of subject areas and the curricula jointly designed by Danish and Chinese partners at the Sino-Danish Centre are likely to increase the relevance of their programmes in China.

In some cases where small countries with small higher education systems, for instance Luxembourg and Iceland, are not always able to offer courses in all disciplines in domestic institutions, therefore cross-border education is to complement domestic capacity. In other cases, such as China, where increasing demand for specific capacity in certain areas, for instance business and management, environmental engineering, nanotechnology, leads to shortage in education provision. It also holds true for Vietnam. For such reason, cross-border education can help to increase domestic educational capacity more rapidly than if the country was relying on its own limited resources.

“...before the year 2000 when the government passed the law on foreign investment, the demand for qualified labour force by foreign-invested enterprises was so high that our universities had to strengthen their international cooperation because many new professions have emerged. These professions did not exist in the Vietnamese industries previously, such as electronics, telecommunications, and information technologies. Our education system did not have competences or experiences in such new industries. Vietnam opened its education sector to international partners, first and foremost, in order to train our workforce required by foreign invested companies and economic integration in the global arena”

(Former Deputy Director General, Dr. Nguyen Ngoc Hung, MOET¹⁵)

Rationale 4: Developmental goals

As Vincent-Lacrin (2007) described, at sector/network level, capacity building could aim at improving links between research and teaching, education and labour market, and co-ordination across different institutions and academic fields. Foreign institutions, like their

¹⁵ Personal interview on 29 October 2010 at the Ministry of Education and Training in Hanoi.

counterparts in the domestic sector may contribute to regional development through links with the local industry. For instance, RMIT Vietnam had carried out two significant community projects that helped strengthen the capacity in urban planning and regional learning resources system.

RMIT and Urban Planning in Vietnam

The legacies of French, Soviet and American influences and wars left urban planning in a weak position. Coordinated urban management is not practiced in Vietnam and there was no urban planning profession. Practicing urban planners are considered primarily as architects, engineers, or some cases, economists. Urban planning education is limited. In this context, there was an urgent need to increase the number and quality of urban planning professionals and to assist Vietnam promote urban planning policy reform in a more sustainable direction. RMIT, among its programmes, provides postgraduate international urban and environment planning, architect and project management. RMIT also provided curricular content, customised to match and extend local curricula at a local institution. All the postgraduate coursework programmes are designed in modular format to enable part-time study, work-integrated learning or project activity in real-world planning settings and exists with graduate certificate, graduate diploma or masters degree in international urban and environmental planning. Much of the learning was electronically distributed through the use of advanced e-library, but moderated face-to-face through practitioners and RMIT academics. Case studies, fieldwork and workplace assignments are used with optional study tours to best practice sites. RMIT also established research agreement and active research programme with the National Institute of Urban and Rural Planning and the Ministry of Science and Technology.

RMIT and Learning Resource Centres in Vietnamese cities and regions

Shortly after the establishment of its campus in Ho Chi Minh City in 2001, RMIT Vietnam began a programme to assist Vietnamese universities to develop a linked network of learning resources centres (LRCs). The LRCs combine the functions of traditional library, electronic library, learning platform, seminar and meeting room, study hot desk, publications, exhibition and learning services centre. Such an LRC is thus more than an electronic library but less than a full learning centre. They are places for students and teachers to access both print and on-line information, learning opportunities and learning space. The LRCs are located within the national

and regional public universities in different cities and provinces in Vietnam, serving the economic, social and cultural needs of their respective cities and regions.

The project to build a network of LRCs in a number of universities was considered as one of the most effective means of enabling Vietnam to develop its higher education sector. The initial project built 6 LRCs between 2000 and 2004: 2 in Hanoi and Thai Nguyen - in the north, 2 in Hue and Danang- in the centre, and 2 in Ho Chi Minh city and Can Tho- in the south of Vietnam. The sizes of LRCs vary, but it could be as large as a four-flour building (5400 m²) in Danang, or 7000m² LRC in Hue which houses 150 personal computer workstations, 250 individual study places, 110 group discussion places, 200 places in seminars rooms, 20000 reference volumes, 75.000 monographs and reserve volumes, 50.000 periodical volumes and 7000 audiovisual items (Wilmoth, 2002).

The government has recognised the fundamental role of information technology and resource-based learning and has indicated an intention to link Vietnamese universities through the internet and modernise teaching and learning methods. Rote learning remains the main mode of instruction in most universities, lack of educational resources and lack of know-how stifle innovation. It was very difficult for Vietnam to catch up with its ASEAN neighbours in the technology race. It was held back by acute shortage of skilled professionals and restrictions on electronic and other information access and circulation. Therefore, the main objectives of LRCs are to:

- improve student and staff access to information
- upgrade library and information resources, and library management systems
- create open working platforms for independent learning and research
- support regional engagement including extension of community linkages to help overcome the 'digital divide'
- provide training and capacity-building for the LRC, its users and stakeholders
- enhance inter-university, national and international collaboration.
- ensure that each project results in a low energy, low cost, sustainable centre.

Typical LRC project tasks included project and building planning and design, documentation, building and fit-out, human resource evaluation, recruitment, training and

education, procurement of ICT equipment, acquisitions of library systems and information resources, commissioning and start-up, sustainable operation, post-occupancy evaluation and dissemination of the experience. (Wilmoth, 2002)

As with other institutions in Vietnam, the current library systems are urgently seeking ways to raise their standards to those of systems in developed countries. As part of the design, the information and electronic infrastructure of each LRC will also need international standards of library management at the national level. Therefore, a national framework of standards (e.g. catalogue and classification systems, search engines, acquisitions, publishing, lending and sharing, LRC administration, communication, multi-lingual management software) was evolving partly as a result of regional LRC project.

It is obvious that the LRCs are likely to make a positive impact on the organisational learning of their host universities. First, capacity building through organisation development and staff development because the LRC management methods and optimal use of facilities require practices more in line with international standards.

Second, the major training components of each LRC expose key people, from university leaders to junior operative staff, to modern information resource practices.

Third, the world of open information that the LRCs bring, have a strong effect on relatively closed universities in Vietnam. Organisational learning here is mainly within the host universities in the beginning, but the organisational learning effect on linked firms and institutions in regions, including the emerging high-tech sector, is likely to be significant in the long term.

In summary, although RMIT Vietnam was granted license by the Ministry of Planning and Investment and operates as a private and for-profit education establishment, it participated in community projects and helped build capacity at sector level across regions throughout the country.

Rationale 5: Mutual understanding: Political and cultural exchange

Cross-border education can also have impacts on capacity development at other more macro levels. This section will analyse and compare the three foreign campus cases and

highlight some impacts on the capacity development of sectors, changes in policies at society level and country's participation at global level. The section will also discuss the similarities and differences of how cooperation models work in the national context of China and Vietnam.

When envisioning the future of SDC and commenting on the China's agenda for this partnership, Holm-Nielsen expressed:

“When we look at this in 25 years. It is a very good example. Denmark is small, like a fraction of a Chinese city. We are in it because it is interesting for us to be seen a good partner for China and we can learn a lot from China, of course China can learn a lot here. We are part of the western world, Western culture. Denmark is a small country, it is easy to understand. The whole country is a kind of a social laboratory. That factor is also interesting to China as well, they can study us. If they want to make electric car. If China think it is interesting it could try in Denmark. It is not very expensive to try and to see how it works. In fact it will be good for both.”

(Interview with Professor Lauritz Holm-Nielsen on 23 November 2010)

It is evident that Danish nonprofit universities also entered the international market, but their main motivations for internationalization are not financial. Instead, they wish to enhance research and knowledge capacity and to increase mutual cultural understanding.

The case of Sino-Danish Centre exemplifies some impacts on national policies and regulations resulted by cross-border education. This refers to frameworks, within which development takes place. For example, to facilitate the operation of SDC and its education, the Danish Ministry of Science has changed legislation, which allow for dual degrees. According to the permanent Secretary Uffe Toudal Pedersen from the Danish Ministry of Science, the Danish National Accreditation Agency will accredit the Danish components of the programmes offered at SDC, and the Chinese agency will accredit the Chinese parts. The decision on dual degrees implies that the Danish partners recognise the components provided by institutions in another higher education system.

In similar vein, when commenting on the difference between 2 year masters degree in the Danish system and 3 year masters degree in China and where to place Chinese students in that extra year, Professor Hans Gregersen forecasted that:

[in the short term] “we want them to Denmark in laboratories or internships... but I think one way or another China will slowly adapt to the Bologna process second

cycle because it is kind of standard for the western world. I mean in Denmark we also adapted to part of the development of the whole European Bologna process. You only have to go twenty years back in Denmark, we didn't have formal PhD programmes, the accreditation process that is now common in Denmark, we didn't have it the same way just five years ago. So I mean things are changing all the time. The way I see it: everything converges as what the world society wants is something that can be compared. Our minds are set for easy comparison between a degree from the USA, France, Denmark or China"
(Professor Hans Gregersen, Executive Director of SDC Secretariat in Denmark¹⁶)

As mentioned in previous chapter, the Chinese ministry of Education has introduced new laws which allow international partners enter the Chinese education sector. The provost of the Nottingham University, Ningbo also contends that the Ministry of education in Beijing will rethink the regulations to capture new types of schools, universities with international partners.

"they are certainly looking at it. I know the Ministry of Education in Beijing sees us as an experiment, as there are many experiments here in China as well. We had many visits from different provinces, education bureaus, they were interested in how we do. Information was taken away....we are an experiment, it seems to be working... China just passed the 10 year education plan three weeks ago and they want more international partnerships. They want lots of experiments and see what is going to work"

(Professor Nick Miles, Provost of University of Nottingham, Ningbo¹⁷)

In a nutshell, different initiatives and different models of international partnerships are helping policy makers in China gain experiences and triggering changes in their legal framework, which in turn, will improve China's participation in international treaties and agreements, for instance, the Bologna process to make their higher education degrees more compatible with those in Europe

In summary, the three foreign university campuses share some similar key missions in their offshore activities, namely teaching, research and community engagement. Although the

¹⁶ Personal interview at the Information meeting on Sino-Danish Centre on 23 November 2010 in Copenhagen.

¹⁷ Personal Interview on 27 October 2010 at the ASEM Rectors Conference in Seoul, Korea.

priorities of each case may vary, the common benefits for the home universities include enhanced opportunities for student and staff mobility, international collegial interaction and exposure to new academic traditions, the development of new (e.g. SCD programmes) or expanded curricula (e.g. RMIT Vietnam and Nottingham Ningbo) to meet local needs, and research opportunities.

How foreign partners see the partnership?

Although the three foreign university campuses are established to provide education and research and support capacity development at individual, institutional, sectoral and societal levels, they have different entry points and operate in different ways. The partners involved also see them of different natures.

RMIT Vietnam envisions itself as an education exporter from Vietnam in the sense that

“it will provide education and training services to individuals and firms from outside the country through inbound study abroad, training for overseas companies, and other services to international clients. It also hopes to export some of the products and services generated through research and innovation such as software products, educational testing services, CD-ROMs for language learning, or product designs. Some of these exports will be directly from the university, whereas others will be from joint ventures with government or corporate sponsors or under license to them. These exports will contribute to the economic and technological development of Vietnam”

(Wilmoth, 2004:203)

The language used in this statement obviously reflects the standpoint that views RMIT as an educational service provider, whose products are also for exports as a way of contributing to development. Six years after the former director general of RMIT Vietnam announced his vision, RMIT Vietnam now boasts a dynamic student body of 5000, including students from more than 40 countries.

The Danish partners do not see SDC as GATS mode 3 ‘commercial presence’ at all, whereas Nottingham University Ningbo openly shared that:

“we provide demand-led education programme... the main point is our students are getting jobs. We are happy, students are happy and the ministry is happy”

(Professor Nick Miles from the University of Nottingham, Ningbo).

However, this view doesn’t necessarily ignore other community development activities, that the university’s Centre of Sustainable Energy Technologies, which was opened in 2008 in Ningbo

campus, contributed to sustainable development by translating research into practical, energy efficient and affordable solutions for domestic and non-domestic construction in China (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2009)

The former World Bank's Higher Education Specialist - Rector of Aarhus University which houses the SDC Secretariat in Denmark, stated that:

"As I understand it Denmark doesn't have any specific agreement with GATS. We are part of the EU agreement with China, I believe¹⁸.

One can look at Education as exchange only. Not all countries that consider all the education system as something they can trade. They see it as something they can exchange. We have not looked at this in the light of GATS, it is not a trade issue, it is an exchange issue between China and Denmark in this case. This is not entity regulated by GATS. This is something that the Danish and Chinese governments agree to. And CAS and group of Danish universities agree to do together for the good of China and for the good of us. Nothing to do with craving profit. China has the same agenda. I have discussed with Chinese colleagues and friends. They know very well what is going on. They also know this is a different kind of relationship."

(Professor Lauritz Holm-Nielsen, Rector of Aarhus University, Chair of University Partnership on SDC¹⁹. Original emphasis)

The Permanent Secretary at the Danish Ministry of Science added:

"I see it as a process where we join forces; we represent each capacity of our own... if you take priority areas which have been identified: nanotechnology, life science, sustainable energy. By capacity building here I define as allocation of professors, allocation of money, we will provide Danish students grants from Danish government. I would also imagine that there will be some kind of research facilities in Denmark, which students will have access to during their studies. From this point, I see the contribution from each side would fall on a number of parameters"

¹⁸ Please see appendix 3 for Denmark's commitments to GATS as part of European Community's agreement

¹⁹ Personal interview at the Information meeting on 23 November 2010 in Copenhagen

(Uffe Toudal Pedersen, Permanent Secretary, Danish Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation)

The position expressed by the two key persons in the SDC joint venture explains the rationales for internationalization of higher education. According to Knight (1997, quoted in Jiang, 2008) there are four major rationales: political, economic, academic and cultural/social. The Denmark's rationales are more political and academic than economic with an aim to maintain and expand its influence in certain fields, knowledge of other cultures, languages and systems. It is obvious that SDC joint venture is seen as a governmental partnership between Denmark and China. The public universities of both countries involved in this venture run, to certain extent, as politicized institutions, endeavouring to sustain a level of autonomy and academic freedom, while at the same time serving national interests.

The Danish partners envision that SDC would welcome students from other countries, but in the same terms as they receive foreign students here in Denmark. SDC is not just centre for free education for everybody. Its primary aim is to provide education for Danish and Chinese students. If there are more international students than Danes in this education, at least in the initial period, the Danish partners would not think that they reach their pre-set goals. To this extent, Nottingham and RMIT have more in common as private universities than the government-industry-university model of SDC.

In summary, the national policies towards cross-border education are different; Vietnam seems to be more open to foreign partners, whereas China is more firm on the joint-venture model with certain degree of control over the partnerships. However this also shows that China makes a step ahead in turning itself into an equal partner and two-way capacity building while Vietnam relies more on development aid style and capacity development in the conventional sense between developed and developing country.

Chapter 5

The WTO/GATS Agreement and National Policies on Cross-border Education

The previous chapter has focused on the specific type of cross-border education, which is institution mobility or mode 3 under GATS. However as mentioned at the outset, the 4 modes of service supply under the GATS agreement are not mutually exclusive. Similarly the four OECD's internationalisation approaches – mutual understanding, skilled migration, revenue generation and capacity building are often interwoven. Therefore they affect national policies as a whole. Once a country has identified what it expects to gain from cross-border education, it should examine which forms they would like to promote and in which context, what benefits the country may expect from these forms, and what risks might occur in particular context, hence which policies should be in place to harness and reap the benefits of internationalisation. Both China and Vietnam have engaged in different forms of cross-border education over the last two decades, ranging from traditional student mobility to new phenomena of programme and institution mobility. The next section will analyse some main positive and negative impacts of each mode of supply to find out the extent to which WTO-GATS influence cross-border higher education policies and practices in China and Vietnam.

5.1 GATS mode 2 and capacity building at individual level

GATS mode 2 'consumption abroad' refers to 'student and staff mobility'. This kind of mobility is an effective way to build capacity at the individual level. Students and academics can access better quality courses and research facilities abroad and return with enhanced skills and experience.

Mobile faculty would be able to access international academic networks and increase their scientific publications. This is also true for GATS mode 4 'presence of natural person' (professors travel to another country to provide educational services) because mobility facilitates a cultural experience, which may broaden their academic perspective on their home country, not to mention better linguistic abilities compared to other form of cross-border education. Staff mobility is more likely to lead to the establishment of an international network of academics relying on personal ties between professionals.

However, a limitation of student and academic mobility under mode 2 'consumption abroad' lies in its cost, which may be unaffordable for many students from developing countries. Study abroad is in general a very big investment. Given limited resources, most governments can only support a small number of students, the majority are self-funded students, but only a limited number of families are able to meet the costs of both living and studying. Thanks to the one-child policy and high economic growth rate in China, increasing number of Chinese families could afford to send their children abroad to study or employed people can finance themselves to upgrade their skills and further their education overseas. However, this number is still rather modest compared to the vast majority of the entire country's population because it is mainly representing the urban elite class.

The other main negative consequence of student and academic mobility is a possible brain drain from the developing country. Behind the argument in support of mobility is the assumption that the period abroad is temporary rather than permanent, and that the experience and skills acquired through mobility will eventually benefit the developing countries. However, in practice this does not always happen, particularly more and more developed countries are trying to retain skilled foreign students, academics and professionals to join their labour market. The skilled migration approach to cross-border education has also changed, developed countries attract talented students but not necessary retain them; rather use them to open up new business opportunities back in their home countries. For example, many highly skilled technicians and highly educated expatriates are now reversing the brain drain, transforming it into 'brain circulation' as they return home to establish business relationships or to start new companies while maintaining their social and professional networks to the countries where they were educated. For example the case of many Taiwanese and Indian scientists and engineers having returned home from the Silicon Valley in the US (Saxenian, 2005). When they invest in their home country, they transfer first-hand knowledge to the country, and in many cases, they serve as advisers to domestic policy makers as they bring the worldviews and identities that grow out of their indigenous background, linguistic knowledge and international professional and educational experiences. Increasing number of these highly educated individuals generates changes in their home countries through investment, business or academic links. Many Silicon Valley producers no longer view locating or outsourcing from India or China as an efficient way to reduce costs; rather, they see it as a way to gain access to the talent.

While there are benefits for a developing country to send students and academics abroad, receiving international students is also important. In developing countries with limited higher education capacity and reputation, attracting international students may prove difficult. But joint programmes offered in partnership like in the case of Sino-Danish Centre, or full foreign campuses in the case of RMIT in Vietnam or Nottingham University in China can provide opportunities to attract international students, not only from neighbouring countries in Asia, but also from Europe, such as Denmark, the UK, and others. At RMIT Vietnam, a growing number of students are now coming from other countries in the Asian region, and from further afield including other parts of Asia, Europe, America and, of course, Australia. International education environment at RMIT, Nottingham, and Sino-Danish Centre will also equip home students with inter-cultural and linguistic competences which are essential in the world of work. This is also a two-way capacity building for both home and host countries, as the Permanent Secretary, Uffe Toudal Pedersen, Danish Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation expressed:

“I see it [SDC] as a big chance for Danish students, companies, for Denmark to get a foothold in China where we would educate Danish students, who will have specific knowledge of China and Chinese researches. From China’ point of view, Chinese students will acquire specific knowledge of Danish research competences, and Danish ways of doing studies, university tradition. This will pave the way for future cooperation between Denmark and China.

(Permanent Secretary Uffe Toudal Pedersen²⁰)

5.2 GATS mode 1 and 3 and capacity building at organisational level

The big advantage of this kind of mobility is that an increasing number of students are offered a foreign degree without having to leave their home country. The provision can take different forms, such as GATS mode 1: e-learning, or GATS mode 3: foreign campus. This trend has grown over the past decade and it is likely to continue to meet a growing demand for higher education.

First, the costs of these types of cross-border education are lower than student mobility. Mode 1 and Mode 3 can potentially allow a large number of domestic to participate, including people already in employment.

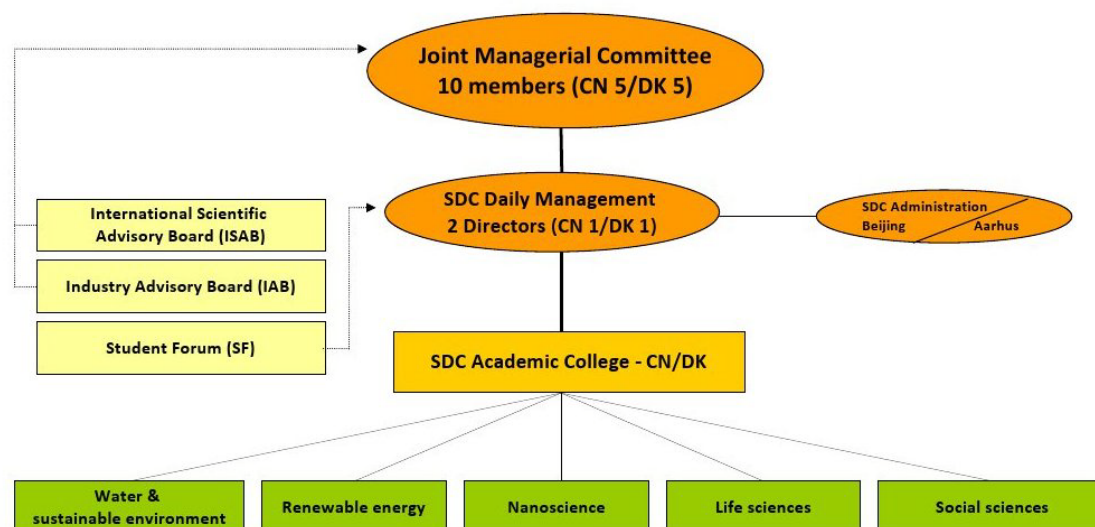
²⁰ Personal interview on 23 November 2010 at the Information Meeting on 23 November 2010 in Copenhagen

Second, mode 1 and mode 3 can alleviate the risk of brain drain as student do not leave the country or only do so only for a short planned period of time. Mode 3 can also create job opportunities for those students and academics who have graduated from overseas, and thereby facilitate their return.

Third, foreign programmes frequently operate in partnerships with local higher education institutions one way or another, and in many cases these partnerships can assist the local institution in building capacity in teaching and curriculum design. In the case of Sino- Danish Centre, the partnership agreement states clearly that curriculum must be jointly designed by both Chinese and Danish academics. This facilitates interaction between two academic tradition and mutual learning of academics involved. At the University of Nottingham, Ningbo, all staff including local staff are recruited in exactly the same mechanism as in the UK campus. They have them salaries and promotion opportunities (Professor Nick Miles, Provost, University of Nottingham, Ningbo²¹)

The example of 50/50 joint-venture model of the Sino-Danish Centre also reflects in the management staff structure, where half is Danish and the half is Chinese (see figure 10 below).

Figure 10: Sino-Danish Centre Organisation Chart



Source: SDC secretariat at Aarhus University, Denmark²²

²¹ Personal interview with professor Nick Miles on 27 October 2010 at the ASEM Rectors Conference in Seoul, Korea

²² http://www.sinodanishcenter.dk/index.php?menu_id=11&content_id=14 last access in December 2010

This partnership condition helps to generate positive externalities and to employ both academic and administrative local staff. RMIT Vietnam also employs local staff but mainly for administrative jobs with local salaries according to local laws for foreign-invested enterprises. Please see appendix 7 for the RMIT organisational chart and proportion of local staff.

This spill-over is not only channelled through organisational learning but also through competition and learning within the sector as other domestic universities have to consider the new provision. Such a situation in the Vietnamese higher education was described by a senior official at the Ministry of Education and Training as follows:

“RMIT operation in the Vietnamese higher education system creates a difference. This difference is like a ‘supermarket’ next to ‘primitive marketplaces’... after some time our universities wonder why RMIT graduates, including those students who failed the entrance examinations to our universities, were sought after by many enterprises in the labour market. This challenges our universities and makes them review the content and quality of their training programmes”

(Former Deputy Director General, Dr. Nguyen Ngoc Hung, MOET²³)

Fourth, mode 1 and mode 3 -programme and institution mobility, also involves research activities and can contribute to the development of research capacity in the host country. Research undertaken in such foreign establishments represent openness to international research and increases the critical mass of researchers and of research in the country. One important factor in research is to get access to research site. Cross-border education gives such an access, for example, Danish researchers on the Water Management and Sustainable Environment and Renewable Energy programmes of SDC, admitted that they can have access to polluted lakes in China, not in Denmark and fusion reactor of nuclear power in China, which is very expensive equipment and they do not get access in Europe²⁴. Partners do not offer resources in the same way, China will benefit from Danish experiences in education and the Western way of doing things. Professor Gergersen explained:

“One example, the Chinese tradition for a long time has been educating bachelors, and after finishing the bachelor degree students often go out to take

²³ Personal interview on 29 October 2010 at the Ministry of Education and Training in Hanoi.

²⁴ Examples given by researchers, Peter Holm (KU) and Henrik Pedersen (SDU), at the meeting in Copenhagen 23 November 2010.

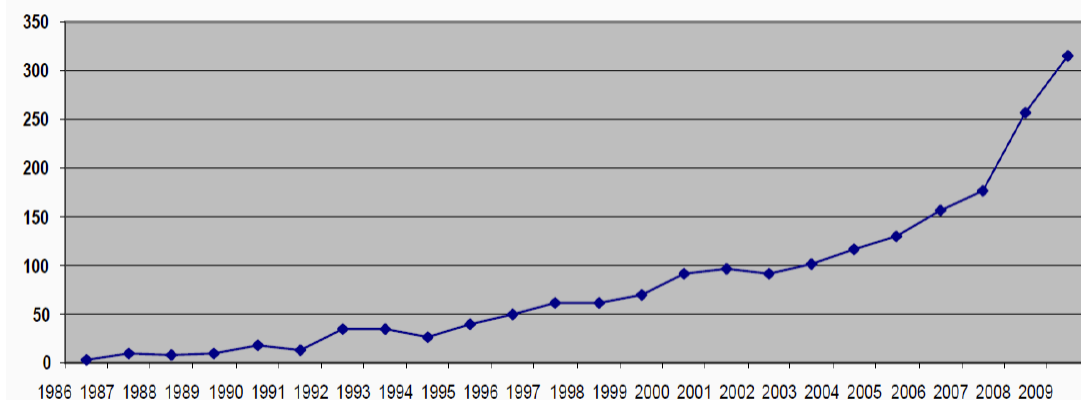
jobs in industry or wherever they could get a job. By building up this SDC Masters education, they will learn and get access to our way of doing it. The same as the PhD programmes. The PhD programmes in Denmark and in China seems to me to be quite different. I think they see an opportunity to learn from us how we do it'.

...."They [Danish researchers] want to be better back home. They want to learn, reflect, observe and work together with others and see if there are other models. They also know that Denmark is a small and structured country, there is something to learn. Chinese partners can see where we are strong, like in welfare, in innovation, natural science field like energy and environment and there must be models that work for us [Danes], why not learn from us."

(interview with Professor Hans Gregersen, 23 November 2011)

One of the indicators of research capacity enhancement is the number of joint scientific publications. For example, joint publications between China and Denmark has increased constantly between 1986 and 2009 from less than 10 to over 300 in 2009 (see figure 11 below). Furthermore, in 2008 approximately 350 Danish companies were present in China, 10% of them have R&D activities. As the rector of Aarhus University asserted "...with SDC the number of our joint publications in international scientific journals will increase, it is not levelling out"²⁵.

Figure 11: Number of joint scientific publications between China and Denmark



²⁵ Personal interview with Rector Lauritz Holm- Nielsen on 23 November 2011.

Source: Lauritz Holm-Nielsen's presentation on 23 November 2010²⁶.

In summary, cross-border education supports capacity building at both individual and organisational levels whether it is under GATS mode 1 (cross-border supply- programme mobility), mode 2 (consumption abroad – student mobility) or mode 3 (foreign campus-institution mobility). This capacity building, especially in the case of foreign campuses, is not only on the side of host countries (or developing countries) as OECD's view presented in chapter 2, but it is becoming a two-way process, which signifies the improvement of educational institutions and individuals in both host and home countries. In other words, though at different levels, host countries (China, Vietnam) are becoming partners in educational cooperation than just importers of education. Both benefits and negative impacts of these modes affect local education strategies and policies in the long term.

²⁶ <http://www.ubst.dk/nyheder/nyhedsarkiv/informationsmode-for-erhvervsledere-om-sino-danish-centre-i-beijing>
accessed November 2010

Chapter 6

Conclusions and Reflections

This thesis has explored the internationalisation of higher education with particular focus on cross-border education in the form of foreign university campuses in two dynamic Asian countries, China and Vietnam, in the last decade. The thesis addressed three main questions:

1. Why did China and Vietnam engage in internationalisation of higher education in the last decade?
2. On which parameters do the Vietnamese higher education internationalisation strategies differ from those of China given the two countries share many similarities? How can these differences be explained?
3. To what extent does the WTO/GATS Agreement influence cross-border higher education policies and practices in China and Vietnam?

The thesis has explored the broad and complex aspects of the concept of internationalisation and globalisation in higher education and related issues such as the WTO/GATS in educational trade, in order to build theoretical understanding of this social phenomenon. In order to examine how this happens in real-life contexts, I have used three case studies of Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology campuses in Vietnam, the University of Nottingham Campus in Ningbo, China and the Sino- Danish Centre for Education and Research in Beijing, China.

6.1 The key answers to question 1

Historically, most Asian countries, including Vietnam experienced colonialism, and the colonisers' academic ideas significantly influenced contemporary academic systems. Even in those countries that did not experience colonialism, for example China, foreign academic models were also used in shaping universities (Altbach and Umakoshi, 2004) because the major Western universities retain scientific and research leadership. In the last decades, as Asian academic systems have grown and matured, many countries have not been inspired to develop new indigenous academic models. Rather, Asian countries have looked abroad for ways to expand and improve their universities. Among many reasons, perhaps many Asian

academic and political leaders studied in the West and absorbed Western academic ideas during their student years.

Recently, as many other countries in the world in the wave of the globalisation, China and Vietnam have integrated more and more in the international arena, education is not exempted from this process. Both countries have many reasons to engage in internationalisation of their higher education. Most obviously, it is the demand for national economic growth and competitiveness. Both countries need a more qualified and skilled workforce, and new knowledge in many fields. Higher education is seen as a way to achieve these objectives, especially through international cooperation and cross-border in various forms.

In addition to economic reason, the study also shows that academic motivations and intellectual stimulation for scholarly exchanges and quality education are also an important reason and a strong driving force for internationalisation strategies of all countries involved, especially the host countries, China and Vietnam.

In all three cases, it is evident that cross-border education supports mutual understanding and capacity building at both individual and organisational levels whether it is programme mobility, student mobility or institution mobility. This capacity building, especially in the case of foreign campuses, is not only on the side of host countries (often developing countries), but it is becoming a two-way process, which signifies the improvement of educational institutions and individuals in both host and home countries.

In short, though at different levels, the two host countries, China and Vietnam, are becoming partners in educational cooperation than just importers of education.

6.2 The key answers to question 2

Although China and Vietnam share many similarities in political setting, these two higher education systems have different patterns of development, different agendas and different points of departure for internationalisation. China seems to have more to offer to their partners in terms of research capacity and resources, therefore China has more equal decision making power or even takes more control over the partnerships. China also has a clearer agenda to actively drive its higher education towards world class education and cutting-edge research in strategic high-tech areas, such as renewable energy, nano-technology, engineering, environment, biotechnology. Vietnam, however, has not yet been able to identify the strategic

direction and sharp focus to drive its higher education forward, rather the country is trying to cope with the primary aim of higher education is to provide skilled workforce demanded by the labour market.

Vietnam has shown considerable courage in opening its doors to foreign providers in education services, wider than most other ASEAN-plus-three²⁷ countries. Its resolve to internationalise its higher education and training is very strong but is clearly hampered by lack of human and financial resources, and long-term strategic plan. Therefore, Vietnam rely more on cross-border education to help increase domestic educational capacity.

Not only are there differences in the two countries, within China there different models of partnerships presented in the two cases. In the Southern China, University of Nottingham Ningbo has its campus funded by a Chinese industrial partner and runs as an independent university, whereas in the Northern China, Sino-Danish Centre is a government-sponsored joint-venture from premises to academic programmes. Nottingham Ningbo focuses more on teaching in highly demanded subjects while SDC focuses more on research in high-tech subject areas

Unlike the two non-profit cross-border universities in China, RMIT Vietnam is a for-profit enterprise. However, RMIT has engaged in many community development work in Vietnam along with it commercial initiatives. In issuing RMIT a license to operate in Vietnam, the government expressed a particular interest in encouraging reform in university management to Vietnam and a request that RMIT work with local universities in university planning, quality assurance, the use of information technology, and the management of finance and resources. Although none of these are required as any condition on RMIT Vietnam, it has implemented many initiatives to help Vietnamese universities learn more about the new governance of university.

6.3 The key answers to question 3

The national policies towards cross-border education are different, Vietnam seems to be more open to foreign partners, whereas China is more firm on the joint-venture model with certain degree of control over the partnerships. However this also shows that China makes a step ahead in turning itself into an equal partner and two-way capacity building while Vietnam

²⁷ ASEAN-plus-three consists of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations and three countries China, Japan and Korea. ASEAN member countries are: Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam. <http://www.aseansec.org/18619.htm> Accessed in January 2011.

relies more on development and capacity development in the conventional sense between developed and developing country.

In concluding, both China and Vietnam ratified commitments to the WTO/GATS agreement in educational sector and allowed all 4 modes of supply: students go to study abroad, joint educational programmes with foreign partners, foreign university campuses. This integration will potentially lead to more structural changes in the legal frameworks for higher education systems in each country.

6.4 Some further reflections

By and large, the world is open to this education business, specifically the programme and institution mobility. This trend is expected to continue and involve more governments, universities and private companies with long-term presence abroad. When the capacity development strategies work effectively for the developing countries, the enrolment capacity and quality of their universities improve, plus the international programmes of foreign universities or joint-venture campuses are more accessible, the developing countries' higher education systems should effectively reduce the appeal of studying abroad or at least shorten the time of student mobility. To certain extent, the model of SDC is moving towards this scenario: local systems prepare students at undergraduate level, student mobility or offshore campuses will continue to grow but focus more on postgraduate, doctoral and post-doctoral levels. It is similar to the current trend observed in the advanced OECD countries.

The three cases also show evidence that China and Vietnam are seeking to open up their higher education system and turn them into a more competitive ones. They do so in line with the economic development in each national and also regional contexts. One could argue that the WTO&GATS also changes the life of university and its surrounding environment. In the three cases we can notice that China and Vietnam develop their leading cities as international business hubs, attracting multinational corporations. These cities are trying to position themselves to house the knowledge-intensive aspects of companies' operations. Therefore these require high quality, internationalised higher education providers, because it is clearly easier to build synergy from co-location of corporate headquarters, business services firms, research and development, publishers and education providers. Probably also for this reason, the government of Shanghai has recently invited University of Nottingham Ningbo to open a sister campus in the city of Shanghai, which is about 150 km from Ningbo. Although the plan is

waiting for approval by the authorities from both China and the UK, the University of Nottingham has identified new subject areas for this new campus.

“We are not looking to duplicate the University of Nottingham Ningbo campus in Shanghai. We are aiming to attract a different set of students who want international qualifications in subjects we do not yet provide,” said Professor Nick Miles.

Many other developing countries, especially the countries in transition in Central Asia, Africa and Eastern Europe are looking into various potential models and lessons for developing and internationalising their higher education systems. These cases might offer some experiences to draw upon.

6.5 Future perspective and research

As observed in three cases, globalisation of higher education and academic mobility still seem to favour well-developed education systems with native English. Most institutions initiatives and programmes come largely from the north to the south.

In order to see if the growth in demand for cross-border education or transnational education will continue in the same or different patterns and to find out whether the various GATS modes of delivery (e.g. mode 3) pioneered in China, Vietnam and other South East Asian countries will be rolled out across the globe, more models of partnerships and more providers, such as continental European countries, North American universities and other countries in the South-South cooperation region, will be necessary for further research.

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Appendix 1: List of the Chinese universities sponsored by the Chinese Government's Project 985

When it was first announced in May 1998, funding was made available to an elite group of 9 universities. By September 2007 there were 39 universities sponsored by Project 985. The project also assigned goals and funding to each university.

The universities are listed below in alphabetical order

Level 1

Goal: to become top universities in the world.

| Nr. | University | Funding |
|-----|-------------------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. | Peking University | 1.8 billion CNY |
| 2. | Tsinghua University | 1.8 billion CNY |

Level 2

Goal: to become top universities in China and well-known in the world.

| Nr. | University | Funding |
|-----|---|-----------------|
| 3 | Beijing Institute of Technology | 1.0 billion CNY |
| 4 | Beijing Normal University | 1.2 billion CNY |
| 5 | Fudan University | 1.2 billion CNY |
| 6 | Harbin Institute of Technology | 1 billion CNY |
| 7 | Nanjing University | 1.2 billion CNY |
| 8 | Renmin University of China | unknown |
| 9 | Shanghai Jiao Tong University | 1.2 billion CNY |
| 10 | University of Science and Technology of China | 900 million CNY |
| 11 | Xi'an Jiao Tong University | 900 million CNY |
| 12 | Zhejiang University | 1.4 billion CNY |

Others

Goal: to become well-known universities in China and the world.

| Nr. | University | Funding |
|-----|--|------------------|
| 13 | Beihang University | 900 million CNY |
| 14 | Central South University | 400 million CNY |
| 15 | Central University for Nationalities | unknown. |
| 16 | China Agricultural University | unknown |
| 17 | Chongqing University | 540 million CNY. |
| 18 | Dalian University of Technology | 400 million CNY |
| 29 | East China Normal University | 600 million CNY |

| | | |
|----|--|-----------------|
| 20 | Huazhong University of Science and Technology | 600 million CNY |
| 21 | Hunan University | 400 million CNY |
| 22 | Jilin University | 700 million CNY |
| 23 | Lanzhou University | 450 million CNY |
| 24 | Nankai University | 700 million CNY |
| 25 | National University of Defense Technology | unknown |
| 26 | Northwestern Polytechnical University | 900 million CNY |
| 27 | Northeastern University | 400 million CNY |
| 28 | Northwest A&F University | unknown |
| 29 | Ocean University of China | 300 million CNY |
| 30 | Shandong University | 1.2 billion CNY |
| 31 | Sichuan University | 720 million CNY |
| 32 | South China University of Technology | 400 million CNY |
| 33 | Southeast University | 600 million CNY |
| 34 | Sun Yat-sen University | 1.2 billion CNY |
| 35 | Tianjin University | 700 million CNY |
| 36 | Tongji University | 600 million CNY |
| 37 | University of Electronic Science and Technology of China | 360 million CNY |
| 38 | Wuhan University | 800 million CNY |
| 39 | Xiamen University | 800 million CNY |

Source: last access in December 2010

- 1) <http://www.chinaeducenter.com/en/cedu/ceduproject211.php>
- 2) http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Project_985
- 3) <http://www.wes.org/ewenr/06oct/practical.htm>

Appendix 2: List of Influential People for Interviews

For the three cases of foreign university campuses in China and Vietnam

| Nr. | Name | Position | Institutions | Special Roles relevant for the case studies | Date and Place of Interview |
|-----|------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Mr. Uffe Toudal Pedersen | Permanent Secretary | Danish Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation | Mr Pedersen represents the Danish Ministry of Science at government policy level. The Danish Ministry of Science is the main sponsor for all Danish universities in the SDC cooperation with China. | Face-to-face interview in November 2010, Copenhagen, Denmark. |
| 2. | Dr. Nguyen Ngoc Hung | Deputy Director General, International Cooperation Department | Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training | Mr Hung has in-depth knowledge of internationalisation strategy of the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and universities. His department monitors all international education partnerships with, and establishments, in Vietnam. He was involved with negotiations prior to Vietnam's accession to the WTO. He knows well the case of RMIT Vietnam. | Face-to-face interview in October 2010, Hanoi, Vietnam |
| 3. | Professor Dr. David Wilmoth | Director General | Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, Vietnam | Wilmoth was pro vice-chancellor of group governance at the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT). He was a director of the RMIT Vietnam Holdings Pty. Ltd. and a member of the board of management of RMIT International University Vietnam having previously been its chief executive during the start-up phase. | Email correspondence, interview in October 2010 via Skype video |
| 4. | Professor Dr. Lauritz Holm-Nielsen | Rector | Aarhus University, Denmark | Professor Holm-Nielsen has been heavily involved in the SDC project both in the capacity of the vice chair of Universities Denmark and the rector of Aarhus University which houses the SDC Secretariat in Denmark. He is also a member of the Danish Prime Minister's Growth Forum. | Face-to-face interview in November 2010, Copenhagen, Denmark. |
| 5. | Professor Dr. Hans Gregersen | Executive Director | Sino-Danish Centre | Professor Gregersen coordinates the collaboration between the Danish | First meeting in August 2010, |

| | | | | | |
|----|--------------------------|-----------------|---|---|---|
| | | | Secretariat, Denmark | universities, Ministry of Science, the Chinese partner universities, Danish companies in China and Denmark and other stakeholders with an interest in cooperation. | followed by email correspondence. Face-to-face interview in November 2010, Copenhagen, Denmark. |
| 6. | Professor Dr. Nick Miles | Provost and CEO | University of Nottingham, Ningbo, China | Professor Nick Miles is Provost and Chief Executive Officer of The University of Nottingham Ningbo, China (UNNC), from April 2010. He was formerly Dean of Science and Engineering at the UNNC. He will lead the next phase of expansion of the university. | Face-to-face interview in October 2010, at the 2 nd ASEM Rectors Conference, Seoul, Korea. |

Set of common key questions for interviews

1. How did the cross-border education partnership start and develop? What were the obstacles?
2. What are the aims and objectives from each partner?
3. What is the organisational structure? How is the campus financed?
4. Do you see the partnership as a two-way capacity development and enhancement? Please give some examples.
5. As your country and the host country are both members of the WTO, do you think that GATS regulations affect your cross-border education partnership?

Interview Consent

- The purpose of interviews for case studies was explained to each interviewee.
- Consents from each interviewee were obtained prior to interviews.
- All interviews were voice-recorded in agreement with each interviewee.
- All interviews were semi-structured with the above common questions and further questions arisen from the answers received.

Appendix 3: Sector Specific Commitments

(WTO Services Database Output/ Denmark)

www.wto.org

Modes of supply : 1)Cross-border supply 2)Consumption abroad 3)Commercial presence 4)Presence of natural persons

| Sector or Sub-sector | | Limitations on Market Access | | Limitations on National Treatment | Additional Commitments | Notes |
|--|----|--|----|--|------------------------|-------|
| European Community, including DENMARK | | | | | | |
| 05. Educational Services | | | | | | |
| A. Primary Education Services (CPC 921) | 1) | F: Condition of nationality. However, third country nationals may obtain authorization from competent authorities to establish and direct an education institution and to teach. | 1) | I: Condition of nationality for service providers to be authorized to issue State recognized diplomas. | | |
| | 2) | None | 2) | None | | |
| | 3) | None | 3) | GR: Majority of members of the Board must be of Greek nationality. | | |
| | 4) | Unbound except as indicated in the horizontal section and subject to the following specific limitations: F: Condition of nationality. However, third country nationals may obtain authorization from competent authorities to establish and direct an education institution and to teach. I: Condition of nationality for service providers who are authorized to issue State recognized diplomas. GR: Condition of nationality for teachers. | 4) | Unbound except as indicated in the horizontal section | | |
| B. Secondary Education Services (CPC 922) | 1) | F: Condition of nationality. However, third country nationals may obtain authorization from competent authorities to establish and direct an | 1) | I: Condition of nationality for service providers to be authorized to issue State recognized diplomas. | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|----|--|----|--|--|--|
| | | education institution and to teach. | | | | |
| | 2) | None | 2) | None | | |
| | 3) | None | 3) | GR: Majority of members of the Board must be of Greek nationality. | | |
| | 4) | Unbound except as indicated in the horizontal section and subject to the following specific limitations:F: Condition of nationality. However, third country nationals may obtain authorization from competent authorities to establish and direct an education institution and to teach.I: Condition of nationality for service providers to be authorized to issue State recognized diplomas.GR: Condition of nationality for teachers. | 4) | Unbound except as indicated in the horizontal section | | |
| C. Higher Education Services (CPC 923) | 1) | F: Condition of nationality. However, third country nationals can have authorization from competent authorities to establish and direct an education institution and to teach. | 1) | I: Condition of nationality for service providers to be authorized to issue State recognized diplomas. | | |
| | 2) | None | 2) | None | | |
| | 3) | E, I: Needs test for opening of private universities authorized to issue recognized diplomas or degrees; procedure involves an advice of the Parliament. GR: Unbound for education institutions granting recognized State diplomas. | 3) | None | | |

| | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|----|---|--|--|
| | 4) | Unbound except for F and L concerning the temporary entry of professors where: as indicated in the horizontal section under (iii) and subject to the following specific limitations:F: - The professors have obtained an employment contract from a university or other higher education institution. - The work permit is delivered for a period not exceeding nine months renewable for the duration of the contract.- Compliance with an economic needs test is required unless those professors are designated directly by the Minister in charge of higher education. - The recruiting institution must pay a tax to the International Migration Office. | 4) | Unbound except as indicated in the horizontal section | | |
| D. Adult Education Services (CPC 924) | 1) | None | 1) | None | | |
| | 2) | None | 2) | None | | |
| | 3) | None | 3) | None | | |
| | 4) | Unbound except as indicated in the horizontal section | 4) | Unbound except as indicated in the horizontal section | | |

Appendix 3: SECTOR SPECIFIC COMMITMENTS **Vietnam**

WTO Services Database Output

Modes of supply : 1)Cross-border supply 2)Consumption abroad 3)Commercial presence 4)Presence of natural persons

| Sector or Sub-sector | | Limitations on Market Access | | Limitations on National Treatment | Additional Commitments | Notes |
|--|----|---|----|---|------------------------|-------|
| Viet Nam | | | | | | |
| 05. Educational Services | | | | | | |
| B. Secondary Education Services (CPC 922) | 1) | Unbound. | 1) | Unbound. | | |
| | 2) | None. | 2) | None. | | |
| | 3) | Unbound. | 3) | Unbound. | | |
| | 4) | Unbound, except as indicated in the horizontal section. | 4) | Unbound, except as indicated in the horizontal section. | | |
| C. Higher education services (CPC 923) | 1) | Unbound. | 1) | Unbound. | | |
| D. Adult education (CPC 924) | | | | | | |
| E. Other education services (CPC 929 including foreign language training) | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|----|--|--|--|
| | | | | | | |
| | 2) | None. | 2) | None. | | |
| | 3) | None, except: Upon accession, only in the form of joint-ventures. Majority foreign ownership of such joint ventures is allowed. As of 1 January 2009, 100% foreign-invested education entities are permitted. After 3 years from the date of accession: none. | 3) | Foreign teachers who wish to work in foreign-invested schools shall have at least 5 years of teaching experience, and their qualifications shall be recognized by the competent authority. | | |
| | 4) | Unbound, except as indicated in the horizontal section. | 4) | Unbound, except as indicated in the horizontal section. | | |

Appendix 3: SECTOR SPECIFIC COMMITMENTS

WTO Services Database Output

Modes of supply : 1)Cross-border supply 2)Consumption abroad 3)Commercial presence 4)Presence of natural persons

| Sector or Sub-sector | | Limitations on Market Access | | Limitations on National Treatment | Additional Commitments | Notes |
|--|----|------------------------------|----|-----------------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| China | | | | | | |
| 05. Educational Services | | | | | | |
| (Excluding special education services e.g. military, police, political and party school education) | 1) | Unbound | 1) | Unbound | | |
| A. Primary education services (CPC 921, excluding national compulsory education in CPC 92190) | | | | | | |
| B. Secondary education services (CPC 922, excluding national compulsory education in CPC 92210) | | | | | | |
| C. Higher education services (CPC 923) | | | | | | |
| D. Adult education services (CPC 924) | | | | | | |
| E. Other education services (CPC 929, including English language training) | | | | | | |
| | 2) | None | 2) | None | | |

| | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|----|---|--|--|
| | 3) | Joint schools will be established, with foreign majority ownership permitted. | 3) | Unbound | | |
| | 4) | Unbound except as indicated in Horizontal Commitments and the following: foreign individual education service suppliers may enter into China to provide education services when invited or employed by Chinese schools and other education institutions. | 4) | Qualifications are as follows: possession of Bachelor's degree or above; and an appropriate professional title or certificate, with two years' professional experiences. | | |

Appendix 4: Insurance Policy at Bao Minh CMG and Priority Enrolment at RMIT Vietnam

In 2003 RMIT Vietnam and Bao Minh CMG established a strategic alliance to introduce a new insurance product to Vietnamese families: insurance and education plan. Insurance company sells policies which give automatic right of nominated party to enter RMIT Vietnam if they meet educational requirements in force at time of entry. Bao Minh CMG was a joint venture between the Vietnamese insurance company Bao Minh and Colonial Mutual Life Assurance Society Limited of the Australia's Commonwealth Bank Group. The joint-venture was established in 1999.

Artifact 1: The sample of certificate of Priority Enrolment at the time of taking insurance policy.

RMIT
INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY
VIETNAM

BẢO MINH CMG.

BẰNG CHỨNG NHẬN QUYỀN ƯU TIÊN TUYỂN SINH
Certificate of Priority Enrollment

Công ty Bảo hiểm Nhân thọ Bảo Minh CMG và trường Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam chứng nhận
Bao Minh CMG and RMIT International University Vietnam certify that

Huỳnh Ngọc Ngân

Được ưu tiên tuyển sinh vào năm **2011** tại trường Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam với các điều kiện dưới đây.
is granted priority enrollment in 2011 at the RMIT International University Vietnam subject to the conditions below.

Mr. Michael Mann
Founding President
RMIT International University Vietnam

Mr. Rod Carkeet
General Director
Bao Minh CMG

BIỂU CẢM - COMMENTS

1. Hợp đồng bảo hiểm nhân thọ này chỉ được chấp thuận nếu được duy trì hiệu lực cho đến ngày đáo hạn hợp đồng.
Insurance Policy must be kept in force until the end of the policy term.

2. Điều kiện nhận ưu tiên tuyển sinh vào năm 2011 chỉ được áp dụng cho các trường hợp Anh văn và chương trình dự bị đại học tại RMIT Việt Nam.
This Certificate may be used for enrollment in any undergraduate course of RMIT International University in Vietnam. It is also valid for English language training and the Undergraduate Program prior to undergraduate studies.

3. Người sử dụng quyền ưu tiên tuyển sinh cần đáp ứng tiêu chuẩn học tập tối thiểu đối với chương trình đại học và nộp đủ các khoản phí theo quy định của RMIT Việt Nam vào thời điểm đăng ký nhập học.
The nominee must satisfy academic qualifications and fees as required by RMIT International University Vietnam and meet all the fees of studying for entry must be met.

4. RMIT Việt Nam cần được thông báo trước một năm về ý định sử dụng quyền ưu tiên tuyển sinh này. Vào thời điểm đó, RMIT Việt Nam sẽ thể hiện các yêu cầu tuyển sinh nhất định và khoản lệ phí này có thể được tạm ứng từ số tiền bảo hiểm của Hợp đồng bảo hiểm nhân thọ này.
RMIT must be notified of the intention to take up this priority enrollment one year in advance. At that time the standard deposit of RMIT may be required and also may be made by a cheque against the benefit of the Bao Minh CMG Policy.

5. Nếu cá nhân trên không muốn sử dụng quyền ưu tiên tuyển sinh vào năm học tiếp theo thì có thể sử dụng vào năm học khác hoặc chuyển cho một thành viên khác trong gia đình sau khi đã thỏa thuận với RMIT Việt Nam.
In the event that the person named above does not wish to use this Certificate in the year stated, it may be transferred to any other immediate family member who meets the above criteria, subject to approval by the agreement of Bao Minh CMG and RMIT International University Vietnam.

Hợp đồng bảo hiểm nhân thọ này chỉ được chấp thuận nếu được duy trì hiệu lực cho đến ngày đáo hạn hợp đồng. **177621**
Insurance Policy must be kept in force until the end of the policy term.

Ngày (Date): **04/12/2003**

Source: Mann, 2006

Artifact 2: The introduction to the insurance product in English and Vietnamese.

BẢO HIỂM AN SINH GIÁO DỤC TOÀN DIỆN



"Make sure your child gets the best Education with Bao Minh CMG"

Call us today to find out how you can get priority enrollment for your child at RMIT.

Vững chắc cùng gia đình bạn **BẢO MINH CMG.**

Chương trình Bảo Hiểm An Sinh Giáo Dục Toàn Diện (BHMCMG) được thực hiện bởi Công ty Bảo Hiểm Nhân thọ Việt Nam (BHMCMG) và RMIT International University Vietnam. BHMCMG là một chương trình bảo hiểm nhân thọ được thiết kế đặc biệt để hỗ trợ các gia đình Việt Nam trong việc đầu tư cho tương lai của con em họ. BHMCMG cung cấp các lợi ích ưu đãi về học phí và các dịch vụ khác cho các học sinh của RMIT International University Vietnam. BHMCMG cũng cung cấp các dịch vụ tư vấn và hỗ trợ cho các gia đình Việt Nam trong việc đầu tư cho tương lai của con em họ.

BẢO HIỂM AN SINH GIÁO DỤC

"Đảm bảo cho con bạn một nền giáo dục tiêu chuẩn quốc tế tại Việt Nam với Bảo Minh CMG"



RMIT INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY VIETNAM

Hãy gọi cho chúng tôi ngay hôm nay để biết thêm thông tin về Ủy ban Tuyển Sinh dành cho con bạn vào Đại học Quốc Tế RMIT Việt Nam.

BẢO MINH CMG.
Vững chắc cùng gia đình bạn

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

- 1. What is RMIT International University Vietnam?**
RMIT International University Vietnam is an international foreign-owned University. It is the first and only such University in Vietnam. It is part of RMIT University Melbourne, the largest multi-functional university in Australia with over 60,000 students in Melbourne and 6500 students overseas. In May 2001 RMIT was licensed by the Vietnamese government to operate a foreign University in Vietnam. Customers can find more information on RMIT Vietnam, including a full description of courses and fees, by logging on to their website at: www.rmit.edu.vn
- 2. What is priority enrollment?**
At RMIT International University there are academic and English language entry requirements. In Australia, there is no entry examination to enter University, and therefore RMIT Vietnam does not have an entrance exam.
However applicants must have IELTS of 6.5 or a TOEFL score of 550 and meet the academic requirements of the program they wish to study to be eligible for entry to RMIT Vietnam.
Places are offered to students who meet the academic and English requirements. Students may also enter RMIT Vietnam through the University Preparation Program (UPP) providing they meet the academic requirements and pass the UPP course.
Places will become limited and as there is expected to be high competition for places, early bookings will be essential. The "Priority Enrollment" benefit ensures that a place is reserved in the University for qualifying Bao Minh CMG customers to the English Language courses, the University Preparation Program and all undergraduate courses. Students must meet entry requirements and academic qualifications of the year of enrollment.
- 3. What is a qualifying customer?**
All Bao Minh CMG customers who make a serious commitment to the education of their children by purchasing and keeping to maturity an Education Plan policy for a child with a sum insured of at least VND 100 million will qualify. The number of Certificates are limited and certificates are being issued in the order that applications are being received, so it is necessary to move quickly to avoid disappointment.
- 4. What is Certificate of Priority Enrollment?**
Certificate of Priority Enrollment with name of the child and year of enrollment is a proof of guarantee of Bao Minh CMG and RMIT International University Vietnam of priority enrollment.
- 5. How can qualifying customer takes up this benefit?**
It is a requirement that RMIT International University Vietnam should be notified of the intention to take up this priority enrollment one year in advance and the enrollment processes at that time are followed. Where a deposit is required this may be provided by a charge against the policy instead of cash making it easier to enroll up to a year in advance.

Source: Mann, 2006



MỘT SỐ THẮC MẮC VÀ GIẢI ĐÁP

1 • Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam là ai ?

Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam là trường đại học quốc tế 100% vốn nước ngoài đầu tiên và duy nhất tại Việt Nam hiện nay. Đại học Công nghệ Hoàng Gia Melbourne, cơ sở mẹ của RMIT Việt Nam, là một trong những trường đại học có nhiều cấp bậc đào tạo lớn nhất nước Úc với 60.000 sinh viên, trong đó có khoảng 8.000 sinh viên quốc tế. Từ năm 1992, RMIT đã có nhiều hoạt động nghiên cứu, hợp tác trên nhiều lĩnh vực với Việt Nam và được chính phủ mời thành lập **Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam** vào tháng 5 năm 2001.

Để biết thêm thông tin về **Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam**, các khóa học, điều kiện tuyển sinh và các thông tin khác, mời bạn liên hệ: ● Tp HCM: Tel (848) 822 4992, email: enquiries@rmit.edu.vn ● Hanoi: Tel (844) 726 1460, email: hanoi.enquiries@rmit.edu.vn ● Hoặc truy cập trang web: www.rmit.edu.vn.

2 • Bằng cấp và chương trình đào tạo tại RMIT Việt Nam như thế nào?

Bằng cấp do RMIT Melbourne, Úc cấp và giá trị trên toàn thế giới, chương trình và nội dung giảng dạy do các học gia tại Đại học Công nghệ Hoàng gia Melbourne, Úc soạn thảo. Tất cả các ngành đào tạo tại **RMIT Việt Nam** đều được Bộ Giáo dục và Đào tạo Việt Nam công nhận và tổ chức kiểm định chất lượng Đại học kiểm duyệt.

3 • Công ty BHNT Bảo Minh CMG là ai?

Bảo Minh CMG là liên doanh bảo hiểm nhân thọ duy nhất tại Việt Nam giữa Bảo Minh – công ty bảo hiểm lớn thứ hai tại Việt Nam trực thuộc Bộ Tài Chính và CMG – thành viên của Ngân hàng Commonwealth, một tập đoàn tài chính lớn nhất của Úc. **Bảo Minh CMG** chính thức đi vào hoạt động từ tháng 10/1999 và đến nay đã có 48 văn phòng kinh doanh trên toàn quốc cùng 7.000 nhân viên tư vấn tài chính được đào tạo bài bản.

4 • Thế nào là Quyền Ưu Tiên Tuyển Sinh?

Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam có những tiêu chuẩn tuyển sinh nhất định về tiếng Anh và học lực. Vì chế độ giáo dục của Úc không quy định kỳ thi tuyển sinh đại học nên **Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam** cũng áp dụng đúng như vậy.

Thí sinh dự tuyển phải có kết quả thi IELTS là 6.5 điểm hoặc TOEFL là 580 điểm, đồng thời đáp ứng được các yêu cầu về học lực cho chương trình đại học muốn đăng ký theo học mới đủ điều kiện nhập học tại **Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam**.

Thí sinh cũng có thể được tuyển vào **Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam** thông qua Chương trình dự bị đại học với điều kiện đáp ứng được các yêu cầu về học lực và tốt nghiệp chương trình học này.

Số lượng tuyển sinh của **Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam** là rất hạn chế và dự đoán sẽ có tranh đua gay gắt để giành những vị trí này vì thế việc đặt chỗ trước là cần thiết. Quyền Ưu Tiên Tuyển Sinh đảm bảo một vị trí tuyển sinh sẽ được dành riêng cho khách hàng hội đủ tiêu chuẩn của **Bảo Minh CMG** đối với các khóa học tiếng Anh, Chương trình dự bị đại học và tất cả các khóa học của chương trình đại học. Thí sinh phải đáp ứng được các điều kiện nhập học và các yêu cầu về học lực vào năm đăng ký theo học.

5 • Thế nào là khách hàng hội đủ tiêu chuẩn?

Khách hàng hội đủ tiêu chuẩn là các khách hàng của **Bảo Minh CMG** đầu tư vào việc học hành cho con cái thể hiện qua việc tham gia hợp đồng bảo hiểm An Sinh Giáo Dục và An Sinh Gia Đình Toàn Diện có số tiền bảo hiểm tối thiểu là 100.000.000 đồng. Số lượng ưu tiên tuyển sinh là có giới hạn và Bằng Chứng Nhận Quyền Ưu Tiên Tuyển Sinh sẽ được phát hành dựa theo thứ tự Giấy yêu cầu bảo hiểm mà Công ty nhận được.

6 • Bằng Chứng Nhận Quyền Ưu Tiên Tuyển Sinh là gì?

Bằng Chứng Nhận Quyền Ưu Tiên Tuyển Sinh với đầy đủ thông tin về tên của con bạn và năm đăng ký nhập học trên đó sẽ là bằng chứng đảm bảo cho việc ưu tiên tuyển sinh đã được cam kết giữa **Bảo Minh CMG** và **Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam**.

7 • Làm thế nào để khách hàng hội đủ tiêu chuẩn thực hiện quyền lợi này?

Theo yêu cầu của **Đại học Quốc tế RMIT Việt Nam**, khách hàng nên thông báo ý định sử dụng quyền ưu tiên tuyển sinh này trước một năm cho trường và quá trình đăng ký nhập học được theo dõi từ lúc đó. Và vào năm đăng ký nhập học tại RMIT, hợp đồng với **Bảo Minh CMG** vẫn có hiệu lực.

Nếu có yêu cầu ký quỹ khi đăng ký thì khoản ký quỹ này sẽ được tạm ứng từ hợp đồng bảo hiểm thay vì phải đóng trực tiếp, nhờ đó khách hàng thuận lợi hơn trong việc đăng ký nhập học trước một năm.

Artifact 3: First students with insurance policy begin at RMIT Vietnam

Between 2003 and 2006 the Priority Enrolment Programme (PEP) managed by Bao Minh CMG Life Insurance Company has attracted over 9,000 PEP holders with 100 PEP students expected to begin their studies at RMIT Vietnam in 2006.



Ly Anh Duy (male), one of the first PEP students, studying at RMIT Vietnam
Source: RMIT Vietnam 10, 2006.

Artefact 4: 10,000th customer to join the “Priority Enrolment Programme”

On 25 July 2006, RMIT Vietnam and Bao Minh CMG welcomed the 10,000th customer to join the “Priority Enrolment Programme” which started in 2003. From 2007, Bao Minh CMG will award full scholarships to excellent students in the program with total value of US \$ 60 000.



Bao Minh CMG Director General (left) and RMIT Vietnam President with the 10,000th customer (centre) at the ceremony.
Source: RMIT Vietnam 12, 2006.

Artefact 5: Bao Minh CMG was acquired by a Japanese Insurance Company in January 2007

In January 2007, the Japanese Insurance Company, Dai-ichi, bought Bao Minh CMG. Although the rights and interests of the existing customers were maintained, the “Priority enrolment programme” was not the first priority of Dai-ichi Life Insurance.

Source: <http://www.dai-ichi-life.com.vn/dai-ichi-life-vietnam.html>

<http://www.dai-ichi-life.com.vn/education-plan.html>

<http://english.vietnamnet.vn/biz/2007/01/653722/>

http://www.baohiem.pro.vn/Ins_News_Article.asp?CatID=66&ID=1786

Retrieved in December 2010.

Appendix 5: Partnerships with Banking sector to offer student loans to cover tuition fees

Story 1: Visit of Ms Nguyen Thi Kim Phung - Deputy Governor, State Bank of Vietnam to RMIT Vietnam campus on 22 June 2006.



The RMIT Vietnam President, Mr Michael Mann and Deputy State Bank governor, Nguyen Thi Kim Phung.

Source: RMIT Vietnam 11, 2006

Story 2: August 2006, RMIT Vietnam and the Asia Commercial Bank (ACB) signed an agreement to provide financial loans to students who wish to study at RMIT Vietnam.



RMIT Vietnam President and ACB President exchanging a Memorandum of Understanding at the Signing Ceremony on 15 August 2006.

Source: RMIT Vietnam 13, 2006

Story 3: In December 2006, RMIT Vietnam and the Vietnam Technological and Commercial Joint Stock Bank (Techcombank) signed an agreement that provides student loans to cover tuition fees at RMIT.



RMIT's President, Michael Mann, and Techcombank Director General, Nguyen Duc Vinh, sign the Student Loan Agreement on 14 December 2006 in Hanoi.

Source: RMIT Vietnam 15, 2006

Appendix 6: 2010 UG Entry requirements and admissions process

The University of Nottingham Ningbo, China (For Chinese students only. See points 1 and 20)

Article1. General Principles

1. It is approved by the Ministry of Education that the University of Nottingham Ningbo, China can recruit students in 27 provinces in Year 2010, including Zhejiang, Jiangsu, Shanghai, Tianjin, Shanxi, Shandong, Sichuan, Hunan, Heilongjiang, Liaoning, Fujian, Hubei, Chongqing, Hebei, Anhui, Jiangxi, Henan, Guangxi, Chongqing, Guizhou, Yunnan, Neimenggu, Gansu, Xinjiang, Qinghai, Jilin and Ningxia Provinces. The whole target intake is 1200.
2. To make the admissions work go smoothly, the Admission Policies were formulated according to 'The Higher Education Law of the People's Republic of China' and 'The Regulations of the People's Republic of China on Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools' in order that our admission schemes could be carried out smoothly.
3. The University of Nottingham Ningbo, China is located at Ningbo Higher Education Zone. Its postal address is 199 Taikang East Road, Ningbo, Zhejiang (P.C.: 315100).
4. In partnership with Zhejiang Wanli University, the University of Nottingham Ningbo, China is the first independently run Sino-foreign cooperative university with the approval from the Chinese Ministry of Education. Supported by Ningbo Municipal Government the joint venture brings in high-quality foreign educational resources from one of the world's top 100 universities. All the degree programmes will be taught entirely in English. Students will be awarded the degree of the University of Nottingham.
5. The university has set up an Admissions Committee which has overall responsibility for carrying out its admissions schemes. The committee makes key decisions on intake target, enrolment strategies and policies. The committee comprises the heads of the university and the departments.
6. The university's Admissions Office is the executive arm of the Admissions Committee and deals with routine recruitment issues including: implementing the policies and regulations made by the Ministry of Education and the Provincial Admissions Office; formulating the Admission Policies and enrolment strategies; selecting candidates based on intake target and division of subjects; promoting the university with an accurate image reflecting the university's standards and enrolment policies.

Article2. Enrolment Principles

7. The enrolment principles were formulated following 'The Guidelines for Admissions of Higher Education Institutions-2010' by the China's Ministry of Education. In light of the principles of fairness, equality and transparency, the university takes the full responsibility for its recruitment activities and is supervised by the provincial admissions office. Accordingly, the university has two routes of selecting candidates i.e., Direct Entry Recruitment (Zhejiang Province only) and the recruitment based on the scores of China's University Entrance Exam. The former one follows the principles approved by the provincial admissions office, which is 'The Admission Schemes for the University of Nottingham Ningbo, China: Direct Entry Admissions 2010'. The latter one is based on the scores of the national entrance examination. Other factors beyond the exam scores will also be considered including supporting skills, experience and the context of a student's achievement.
8. As our programmes are taught entirely in English, the foreign language examined will be English. We normally require a score of 115 or above for English test as part of the National University Entrance Examination. For the three programmes, English Language and Literature, English Language and Applied

Linguistics, English Studies with International Business, we normally require a score of 120 or above for English test.

For Jiangsu Province this year, we require 90 or above for English test. Since Chinese, Maths and English are graded by digital numbers while other subjects by A, B, C, we require the former three subjects Division 1 and others BB.

9. There will be no discrimination against the disabled as required by the Chinese Ministry of Education on its "Guidelines for Applicants' Health Examination" (Decree No. 3, 2003).

10. There will be no specified gender ratio.

11. If some provinces have more candidates and some have fewer candidates than the target, the university will adjust the intakes between these provinces and make the quota meet under the approval from each provincial admission office.

12. The University of Nottingham Ningbo, China will adjust the intake between Art students and Science students.

13. The university will not decide its threshold score till the Provincial Admissions Offices have announced the first level scores in each province. The procedures are as follows:

1) For the "non-parallel choices" provinces, priority goes to the applicants with their first choice, followed by those applicants with their second choice in the case of insufficient numbers of applicants on the first choice.

2) For the "parallel choices" provinces, priority goes to those who get higher scores. Applicants have three choices at the same time, and once the score meets the requirement of one of the universities, he/she can get enrolled. In case the applicants with enough Gaokao score choose UNNC as their "A" choices, they will get 10 extra points in the enrolment (5 points for Jiangsu students); if they choose UNNC as "B" choices, it will be 5 extra points (3 points for Jiangsu students).

3) The university selects the applicants from higher scores to lower scores.

4) An applicant whose scores are not high enough to be selected by his first choice will be considered by his second choice. If his second choice fails, their third choice would be considered. If all his choices fail to get him a place, the applicant will still be considered for other subjects for which he may not have applied. However such case would not happen if his file indicates that the applicant refuses to switch subjects.

5) This year the university has no requirements for score differentiation.

14. The university will strictly follow the policy of bonus points for suitable candidates as required by the Chinese Ministry of Education and the Provincial Admissions Offices.

15. The university will submit a proposal for changes on our recruitment plan to the Provincial Admissions Offices in the case of insufficient numbers of application. The new recruitment plan would only be effective when it has been approved.

16. Students will be able to apply to change to other subjects after entry into the University subject to performance on the shared elements of the Semester 1 programme in Year 1 and University capacity. The number of transfers will be limited to 10% of the intake plan for each of the receiving degree programmes.

Arts students may not transfer to programmes which require a science background.

Students will not normally be permitted to transfer into named Engineering degrees from other subjects.

Students accepted onto named Engineering degrees will be able to apply to transfer to other Engineering degrees subject to outstanding performance on the shared elements of Semester 1 of Year 1 and capacity on individual degree programmes.

Students will be able to apply to transfer between 2+2 and 4+0 degrees within Divisions subject to outstanding performance on the shared elements of Semester 1 of Year 1 and capacity on individual degree programmes.

17. The Provincial Admissions Offices and the university's Admissions Committee will closely monitor the university's selection process.

Article 3. Admissions

18. The university will sign and send the Letter of Offer to the candidates as approved by the Provincial Admissions Offices.

19. Apart from Zhejiang Province, the university's admissions work will be spread to other twenty six provinces, which are Jiangsu, Beijing, Shanghai, Tianjin, Shanxi, Shandong, Sichuan, Hunan, Heilongjiang, Liaoning, Fujian, Hubei, Chongqing, Hebei, Anhui, Jiangxi, Henan, Guangxi, Chongqing, Guizhou, Yunnan, Neimenggu, Gansu, Xinjiang, Qinghai and Ningxia Provinces.

20. The university charge candidates according to its basic education costs. The tuition fee for the year of 2010 will be RMB 60,000 and accommodation fee RMB 2,000 as approved by Zhejiang Provincial Prices Control Bureau.

21. There are scholarships schemes for talented students. Please see the Regulations on Student Scholarships for details.

22. Students who are admitted through the National Entrance Examination and Direct Entry recruitment will possess the same identity, and enjoy exactly the same treatments both in teaching and living conditions.

23. After the entry into the university, the candidates will be required to take a physical check within three month. Only those who have passed the check can obtain their status as a student. The students must abide by all the regulations and programmes requirements prescribed by the university.

Article 4. The Supplementary

24. For detailed information regarding the university's enrolment plan and programmes, please visit our website: <http://www.nottingham.edu.cn/>

25. If you have any further queries, please do not hesitate to contact us either by email or phone call.

Our Email address is: admissions@nottingham.edu.cn.

Phone number is: 0574-88222460/88180004.

Fax number is: 0574-88222483.

26. The admissions policies will be carried out from its issuing date, and it is up to the university's Admissions Office to explain any outstanding issues.

Source:

<http://www.nottingham.edu.cn/en/admissions/undergraduateadmissionsinformation/2010ugentryrequirementsandtheadmissionsprocess.aspx>

Accessed in January 2011

Appendix 7: Organisational Chart of RMIT Vietnam 2010

Senior Management Organisation Chart
July 2010

