



2011 Conference

[Panel session]
**Ramifications of the Bologna Process in
Cases of Europe, Asia and North
America**

**Responses to Bologna Process in the
United States**

**Takao Kamibeppu
Tokyo Jogakkan College
Japan**

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Introduction

- Purpose of this presentation:
 - (1) To overview the ways in which BP gained slow but gradual recognition by the U.S. higher education community
 - (2) To indicate some examples of advocacy and policymaking inspired directly or indirectly by BP
 - (3) To pose some questions regarding the outlook of BP in the U.S.

(BP recap)

- Definition: An attempt to create EHEA by 2010 (and beyond) through the harmonization of diverse higher education systems in Europe
- Major purposes:
 - (1) to increase international competitiveness of European higher education;
 - (2) to secure highly educated workforce for Europe; and
 - (3) to help maintain stable, peaceful and democratic EU.

(BP recap)

- Tools for harmonization:
 - (1) 3-cycle degree system (BA, MA, & Ph.D.)
 - (2) Qualification frameworks (learning outcomes for a degree)
 - (3) Tuning process
 - (4) ECTS (European Credit Transfer & Accumulation System)

1. Changing recognition of BP

- Early 2000s
 - Overlooking/overreaction/rejection, threat to faculty's discretion and college autonomy, “wait and see” attitude, efforts to understand correctly (Inside Higher Ed, 2006; Birtwistle et al, 2009; Simmons et al, 2009)
- Late 2000s
 - Emerging audience: Graduate school deans (e.g., Council of Graduate Schools), international educators (e.g., NAFSA, foreign student & study abroad advisers) (Inside Higher Ed, 2007)

1. Changing recognition

- “The Bologna Process” published by NAFSA Bologna Task Force in 2007 as NAFSA’s contribution for better understanding of BP in the U.S.
- Increasing reception of 3-year Bologna-compliant degrees by colleges (Bennett, 2009; Inside Higher Ed, 2009a)
- Promotion of dual/joint degrees for enhanced trans-Atlantic mobility as a response to BP

2. Advocacy and policymaking

- Adelman reports (supported by Lumina Foundation for Education)
 - First in May 2008: “The Bologna Club: What U.S. higher education can learn from a decade of European reconstruction”—“Everyone is singing in the same key, though not necessarily with the same tune.” (p. v)
 - Second in April 2009: “The Bologna Process for U.S. eyes: Re-learning higher education in the age of convergence”—“nations that learn from other nations grow; those that do not learn, don’t” (p. ix)
 - Emergence of “de facto” American Bologna promoter

2. Advocacy and policymaking

- Tuning USA project
 - As a culmination of advocacy efforts of Lumina Foundation for Education
 - Purpose: To investigate what academic degrees in a given field represent in actual knowledge & skills
 - 1st stage: June-Nov. 2009 in 6 disciplines offered by 25 HEIs in 3 states--Indiana (chemistry, education & history), Minnesota (graphic design & chemistry), and Utah (history & physics)
 - Participating stakeholders: faculty, staff, students, alumni from research universities, regional 4-year institutions, community colleges, independent institutions, employers and funding bodies
 - Next stage: Texas (engineering), Kentucky followed

2. Advocacy and policymaking

- Final results yet publicly unrevealed (to my knowledge) (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2010)
- Exploration of “national” expansion through various channels (HEIs, accreditation agencies, uniform state law, or Federal approach) (McKiernan & Birtwistle, 2010)
- The context of Lumina’s goal of reaching 60% college completion (not enrollment) rate by 2025 (Lumina Foundation for Education, 2010)
- Debate on academic freedom (Inside Higher Ed, 2009b)—harmonization, not standardization

3. Questions as concluding remarks

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- Preliminary assessment of impact: “Half glass full” or “Half glass empty”
- Double-edged sword: Competition and cooperation
- Convergence/harmonization in the United States—Roles of major policy advocates (Lumina, NAFSA, CGS...)
- Paradigm shift from input to outcome
 - AACU’s LEAP (Liberal Education & America’s Promise), CLA, MAPP, CAAP
- Increased mobility for better employability?
- Role of Community Colleges
- Benefits of BP lessons to Americans, after all?

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Thank you for your attention!

For questions, comments, suggestions, please
contact me at:

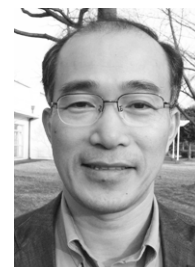
beppu36@yahoo.co.jp or

amibep@m.tjk.ac.jp

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Internationalisation of higher education in Japan

Recent policy developments and opportunities for greater cooperation with Europe



Takao Kamibeppu

Throughout the last three decades, Japan has regarded the internationalisation of higher education as “internationalisation at home” rather than as “internationalisation abroad”. The Japanese higher education community has made particular efforts to increase the number of international students, which it considers an important indicator of the internationalisation and the attractiveness of Japanese higher education. This article discusses the internationalisation of students (inbound and outbound mobility) with a focus on the development of internationalisation policy in higher education in Japan from 1983 to 2009. It summarises the discussions on the future perspectives of the internationalisation of higher education in Japan, as well as the possible ways in which Japan and Europe can expand cooperation in this field. It argues that while developments of higher education in Europe have profound impacts on Japanese higher education, Europe and Japan could increase two-way mobility by identifying “niches” based on particular trends in student mobility, while at the same time forming an interactive policymaking partnership.

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1. Introduction

International students as indicator for internationalisation

In the last three decades, the internationalisation of higher education in Japan has focused on “internationalisation at home” rather than “internationalisation abroad”. The Japanese government and Japanese higher education institutions (HEIs) have made particular efforts to increase the number of international students, which they consider to be an important indicator of internationalisation and of the attractiveness of Japanese higher education. The government has long considered that the presence of a larger body of international students would help Japanese HEIs improve the quality of their education and research in various ways and that it would also help cultivate “pro-Japanese” attitudes.

100,000 international students plan

In 1983, when there were 10,428 international students in Japan, the government set a numerical target of 100,000 international students¹ to be achieved by the year 2000. The target was finally met in 2003, a little behind schedule, when the number reached 109,508 (as of May). In July 2008, the government officially launched a plan with a new target of 300,000 international students to be attained by the year 2020. The government thus consistently regards the rise of the international student population in Japan as the best indicator of internationalisation. According to a survey undertaken by the Japan Student Services Organisation (JASSO)² in May 2009, Japan hosted a record 132,720 international students, a figure which was up by 8,891 students (7.2 %) on the previous year (JASSO, 2009b). These numbers include both degree- and non-degree (short-term) international students.³

¹ In government documentation, an “international student” is defined as a student from a foreign country who is receiving education at any Japanese university, graduate school, junior college, college of technology, professional training college or university preparatory courses, and who resides in Japan under “college student” visa status, as defined in Annexed Table 1 of the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act (JASSO, 2009b). University preparatory courses are offered to those who complete their secondary education before they reach 18 years in a foreign education system (e.g. the Philippines and Malaysia), so that they can be qualified to enter Japanese HEIs (the minimum entry age is 18).

² JASSO was established in 2004 as the central agency responsible for international students; it was formed by the rationalisation of many smaller agencies involved in international student affairs.

³ A “short-term international student” is defined as a student from a foreign country who is receiving education in Japan for a period of one year or less. The purpose of the student is not necessarily to obtain a degree but rather to study at a Japanese HEI, to experience a different culture, or to improve Japanese language skills (JASSO, 2009b).

This article deals with the internationalisation of students (inbound and outbound mobility) and the internationalisation of higher education in Japan. First, it provides an overview of the current state of affairs regarding international students in Japan, followed by the development of internationalisation policy in higher education over time from the early 1980s to 2009. Secondly, it discusses the internationalisation of education, namely curriculum and teaching. Thirdly, the article analyses the future perspectives for the internationalisation of higher education in Japan, identifying opportunities and challenges. Fourthly and lastly, it explores possible ways in which Japan and Europe can expand cooperation in this field.

2. Internationalisation of students

2.1 Latest data

Out of the 2009 international student population, more than 90 % are Asians, and the students from neighbouring China, Republic of Korea (ROK) and Taiwan constitute about 78 %. The percentage of short-term students (included in the statistics) is a mere 8.6 %. Annexes I and II of the JASSO report show the numerical changes of international students over time from 1983 to 2009, by source of funding and by institutional type (JASSO, 2009b).

**More than 90 %
of international
students from Asia**

If we look at the geographical distribution of international students in Japan (Table A 3.2-3-1), Asia is still overwhelmingly dominant. The shares of students from Asia, Europe and North America have changed little from the previous year (JASSO, 2008b).

Region	Number of students (degree and non-degree)	Share (%)	Short-term (non-degree) students	Share (%)
Asia	122,464	92.3	7,223	62.6
Europe	4,033	3.0	1,928	16.7
North America	2,575	1.9	1,863	16.1
Africa	1,159	0.9	63	0.5
Central & South America	1,050	0.8	144	1.2
Middle & Near East	923	0.7	63	0.5
Oceania	516	0.4	262	2.3
Total	132,720	100.0	11,546	100.0

Table A 3.2-3-1 Distribution of international students by region of origin in 2009
(Source: JASSO, 2009b)

As for country/region of origin (Table A 3.2-3-2), China, ROK, Taiwan, Vietnam and Malaysia (all in Asia) occupy the top five positions. The United States and Canada rank 7th and 19th respectively. As for European countries, France, Germany and the UK send students in the meagre 400s and 600s. The rest are mostly students from other Asian countries. The landscape of international students in Japan illustrates how Japan attracts students almost exclusively from within East Asia.

Rank	Countries/regions of origin	Number	Share (%)
1	China	79,082	59.6
2	Republic of Korea (ROK)	19,605	14.8
3	Taiwan	5,332	4.0
4	Vietnam	3,199	2.4
5	Malaysia	2,395	1.8
6	Thailand	2,360	1.8
7	United States	2,230	1.7
8	Indonesia	1,996	1.5
9	Bangladesh	1,683	1.3
10	Nepal	1,628	1.2
11	Mongolia	1,215	0.9
12	Myanmar	1,012	0.8
13	Sri Lanka	934	0.7
14	France	624	0.5
15	India	543	0.4
16	Philippines	528	0.4
17	Germany	450	0.3
18	UK	427	0.3
19	Canada	345	0.3
20	Brazil	336	0.3

Table A 3.2-3-2 Top 20 countries/regions of origin (including short-term programmes) in 2009
(Source: JASSO, 2009b)

However, if we disaggregate the short-term students from the overall numbers, the majority of European students from France, Germany, UK and Sweden are shown to be on short-term programmes (Table A 3.2-3-3). The same is true for the US, Australia and Canada. In particular, 3 out of 4 American students are on short-term visits. Developed countries such as Australia, Sweden, Finland, Italy, Russia and Spain do not appear in the top 20 list by total number, but they do appear on top 20 short-term list. In contrast, Asian countries figure less prominently on the short-term list, which indicates a strong flow of degree students from developing countries in Asia to Japan, either with government scholarships or self-funding.

**Majority of
European students on
short-term programmes**

Rank	Countries/ regions of origin	Number	Share (%)	Share in the total number of the country
1	China	3,577	31.0	4.5
2	Republic of Korea	1,952	16.9	10.0
3	United States	1,683	14.6	75.5
4	Taiwan	729	6.3	13.7
5	France	412	3.6	66.0
6	Germany	313	2.7	70.0
7	Thailand	295	2.6	12.5
8	UK	256	2.2	60.0
9	Australia	219	1.9	66.2
10	Canada	180	1.6	52.2
11	Indonesia	154	1.3	7.7
12	Vietnam	129	1.1	4.0
13	Sweden	121	1.0	66.5
14	Netherlands	94	0.8	-
15	Mongolia	93	0.8	7.7
16	Finland	76	0.7	-
16	Italy	76	0.7	-
18	Russia	71	0.6	23.4
19	Spain	60	0.5	-
20	Philippines	52	0.5	9.8

Table A 3.2-3-3 **Top 10 countries/regions of origin for
short-term programmes in 2009**
(Source: JASSO, 2009b)

Half of the international students in undergraduate programmes

Looking at the programme distribution (Table A 3.2-3-4), half of the international students are in undergraduate programmes, while about a quarter is in graduate programmes and a quarter in professional training colleges. The shares of undergraduate, graduate and professional training college (non-degree) programmes have held steady over the last few years. The rate of increase from 2008 was 8.4 % for both graduate programmes and professional training colleges, and 6.2 % for undergraduate programmes, junior colleges, and colleges of technology combined (JASSO, 2005; 2006b; 2007b; 2008b; 2009b).

Program	Number	Share (%)
Graduate	35,405	26.7
Undergraduate	64,327	48.5
Junior college	2,224	1.7
College of technology	557	0.4
Professional training college	27,914	21.0
University preparatory course	2,293	1.7
Total	132,720	100

Table A 3.2-3-4 **Distribution of international students by programme in 2009** (Source: JASSO, 2009b)

The distribution both by institutional type and by programme (Table A 3.2-3-5) shows that the majority of graduate students are in national HEIs, while more than 80 % of undergraduate students and close to 100 % of professional training college students are at private ones.

National goals and policies

Purposes and rationales

Institutional type/ programme	National		Local public		Private		Total	
	Number	Share (%)	Number	Share (%)	Number	Share (%)	Number	Share (%)
Graduate	21,884	61.8	1,493	4.2	12,028	34.0	35,405	100.0
Undergraduate	9,907	15.4	1,313	2.0	53,107	82.6	64,327	100.0
Junior college	0	0	5	0.2	2,219	99.8	2,224	100.0
College of technology	472	84.7	0	0	85	15.3	557	100.0
Professional training college	0	0	8	0.03	27,906	99.97	27,914	100.0
University preparatory course	0	0	0	0	2,293	100.0	2,293	100.0
Total	32,263	24.3	2,819	2.1	97,638	73.6	132,720	100.0

Table A 3.2-3-5 Distribution of international students by institutional type and by programme in 2009 (Source: JASSO, 2009b)

By field of study (Table A 3.2-3-6), more than 60 % of international students are to be found in humanities, social science, and education, followed by engineering. Natural science (such as engineering, agriculture, science) takes about 20 % of the students.

Social science most popular subject area

Field of study	Number of students	Share (%)
Humanities	32,954	24.8
Social science	50,620	38.1
Health	1,694	1.3
Engineering	20,713	15.6
Education	2,934	2.2
Agriculture	2,877	2.2
Arts	2,898	2.2
Science	3,045	2.3
Home economics	4,130	3.1
Others	10,855	8.2
Total	132,720	100.0

Table A 3.2-3-6 Distribution of international students by field of study in 2009 (Source, JASSO, 2009b)

Asian students enrolled in degree programmes

Thus, the general and long-term trends could be summarised as follows:

- Students from Asia, particularly Chinese students, predominate;
- Many Asian students are enrolled in degree programmes, while many students from OECD countries favour short-term programmes;
- Approximately 90 % of the international students are self-funded, and about 70 % of them are enrolled in private HEIs;
- Graduate students are concentrated at national universities and undergraduate students at private ones; and
- Humanities and social science are more popular than natural science.

2.2 Efforts to attract 100,000 international students from 1983 to 2004

As mentioned above, in 1983 the government set an initial recruitment target of 100,000 international students by 2000. The figure was intended to match, by early in the 21st century, the number of international students in France in 1983. It assumed that 10 % of the students would be publicly funded (with scholarships from Japanese and other governments), while the remaining 90 % would have private and other funding.

Struggle to host international students

As soon as the 100,000 target was announced, the Ministry of Justice took steps to allow international students to work part-time in Japan. As Japan was experiencing an acute shortage of labour in the so-called “bubble economy”, the number of newly established Japanese language schools mushroomed. As a consequence, international students increasingly flocked to Japanese language schools and moved on to Japanese HEIs after graduation. In 1989, the number of international students reached 30,000. However, in the absence of any regulation of quality assurance in Japanese language schools, problems involving overstays and illegal labour increased. In November 1988, a few hundred Chinese visa applicants surrounded the Japanese Consulate in Shanghai, protesting against the non-granting of visas despite the payment of tuition and other fees to the schools in Japan. In response to this “Shanghai Incident”, the Ministry of Justice revised immigration policy in 1989, distinguishing the “college student visa (*ryugaku biza*)” for 4-year HEIs, junior colleges and professional training colleges from the “pre-college visa (*shugaku biza*)”, granted essentially for Japanese language school students. While the college student visa is valid for one or two years with medical and transportation benefits, the pre-college visa is valid for six months or one year, without benefits (Shiraishi, 2006).

National goals and policies

Purposes and rationales

Between 1993 and 1999, under the stricter immigration policy, the number of international students rose and fell by around 50,000. During this difficult period, the government implemented several measures in order to reach the 100,000 target. In 1993, CULCON (United States-Japan Conference on Cultural and Educational Interchange) recommended that student exchange between Japan and the US be further enhanced. As a result, an International Student Center was established at 8 national universities such as Hiroshima, Tokyo and Kyoto by 1996. In 1994, the Prime Minister's consultative council (*Kokusai bunka koryu ni kansuru kondankai*) proposed the establishment of the short-term exchange programme; and in 1995 MEXT's study panel formulated a specific plan. The main focus of the short-term exchange programme was to attract under-represented students from OECD countries, by offering English-run programmes mainly at national universities. In spite of these efforts, the total number of international students gradually decreased (MOE, 1997).

Efforts to reach the 100,000 target

To halt the decline, MOE⁴ established the Forum on Foreign Student Policy (*Ryugakusei seisaku kondankai*) in 1996. Its first report, published in July 1997, included reflections on the major causes of the decline:

New policy proposals

1. the tighter immigration policy in place since 1990, as a result of the increase of overstays and illegal labour,
2. the "lost decade" due to the burst of the so-called "bubble economy" and the subsequent recession, which made Japan a less attractive destination for international students,
3. the impacts of the 1997 Asian financial crisis,
4. the high living costs in Japan and Japanese people's unfamiliarity with living with foreigners, and
5. the lack of information on Japanese HEIs outside Japan.

In 1998, MOE's University Council announced a policy proposal entitled "University image in the 21st century and future reform", in which it made it clear that Japanese HEIs needed international competitiveness, so that they could attract international students (MOE, 1997). Together with this policy proposal, the Forum on Foreign Student Policy published its final report in 1999, which demanded a systematic and drastic reform of the system for attracting and supporting international students.

⁴ The Ministry of Education, Science and Culture was reorganised into the Ministry of Education, Culture, Science, Sports and Technology in 2001, merging with the Science and Technology Agency. In this article, MOE refers to the ministry up to 2000, while MEXT refers to it from 2001 onwards.

In 2000, MOE's University Council submitted to the Minister its final report entitled "Role of higher education in a globalised world". The University Council proposed four internationalisation measures (University Council, 2000):

1. to encourage Japanese students and researchers to study abroad;
2. to intensify the recruitment of international students;
3. to promote inter-collegiate exchange and collaboration with UMAP⁵ and other consortia;
4. to facilitate the involvement of Japanese HEIs in development aid.

In the same year, after realising the impact of the strict immigration policy of the 1990s, the Ministry of Justice once again changed the rules, this time by simplifying the application package (removing the requirement for financial statements and academic certificates). As a result, the number of international students reached 60,000 in 2000, 70,000 in 2001, and 90,000 in 2002.

Finally reaching the objective

In December 2003, when it was confirmed that the number of international students in Japan finally exceeded 100,000, MEXT's Central Council on Education (which took over the functions of the University Council) announced new proposals on study abroad students for the period 2004 – 2008. First, Central Council on Education pointed out the following reasons for the dramatic increase in international students in Japan since 2000:

1. the increase of applicants from Asian countries⁶ with high economic growth rates, notably China;
2. the Japanese universities' focus on international students as a means of compensating for the financial loss incurred by shrinking university-age Japanese student population; and
3. the relaxation of immigration procedures for international students in 2000 (Central Council on Education, 2003).

⁵ UMAP stands for the University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific. Founded in 1993 on the model of Europe's Erasmus programme, it is a voluntary association of government and non-government representatives of the higher education sector in the region.

⁶ There has been a traditional emphasis on recruiting students from developing countries, partly using ODA.

The Central Council on Education's new policy proposals included:

1. balanced student mobility (i. e., encouraging Japanese students to study abroad);
2. stronger support for Japanese students who study abroad;
3. improving the quality of international students in Japan; and
4. improving the support system for international students in Japan.

It was the first time that MEXT's consultative bodies had referred to Japanese study abroad students, who had previously been ignored (Central Council on Education, 2003).

However, despite MEXT's consistent drive – through policy and programme development – to attract more international students to Japan, immigration policy was again made tighter by the Ministry of Justice in 2003. This policy change was in reaction to workload problems caused by the increasing number of HEIs compensating for loss of Japanese students by recruiting international students without proper student support. This action once again resulted in slowing the rate of increase, as shown in Annex I.

Thus, changes in international student numbers are essentially determined by immigration policy, the tightness of which changes on an ad hoc basis and in the absence of a consistent and long-term immigration policy for Japan.

**Impacts of
immigration policy**

2.3 Towards a new level of 300,000 international students, 2005 – 2009

At the time of the slowdown in the growth of international student numbers in the early years of the new millennium, MEXT was changing the rationale of its international student policy – from international understanding and foreign aid to a more strategic emphasis on enhancing international competitiveness and recruiting highly skilled workers. MEXT had long been concerned that Japan was lagging behind in attracting international students, in comparison to other popular destination countries, and that it was losing its premier status in East Asia because of its own weak policy position and of competition from other countries.

Following the incorporation of national universities in 2004, the government took several initiatives to accelerate the internationalisation of Japanese HEIs from 2005. The first major undertaking was a project called the “Strategic Fund for Establishing International Headquarters in Universities (*Daigaku kokusai senryaku honbu kyoka jigyo*)”, funded by MEXT and managed by the Japan Society for Promotion of Sci-

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strategy**

ence (JSPS) and the Japan International Science and Technology Exchange Centre (JISTEC). In 2005, MEXT appropriated 500 million yen to kick-start the project, as a way to attract distinguished researchers from within and outside Japan by creating an internationally competitive research environment. The project stemmed from MEXT's concern that only a few HEIs in Japan had elaborated strategies and plans for internationalisation; it was a departure from MEXT's traditional approach to funding international activities in education and research (JSPS, 2007).

In the framework of the project, 20 model universities were selected and funded (at 10 to 40 million yen per institution per annum) from 2005 to 2009. Through the newly established international strategy headquarters within their organisations, the universities undertook advanced institution-wide international activities. They made efforts specifically in:

1. organisational reform for an integrated (cross-sectional) approach to internationalisation,
2. strengthening the capacity for programme planning and implementation among university faculty and staff,
3. introducing external resources from the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), EU Institute in Japan (EUIJ),⁷ and so on.
4. participating in international cooperation consortia on education and research,
5. offering coordinated (not piecemeal) support systems for international researchers and students, including enhancing their living environment, and
6. more meaningful and substantive utilisation of overseas offices.

This project is expected to generate “good practice” in university internationalisation, to be shared by all other HEIs in Japan (JSPS, 2007). This project is scheduled to be completed at the end of financial year 2009 (March 2010), and it is expected that each of 20 universities will maintain the work of international strategy headquarters with its own funding (JSPS, 2007).

⁷ EUIJ is an academic centre of studies and research on the European Union in Japan. It is sponsored by the European Commission and managed by several consortia. Its main purpose is to establish EU-related study and research opportunities, to provide information about the EU, and to enhance the general awareness of the EU and its policies in Japan (EU Institute in Japan, 2009).

National goals and policies

Purposes and rationales

The year 2007 marked an array of internationalisation initiatives proposed and launched by different government agencies. In April, the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI) launched the “Career Development Programme for Foreign Students in Japan (*Ajia jinzai shikin koso*)” jointly with MEXT. It aimed at helping international students to find work in Japan after their academic studies, by providing them with professional training, Japanese language and job seeking support (Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry, 2009). This was METI’s first involvement in international students since the war reparation programmes of the 1950s. In May, the Prime Minister’s Office proposed the “Asia Gateway Initiative”, which positioned Japan as a gateway between Asia and the rest of the world, making it an international education hub in the region. In June, the Prime Minister’s Education Rebuilding Council (*Kyoiku saisei kaigi*) published its second report, which further promoted the internationalisation of higher education in Japan. These initiatives regarded international student policy as elements of an overall national strategy (e.g., foreign policy, industry policy, immigration policy) and pushed for the internationalisation of higher education as a means of competing with innovation and reform in East Asia.

An array of internationalisation initiatives

In January 2008, the then Prime Minister Yasuo Fukuda announced an ambitious plan for the government to attract 300,000 international students by the year 2020. It was the culmination of the many policies made in the past years. After MEXT and other five ministries⁸ concerned had negotiated the detail, the plan was finally approved in July 2008. The plan’s stated purpose was as follows (MEXT, 2008b, p. 3):

300,000 international students as a new government target

“As part of the ‘global strategy’ to open Japan to the whole world and to expand flows of people, goods, money and information between Japan and countries in Asia and other regions of the world, Japan will aim to accept up to 300,000 international students by the year 2020. Efforts should be made strategically to recruit excellent international students, as well as to accept highly capable students, while giving due consideration to the balance of countries, regions and fields of study. Japan will also continue to make excellent contributions globally to other regions, including Asian countries.”

⁸ Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry, and the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism.

In the background to the introduction of the plan, there were four major factors:

1. increasing pressure from international rankings such as the Times Higher Education-QS World University Rankings and the Academic Ranking of World Universities (by Shanghai Jiao Tong University),
2. the progress of the Bologna Process and the internationalisation and harmonisation processes in Asia, and the emergence of Asian neighbours as competitors,
3. the context of “double bind” in Japan (declining birth rate and ageing population),
4. a government-sponsored study in 2006 (Central Council on Education, 2008; Yokota, 2007).

The plan presents five central measures designed to encourage international students to come to Japan and to seek employment after graduation, namely,

1. inviting students to study in Japan, notably by expanding Japanese language training overseas,
2. making entrance examinations, enrolment and entry procedures more student-friendly,
3. the so called “globalisation” of Japanese HEIs,
4. improving hosting environments such as housing and financial support, and
5. providing support for post-graduate life and employment in Japan (MEXT, 2008b). Different ministries and agencies are expected to collaborate for the plan (MEXT, 2008b, p. 5).

Expanding Japanese language education

The ‘300,000 plan’ officially started in July 2008, and MEXT assesses progress in each of the five measures, identifying opportunities and challenges (Cabinet Office, 2009). Regarding the first measure, the expansion of Japanese language education, the Japan Foundation, a central agency in this area, currently has 40 centres overseas. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs plans to expand up to 100 centres in 2010 involving HEIs overseas which provide Japanese language education and to offer the Japanese Language Proficiency Test twice a year instead of once. Another action is to provide a “one-stop service” as a way to attract potential students who are interested in studying in Japan. The idea of a “one-stop service” is a reflection of how different ministries and agencies previously operated separately and on a piecemeal basis, effectively discouraging potential international stu-

dents from coming to Japan. The 13 universities⁹ selected for the “Global 30 Initiative”¹⁰ in 2009 plan to open eight offices overseas, to be shared by Japanese HEIs.

The second measure, the easing of entry restrictions into Japan, essentially aims at granting admissions without requiring the applicant physically to come to Japan, by adding one city to the current 17 cities in 13 countries as the site for the Examination for Japanese University Admission for International Students (EJU), administered by JASSO, and by making use of the Japanese Proficiency Test, TOEFL and IELTS scores for the admissions process. Regarding immigration procedure, it usually takes a month for applicants to receive a student visa. In July 2009, the Ministry of Justice made important changes to immigration policy:

1. it decided to reduce the application documentation and the processing time for Japanese HEIs which the Ministry of Justice considers have appropriate systems of immigration management for international students,
2. it amalgamated the college student visa and the pre-college student visa into the college student visa (to take effect by July 2010), and
3. it added three months to the duration of the college student visa and the pre-college student visa.

The “Global 30 Initiative” mentioned above is the measure designed to spear head the “globalisation” of Japanese HEIs. This initiative is a product of the elitist “selection and concentration” approach taken by MEXT. Using 200 – 400 million yen per annum per school for five years (2009 – 13), thirteen universities selected in 2009 are expected to expand English-run programmes, set up a new degree programme run wholly in English, recruit international students (with a target of 10 – 20 % of the total student population at each university, rising by 1,000 and to at least 2,600 in total by 2020), hire more international (i.e., foreign) faculty (with a target of 5 – 10 % of the total faculty members at each university by 2020), establish overseas liaison offices, improve international student services, and expand exchange programmes.

**Student-friendly
entry procedures**

The “Global 30 Initiative”

⁹ Seven national universities (Tohoku, Tsukuba, Tokyo, Nagoya, Kyoto, Osaka and Kyushu) and six private ones (Keio, Sophia, Meiji, Waseda, Doshisha and Ritsumeikan).

¹⁰ Officially called the “Project for Establishing Core Universities for Internationalisation” and managed by JSPS.

Purposes and rationales

National goals and policies

Improving accommodation

In respect of the fourth measure – improving hospitality and accommodation – the ‘300,000 international student plan’ seeks to increase the number of international students (all short-term students and first-year degree students) housed in dormitories (the figure stands currently at only 24 %), and to increase government scholarships for both degree and exchange students (3,600 in the 2009 budget), as well as financial support for self-funded students.

Post-graduate employment

The final measure is to help international students stay in Japan after graduation. In 2007, while 61 % of international student graduates hoped to work in Japan, only 30.6 % found employment. This measure will increase the opportunities for employers and international student graduates to meet – through job fairs and counselling seminars. It also seeks to extend their job-seeking period from 180 days to one year. Regarding internship opportunities, only 1,027 international students (0.86 % of the total number) were able to take them up in 2007 (MEXT, 2008a).

Political change in 2009

The new plan has just started and the results remain to be seen. However, since the Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ) became the ruling party after winning the general election in August 2009, the budget cuts for low priority programs have been at the top of its agenda. In late 2009, the newly formed Administration Innovation Council (*Gyosei sasshin kaigi*) based in the Prime Minister’s Office organised sessions for budget reviews and reductions for the 2010 financial year, in a manner open to the media and citizens in late 2009. The council selected and scrutinised MEXT’s Global 30 Initiative, as the core of the 300,000 international student plan, as a possible target for cuts. Due to the austerity policy of the new DPJ-led government, it does not seem likely that 13 additional universities be selected, as originally planned, in the coming years. As a result, the initiative and other internationalisation measures are now under pressure to demonstrate more accountability by improving their cost-benefit profile.

3. Internationalisation of education (curriculum and teaching)

In the 1990s when higher education reform was in full swing in Japan, English (or American) terms such as “syllabus”, “office hours”, “advisor/advisee”, “GPA (grade point average)”, “admissions office (AO) entrance exam” were quickly introduced into Japanese HEIs, and have been managed in peculiar Japanese ways.

Currently, among others, “English” is the most important key word in the internationalisation of curriculum and teaching in Japan. MEXT and other ministries are convinced that using English as the language of delivery guarantees high quality education (MEXT, 2009). As of 2009, there are in Japan only six undergraduate programmes at five HEIs (out of all undergraduate programmes in HEIs) and 124 graduate programmes (7.4 %) at 68 HEIs (out of 1,681 graduate programmes at 589 HEIs) which allow students to complete coursework using only English.

“English” the most important key word

As for HEIs which offer at least one English-run course (excluding English language courses), the breakdown is as follows (Central Council on Education, 2009):

	2005	2006	2007
National	42	40	42
Local public	16	19	22
Private	118	126	130
Total	176	185	194

Table A 3.2-3-7 Number of undergraduate programmes by institutional type in 2005 – 2007

	2005	2006	2007
National	57	61	61
Local public	15	13	18
Private	81	84	98
Total	153	158	177

Table A 3.2-3-8 Number of graduate programmes by institutional type in 2005 – 2007

Joint and double degree programmes are still in the early stages of development in Japan. In 2007, there were 158 such programmes run by 69 HEIs (Table A 3.2-3-9), which represents a gradual increase.

	Number	Share (%)
Asia	97	61
North America	36	23
Europe	21	13
Other	4	3
Total	158	100

Table A 3.2-3-9 Double degree programmes in 2007
(Source: Central Council on Education, 2009)

As regards double degree programmes linking Japan and Europe, a good example is Keio University's (private) collaboration with Inter-groupe des Ecoles Centrales (EC) in France in the field of engineering, which dates from 2005. Keio students study for two years at the Faculty of Science and Technology, followed by a two-year curriculum at one of the EC schools (EC-Nantes, EC-Lille, EC-Paris, EC-Lyon and EC-Marseille), followed by a two-year Master's programme at Keio's Graduate School of Science and Technology. EC students do two years at their school in France, then the two-year Master's programme at Keio. At the conclusion of the programme, students receive a Master's degree from Keio and a Centrale Engineering Degree from the EC.

MEXT finds these programmes useful for raising the quality of education and for widening opportunities for students by cross-border collaboration. It is now in the process of defining them and discussing how much national quality control would be appropriate. MEXT is certainly moving towards encouraging Japanese HEIs to be involved in these programmes, as a mode of internationalisation (Central Council on Education, 2009).

4. Future perspectives for the internationalisation of higher education in Japan

Two recent major surveys usefully project the future internationalisation of higher education in Japan: Masahiro Yokota's survey in 2006 and Akiyoshi Yonezawa's survey in 2007. Yokota's comprehensive survey (Yokota, 2006) shows the overall trends of Japanese HEIs in terms of internationalisation in practice. The survey's outcomes are as follows (Table A 3.2-3-10):

Two major surveys

Rank	Share (%)	Item
1	92.8	Accommodation of international students
2	78.7	Employment of foreign faculty and researchers
3	72.1	Exchange programme (inbound and outbound)
4	64.6	Short-term overseas programmes (e.g., language training, internship)
5	59.6	Academic exchange with foreign HEIs (exchange of faculty and researchers) and joint research
6	56.1	Establishment of office for student exchange and inter-university exchange
7	54.9	Participation of staff members in training on international exchange
8	53.6	Programme for improving students' language skills (e.g., TOEFL programme)
9	49.5	Information dissemination through Internet (e.g., creating multilingual website)
10	43.9	Housing for international students, faculty, staff, and researchers
11	42.6	Organisation of international conferences
12	38.6	HEIs' own overseas fellowship programme for faculty and researchers
13	37.0	Establishment of international curricula at undergraduate and graduate levels
13	37.0	Provision of courses delivered in English
15	29.5	Internship programme and employment support for international students

16	28.2	Living support for foreign faculty and researchers
17	25.4	Short-term programmes for foreigners on campus (e.g. summer language programme, internship)
18	22.6	Clear vision and mission of internationalisation at institutional level
18	22.6	Overseas training and education programme for staff members
20	18.2	Provision of English-run programmes for short-term (exchange) students
20	18.2	Participation in international cooperation activities as an organisation
20	18.2	Local outreach programme to support foreign faculty, staff and researchers
23	17.9	Counselling for foreign faculty, staff and researchers
24	16.3	Employment of foreign staff members
25	15.7	Membership in international consortia of HEIs
26	15.0	Establishment of a HEI headquarters to promote international education and research on a strategic basis
27	14.7	Multilingual services in departments of academic affairs and student affairs
28	14.1	Language programme for staff members
29	13.8	Establishment of degree programme delivered in English for international students
30	13.5	Multilingual services in library and IT centre
31	13.2	Establishment of office or research institute overseas
31	13.2	Support for networking of international alumni
33	9.1	Establishment of double or joint degree programmes with foreign HEIs
33	9.1	Curriculum or undergraduate programmes which require study abroad
35	8.8	System and organisation for evaluation of internationalisation at institutional level
36	7.8	Availability of documentation and regulations in languages other than Japanese
37	5.6	Staff development for would-be international exchange specialists (career path)

National goals and policies

Purposes and rationales

38	2.8	Provision of programmes of foreign HEIs on campus (accommodation of off-shore or distance education programmes)
39	2.5	Offering its own curriculum at overseas HEIs through off-shore and distant education programme
39	2.5	Establishment of overseas branch campus

Table A 3.2-3-10 Indicators of internationalisation

(Source: Yokota, 2006, pp. 114 – 5)

According to this survey, Japanese HEIs are very interested in expanding and improving on-shore programmes in research and education, while they are reluctant to offer off-shore programmes and to use international criteria to assess the performance of research, education and university management. The survey revealed that the greater the number of students, and of international students, and the older the HEI, the more internationalisation is embedded in policy and practice. It also showed that many HEIs do not set clear goals and directions for their internationalisation. They tend to undertake student exchange, international research and education activities on an ad hoc basis. The survey also revealed that the strengths lie with HEIs which are national, large, and long established, which effectively creates an “internationalisation divide” among Japanese HEIs.

Focus on on-shore programmes

On the other hand, Yonezawa’s survey indicates that few universities set numerical targets for internationalisation. National universities fared better (49.4 %), followed by local public (13.0 %) and private ones (8.6 %). The survey concludes as follows:

A wide variety of internationalisation strategies

1. many universities in Japan stress international activities, but only a few consider them the highest priority,
2. almost all national universities have internationalisation strategies, goals, targets and plans, something which accelerated after the incorporation of national universities in 2004,
3. national universities tend to focus on research more than education as an area of international competitiveness,
4. private universities seek to improve their education and curriculum to gain international profile, rather than boosting research output,
5. courses taught in foreign languages are found more at undergraduate levels in local public and private universities, but at graduate levels in national ones. There is thus a wide variety of internationalisation strategies, goals, targets and plans among Japanese universities, to the extent that national universities focus on research and private ones on education (Yonezawa, 2007).

On the government side, apparently influenced significantly by these studies, the Central Council on Education (2009) put forward the following proposals for further consideration as follows:

1. to effectively publicise the outcomes of education and research in Japanese universities,
2. to streamline the terminology of double degree, joint degree, dual degree, multiple degree, and to create a standard format for diplomas,
3. to promote the international dimension and reputation of Japanese HEIs by clarifying course contents, enhancing short-term student mobility, diversifying the language of instruction, enabling admissions in September¹¹, etc.

Challenges for national universities

The long-standing enthusiasm for internationalisation apart, national universities in Japan have not significantly changed their decision-making processes since they were incorporated as modernised institutions in 2004. On campus, the faculty meeting (*kyojukai*) retains more power than the university president, who was supposed to exercise powerful leadership in the new incorporated system. This is one of the obstacles to the realisation of institution-wide integrated approaches to internationalisation, which was the aim of MEXT's 2005 project (Strategic Fund for Establishing International Headquarters in Universities). Private universities are generally more top-down than national universities and are well ahead in terms of institution-wide integrated approaches.

The "Asian Erasmus" initiative

Amid this trial and error attitude to internationalisation, another major initiative was recently taken by the government – in addition to the plan for 300,000 international students by 2020: this was the so-called "Asian Erasmus" initiative. In his speech¹² on 22 May 2008, the then Prime Minister Fukuda proposed the "Asian Erasmus" programme to increase student mobility in Asia. It was in line with the discussions at the ASEM¹³ Conference of Ministers Responsible for Education held in Berlin on 5 – 6 May 2008, where there was encouragement for increased cross-border mobility from the EU side. Mr. Fukuda stated:

¹¹ Most Japanese HEIs admit students in April, the beginning of the Japanese fiscal year.

¹² The speech (When the Pacific Ocean becomes an "inland sea": Five pledges to a future Asia that "acts together") was delivered at the 14th International Conference on the Future of Asia in Tokyo.

¹³ Asia-Europe Meeting.

“...Fourthly, I intend to step up efforts to increase youth exchange. As a necessary prerequisite to the entire range of cooperation, Japan will foster and strengthen the infrastructure of Asia and the Pacific for intellectual and generational exchanges. Japan has already begun to implement a “Plan for 300,000 Exchange Students”. Under the Japan-East Asia Network of Exchange for Students and Youth Programme (or the JENESYS Programme), we are inviting 6,000 youths to Japan every year from all across Asia. I also hope to expand dramatically our exchanges among universities within the Asia-Pacific region, and I intend to exchange views with knowledgeable people within Japan and abroad, aiming to reach agreement on this plan at the East Asia Summit to be convened at the end of this year. Here one may recall the “ERASMUS Programme” that has been under way in Europe since the 1980’s; I would like to bring about what might be called the Asian version...” (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2008).

Following this speech, MEXT commissioned research to support its policy in 2008. A field survey was conducted to collect data from eight countries in Asia as possible partners in the new initiative (Kamibeppu, 2009). Its final report suggested that the EU case is not automatically transferable to Asia, due to obviously different historical and political contexts. However, the growing diversity brought about by the expansion of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) into Eastern Europe and across the Ural Mountains, is quite relevant to Asia, with its wide diversity of political and educational systems and conditions. The report also proposed that we should not use excuse of the Asian context for the difficulties in the harmonisation of higher education, as we have not even fully tried to apply the European experiences to Asia. It concluded that the first step is to have a dialogue designed to reveal similarities and differences, possibilities and challenges among different countries and within each country, after which the leading ASEAN+3 (Japan, China and ROK) countries concerned with a high level of student mobility would form the initial core group and eventually include other ASEAN countries, using the European developments as a good example on a trial and error basis. It also noted that inter-regional cooperation is important to make Asian frameworks comparable with those of other regions.

Research to Support policy

Erasmus had long been a model for Asia and the Pacific. The University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific (UMAP) programme came into being in 1993 but has had mixed results. The “Asian Erasmus” is a more robust but geographically narrower initiative than UMAP. The ASEAN University Network (AUN) is now taking the lead in forming an ASEAN+3 inter-university mobility framework based on its inter-university mobility experience. Following the conference in March 2009, AUN now plans to hold another ASEAN+3 meeting in Bangkok

Erasmus a model for Asia

in March 2010 as a way of maintaining contact. This move is a separate one from the Japanese initiative, but they fit well together. The EU and Europe have thus implicitly and explicitly served as a model in one way or another.

East Asian Community

Since the Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ) took office in August 2009, there have been developments regarding student mobility in Asia. The new Prime Minister Yukio Hatoyama referred to the realisation of the East Asian Community as one of his top priorities. It is very likely that the initial mobility framework would be built upon among China, Republic of Korea and Japan. It was agreed in early October in the trilateral meeting. In the joint press conference in October, Prime Minister Hatoyama mentioned new initiatives for student exchange as follows (Prime Minister's Office, 2009):

“I also stated that what will be indispensable for trilateral cooperation is exchanges among the youth of the three countries, in particular among university students. As one aspect of university student exchange, we should for example actively consider permitting inter-university credit transfer. This would naturally require a degree of consistency in the levels of the schools concerned. While I do not consider this something that is possible for all universities, we will be promoting cooperation as the levels of quality are standardised. I proposed that through such cooperation, it would be possible for the various political and psychological difficulties still existing among our three countries to be transformed and overcome. I also mentioned holding a meeting of eminent persons as one part of this proposal.”

Trilateral framework

Following this move, MEXT is now asking for the following activities to be included in the budget for 2010: an international conference on quality assurance in Asia, exchange in technical education in Asia, in cooperation with industry in fields such as environment, nanotechnology, disaster relief, infectious diseases, and energy (as mentioned in the policy document of DPJ). The “Asian Erasmus” initiative in 2008 went through political changes in Japan and met similar views in ASEAN; this gave rise to the tripartite (Japan, China and ROK) cooperation with inputs from other sources and ministries/agencies. This enhanced (short-term) mobility in education and research is still not a reality, but it appears that these multifaceted moves towards harmonisation and regionalisation would also benefit degree-level study abroad, especially given the numerical targets of international students set by Asian countries such as Japan, China, ROK, Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand. However, it is not clear how enhanced short-term student mobility is linked to these numerical targets.

As part of the Global 30 programme, universities set numerical targets for sending Japanese students overseas, and the government increased the scholarships for 2,940 short-term Japanese students and for 250 degree-level Japanese students. However, new policies and mobility frameworks will not solve all problems. According to the National University Association survey in 2007, 87 national universities identified obstacles to sending Japanese students under exchange agreements (Table A 3.2-3-11).

	Number	Share (%)
Possibility of extension of study period	59	67.8
Shortage of funding	42	48.3
Difficulty of credit transfer	32	36.8
Shortage of counselling faculty and staff	23	26.4
Insufficient support systems at institutional level	21	24.1
Shortage of information regarding partner universities	9	10.3
Lack of understanding by parents and family	7	8.0
Lack of understanding by advisers	3	3.4
Others	27	31.0

Table A 3.2-3-11 **Obstacles to sending Japanese students under exchange agreements**
(Source: National University Association, 2007)

In Japanese HEIs, there are other systemic factors which discourage students from studying abroad. My college is a case in point. It is a small liberal arts college for women, located in the suburbs of Tokyo. College life is focused too much on career planning, especially from the junior (third) year onwards. Students have to be prepared for the coming job-hunting season, which comes in the autumn of the junior year. Many students spend hundreds of hours contacting in excess of 100 companies in order to get the best full-time job available. In the meantime, they spend much less time for coursework and extracurricular activities on campus. My college is not an exception. Basically all students seeking employment in the corporations act in the same way all over Japan. This means that most of Japanese university students focus on study essentially for the first two years, and in the junior year, the corporations gradually take over their lives. Accordingly, students who were initially interested in study abroad (exchange programmes) for a year or for a semester have to give up the prospect, due to their heavy job-seeking commitments. This is especially the case for science and engineering, medical, dental, and pharmaceutical degree programmes which have demanding workloads.

Structural obstacles to the mobility of Japanese students

In the past, the job-hunting fiasco occurred in the senior (final) year, but over the years aggressive corporate recruiters competed to seize the best and brightest students as early as possible. This led to the cutting of the 4-year college study time by almost one half. At job interviews, students have to answer questions such as “what did you learn at your college?” when they have only completed the first two years of study at higher education level, or they have to explain about their graduation thesis, the topic of which they have not yet chosen. There have been many attempts to halt this type of early recruitment, but in vain. Universities and faculty members are seemingly helpless to remedy this peculiar feature of the HE landscape.

The Japanese labour market operates quite differently from most OECD countries. Unlike countries where hiring is in principle position-based, Japanese recruiters hire employees not for particular positions, but for the organisation as a whole. Japanese recruiters (either from the private or public sectors) have a strong preference for new graduates (22-24 years old), who fit well with the seniority-based pay scales and the promotion patterns of the organisation. The recruitment of workers in mid-career (rather than new graduates) has in fact increased; nonetheless, the Japanese tradition of hiring new graduates is still quite strong. For this reason, students cannot afford to “miss the boat”. In fact, frustrated students have demonstrated on the streets, alleging age and status discrimination (Hokkaido Shimbun, 2009). Competition for jobs is one of obstacles to the international mobility (short- or long-term) of Japanese students.

Psychological barriers

Some commentators point out that the younger generations are so comfortable in Japan, that they avoid risky and time-consuming studies abroad which would require them to use a foreign language for studying and living in a different culture. Some regard this as an “inward-looking” attitude. Indeed, Japan has a large domestic market where international experience is not necessarily important. In fact, Yonezawa (2009) argues that while women have more international experience than men during their college years in Japan, men have more international work opportunities than women following graduation. Perhaps this stems from the different treatment of men and women at work – that is to say that men have more international opportunities than women, just because they are men. The older population are constantly – at the levels of policy and of practice – urging the young to leave Japan and to compete internationally, invoking globalisation, internationalisation, worldwide competition, etc. However, it is not so easy to change people’s thinking, attitudes, and behaviour.

5. Towards greater cooperation between Japan and Europe: opportunities and challenges

The Japanese government is a careful observer of developments in higher education in Europe. Erasmus and the Bologna Process, in particular, have had profound impacts on the discussion of internationalisation of HE in Japan. Almost all government documents refer to developments in Europe in a range of topics – from double/joint degree programmes, student mobility, the harmonisation of diploma/degrees/credits, Tuning, to “Stocktaking Report”.

Impacts of European developments

However, European examples tend to be considered in terms of how Japan can assume the leadership in these areas in Asia – a growing student market and a region moving towards integration. This is partly to compete with Europe. The Japanese government fears that powerful European universities will expand their links and their cooperation with Asian counterparts, to the detriment of Japan’s position in Asia, and at the same time that Japanese universities will lose their cutting edge in education and research in the international marketplace. In addition, the Japanese government constantly stresses that accelerating student mobility within Asia is crucial to compensate for the increasingly ageing and declining population in Japan.

Japan’s leadership at stake

5.1 Student mobility between Europe and Japan

The number of Japanese students who study abroad shows a gradual upward trend. While the number of long-term degree-level Japanese students has been in decline, the overall increase is due to a rise in short-term programmes. Japanese students overseas increased in number from 18,066 in 1983 to 76,464 in 2003. In 2005, the number of Japanese study abroad students (degree-level and short-term) was estimated at 80,000, a 30 % increase over the 1995 figure. As for the geographical distribution (Table A 3.2-3-12), almost half went to the US and 24 % went to China.

Increase of number of Japanese students who study abroad

Country/region	Number of Japanese students
USA	38,712
China	18,874
UK	6,179
Australia	3,380
Germany	2,470
France	2,152
Taiwan	2,126
Canada	1,750
ROK	1,106
New Zealand	916

Table A 3.2-3-12 Japanese study abroad students by country/region in 2005
(Source: Central Council on Education, 2009)

Asia rather than the US

The number of Japanese students in the US peaked at 47,000 (a 75 % geographical share) in 1997, but since then the number has fallen to 38,712 (48 %) in 2005. In 2009, the number was reported as having fallen further to 29,264 (a 13.9 % drop from 2008) (Institute of International Education, 2009). In contrast, Asia has emerged as a popular destination and the number of Japanese students in China has doubled in 10 years. The general decline of interest in the US as a Mecca for higher education is one of major concerns of the international education community in Japan (Asahi Shimbun, 2009).

European students prefer non-degree short-term programmes

The strong preference of European students for non-degree short-term programmes over degree programmes has already been noted. According to MEXT's survey in 2006 (MEXT, 2007), the number of Japanese HEIs' exchange agreements on education and research with HEIs overseas reached a record high of 13,484 (Table A 3.2-3-13). Approximately 80 % (674 HEIs) of 742 Japanese 4-year HEIs had at least one agreement. As shown below, China became the top country for the first time since the start of this survey in 1987, moving ahead of the United States. China's numbers grew from 1,851 in 2002 to 2,565 in 2006.

National goals and policies

Purposes and rationales

Rank	National		Local public		Private		Other		Total	
1	China	1,142	China	108	USA	1,464	USA	120	China	2,565
2	USA	627	USA	87	China	1,226	China	89	USA	2,298
3	ROK	620	ROK	57	ROK	705	ROK	85	ROK	1,467
4	Thailand	268	UK	24	UK	421	Germany	54	UK	706
5	Germany	260	Germany	23	Australia	327	France	42	Germany	544
6	France	233	Australia	22	Taiwan	259	UK	37	Australia	542
7	UK	224	France	18	Canada	243	Australia	24	France	534
8	Indonesia	196	Canada	17	France	241	Canada	22	Thailand	455
9	Australia	169	Russia	16	Germany	207	Russia	21	Canada	410
10	Canada	128	Thailand	15	Thailand	154	Thailand/ Italy	18	Taiwan	398
Total		5,534		474		6,745		566		13,484

Table A 3.2-3-13 Number of exchange agreements with top 5 countries by institutional type in 2006 (Source: MEXT, 2007)

Its breakdown by institutional type and by region (Table A 3.2-3-14) shows that Asia, Europe and North America are the three dominant regions, and that the number of agreements with Asia is equivalent to that of the agreements with Europe and North America combined. The number of agreements with Asia increased from 4,250 in 2002 to 6,042 in 2006 (MEXT, 2007). Furthermore, while the numbers of agreements with Asia and Europe are identical at national and private HEIs, the agreements with North America are predominantly made by private institutions. About 80 percent of the agreements provide for exchange of students and faculty/researchers. Faculty/researcher exchange features more than student exchange in the agreements of national HEIs, while the reverse is true in the case of local public and private HEIs.

**Asia, Europe and
North America popular**

HEIs	National	Local public	Private	Other	Total
Asia	2,781	218	2,782	261	6,042
Europe	1,491	117	1,546	249	3,403
North America	755	104	1,707	142	2,708
Oceania	210	24	429	32	695
Latin America	112	6	163	9	290
Africa	94	3	48	8	153
Middle East	74	1	42	7	124
Other	17	1	28	23	69
Total	5,534	474	6,745	731	13,484

Table A 3.2-3-14 Number of exchange agreements by region and by institutional type in 2006
(Source: MEXT, 2007)

Strong outbound flow

As for the actual volume of exchange in financial year 2005 – 2006 (Table A 3.2-3-15), the outward flow is overall stronger than the inward, except for student exchange in Asia, where there are more inbound students than outbound. While Japanese students chose to study in North America, Asia, Europe and Oceania in order of preference, the exchange of faculty/researchers was predominantly with Asia, both inward and outward, followed by Europe, North America, and Oceania.

	Students		Faculty/researchers	
	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound
Asia	5,793	7,390	4,934	3,306
North America	6,756	2,886	861	561
Europe	4,017	2,300	1,217	768
Oceania	2,464	450	248	80
Others	349	438	548	401
Total	19,379	13,464	7,808	5,116

Table A 3.2-3-15 Distribution of students and faculty/researchers on exchange by region and by direction in 2006
(Source: MEXT, 2007)

National goals and policies

Purposes and rationales

Even though the number of exchange agreements with China recently exceeded that of the US, the number of Japanese students who chose to go the US was still more than double that to China. Table A 3.2-3-16 shows the changes over time of the numbers of Japanese exchange students in the top nine destination countries. These countries are all OECD members except China, and the total number is on the gradual rise.

US the most popular destination

Country/region	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
United States	4,513	4,249	4,908	5,428	5,584	6,417	6,509
China	1,846	1,918	947	2,120	2,223	2,530	2,858
Australia	1,516	1,576	1,907	1,710	2,395	2,752	2,716
United Kingdom	1,769	1,946	1,761	2,229	2,127	2,616	2,394
Canada	954	1,092	1,195	1,520	1,876	1,942	2,114
Republic of Korea	458	679	717	1,009	1,305	1,690	1,399
France	403	476	638	796	832	837	876
New Zealand	512	679	621	678	852	892	822
Germany	358	489	675	700	757	768	793
Others	1,632	1,834	2,195	2,380	2,738	3,189	3,325
Total	13,961	14,938	15,564	18,570	20,689	23,633	23,806

Table A 3.2-3-16 Numbers of Japanese exchange students by destination in 2001 – 2007
(Source, MEXT, 2003; 2004; 2005; JASSO, 2006a; 2007a; 2008a; 2009a)

By institutional type (Table A 3.2-3-17), national universities had more incoming students than outgoing, but more outgoing faculty/researchers than incoming. It is notable that the number of private university outbound students was close to double the inbound.

	Students		Faculty/researchers	
	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound
National	3,306	4,201	5,663	3,054
Local public	791	425	202	158
Private	15,106	8,718	910	1,213
Others	176	120	1,033	691
Total	19,379	13,464	7,808	5,116

Table A 3.2-3-17 Distribution of students and faculty/researchers on exchange by institutional type in 2006 (Source: MEXT, 2007)

Looking at the duration of study (Table A 3.2-3-18), close to half of participating Japanese students spent less than one month overseas, with North America, Asia and Europe as popular destinations.

	Less than 1 month	1 – 3 months	3 – 6 months	6 months – 1 year	More than 1 year	Total
North America	3,407	1,277	1,499	2,297	143	8,623
Asia	3,347	399	609	1,282	168	5,805
Europe	2,478	875	481	1,567	158	5,559
Oceania	1,433	1,243	355	480	28	3,539
Central & South America	22	48	24	85	8	187
Africa	32	6	2	17	2	59
Middle & Near East	23	1	0	10	0	34
Total	10,742	3,849	2,970	5,738	507	23,806

Table A 3.2-3-18 **Number of Japanese exchange students by duration and by region of destination in 2007**
(Source, JASSO, 2009a)

Table A 3.2-3-19 shows that two-thirds of Japanese exchange students are women, and that there is not much difference in terms of geographical distribution.

National goals and policies

Purposes and rationales

	Men		Women		Total	
	Number	Share (%)	Number	Share (%)	Number	Share (%)
North America	2,806	11.8	5,817	24.4	8,623	36.2
Asia	2,051	8.6	3,754	15.8	5,805	24.4
Europe	1,824	7.7	3,735	15.7	5,559	23.4
Oceania	994	4.2	2,545	10.7	3,539	14.9
Central & South America	67	0.3	120	0.5	187	0.8
Africa	27	0.1	32	0.1	59	0.2
Middle & Near East	15	0.1	19	0.1	34	0.1
Total	7,784	32.7	16,022	67.3	23,806	100.00

Table A 3.2-3-19 Number of Japanese exchange students by gender and by region of destination in 2007
(Source, JASSO, 2009a)

Seventy percent of Japanese exchange students chose to study in humanities, followed by social science, reflecting the strong popularity of language study (Table A 3.2-3-20).

Field of study	Number of students	Share (%)
Humanities	16,638	69.9
Social science	3,124	13.1
Health	647	2.7
Engineering	621	2.6
Education	384	1.6
Agriculture	346	1.5
Arts	180	0.8
Science	112	0.5
Home economics	49	0.2
Others	1,705	7.2
Total	23,806	100.0

Table A 3.2-3-20 Number of Japanese exchange students by field of study in 2009 (Source, JASSO, 2009a)

Putting together both degree-level and short-term (exchange) programmes as of 2005 when all the latest data are available, the current flow of students is in significant imbalance, with a high number of Japanese students bound for Europe (Table A 3.2-3-21)

	Japan to Europe (a)	Europe to Japan (b)	(a) : (b)
Degree-level	7,644 (60.4 %)	1,929 (62.1 %)	79.8 : 20.2
Short-term (not for degree)	5,019 (39.6 %)	1,177 (37.9 %)	81.0 : 19.0
Total	12,663 (100.0 %)	3,106 (100.0 %)	80.3 : 19.7

Table A 3.2-3-21 Flow of Japanese and European students in 2005

(Source: MEXT, 2009; JASSO, 2005; 2007a)

Table A 3.2-3-22 shows the changes in the number of European students who came to Japan to study, by level. Both numbers have steadily risen with an increase of almost 1,000 students in the past 5 years. But still the 2009 number is far below the flow of Japanese students to Europe.

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Degree-level	1,929	1,964	1,976	2,049	2,105
Short-term (not for degree)	1,177	1,343	1,571	1,770	1,928
Total	3,106	3,307	3,547	3,819	4,033

Table A 3.2-3-22 Changes of flow of European students to Japan in 2005 – 2009 (Source: Jasso, 2005; 2006b; 2007b; 2008b; 2009b)

While bilateral agreements are the basis for exchanges between Europe and Japan, Erasmus Mundus (EM) is a unique multilateral channel. During the period of EM I (2004 – 2008), participation by Japanese HEIs was relatively low with merely six HEIs¹⁴ with the following participants in each year (Table A 3.2-3-23).

¹⁴ University of Tokyo, University of Yamanashi, Kyoto University, Osaka University, Keio University, Hosei University, and J.F. Oberlin (Obirin) University.

National goals and policies

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	2004-5	2005-6	2006-7	2007-8	2008-9	Total	China 2004-8
Students	2	6	3	4	5	20	706
Scholars	0	3	5	12	18	28	116

Table A 3.2-3-23 Participation by Japanese students and scholars in Erasmus Mundus

(Source: Vareille, 2009)

Details of the EM II (2009 – 2013) selection process are as follows:

	Main list	Reserve list	Total applications	Acceptance rate (main list) (%)	Distribution (%)
China	188	613	1,968 (8.81 %)	9.6	11.5
India	118	495	1,877 (8.41 %)	6.3	7.2
USA	73	96	297 (1.33 %)	40.7	4.5
Taiwan	25	45	163 (0.73 %)	15.3	0.15
ROK	11	14	47 (0.21 %)	23.4	0.07
Japan	2	3	16 (0.07 %)	12.5	0.001
World	1,633	5,618	22,149 (100 %)	7.4	100.00

Table A 3.2-3-24 Result of competition for 2009 – 2010 programmes

(Source: Vareille, 2009)

One of the few participating HEIs in Japan is Osaka University, a pioneer participant in EM in Japan. It participated in the EUROCLTURE joint masters' programme in collaboration with Groningen University in the Netherlands, where Osaka has an office. Its participation in EM is based on strong collaboration with Groningen nurtured over time. In its effort to enhance the transparency and the credibility of Japanese HE, it organised a symposium in 2007 in Osaka to share knowledge and experiences of EM and information of European HEIs with other HEIs in Japan. Osaka University considers EU frameworks to be a good model for inter-university cooperation and student exchange within Asia.

Osaka University as a pioneer participant in EM in Japan

5.2 What does Europe mean for the Japanese and for Japanese HEIs?

Europe has a substantial presence in Japan

In Japan, Europe is overshadowed by the United States. The US wields a heavy influence on Japan as a result of historical and political ties. Media and academia usually refer to the US as representative of all foreign countries, typically using the phrase “Let's look at the American example”. Internationally dominant Hollywood movies make Japanese people sometimes feel psychologically close to the US, rather than to geographical neighbours such as China and ROK. Recently Asian culture and foods are increasingly popular. European movies except British ones are rarely shown in Japan. That being said, Europe has a substantial presence in Japan. As far as study abroad destinations are concerned, the English-speaking UK is most popular among European countries both for degree and short-term programmes. This reflects the fact that English is a compulsory subject for almost all students in the Japanese secondary and higher education systems. The UK is followed by France, Germany, Spain and Italy.

A changing situation for Japanese young people

Interestingly, however, the situation is gradually changing. As Japanese young people have an image of the US as extremely competitive (cut-throat) and of American HEIs as quite demanding, young Japanese refer to feel comfortable in Japan without feeling the need to challenge themselves by study abroad. As study abroad requires funding and cross-cultural skills, some Japanese feel little incentive to study abroad. Living in Japan and speaking Japanese is fine for them, and international aspirations, at their strongest after World War II, are now diminishing among Japanese people. Recently the media reported that Japanese students fearful of US HE tend to choose to study in English in apparently relaxed English-speaking countries such as Canada and Australia or in non English-speaking European countries (on the assumption that they are less demanding, threatening and competitive). This partly explains the decline in the number of Japanese students going to the US (Asahi Shimbun, 2009).

If this introverted mood among young Japanese is effectively linked to the expansion of English-run programmes in European countries, where the main language is not English, mobility to Europe might rise. Europe as a centre of culture is already highly regarded in Japan. Of course, emphasising the quality of education in Europe is a familiar and rational strategy. However, given that Japanese HEIs generally lack interest in Erasmus Mundus, which offers quite generous funding for study in Europe, it is necessary to develop alternative strategies to raise the level of Japanese mobility to Europe. Probably EM, a multilateral mobility project, looks too complicated or cumbersome for Japanese HEIs; the procedures for exchanges with American counterparts are often simply bilateral.

In turn, Europe needs to find ways to encourage European students to come to Japan and to other parts of Asia, either with government scholarship for short-term exchange programmes. It is not clear what kind of incentives will motivate European students to come to Japan, but as we can see from the statistics, demand for short-term study placements are high. Double-degree programmes are a promising area of collaboration between Europe and Japan, but they usually require a study abroad of more than one year. This is not always feasible. Currently, the Japanese government awards a few thousand short-term international students the sum of \$800, plus an allowance, for short-term programmes, but the European take-up is minimal. Japan needs to expand both the budget and the number of grantees to attract more European students. It also needs to generate interest in Japan by means of fairs, seminars, and other events in Europe. More importantly, the Japanese government needs to take a proactive role by proposing a mobility framework modelled on Erasmus Mundus and other programmes. In general, European HEIs – with the exception of British and some French and German universities – are not well known in Japan. Many people are unaware that they can obtain degrees in English in German HEIs, for example. Disseminating information is vital in this regard.

Europe needs to encourage European students to come to Japan

Perhaps, the fundamental structural issue in Japan is that there is no proper counterpart to the European University Association (EUA), which is Europe's principal organ of inter-regional dialogue, along with the European Commission. In Japan, associations are based on institutional type (National University Association, Local Public University Association, Federation of Japanese Private Colleges and Universities Associations), but their efforts to internationalise are far from innovative. MEXT is most the powerful policymaking agency in Japan and its European counterpart is the European Commission. There have been opportunities for the EU and Japan to discuss greater student and researcher mobility resulting in EM and other funding mechanisms, but participation is at a low level.

No proper counterpart

It should be noted that the working styles and the timeframe on both sides are different. In Europe, individual officers handle projects over a certain period, but at MEXT officials change positions every one or two years, which inhibits dynamic and long-term policy-making and implementation. In addition, the Japanese approach tends to be reactive rather than proactive. The government has a strong tendency to make policies in response to trends outside Japan.

Taking the mobility trends between Europe and Japan all together, it seems that there are specific areas of opportunity for improved collaboration in the higher education sector as follows:

Identifying specific areas for improved collaboration

- Targeting Japanese women by creating comparative women's studies courses and other degree and short-term programmes relevant to them
- Targeting faculty/researchers specialized in any dimension of Europe
- Involving Japanese HEIs in collaboration for international development assistance, through organisations such as Nuffic in the Netherlands
- Targeting top high school students who are interested in overseas universities in preference to top Japanese universities, because they are dissatisfied with the quality of education in Japanese HEIs.

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Biography:

Takao Kamibeppu is a professor at Tokyo Jogakkan College, Japan. He teaches international development and cooperation, comparative education, education policy, and service learning (learning through volunteer work at all level of education). His research interests include the history of international education policymaking, international student mobility, and the internationalisation of higher education.

Contact:

E-mail: beppu36@yahoo.co.jp

Annexes

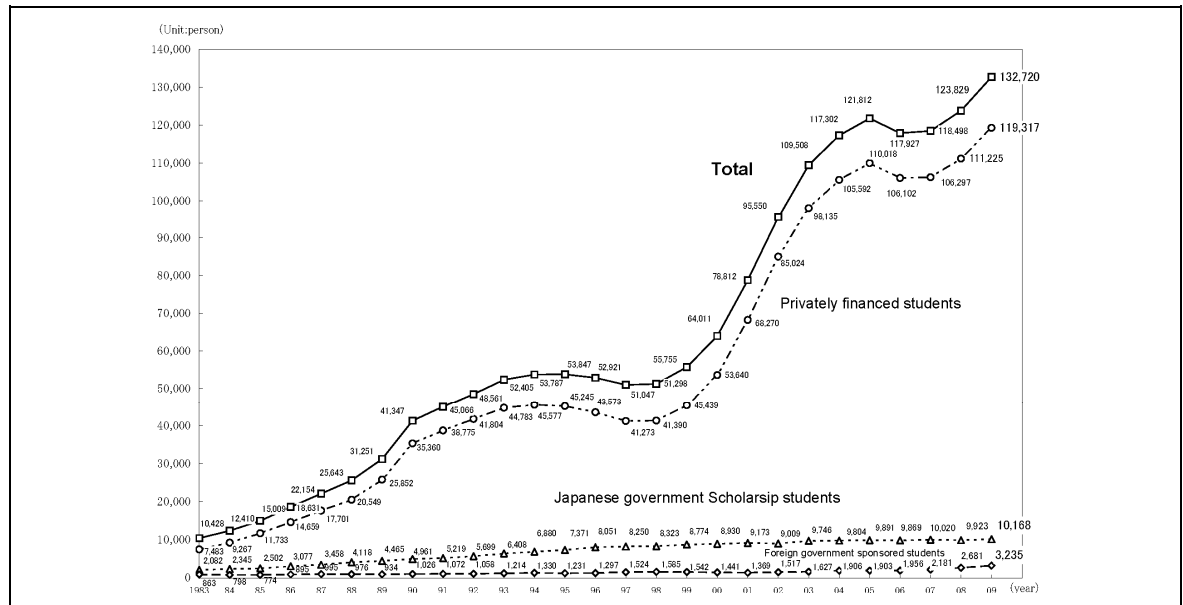


Fig. A 3.2-3-1 Trends in Number of International Students by Source of Funds (as of each May 1)

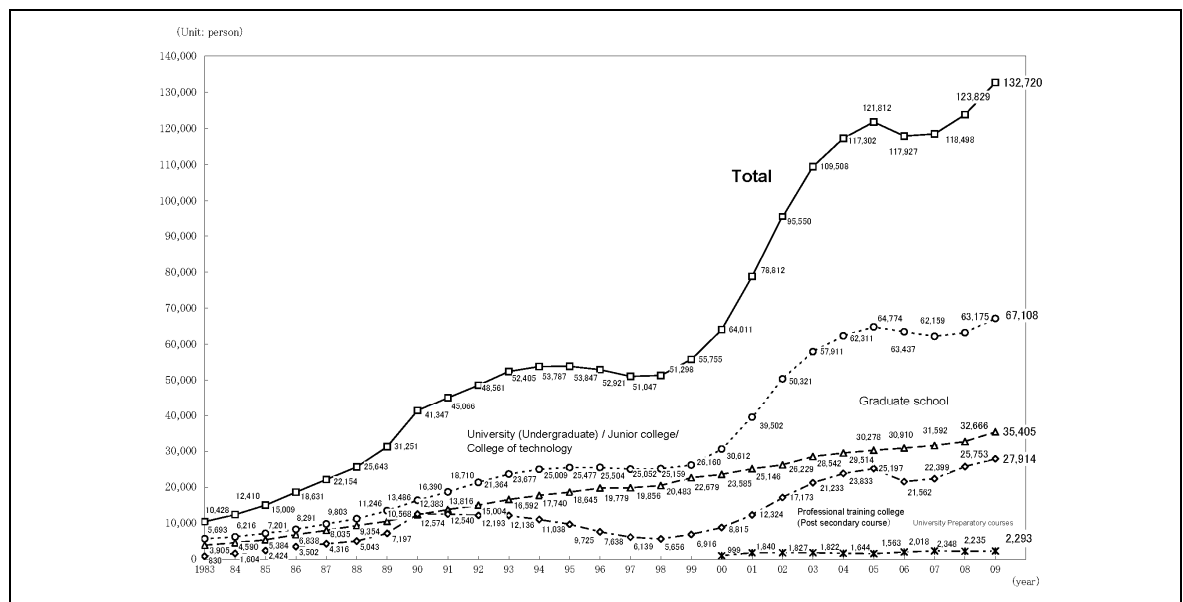


Fig. A 3.2-3-2 Trends in Number of International Students by Institutional Type (as of each May 1)

Purposes and rationales

National goals and policies



2011 Conference

Ramifications of the Bologna Process in Cases of Europe, Asia and North America: Does the Bologna Process Promote More Competition or Co-existence?

Taiji Hotta, Takao Kamibeppu, and Hiroko Akiba
2/23/2011

This presentation is supported by the KAKENHI
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Competition & Collaboration in the Global Transformation of Higher Education



2011 Conference

Introduction

- **Background: 3 year research project supported by the JSPS (2009-2011)**
<http://www.jsps.go.jp/english/>
- **Purpose of the study:**
 - (1) To study the general influence of the Bologna Process in Europe, Asia and the North America
 - (2) To identify main characteristics and issues of the ramification of the BP in those regions
 - (3) To utilize the outcomes of this research to the future development of discussion in Asia (e.g., CAMPUS Asia, ASEAN+3 dialogue on the harmonization process in Asian Higher Education)
- **Mission : (Hotta) Europe, (Kamibeppu) N. America, and (Akiba) Asia**

Competition & Collaboration in the Global Transformation of Higher Education



2011 Conference

**Ramifications of the Bologna Process
in Cases of Europe, Asia and North America:
Does the Bologna Process Promote More
Competition or Co-existence?**

Ramification of the Bologna Process (BP) in European Higher Education Institutions: Issues and Future Challenges

**Taiji Hotta, Ph.D.
Hiroshima University, Japan**

2/23/2011

(Modified 2/25/2011)

This presentation is supported by the KAKENHI
(Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research in Japan) [#21402042]

Competition & Collaboration in the Global Transformation of Higher Education



2011 Conference

Introduction

Purpose of this presentation:

- (1) To highlight some unique phenomena in each nation's higher education institutions**
- (2) To identify main issues in those nations**
- (3) To discuss how those outcomes will influence other nations**

Background:

5 year research project (2007-2011): Data from visits of 14 Dutch, 6 Flemish (+EC), 7 German and 10 Italian higher education institutions & various national agencies in HE and interviews with Mr. Peter van der Hijden, Dr. Robert Wagenaar, Dr. Julia González, Dr. Hans de Wit, Dr. Luc François, Mr. Johan Geentjens, Dr. Ulrich Teichler, Dr. Volker Gehmlich, Dr. Roberto Moscati, Dr. Giancarlo Spinelli, Dr. Carla Salvaterra and Dr. Maria Sticchi Damiani, etc

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2011 Conference

1. Netherlands & Flanders

- (1) ***No drastic student mobility INCREASE*** under ERASMUS¹
- (2) ***More credit-transfer students***: From major to major, institution to institution. → more financial burden to institutions
- (3) ***More domestic vertical mobility***: for a dual system of higher education between research universities and Hogeschool² (HBO) ,but still a dual system ?
- (4) ***More international master's programs in English with special (more expensive) fees.***

Competition & Collaboration in the Global Transformation of Higher Education



2011 Conference

2. Germany

- (1) ***NO more Humboldt Philosophy?***: Research centered to student learning centered?
Professor's freedom to "guide" students to obligation to "teach fixed classes"
- (2) ***No more value of Diplom & Magister ?***:
Can 2 cycle (B & M) system replace social values of "Diplom" and "Magister"? How about Ph.D.?
- (3) ***More domestic vertical mobility***: Beginning of student mobility from institution to institution and also from Eastern Europe (Brain drain?)
- (4) ***More international master's programs in English without or with regular fees***

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3. Italy

2011 Conference

- (1) ***No more hard examination system to make students fail ?***: Long(5-7y)
“Laurea”(originally 4y) programs to more systematic B(3y)+M(2y) education programs have increased the number of graduates. Old students came back, too!
- (2) ***Gap between dos and don'ts*** : Active reform vs., strong professors' resistance is changing the level of competitiveness of each institution
- (3) ***Joint degree master's programs with French and other nations***

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4. Issues and Future Challenges

2011 Conference

- Will the BP promote student mobility?
- To what extent can the BP advance European higher ed. to “student centered” from “teacher centered”? Even for students from univ. of applied sciences?
- How will the value of degrees from Diplom and Magister, etc to Master's and Doctoral degrees be shifted in each society?
- To what extent, Europe can keep “ranking” out of their sight? Higher education for equality or equity?

Competition & Collaboration in the Global Transformation of Higher Education



5. Competition or Cooperation ?

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- **More Competition:**
 - More domestic competition and regional competition inside of EU?
 - Threat(?) to the global market of higher education: European International Master's Programs in English, but how much tuition?
 - Big question is how quickly European institutions will shift their "creative/innovative education from traditional degrees to master and especially *doctoral* degree program? Direct issue to employability
- **More cooperation now between Europe and Asia:**
 - Student Mobility with ECTS³, ACTS⁴, UCTS⁵ and ACSAM⁶
 - Regionalization of Asian Higher Education and ASEM⁷ meeting
 - **ERASMUS MUNDUS**

Competition & Collaboration in the Global Transformation of Higher Education



Glossary

2011 Conference

1. **ERASMUS:** European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students)
2. **Hogeschool:** In English, it is referred to as the University of Applied Sciences.
3. **ECTS:** European Credit Transfer System
4. **ACTS:** ASEAN Credit Transfer System
5. **UCTS:** UMAP Credit Transfer System
6. **ACSAM:** Academic Credit System for Asian Mobility [Hotta's proposal]
7. **ASEM:** Asia-Europe Meeting

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Thank you very much for your attention!

Taiji Hotta
Hiroshima University
hotta@hiroshima-u.ac.jp

Competition & Collaboration in the Global Transformation of Higher Education