Internationalizing Higher Education in Malaysia

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Internationalizing Higher Education in Malaysia

Understanding, Practices and Challenges

EDITED BY

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First published in Singapore in 2013 by
Institute of Southeast Asian Studies
30 Heng Mui Keng Terrace
Pasir Panjang
Singapore 119614

E-mail: publish@iseas.edu.sg
Website: http://bookshop.iseas.edu.sg

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ISEAS Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data

Internationalizing higher education in Malaysia : understanding practices and challenges / edited by Tham, Siew Yean.
1. Education, Higher—Malaysia.
2. Education and globalization—Malaysia.
I. Tham, Siew Yean.
LA1238 I58 2013

ISBN 978-981-4380-96-6 (soft cover)
ISBN 978-981-4380-97-3 (e-book, PDF)

Typeset by Superskill Graphics Pte Ltd
Printed in Singapore by Mainland Press Pte Ltd

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PREFACE

The Institute of Malaysian and International Studies (IKMAS), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM) focuses on multidisciplinary social science research that is related to the theme of globalization and social transformation. Since its establishment in 1995, the institute has undertaken several collegial book research projects that have been published. These include *Capturing Globalization*, edited by J.H. Mittleman and Norani Othman (London: Routledge, 2001); *Malaysia Menangani Globalisasi: Peserta atau Mangsa?* edited by Norani Othman and Sumit Mandal (Bangi: Penerbit UKM, 2000); *Globalization, Culture and Inequalities: In Honour of the Late Ishak Shari*, edited by Abdul Rahman Embong (Bangi: Penerbit UKM, 2004); *The Emerging East Asian Community: Security and Economic Issues*, edited by Lee Poh Ping, Tham Siew Yean and George T. Yu (Bangi: Penerbit UKM, 2006). The latest in the series of IKMAS books are *Globalization and National Autonomy: The Experience of Malaysia*, edited by Joan M. Nelson, Jacob Meerman and Abdul Rahman Embong (IKMAS and ISEAS: Singapore, 2008); *Community in ASEAN: Ideas and Practices*, edited by Lee Poh Ping, Tham Siew Yean and Norani Othman (Bangi: Penerbit UKM, 2008); and *Malaysia at a Crossroads: Can We Make the Transition?* edited by Abdul Rahman Embong and Tham Siew Yean (Bangi: Penerbit UKM, 2011).

This book is also based on a collegial research project that examined challenges faced by the internationalization of higher education in Malaysia. As in all collegial projects, it is multidisciplinary in its composition. The research team consisted of research fellows from IKMAS as well as faculty members from the Faculty of Education and Faculty of Economics and Business, UKM. The project was undertaken to complement an earlier project on higher education, namely the impact of cross-border higher education in Malaysia. IKMAS obtained a Research University Grant in 2008 to follow up on the earlier study by examining the challenges faced by the different stakeholders who are engaged in the internationalization process. It is also a follow-up study of an earlier study conducted by two IKMAS fellows (Tham Siew Yean and Andrew Kam Jia Yi) that examined similar issues using a case study approach. That study was later published in the *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, vol. 28, no. 4 (2008).

The above research took a year to complete, and draft chapters of this book were presented and discussed in a series of workshops organized by IKMAS from 2008 to 2010. A dissemination workshop was held at the Boulevard Hotel, Mid Valley, Kuala Lumpur on 30 November 2009 to share the findings of the project with the respondents of the survey as well as the Ministry of Higher Education. Their response was used to revise the draft chapters that were presented there. The revised draft chapters were also presented at the Seventh International Malaysian Studies Conference (MSC7) in Penang on March 2010 in order to share the findings and to solicit constructive suggestions for further improvement. Given that the book manuscript was completed before the subsequent launch of the Internationalization Policy 2011 by the Ministry of Higher Education, the concluding chapter highlights some of the more recent developments after summarizing the key findings of this book.

It would not have been possible to write this book without the support and co-operation of different individuals and institutions. We would like to use this opportunity to express our thanks to those who have assisted us along the way. First of all, we would like to thank Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia for funding the research that is used to provide the empirical data for writing this book. We would especially like to express our gratitude to the Ministry of Higher Education for their support and for all the respondents who have taken time to participate in our survey. We would also like to thank Dr Sharifah Zarina Syed Zakaria for her contributions to the survey. Unfortunately she was unable to contribute towards the writing of this book due to time constraints. Ms Ling Kor Shin provided invaluable research assistance. The project would not have progressed as smoothly as it did without her commitment and dedication to the project. For helpful comments, we would like to thank the three anonymous referees. However, all remaining errors remain our sole responsibility.

We hope the findings in this book will serve to contribute towards enhancing the understanding, practice and challenges encountered by the internationalization process. It is also our hope that it will excite further research interest in an extremely vibrant sector of the country, namely the higher education sector.

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FROM THE MOVEMENT OF ITINERANT SCHOLARS TO A STRATEGIC PROCESS

Tham Siew Yean

INTRODUCTION

The internationalization of higher education in Malaysia as manifested by the movement of students has changed tremendously in the last two decades as Malaysia has shifted from a sending to a receiving country. This has impacted the world market for international students as noted in the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education (OBHE) 2007 report on the patterns and trends of international student mobility (Verbik and Lasanowski 2007). In that report, the world market for higher education was divided into four categories of players. The major players consisted of the United States, United Kingdom and Australia, whereby each had a respective market share of 22 per cent, 12 per cent and 11 per cent. Germany and France with a respective market share of 10 per cent each were designated as middle-power players. In the third category, Japan, Canada and New Zealand were considered to be evolving destinations where each had a market share of 5 per cent, 5 per cent and 3 per cent respectively. Three East Asian economies, namely China, Malaysia and Singapore with a respective market share of

7 per cent, 2 per cent and 2 per cent were listed in the last category as emerging contenders.

Subsequent analysis in 2009 on the same issue revealed that Singapore and Malaysia have retained their respective market shares at 2 per cent each while South Korea has joined the group of emerging contenders with a market share of 1.5 per cent (Lasanowski 2009). Malaysia, as in the case of the other emerging contenders, has taken aggressive measures to recruit international students, including substantial government support to build "world class" institutions, in order to complement its relative cost advantage over traditional exporting countries such as the United States, United Kingdom and Australia.

As a phenomenon, internationalization of higher education is not new, especially when viewed in terms of movement of scholars. In the Middle Ages and Renaissance, scholars embarked on academic pilgrimages as there were not many universities, and therefore the pursuit of knowledge and learning required these itinerant scholars to leave home and travel to distant centres of learning (de Wit 2002, p. 5). The first decades of the sixteenth century has in fact been characterized by some as the "the golden age of wandering scholars" (Ridder-Symoens as cited in de Wit 2002). These itinerant scholars were, however, small in numbers and belonged to elite members of the society as higher education was then the preserve of the elite.

Subsequently, exporting systems of higher education became an increasingly prominent feature of the internationalization process. Colonial powers exported their educational systems to their colonies as well as newly independent states. The British model of higher education, for example, served as a model for earliest colleges in America (Bassett 2006, p. 28). Nearer home, University of Malaya (UM) was formed in British Singapore in 1949 when two British colleges, namely King Edward VII College of Medicine and Raffles College, which were founded in 1905 and 1928 respectively, were merged to create an English-medium university. UM was strongly influenced by the British academic and institutional traditions in the early days of its development. Other former British colonies such as India, some of the African countries and the Caribbean also shared similar experiences.

With the emergence of mass higher education as an international norm by the end of the twentieth century, student and scholar mobility continues to be an important component of university life as universities are deemed to be the centres for learning as well as for the creation and dissemination of knowledge. But the creation of mass systems of higher education created funding issues as higher education is inherently expensive (Altbach undated, p. 4). This is further aggravated by the reduction in government funding for universities in some countries like the United Kingdom due to changes

in the role of the state in funding public services. With this change, higher education shifted from a public to a private good. In addition, the emergence of newly upgraded universities in the United Kingdom led to the appearance of twinning and franchise programmes that are exported to other countries to increase the revenues of these universities. Exporting these programmes is also considered to be less costly and less risky than establishing branch campuses. This contributed to the emergence of private higher education institutions in developing countries with local partners hosting these programmes. These local partners may not necessarily come from educational backgrounds but instead they are corporations that view education as another source of revenue generation.

In turn, increasing massification and marketization of higher education has led to an increasing intensity of internationalization and an escalation of internationalization activities in contemporary universities (Mok 2007, p. 435). Internationalization is now viewed as a necessary strategic process for universities to position themselves in the national and international arena, based on ranking exercises. Student mobility is encouraged through credit transfers, twinning and franchise programmes as well as joint degree programmes. In particular, the recruitment of international students is pursued with different levels of intensities. Preparing students for the global rather than local job market through programmes that are based on international curricula, with teaching instructions in English and industrial experience with overseas or local multinationals, are also deemed as essential learning requirements in response to globalization and the increasing integration of markets.

Similarly, staff mobility is also cultivated through sending staff overseas for post graduate training, sabbaticals, collaborative research, networking through conferences and seminars as well as visiting fellowships. International staff recruitment is also sought after to improve the ranking of universities for some, especially research universities. At the same time, it is also seen as a means of increasing access to international grants which also carries weight for ranking purposes. Academic staff evaluation and promotion inevitably joins these trends in internationalization, with a deliberate shift towards international benchmarks such as publications in internationally recognized journals while publications in local languages or national venues are not counted as internationally important (Mok 2007, p. 446).

RATIONALES

Although internationalization is characterized by the movement of people, programmes and practices across borders, the rationales behind these movements and their importance have changed over time with different

priorities accorded by different countries at different points in time. The four main groups of rationales commonly used are: political, economic, social cultural, and academic, although within each group, there are different sub-categories as well (Kälvemark and van der Wende 1996; de Wit 2002, p. 223).

Foreign policy, national security, technical assistance, peace and mutual understanding, national and regional identity are different variations of the political rationale. Before the Cold War, internationalization efforts served to promote peace and mutual understanding. After the Cold War, the focus of internationalization shifted towards achieving foreign policy goals. Some of the activities used to promote peace and understanding include international education exchange and cooperation, diplomacy, development aid, and cultural exchange. Furthermore, foreign aid and technical assistance were used to stem the influence of the Soviet Union in developing countries through the provision of various forms of assistance (OECD 2004, p. 44). For example, aid programmes such as the Colombo Plan fostered student mobility to serve the interests of the state.

The economic rationale is based on economic needs such as increasing competitiveness to enhance economic growth and to provide human capital that is needed to meet the development needs of a country. As noted by de Wit (2002, p. 90), this has led to the creation of scholarship programmes by some national governments for international students, in the hope that these students will become future public or corporate leaders of their home countries, thereby paving the way for goodwill with the host countries of their former universities. The drive to recruit international students is motivated by the fact that full-fee paying students have become an increasingly important source of revenue for national governments and private (for profit) higher education institutions. In addition, the recent trend towards using the number of international students as one of the criteria for international ranking of universities by the Times Higher Education has also led many universities to join in the race to recruit international students.

Social cultural rationales, on the other hand, emphasize the export of national, cultural and moral values (de Wit 2002, p. 93). This rationale is based on the perception that one of the key roles of a university is to propagate and instil cultural values. International academic exchanges are viewed as part of a necessary social learning process to enhance personal development. Learning to communicate, interact and work with different cultures is used to promote cross-cultural understanding that also prepares the student to work in an increasingly borderless world. It is also sometimes merged with

foreign policy rationales and can be seen in exchanges of cultural and scientific programmes between governments.

In the academic rationale, internationalization serves to provide an international dimension to teaching and research. This rationale is meant to prevent parochialism from developing while enabling the academic community to work within the reality of increasing interdependence and interconnectedness between countries. The main activities that are used under this rationale are curriculum innovation, study abroad programmes, faculty-student exchanges, area studies and centres, foreign language study, joint international research initiatives, and cross-cultural training (de Wit 2002, p. 96).

Although different rationales may have prevailed at different points in time, these rationales are by no means mutually exclusive. Neither are any of the activities indicated above necessarily peculiar to one rationale alone. Area studies, for example, may also be used as a tool of foreign policy as seen during the Cold War when substantial American investment was poured into the development of area studies such as studies on specific languages and world regions through the provision of individual scholarships (OECD 2004, p. 44). Knowledge of both American friends and foes spurred the need to study and understand the languages of other countries, including their cultures.

Moreover, the importance of each of these rationales differed from country to country at different points in time and with varying intensities. In the United States, for example, the promotion of peace and mutual understanding was most prevalent for the first half of the twentieth century and has its roots in the growth of the American peace movement (de Wit 2002, p. 22). This can also be observed in Europe. Germany used a "policy of open doors" for international students to improve its international reputation after World War II (Kehm 2003, p. 113). The economic rationale emerged in the 1980s with the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War when the American auto industry was losing ground to the Japanese and the U.S. competitiveness was perceived to be under threat (OECD 2004, p. 45). In the United Kingdom, the decision to adopt the full-fee policy in 1979 for students outside the European Community led to the emergence of international students as an export industry. Similarly, Australia used its foreign aid programme to provide education services to non-residents until the mid-1980s. International students studying in Australia over this period were either fully or partly subsidized by the Australian Government, with the number of international students capped by an annual quota. In 1985, the

Australian Government introduced policy changes that led to the development of higher education as an important export industry in the country.

The four rationales explained above are embraced differently by different stakeholders in the higher education sector. Public higher education institutions that receive financial support may be less driven by the need to meet the bottom-line needs of private providers. In the same way, the activities that support each rationale can be varied and diverse, depending on the availability of financial resources that can be tapped to fund these activities. Nevertheless, there is a consensus that the internationalization of higher education is growing in strategic importance and hence, an increasing need to study and understand it as a research area.

POLICY IMPERATIVES IN MALAYSIA

Although no formal policy was laid out in the 1980s, private providers emerged to meet excess demand in the country. This sowed the seeds for the internationalization of higher education in private higher education institutions (PHEIs) as they were not allowed to confer degrees. Therefore, they had to seek international partners to bring in twinning and franchised programmes. Their rapid growth over time in a limited domestic market led them to seek for international students, mainly at the undergraduate level, to meet their bottom line needs.

Subsequently Mahathir, a former Prime Minister of Malaysia, introduced his Vision 2020 plan that envisaged Malaysia achieving a developed economy and society by 2020. This required increasing access to higher education and consequently an increased role for private providers, leading to the envisioning of Malaysia as a regional hub for higher education. The economic rationale behind this vision is to reduce the outflows of funds associated with student outflows and concurrently increase export revenue through inflows of international students. In line with this vision, the Private Higher Educational Institutions Act (PHEIA) was enforced in 1996, allowing private providers to award degrees instead of conducting twinning and franchise programmes alone. In 2003, the Act was amended to provide for the establishment and upgrade of private universities, university colleges and branch campuses of foreign universities in Malaysia (Morshidi 2006).

The vision of a higher education hub is sustained over time, as witnessed by its inclusion in the Seventh, Eighth and Ninth Malaysia Plan (7MP: 1996–2000; 8MP: 2001–05; 9MP: 2006–10). More importantly, a separate ministry for higher education, the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) was established in 2004 to continuously improve standards in higher education

institutions by producing graduates that meet the human capital needs of the country as well as to make Malaysia a regional and international hub of educational excellence. Subsequently, the 9MP targeted the enrolment of international students in local higher education institutions to 100,000 by 2010 (Malaysia 2006). Similarly, in 2006 when the Third Industrial Master Plan (IMP3: 2006–20) was launched, education and training is targeted as one of the eight services that are new sources of growth for the economy. Obviously, this is tied to the hub vision as the targeted number of international students in the 9MP implies an additional source of export revenue. This vision of higher education as a generator of export revenues is also enunciated in the New Economic Model (NEAC 2010) and the Tenth Malaysia Plan that was launched in 2010.

The selection of four public universities as research universities in 2006 also increased the pressures to internationalize for these universities as they are being prepared to compete in the global arena. Their performance is rated and ranked by agencies such as The Times Higher Education Supplement in United Kingdom and Shanghai Jiao Tong University, thereby forcing each of these universities to use various internationalization strategies so as to improve their ranking. These strategies include among others increasing the number of international students and staff as well as journal publications in high-impact journals such the ISI Web of Knowledge and Scopus.

Later in 2007, the launch of the National Education Strategic Plan (NESP) listed intensifying internationalization as one of the seven thrusts for transforming higher education in the country up to 2020. This thrust seeks to enhance Malaysia's position as a hub for higher education in the region and internationally (2007, p. 122). The Plan states four strategies to achieve the international hub status, which are namely; (i) enhancing global networks of higher education and collaborative international academic activities at all levels, (ii) expanding suitable programmes of study for international students, (iii) increasing the number of international students, especially in the private higher education institutions through promotion and marketing Malaysia as an excellent international hub for higher education, and (iv) promoting higher education in Malaysia through gradual rebranding these institutions to attain international status.

The aim to be an education hub is further reiterated in the National Higher Education Action Plan: 2007–10 (NHEAP 2007, p. 25) launched in 2008 as a short-term blueprint that will lay the foundation for the NESP. This plan specifies detailed actions that are needed to strengthen and enhance the competitiveness of the higher education system at the global level, through increased prominence of its academic research and teaching. Specifically,

the NHEAP targets to have 100,000 international students by 2010, with two HEIs in the top 100 world ranking and ten prominent R&D centres of excellence. By 2020, the plan targets to have three HEIs in the top 100 world ranking and by 2057, two HEIs are targeted to be in the top 50 world ranking (NHEAP, 2007, p. 17). The desired outcomes such as internationally acclaimed research universities and world renowned centres of excellence all require harnessing internationalization as a means for achieving the targets.

At the same time, the higher education sector is also offered for liberalization at the multilateral, regional and bilateral level. These formal government to government agreements seek to increase market access and national treatment for foreign and domestic providers in the form of the four modes of supply that has been used in the General Agreement of Trade in Services (GATS) in the World Trade Organization (WTO). These are namely, cross-border supply (mode 1), consumption abroad (mode 2), commercial presence (mode 3), and presence of natural persons (mode 4). Malaysia has so far committed the higher education in the revised offers of the Doha Round of the WTO, the ASEAN Framework Agreement on Services (AFAS), the extra ASEAN agreements such as the ASEAN-China, ASEAN-Japan and ASEAN-Korea agreements as well as the three bilateral agreements with Japan, Pakistan and New Zealand, respectively. These commitments have implications on internationalization as each mode of supply represents a different aspect of internationalization of higher education. To illustrate, the movement of students and staff as well as institutions in the form of branch campuses are respectively affected by modes 2, 4 and 3. A commitment by Malaysia with *no limitations* in any of these modes would therefore imply that Malaysian students would face no restrictions in moving abroad to pursue their higher education studies while international staff and foreign universities would not face any restrictions in working in the country or establishing branch campuses, subject to domestic regulatory requirements.

UNDERSTANDING INTERNATIONALIZATION, PRACTICES AND CHALLENGES IN MALAYSIA

While the government has spelt out the directions, objectives as well as some of the targets for internationalization, higher education institutions in the country has been internationalizing, albeit for different reasons and different levels of priorities and intensities. Public universities, especially the older ones have been engaged in various aspects of internationalization as part of their academic development and growth. Concurrently, a variety of private institutions of higher learning have evolved since the opening up of private

higher education from the 1980s. These private institutions of higher learning may be at different stages of development and hence may have different objectives and understanding of internationalization.

Despite the prolific expansion of higher education institutions in Malaysia, studies on the internationalization of this sector remain limited. Furthermore, these studies tend to focus on selected aspects of internationalization. For example, Lee (1999) showed the emergence of transnational programmes in Malaysia as part of the growing trend of transnational education in the world while Sieh, Mahani and Loke (2000) analysed the impact of changes brought by GATS on three service sub-sectors, including the education sector. Tan (2002) focused on how globalization and privatization has affected the development of private higher education in Malaysia. Apart from describing transnational provision in Malaysia, Middlehurst and Woodfield (2004, p. 38) briefly discussed the impact of transnational education on the national education system and culture of Malaysia as well as some public perceptions of transnational provision. Morshidi, Ahmad and Yew (2009) and Tham (2010) examined the trade aspects of higher education, which involves some aspects of internationalization as represented by the four modes of delivery. Tham and Kam (2007), on the other hand, investigated the trade and investment aspects of private higher education in Malaysia. Tham and Kam (2008) used a case study approach to compare the challenges faced by different higher educational institutions in their respective internationalization efforts. In their conclusion, however, they noted that while the use of case studies provided in-depth insights, it does not provide a macro view of the different players in this sector and proposed that their study be extended by conducting a survey together with focus group discussions to garner macro and micro level information on the challenges confronted by the different stakeholders in their internationalization process. A study conducted by the MOHE in 2008 was published after the field work for the empirical chapters of this book was launched (see Norhisham et al. 2008). Although there are similarities in the field work conducted for this book and the MOHE study, there are also differences as well as will be shown in Chapter 5.

Essentially this book aims to do precisely what has been suggested by Tham and Kam (2008), which is to assess higher education institutions' understanding and practice of internationalization, their motivations, as well as the challenges that are faced by them. Given the policy imperatives, the book also aims to make policy recommendations for enhancing the internationalization efforts of higher education institutions in Malaysia. Unlike most edited books, where individual chapters can be read in isolation as they report their respective findings, this book is meant to be read as an integrated

unit as each chapter lays the foundation for the next. In particular, Chapters 2, 3 and 4 provide the context for the study. Specifically, Chapter 2 sets up the conceptual framework that is used as the foundation for the survey and focus group discussions in the field work that is reported in Chapters 5 and 6, while Chapters 3 and 4 provides background information on the public and private higher education sectors.

Faridah and Nooreiny in Chapter 2 shows clearly that there is no universal definition for internationalization based on their survey of the literature, despite the widespread use of internationalization in higher education in developed and developing countries. Knight's (2004) definition is adopted as the working definition for this book whereby internationalization at the national/sectoral/institutional levels is viewed as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" as it is deemed appropriate to the realities of the higher education environment in Malaysia. With this working definition, the authors adapted Knight and Van der Wende's (as cited in de Wit 2002) internationalization circle as the conceptual framework of this book. In this framework, the key towards understanding internationalization and its practices lie in the circular relationship between the key elements that includes understanding, dimensions, rationales or motivations for internationalization, its functions and delivery as well as the challenges involved in the process.

While each of these elements have their place in the internationalization process, one of the key focus of this book is the challenges confronted by higher education institutions (HEIs) in their internationalization efforts. Therefore, Chapter 2 also includes a survey of the challenges faced by selected Asian countries in their internationalization efforts. Despite the diversity of higher education (HE) sectors and different stages of economic development in Asia, they also found some common issues such as the need to balance the quality and quantity of programmes, mobility of staff and students, access and equity, management and planning, infrastructure and increasingly reduced funding, diversification and massification, commodification and marketization of education. There is also a struggle to maintain an appropriate balance between these common issues and the fundamental quest of building higher education for societal relevance and nation-building, governance and policy as well as effective delivery. These common issues serve as building blocks for formulating the survey questionnaire as well focus group discussions used to collect the primary data for this book.

In the third chapter, Azizah Kassim provides the background to the development and internationalization of public universities in Malaysia. Azizah first traces the historical development of public universities, starting

with the establishment of University of Malaya (UM) in Kuala Lumpur in 1962, followed subsequently with Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) in 1969, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM) in 1970, and Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) in 1971. By 2010, there are twenty public universities in the country. In the early days, UM had to rely on external resources such as expatriates for academic staff while English was used as the medium of instruction due to the lack of domestic resources. But this was gradually changed over time, with increasing local staff and the use of Malay as the medium of language. In 2003, the language of instruction for teaching science and mathematics was reverted back to English in schools after considerable debate and opposition. This later led to the use of English as a medium of instruction in science and mathematics in public universities as the first cohort of children who were taught in science and mathematics in English entered public universities, thereby paving the way for subsequent internationalization efforts in these universities. Azizah's examination of two case studies, UM and UKM, showed that both research universities uses similar strategies to internationalize, namely through collaborations in undergraduate and postgraduate programmes, provisions of student mobility and increasing recruitment of international students and staff. Staff mobility is also encouraged at both universities through various linkages. That these are common strategies utilized is also borne out by the secondary data of the public universities' contributions to internationalization in terms of increasing enrolment of international students and staff. Nevertheless, while the mandate to internationalize fulfils the economic interests of the nation, a careful balance has to be made so that the other interests of the state are not compromised in the process.

The development and contributions of private higher education institutions are examined in the fourth chapter by Tham Siew Yean. This chapter maps out push and pull factors that lead to the emergence and mushrooming of private providers in the country. Excess demand in the country constituted an important pull factor with private providers rapidly moving into this sector when the government switched from a government-led to private sector led strategy for growth and development after the economic recession in 1985. Other pull factors include numerous government policies that are used to promote this sector in an effort to reduce imports and increase exports so as to improve the deficit in the services sector. The three economic recessions since Independence also led to a rechannelling of public and private demand from inside and outside the country. Push factors include policy changes in the United Kingdom and Australia with regards to funding of international students and the funding of universities in general. This led to the emergence of innovative programmes that can be exported to other countries such as

Malaysia. Perceived difficulties in obtaining a student visa to study in the United States after 9/11 led to the redirection of Muslim international students to other countries, thereby widening the door of opportunity for providers in the country. While both push and pull factors played contributory roles, Tham notes that it is the coincidence in timing of both factors that really facilitated the explosive growth of private HEIs in the country. The private sector, in turn, contributed towards the internationalization of higher education through the mobility of programmes, students, lecturers, and providers. They are also increasingly an important contributor towards the export revenue of the country. These contributions serve to highlight the important role played by these private providers in the internationalization process of higher education institutions in the country.

The findings from the macro survey of the higher education institutions in the country are reported by Ragayah Hj. Mat Zin and Liew Chei Siang in Chapter 5. As in the case of mail order surveys, the response rate was poor until personal phone calls were made to elicit a higher response rate. In total, 61 per cent of public HEIs (PuHEIs), and 22 per cent of private HEIs (PrHEIs) responded to the survey making the sum total response rate 25 per cent. The respondents were culled from the whole of Malaysia, but a greater concentration of the responses was from the Klang Valley. They are also relatively even among the PuHEIs and PrHEIs as well across age groups. The main findings from the mail order survey in general concur with the findings of an earlier study undertaken by MOHE (2008), especially in terms of the common features and motivations for internationalization. In exploring the understanding of internationalization, the survey results show that there is no significant difference in understanding according to the type and age of establishment, although there are variations in understanding within the PrHEIs and within the 10–20 age group. One possible reason for this result is that the questionnaires were sent to the Vice-Chancellors, Rectors, and Presidents of the respective institutions. However, it was found that some of the features of internationalization differed significantly between PuHEIs and PrHEIs. These are namely, visiting scholars, overseas training for lecturers/staff, international research collaboration, international/inter-cultural extra-curricular activities and recruitment of non-fee paying international students. But there are no significant differences by age of establishment. In terms of challenges, the survey findings find that both PuHEIs and PrHEIs confront similar challenges but it was significantly different by age of establishment with two challenges found to be statistically different among the three age groups in the sample of respondents. These are validating qualifications from other countries and the lack of faculty interest and involvement. It is interesting to

note that about half of the respondents are not familiar with the GATS, with the lack of knowledge even more critical among the PrHEIs than the PuHEIs. Nevertheless, the larger and more established HEIs seem to think that GATS will have an overall positive impact on their respective institutions.

While Chapter 5 dealt with the issues at the institutional level, Abdul Rahman Embong in his Chapter 6 examines ideas, practices and challenges at the micro level, based on focus group discussions with administrators, lectures and local and international students. The findings in his chapter show a rich variety of ideas on internationalization. Rahman has nevertheless synthesized these views into two groups, namely the broad and comprehensive and the specific and instrumentalist views. However, he also cautions that these are not mutually exclusive and instead they exist in a continuum. A common thread that prevails in this continuum is the recruitment of international students. Given this focus, the practice of internationalization is not surprisingly geared towards dealing with foreign institutions to set up programmes and establishing internal mechanisms to implement and sustain programmes, including marketing and promotion. Staff exchange is also viewed as another important dimension in the practice of internationalization. Administrators' views on challenges are also student related, namely attracting more international students, making sure there are adequate facilities, ensuring international students' compliance with visas, national and local laws, and getting them to graduate. For academics, the biggest challenge is the quality of international students, their English proficiency, facilities and their assimilation with other students. Apart from students, it was also found that understanding and readiness may differ, thereby explaining perhaps the differences in commitments. Funding is also seen as a constraint in terms of participating and organizing international seminars. More importantly, some query whether internationalization is equivalent to commercialization and whether in the end public universities are conforming to private ones, namely being market and profit-driven. Local students, while receptive to internationalization, feel strongly that it should be not be at their expense in terms of financial allocation and the language of instruction. They also note the limited interaction among students, thereby querying the supposed gain from intercultural exchange. As for international students, the challenges that they raise are their expectations versus the delivery of their enrolled programmes, the tension between official acceptance on the one hand and social distancing on the other. They are also concerned as to whether they can achieve the objectives that they seek when they chose to study in Malaysia.

In the concluding remarks, Tham Siew Yean notes that there are both diversities and similarities in the understanding and practice of

internationalization. Similarities can be seen in the management's more comprehensive view of internationalization while focus group discussions indicated a broader range of views ranging from a narrowly instrumentalist perspective of internationalization as a mere means for generating more revenue to a more comprehensive view. In the latter's views, internationalization is seen as a means for improving the academic standards of a university as a centre of learning and knowledge creation. It is therefore important to distinguish the macro from micro perspectives as each highlights a different perspective in the understanding of internationalization. The practice of internationalization is strongly associated with student, programmes and faculty mobility. There appears to be a greater concern over the management of the overall internationalization process at the macro level while at the micro level, challenges are more directed towards the implementation of policies, especially the management of international students itself. Nonetheless, there is a consensus on the importance of internationalization. All agree that there are challenges involved in the process and managing internationalization has to be prioritized.

At the policy level, the recently released policy guideline on the internationalization of higher education (MOHE 2011) has set a target of 200,000 international students by 2020. This target together with the findings in this book imply that the greatest challenge is managing international students at the macro and micro levels, especially in the face of intense competition from inside and outside Malaysia. Consequently, Tham cautions that quality must not be sacrificed in the rush to meet quantitative targets. At the undergraduate level, improving the recognition of accredited home-grown programmes can enhance the attractiveness of Malaysia as an educational hub. On the other hand, government financial assistance is critical for attracting world-renowned scholars and postgraduate international students to the country and to facilitate the use of internationalization for knowledge generation, rather than mere revenue generation. Establishing research niches based on the comparative advantage of the country in specific fields of knowledge is also important for internationalizing postgraduate studies. Maintaining the integrity of HEIs in the country is also essential and this will require rationalizing the number of domestic providers to reduce monitoring burden and to create stronger domestic HEIs. The current move towards more stringent monitoring for compliance is appropriate as this will enhance the institutional integrity of MQA. Government assistance in terms of the evaluation of credentials from other countries, harmonizing minimum English language requirements and reducing bureaucratic hurdles can further improve the recruitment process. At the institution's level, improving pastoral care to international students

can boost their overall learning experience in the country, besides ensuring that these students are taught well with adequate amenities for their academic needs. Similarly, as more HEIs venture overseas to provide higher education programmes in other countries, especially the less developed ones, vigilance needs to be exercised to ensure that only accredited programmes are exported less they tarnish the reputation of the country.

While economic rationales have dominated the argument for internationalization in the country, the internationalization of universities should in the end reflect the wider internationalization policies of a country (van der Wende 1996). Malaysia as a trading nation cannot afford to have a closed higher education sector. Instead, the internationalization of higher education can be harnessed for economic purposes as well as to enrich the lives of both students and citizens through cultural exchanges, thereby deepening intercultural understanding and tolerance.

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2

TOWARDS UNDERSTANDING THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND ITS CHALLENGES

Faridah Karim and Nooreiny Maarof

INTRODUCTION

Higher education (HE hereafter) in Malaysia from the 1990s onwards has been restructured to meet the changing demands arising from globalization and its attendant "knowledge economy". The restructuring of the HE sector came in the form of privatization, corporatization and internationalization. Higher or tertiary education comprises universities, university colleges, polytechnics, community colleges and colleges. During the 1990s, the HE landscape changed visibly with the proliferation of education institutions, both public and private, to cope with the increasing demand for a diploma or degree as a passport to job prospects in an increasingly borderless work environment or for upward social mobility. In the 1970s, there were only three public or government-sponsored universities in the country. By 2011, there are 20 public universities and 452 private universities and colleges (see Chapters 3 and 4).

As for private universities, in the 1980s there was no private university in existence. By 2011, there are forty-four private education institutions with university status (see Chapter 4). The main reason for this proliferation of higher education institutions (HEIs) was due to a policy shift to deregulate HE and encourage more participation by the private sector due to the inability of public universities to cope with the increasing demand (Morshidi 2006). The Private Higher Educational Institutions Act of 1996 allows the establishment of private universities and university colleges and for these institutions to confer their own degrees. In addition, these institutions offer a wide range of programmes from pre-university to postgraduate levels. A distinguishing feature of these private institutions compared to their public counterparts is the nature of their transnational programmes which include twinning with foreign universities, credit transfers, external degrees and distance learning programmes.

The policy on corporatization of public universities inevitably affects the governance structure, the diversification of revenue and the institutionalization of corporate managerial practices (Lee 2004, p. 36). In other words, public universities are managed as enterprises, operating like business organizations and developing corporate culture and practices that enable them to compete in the local and global market. Public universities have to increasingly finance part of their operating costs through market-related activities such as consultancy, partnership with industry through research grants, franchise educational programmes, rentals from university facilities and charging higher fees on international students.

Internationalization is a term that is commonly used to discuss the international dimensions of HE (Knight 2008). The practice of internationalization has been going on for a long time, and it has been labelled with different terminologies with different emphasis on varied activities. Nonetheless, internationalization is one of the seven key strategic thrusts for transforming HE in Malaysia to become comparable with the best in the world. It is also regarded as a necessary step towards producing graduates who are marketable in the globalized work-place as well as to attract more international students.

Prior to 2004, HE in the country was managed by a department in the Ministry of Education. The creation of a new Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) in 2004 reflects the growing significance of the role and contribution of the HE sector in the national development of the country, specifically in achieving the status of a fully industrialized nation and in producing highly "knowledge" and skilled human capital (Sarjit Kaur, Morshidi and Norzaini

2008). Today, education has become a big industry, not only in Malaysia, but also in developed societies (Wolf 2002).

DEFINING INTERNATIONALIZATION

How is internationalization understood in Malaysia? What is the common understanding of the concept of internationalization? Admittedly, internationalization has over the years increased in importance, scope and volume. However, limited research and studies in this area has made it difficult to comprehend what internationalization means to the many and varied players in the HE sector in Malaysia, although MOHE has provided directions, guidelines and some targets for internationalization. HE, both public and private, has been pursuing internationalization although for different reasons, forms and levels (Tham and Kam 2008). What are the challenges faced by HE and what are the approaches to internationalization that they practise? As there is no single and universal definition for the term, it is essential to have a basic working definition and a common interpretation of the term to enable and assist policy-makers and academic leaders to better understand one another in the discussion and analysis of this complex phenomenon. Furthermore, a common interpretation is also important to ensure solidarity in advocating for increased attention and support for the internationalization efforts of HE.

The definition of internationalization has evolved into various interpretations since its appearance in the education sector some decades ago. In the 1980s, internationalization was seen as occurring at the institutional level and regarded in terms of a set of activities such as "the multiple activities, programmes and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation" (see, for example, Arun and van de Water (1992) in Knight (2008), p. 26). During the mid-1990s, Knight introduced the process or organizational approach to illustrate that internationalization is a process which needs to be integrated and sustained at the institutional level (Knight 1994, p. 7). She defined it as "the process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution". However, this definition had limitations as pointed out by van der Wende (1997, p. 18) who proposed a broader definition whereby internationalization is "any systematic effort aimed at making HE responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalization of societies, economy and labour markets". This is an improvement, but Knight reasoned that this definition only positions the international dimension in terms of the external environment, that is,

globalization, and hence does not contextualise internationalization in terms of the education sector and its goals and functions.

Others, such as Yang (2002), refer to internationalization as the reciprocal exchange of people, ideas, goods and services between two or more nations and cultural identities. It would, however, be more useful to have an understanding of internationalization that goes beyond the realm of activities per se. Thus, Zha Qiang (2003) regards internationalization of HE as one of the ways a country responds to the impact of globalization, yet at the same time respects the individuality of the nation. Consequently, de Wit points to the complexity in defining internationalization and asserts that "a more focused definition is necessary if it is to be understood and treated with the importance that it deserves. Even if there is no agreement on a precise definition, internationalization needs to have parameters if it is to be assessed and to advance higher education" (de Wit 2002, p. 114).

As education is an important economic sector with many stakeholders giving increasing attention to the international dimension of HE, and in light of the dearth of research studies in this area, it is therefore crucial that this book develops a definition that is appropriate to the realities of the environment in which higher education institutions (HEIs) are operating. Equally important is the fact that the international dimension to be studied "relates to all aspects of education and the role that it plays in society and that policies and programmes at all levels can emanate from it" (Knight 2008, p. 27). For this reason, the working definition by Knight (2004) is considered appropriate and all encompassing to be adopted as the basis for the conceptual framework used in this book. In other words, this book views internationalization at the national/sectoral/institutional levels as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (Knight 2004, p. 11).

Using this definition and as explained in the introductory chapter, the objectives of this book are to ascertain the understanding, practice, motivation and challenges of internationalization by key players in HE in Malaysia. The term internationalization has been widely used for the last forty years. Beginning with an understanding of what "internationalization" is, the literature on internationalization shows that there is no core and universal definition for the term. However, as previously mentioned, it is essential to have a basic working definition and a common interpretation of the term to enable and assist researchers (including policy-makers and academic leaders) to understand one another in discussing and analysing the concept of internationalization.

Nevertheless, the practice of internationalization has in fact been going on for an even longer time though under different terminologies and with a different emphasis on different activities. The common terms then used include international cooperation, international relations and international education (See Table 2.1 and Knight (2005) as cited in Sarjit Kaur, Morshidi and Norzaini 2008). It was only about twenty years ago that the term internationalization became a keyword in the education scene.

It is necessary at this juncture to differentiate between the terms "globalization" and "internationalization". On the one hand, globalization refers to trends in HE that have cross-national implications which include mass HE, global market for students, faculty, and highly educated personnel, and the global reach of the new Internet-based technologies, among others (Altbach 2002). Internationalization, on the other hand, refers to the specific policies and initiatives of countries and individual academic institutions or

TABLE 2.1
Evolution of International Education Terminology

New terms last 15 years	Existing terms last 25 years	Traditional terms last 40 years
Generic terms		
Globalization	Internationalization	International education
Borderless education	Multicultural education	International development cooperation
Cross-border education	Intercultural education	
Transnational education	Distance education	Comparative education
Virtual education	Offshore or overseas education	Correspondence education
Internationalization 'abroad'		
Internationalization 'at home'		
Specific elements		
Education providers	International students	Foreign students
Corporate universities	Study abroad	Students exchange
Liberalization of educational services	Institution agreements	Development projects
	Partnership projects	Cultural agreements
Networks	Area studies	Language study
Virtual universities	Double/joint degrees	
Branch campus		
Twinning and franchise programmes		
Global education index		

Source: Knight (2005) as cited in Sarjit Kaur, Morshidi and Norzaini (2008), p. 2.

systems that deal with these global trends. Examples of internationalization include policies that relate to the enrolment of international students, collaboration with institutions or systems in other countries and the setting up of branch campuses abroad (Knight 2005, as cited in Sarjit Kaur, Morshidi and Norzaini 2008).

In her paper on "Internationalization remodelled: definitions, rationales and approaches" (2004), Knight describes in great detail the key concepts such as process, integration, purpose, functions and delivery. Her explications of the key concepts are as follows:

1. Process: internationalization is an ongoing and continuing effort. It adds an evolutionary or developmental quality to the concept. The term "process" may also refer to the conventional tripartite education model, namely input, process and output. The term "process" is preferable because it is more encompassing and does not reflect specific priorities of a particular stakeholder.
2. International, intercultural and global dimension: terms deliberately used as a triad. *International* refers to the sense of relationships between and among nations, cultures or countries. *Intercultural* is used to address the diversity of cultures that exist within countries, communities and institutions. *Global* reflects a worldwide scope. These three terms complement each other depicting the richness in the depth and breadth of internationalization.
3. Integration: comprises the process of infusing or embedding the international and intercultural dimension into policies and programmes to ensure that the international dimension remains central and sustainable.
4. Purpose, function and delivery: meant to be used together. *Purpose* refers to the overall role and objectives of HE for the country or mission of the institution. *Function* refers to the primary elements or tasks that characterize a national postsecondary system or individual institution which includes teaching, research and service to society. *Delivery* is the availability of educational courses and programmes taught locally, or in other countries.

In keeping up with the development on internationalization in HE, Knight (2008) furthermore observed that emerging elements of this phenomenon in the twenty-first century show an increasing orientation towards academic mobility which includes students, research, programmes and providers moving

across borders with a greater orientation to commercial and market-driven activities than development projects.

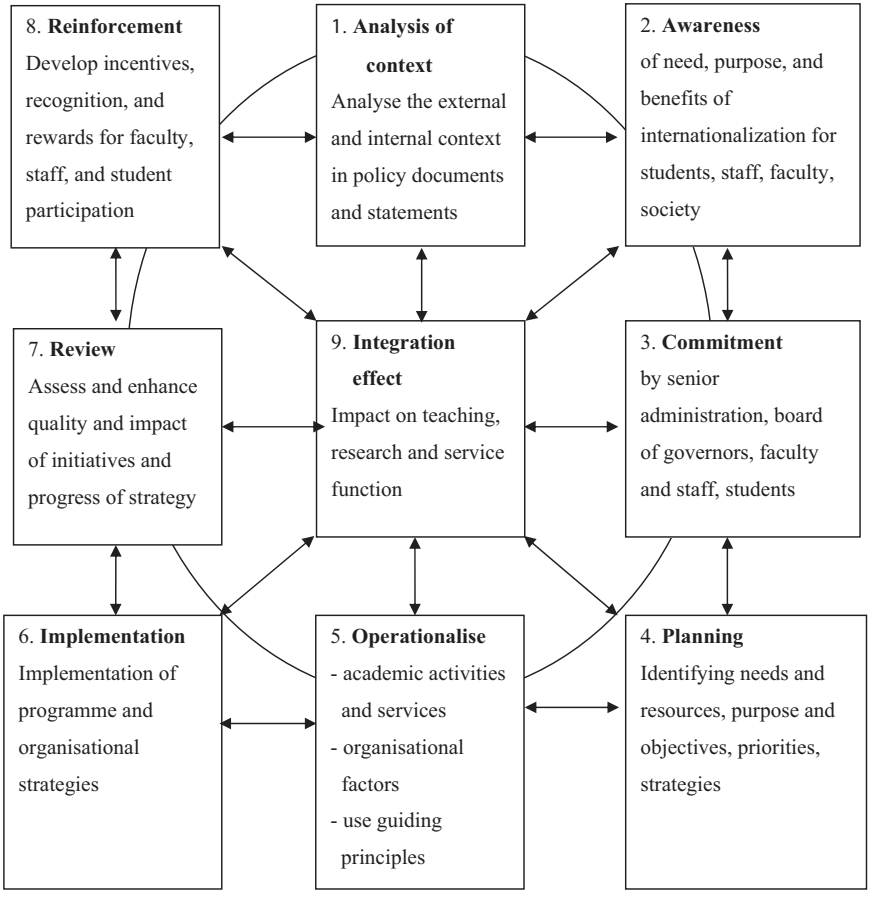
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A conceptual framework based on the model on Internationalization Circle, Modified Version by Knight and van der Wende in de Wit (2002) is used as a starting point to develop an awareness and understanding of the phenomenon under study. This model is deemed relevant to underpin the research base of this book as Malaysia's higher education system is relatively matured, with twenty public universities, forty-four private university colleges and five branch campuses, anchored by a regulatory and governance structure that oversees the development of both public and private providers.

The model as shown in Figure 2.1, views the internationalization process as a continuous cycle rather than a linear or static process. It describes the steps and phases in the process of integrating the international dimension into the university-college culture and systems. There are altogether eight steps or phases in this cycle, starting with an analysis of the context, followed by awareness, commitment, planning before operationalization, implementation, review and reinforcement. However, although the process may occur in a sequence according to the eight phases shown, a two-way flow is also possible. In this model, the integration effect lies in the centre of the circle whereby internationalization is not pursued as a separate strategy. In other words, internationalization is at the heart of the internationalization cycle when it is integrated into the core functions of HE institutions, namely in its teaching, research and service functions. It is in this context that internationalization becomes an integral part of educational development and innovation of HE institutions and not as merely an external relations policy alone or just another academic activity.

Since Knight and Van der Wende's model provide clear links between the literature and the objectives of this book, it is used as the basis for conceptualizing the framework used in this book, as shown in Figure 2.2. The framework focuses on aspects such as understanding of internationalization, dimensions, rationale or motivation for internationalization, functions, delivery and the challenges faced in internationalization as these are the key issues in this book. Each of the elements in the framework is seen as interrelated to the other elements. Thus, the arrows in the figure do not reflect a one-directional relationship; rather a recursive one. This framework serves as a reference point for the discussion, methodology and analysis of data as it provides the links between the literature, research objectives and research questions asked in this book.

FIGURE 2.1
Conceptual Framework of Knight and van der Wende

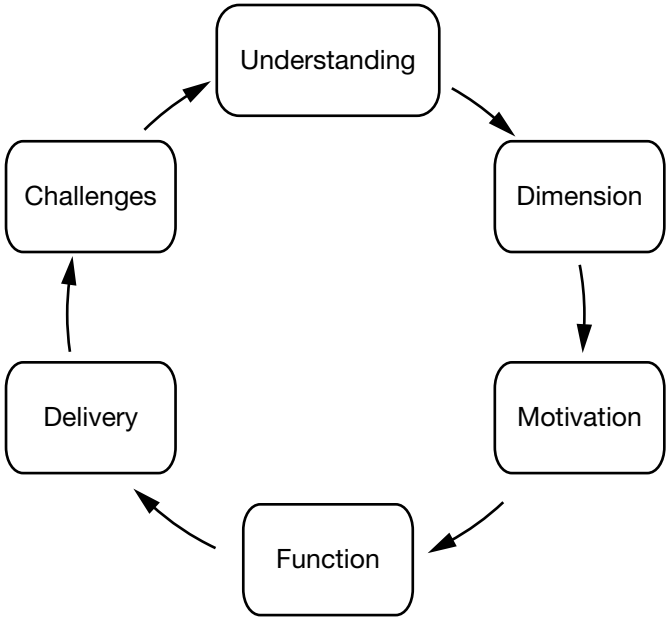


Source: In de Wit (2002).

Understanding

In the conceptual framework in Figure 2.2, the component "understanding" incorporates analysis of content (analysis of policy documents and statements), awareness of need, purpose and benefits of internationalization. In assessing the providers' understanding of the term within the Malaysian context, the survey instrument used for the field work of this book probed on the practice of internationalization in their institutions, be it in terms of recruiting

FIGURE 2.2
Conceptual Framework for Higher Education Institutions



Source: Adapted from Knight and van der Wende in de Wit (2002).

international students and programmes; conducting multifarious activities and services that fall within international studies; integrating an international dimension into the teaching, research and service functions; and responding actively to changes brought about by globalization of societies, economy and labour markets. In addition, the survey instrument also examined the providers' view of whether internationalization is considered as a change process from a national HEI to an international HEI with a holistic approach towards enhancing the quality of teaching and learning and achievement of its desired competencies. The understanding of the providers is further assessed by examining the importance of internationalization for their respective institutions.

Dimension

Another important aspect of internationalization in the conceptual framework is the dimension or feature of internationalization. The dimensions or features

referred to in this book encompass students, staff (academic) and programmes at the diploma, undergraduate and post-graduate levels. Relevant questions that relate to this dimension include: Who are these international students and faculty members? What countries do they come from? Is there a strategy for recruiting them? At the same time, which aspects of internationalization are expanding most rapidly? Who are the key drivers for increased internationalization: is it the students, faculty members, top management or other stakeholders? Data on the dimension aspects can be most useful in providing information to policy makers in the HE sector on policies relating to objectives, licensing, accreditation, funding, curriculum, teaching, research as these policies have direct implications for the providers.

Knight and van der Wende (2002) refer to the planning aspect as identifying the needs, resources, purpose, priorities and strategies, programmes and policies at the institution's level. The survey instrument used in the field work of this book focuses only on the strategies, programmes and policies at the institution's level. According to Knight (2006), strategies reflect the most concrete dimensions at the institution's level and further emphasizes strategies such as academic programmes and organization initiatives that include student exchange, internationalized curricula, work/study abroad, international students, teaching learning process, joint/double degree programmes, area studies and foreign language, faculty/staff mobility exchange, selling programmes overseas, and having distance programmes overseas. It is, however, the rationale and perspectives of the institution that provides the direction for the strategies, policies and programmes of the institution.

Motivation/Rationale

Warner (1992 in Zha Qiang 2003, p. 251) examines the various assumptions that underlie or motivate the internationalization agenda of different universities. He proposes three different models in an attempt to capture the diverse approaches towards the internationalization of a university. The first model is the competitive model that introduces international content into curricular and other elements of campus life, mainly to make students, the institution and the country more competitive in the global market. The second model is the liberal model that has as its main goal self-development in a changing world for human relations and citizenship. The third model is the social transformation model and its main goal is to give students a deeper awareness and understanding of international and intercultural issues related to equity and justice.

Johnston and Edelstein (1993, in Zha Qiang 2003, p. 252) assert that the main argument for internationalizing HE is to ensure the nation's economic

competitiveness. Knight and van der Wende (1995, in De Wit, 2002) concur with a similar rationale in that internationalization is implemented mainly for political and economic reasons. Knight (1997, in Zha Qiang 2003, p. 252) further categorizes possible rationales for internationalization into four groups: political, economic, academic and cultural/social. The political rationale refers to issues on the country's position and role as a nation such as security, stability and peace, ideological influence and so forth. The economic rationale relates to either long-term economic effect in that internationalization can contribute to skilled human resources required for international competitiveness as well as contribute towards the country's nation-building agenda. Furthermore, international students can serve as key players in the country's trade sector through the provision of export revenue or the reduction of leakages through imports. The academic rationale comprises objectives related to the aims and functions of HE such as the achievement of international academic standards for research and teaching, which subsequently provides value-added quality to the HE system. The cultural and social rationales focus on the role of culture and language, and on the importance of understanding local and foreign languages and culture. Graduates with a strong foundation in intercultural relations and communications will be an asset in the internationalizing process. This will inevitably lead towards more effective intercultural relations and communication between countries.

Function and Delivery

Based on Knight's (2004) view that purpose, function and delivery can be used together and within the context of the four aspects of motivation/rationale, the "function" and "delivery" component looks at how academic activities and services and organizational factors are operationalized and implemented. Providers in Malaysian HEIs are asked to indicate the degree of significance for reasons to internationalize such as: (a) to broaden and diversify source of faculty and students, (b) to create an international profile and reputation, (c) to increase students' and faculty's international knowledge and intercultural understanding, (d) to enable students to easily get a job, (e) to contribute to academic quality and benchmarking, and other related rationales. Furthermore, aspects of delivery including innovation in curriculum, teaching and research, greater diversity of education programmes and qualifications, more internationally oriented students and staff, strengthening research and knowledge production also provide important insights into the orientation and policy decisions of Malaysian providers and stakeholders in HE.

Delivery of internationalization of HE can be further enhanced when providers have action plans and strategies for their institutions. Thus, providers are asked on their plans for internationalization, personnel in-charge, budgetary provision, monitoring mechanism to assess progress and explicit targets, inflows of foreign students and foreign faculty members, international programmes and strengthening international research collaboration.

CHALLENGES OF INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN SELECTED ASIAN COUNTRIES

In Asia, the development of internationalization of HE has occurred much more rapidly in comparison to other parts of the world. Internationalization efforts in this part of the world are driven mainly by economic factors in a competitive global environment (Huang 2007). Many of the challenges faced by these countries seem similar in general, although there are some problems unique to some countries. Korea, for instance, faces problems that are barriers for academic globalization such as the bureaucracy and rigid centralization or control of HEIs in the country, the attitudes and leadership styles of administrators, and closed organizational culture of Korean HE (Lee 2004). Lee listed other challenges common to other Asian countries that include commercialism, neo-colonialism, structural adjustment and educational reform, standardization and quality assurance, homogenization of national identity and culture, and information technology revolution. Internationalization in India, on the other hand, raises concerns on issues related to the quality of Indian universities, choices related to opportunities for the poor in education, standards and competition with world markets, political complexities, resources and infrastructure, and to access to modern forms of ICT such as the Internet and computers (Singh 2008).

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) report on Higher Education in South East Asia (UNESCO Bangkok 2006), provides detailed and in-depth case studies of eight countries namely Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam. The internationalization of HE is included among the issues addressed in this report. In general, it is observed that HE in Southeast Asia (SEA) is influenced by each country's historical background, efforts in nation-building and present trends in the world (Lee and Healy 2006, p. 2). According to Lee and Healy, whatever differences in HE between these countries occur only at a superficial level which ranged from geographical

size, economic wealth, political ideologies, and educational traditions. For example, Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand are newly industrialized countries whereas Cambodia, Lao PDR and Vietnam are countries undergoing economic transition from an agricultural to an industrialized economy. Despite the diverse contexts of HE systems of Southeast Asian countries, these countries face similar problems and challenges in relation to their respective HE system. At the same time, internationalization of HE has become a top priority for many of these nations. In the main, internationalization has been concerned with mobility of students, lecturers and educational programmes and institutions (UNESCO 2006, p. 6). Many of these countries are importers of transnational education from countries such as Australia, the United Kingdom, and United States. However, some of these countries such as Singapore, Thailand and Malaysia have in turn become exporters of education, especially to its neighbouring countries in the region.

Singapore's HE places much importance on economic relevance and the critical role of the state in decision-making and planning. HE in Singapore acts as a precursor for international competitiveness in the world's economy in that "sustained economic growth … meant increasing demand for access to higher education" (Tan 2006, p. 159). The development of the education system in Singapore began with the idea of setting up a college for the natives during colonial times in 1823 by Sir Stamford Raffles, which later materialized into Raffles College in 1928 and followed by the formation of the first university, Nanyang University in 1956, and much later, the formation of the National University of Singapore (NUS). To date, various other universities and polytechnics were established to meet with the increasing demands of HE in Singapore as well as demands from other countries in the region.

Internationalization of HE is one of the main strands of the Singapore government's national economic strategy and the government also aspires to develop Singapore into an international centre of learning (Tan 2006, p. 172). In the effort to internationalize, many institutions of higher learning in Singapore have been modelled after prestigious institutions of higher learning in the west such as those in the United States, United Kingdom and Australia. For example, the NUS and National Technological University (NTU) have adopted the North American academic model of a modular system. In fact, the Prime Minister announced in 1996 that Singapore will be the "Boston of the East" using Harvard and MIT as role models (Tan 2006, p. 173). Inflows of international staff and students has been made more flexible as part of the intensive drive for internationalization. International staff do not find it difficult to apply for permanent residence in Singapore. At the same time, local staff and students are also encouraged to study in other countries

or as exchange staff or students, in particular at universities in the West. The international staff recruitment policy has been a source of contention for many local citizens. An emerging critical issue is the perception that these "foreign talents" are living in the country at the expense of the taxpayers and are depriving the local citizens of jobs. Similarly, accelerated enrolment of international students, some of whom are sponsored by the government, has led to a sense of being crowded out and a deprivation of university places in Singapore by the local students.

Another challenge for Singapore is to address issues of equity and access to education in general and in particular for the minority or under-represented segments of the population. The government has made much effort in democratizing access and increasing enrolments at local universities (Tan 2006, p. 176). Gender equity is a serious concern. Women are encouraged to pursue their fields of interest at university. For instance, female student enrolments have increased for the past two decades and quotas lifted for female participation in medical programmes at universities. The Singapore government is also concerned about minority educational achievement and has taken steps to encourage the development of ethnic-based organizations by providing financial and infrastructural assistance.

The challenges in internationalizing HE for Singapore therefore lie in the government's efforts and ability to create a balance between the economic, knowledge and equitable societal needs of the country. The issue of quality and competition and of attaining world-class repute is another area of concern.

Similar to Singapore, Thailand aspires to become a centre and hub for international education in Southeast Asia (Bovornsiri 2006). However, unlike Singapore, Thailand's approach towards internationalization focuses more on importing international students, rather than the recruitment of international staff and programmes. In 2003, there was approximately 4,000 international students studying at Thai institutions of higher learning and the majority were from the People's Republic of China (Bovornsiri 2006, p. 207). In terms of outflows of students and staff, Thailand has always practised sending Thai students and staff to study abroad in the United States, United Kingdom, France, Japan, Germany, Australia and China. There are also government-to-government training of Thai personnel in neighbouring countries such as Malaysia, Singapore, Korea, and Taiwan. Thailand has benefited from the liberalization of trade in services as it is active in the liberalization and cooperation efforts in regional groupings such as the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), the Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM), Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), and the World Trade Organisation (WTO). Thailand is also actively involved in educational services with Australia through

the Thailand-Australia Free Trade Agreement or TAFTA. This allows the operation of Australian institutions of HE in Thailand, especially in areas of science and technology (Bovornsiri 2006, p. 211). The liberalization of trade in education services has enhanced competitiveness in the education sector as it demands that local or Thai HEIs to be at par or of international standing with institutions operated by foreign nationals in Thailand.

Thailand faces a number of challenges in its reform of HE in the process of internationalization (Bovornsiri 2006, p. 213). These include concerns in relation to: (a) the quality of education of HEIs which are affected by factors such as the diversity in types of HEIs, decreasing government budgets, and dependence on fee-paying students; (b) meeting global standards and local relevance in education because importing international programmes and standards may not address local needs; (c) increasing emphasis on the supply side of HE which does little for market competition and student-centred learning; (d) increasing competition among HEIs; and (e) greater emphasis on roles of networking among local HEIs in order to remain competitive and relevant.

As with the majority of Southeast Asian countries, the process of reforms in HE in Indonesia has occurred over a long period of time. Various reforms in the education system in general have taken place over decades since 1945. These reforms have since focused on the quality and relevance of education, in particular, in HE (Nizam 2006, pp. 35–37). The Indonesian government is also cognizant of the importance of a knowledge-based economy in the present globalized world and efforts are made to address issues and challenges related to internationalization of HE in the country. Indonesia faces three main challenges in the internationalization of HEIs in Indonesia. As outlined by Nizam (2006 p. 38), these include among others, the need to improve the quality, relevance, equity, efficiency, and governance of the institutions as well as to be an "independent moral force" to assist in the democratization and socio-political reforms. Finally, internationalization also needs to address new challenges from knowledge economies and competition.

The above challenges involve issues of access and equity, structural reforms of HEIs, new funding schemes, and the diversification of HE. Indonesians are also concerned about the inclusion of education under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) as there may be more private gain to HE compared to social gain (Nizam 2006, p. 61). Education may transform into an economic commodity spurred by economic and commercial motives. Consequently, education "will lose its social and cultural role in nation-building and as a public good" (Nizam 2006, p. 65).

The Philippines has also undergone various reforms in education particularly in terms of structural reforms of institutions of higher learning in the country. It is also one of the oldest HE systems in the region as it dates back to the University of Santo Tomas in 1611 (Gonzales 2006, p. 156). The more recent restructuring resulted in the creation of a new system of managing the various types of HEIs and programmes which include more emphasis on a polytechnic system rather than on the established academic system. The Philippines is a unique example of an education context whereby supply is greater than demand. Moreover, private HEIs play an influential role in the education of the citizens. There are approximately sixty private HEIs in the Philippines that have been either given autonomy or deregulated status by the Philippine Commission on Higher Education (Gonzales 2006, pp. 148–50). The UNESCO report states that private HEIs in the Philippines are responsible for educating two-thirds of the HE students in the country. In general, it can be inferred that theoretically HE is accessible to everyone in the country, given the right admission criteria and needed funds. The government provides subsidies for 35 per cent of the 2.5 million students in the public education system (Gonzales 2006, p. 138).

Internationalization in the Philippines has always emphasized education and training of staff at foreign institutions of higher learning. However, decreasing funds have limited the number of staff sent abroad to study and they are instead encouraged to enrol in "sandwich courses" whereby only some courses are attended in foreign countries (Gonzales 2006, p. 144). There are also joint programmes between universities made available for students. The cooperating universities include some in Europe and Japan where transfer of credits are made possible. A challenge of this approach is the imbalance in economic standards between participating universities. There are also limited exchange programmes for both students and faculty. The Philippines has approached this challenge by integrating the international and domestic curriculum. Such programmes include studies on language, culture, history, politics and other related subject matter. Examples of such programmes are Asian studies at the University of the Philippines and American Studies at Mirriam College (Gonzales 2006, p. 145).

The Philippines' internationalization of its HE institutions is dependent on its current needs. Issues of quality, funding, and demands for diverse fields of study, research oriented courses, and mismatch between skills and knowledge base of graduates remain very much a domestic and internal challenge. The Philippines does not need to import foreign programmes, rather it needs to consolidate and further strengthen its own domestic programmes in collaboration with countries in the region.

The preceding reviews of the challenges confronting Southeast Asian countries have revolved around the newly industrialized countries. Countries such as Vietnam, Cambodia, and Lao PDR or countries in transition, are also facing their own forms of challenges in their effort to internationalize their HEIs, though some challenges may be common to all Southeast Asian countries and some may be unique to these three countries. The Vietnamese education system, for instance, comprises 227 institutions that provide education for approximately 80 million people and reforms in HE first began in 1987 after the Sixth Congress of the Vietnam Communist Party (Ngo 2006, p. 219). Internationalization of HE increased with the presence of foreign education programmes that are either operated by international universities or in collaboration with domestic institutions. The first such university is the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT) that was first established in 2001. Later, many "sandwich" programmes were established by universities from the United States, Germany, Australia, and Belgium (Ngo 2006, p. 244). In terms of funding, there are limited government grants or scholarships available for studies abroad. However, a few students receive sponsorships from universities, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), foundations and corporations. Other than these challenges, another challenge is in terms of quality. There were no available monitoring systems for quality in Vietnam prior to the 1990s. The Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) later set up an accreditation office to address issues of quality assurance of programmes at HEIs in Vietnam. There are a number of other domestic challenges, which directly affect Vietnam's effort in internationalizing its HEIs. According to Ngo (Ngo 2006, pp. 246–47), these include the need to: (a) develop the infrastructure of its universities and increase the annual budget for education; (b) provide professional development of university staff to ensure that they are qualified and experts in their fields of specialization; (c) reform teaching methodology and approaches at universities and colleges so that more innovative and effective methods are used in teaching and learning; and (d) adapt to changing global needs and competition to be more relevant to "glocal" needs.

Compared to Vietnam, Cambodian HE still requires much improvement for it to be recognized regionally and internationally. This is because Cambodian HE underwent various ideologies — French, Russian, Vietnamese, and Western (Chet 2006, p. 29). Cambodia focuses on academic mobility of its staff and students to countries in the region and to other countries. The University of Phnom Penh, for example, has collaboration and partnerships with twenty-nine foreign universities and forty international organizations around the world (Chet 2006, p. 27). The main form of cross-border HE

in Cambodia is thus staff and student exchange. However, Cambodia has limited involvement as a host country in these exchange programmes. Only few students are exchange students at Cambodian HEIs, and they are mainly from Vietnam, Lao PDR, Japan, Korea, and Italy. Cambodian HE need to have a system that is responsive to the needs of society and at the same time address changes in the labour market and the world. It is observed that the Cambodian HE system is still very much fragmented and constrained financially. This therefore poses a great challenge to the country in terms of the development of local HEIs and, consequently, on their efforts to internationalize.

Similarly, Lao PDR is also facing various challenges in the development of its HE system. Unlike Cambodia and Vietnam, Lao PDR is the least developed country in the region. Lao is mainly concerned presently in developing basic education for its citizens in terms of literacy skills for communication and abilities to use information technology (Phou 2006, p. 69). It is stated that Laos has to date, three public universities, five teacher training colleges, and thirty-one private higher institutions. Although there has been an increase in access to HE, nevertheless the main challenges in terms of access include: (a) under-representation of women and ethnic minority groups, and (b) an excess in demand for education which public and private institutions are unable to address (Phou 2006, p. 90). For Lao PDR, internationalization is a main avenue for supporting and facilitating the development of HEIs. Exchange of staff and students help facilitate transfer of knowledge and of best practices. Countries involved in exchange programmes with the Lao PDR in the past are Australia, Japan, France, South Korea, Vietnam, New Zealand, Thailand, United States, China, Canada, Germany and Sweden.

Recently, the National University of Lao (NUOL), the only HEI at the national level, is involved in exchange programmes and acting as host to international students from countries such as Japan, Korea, China, Russia, America, Britain, Cambodia and Vietnam (Phou 2006, p. 92). Overall, Lao PDR is faced with a number of challenges in the development of its HE. These include, among others, (a) its capacity to conduct relevant training and education programmes and provide adequate number of graduates with the relevant skills to provide for the country's human resource; (b) the need for Lao to address issues of quality standards in its HEIs; (c) the need to provide efficient HE and training; (d) to ensure effectiveness of HEIs in delivering its training and education; (e) to ensure equitable access for various groups (women, ethnic minorities, special-needs groups); and (f) the need for overall planning and management and monitoring of HE. Like Vietnam and Cambodia, Lao PDR needs to work on developing the overall education

system and ensure stability and quality of the domestic programmes. This could help escalate the internationalization process of their HEIs.

Since the above review of the six Southeast Asian countries is based on the report compiled by UNESCO Bangkok in 2006, it is possible that new developments and improvements may have occurred since that date. From the preceding discussion, a number of similarities can be identified in relation to the types of challenges faced by Asian countries in addressing internationalization of HE. As noted in the Asia-Pacific Sub-Regional Preparatory Conference for the 2009 World Conference on Higher Education in the Asia Pacific Region (UNESCO Bangkok 2008), internationalization of Asian HEIs is characterized by some common trends and issues that include: (1) geographical and demographic diversity and population growth; (2) diversity of educational needs and institutional diversity (whether to create world class or locally relevant universities); (3) need for cooperation and competition at local, regional, and global levels; (4) significance of the dynamics between public and private HEIs; (5) impact of emergent technologies on learning; (6) logistics of size, participation, and types of institutions; (7) nature of funding in terms of priorities and resource differentiation; (8) issues of quality, quantity, and standards of HEIs; (9) need to enhance mobility; and (10) dilemma of internationalization as both catalyst and product of a knowledge economy for HE. It can be summarized that a recurring concern and challenge of the countries reviewed above revolves around issues of quality and quantity of programmes, mobility of staff and students, access and equity, management and planning, infrastructure and increasingly reduced funding, diversification and massification, commoditization and marketization of education versus education for societal relevance and nation-building, governance and policy, as well as effective delivery.

The literature on challenges of internationalization faced by Southeast Asian nations served as a guide in the conduct of this book's study on internationalization in Malaysia. The main concerns and issues identified were used as research variables that were operationalized and measured using the survey questionnaire and focus group interviews with the participants for the empirical data of this book. The survey and focus group discussions were also used to further identify challenges faced by the Malaysian providers in internationalizing their respective HEI. Prior to this study, two recent studies were published in 2008 on the challenges in internationalization of HE in Malaysia, using different approaches. In a case study approach, Tham and Kam (2008) observed that while there are guidelines given by the government through the MOHE on objectives and targets for internationalization, HEIs in the country have been internationalizing "albeit for different reasons and

different levels of priorities and intensities" as there are many players in the arena of HE, be it public or private. Tham and Kam (2008) compared four types of institutions of HE, namely a public university, a private university, a private university college and a branch campus and found that, understandably, these varied players with have different perspectives, objectives and thus different challenges and issues.

In the case of the public university, although internationalization is used as part of the university's strategies to achieve world class status, its internationalization efforts are constrained to a certain extent by funding, facilities, staff commitment and support from the management as well as accommodation for international students. However, in the private university's case, funding is seen as the main challenge because internationalization, similar to collaborative arrangements, "is expensive". Being private and market-driven, this type of university thinks that Malaysia needs a brand image in the promotion of Malaysian education. Projecting Malaysia's identity in the competitive HE arena in the region is considered critical for successful internationalization of HE. The private university college, on the other hand, found government regulations to be the main challenge, especially regulations that require the institution to keep track of their international students in terms of attendance and participation in their registered programmes. Frequent changes of rules and regulations at short notice also create confusion and delays for both incoming and outgoing students. In addition, the time taken for accreditation of their programmes and immigration procedures are some of their other challenges. Lastly, the branch campuses' main challenge is the different operating environment of the parent and branch campuses, the different practices and procedures of the accreditation bodies to which the parent and branch campuses are subjected to, respectively. There is also an additional challenge peculiar to branch campuses, namely convincing the public that parent and branch campuses share the same quality in all aspects.

The second study sought to ascertain the extent and nature of internationalization in HEIs by conducting a survey of public, private and university colleges in the country through a structured survey instrument and focus group discussions (Norhisham et al. 2008). Although the study did not examine the challenges of internationalization directly, this can be inferred from the barriers and issues found in the study. In the case of the former, financial constraints, competitiveness of international research funding, and the lack of promotional and tenure incentives for international faculty were found to be the main barriers. Lack of uniformity and clarity in the definition used by the MOHE and other stakeholders are key issues

raised from the study. Recognition and a perceived lack of follow-up from the government on the targeted number of international students for the country as well as infrastructural support are the other issues confronting the private providers.

With these challenges of varying degrees, how can policy-makers at the national level assist in enhancing the internationalization process? These questions comprise the main focus of this book in its attempt to identify the challenges in internationalizing HE in Malaysia.

CONCLUSION

Given the economic importance of the HE sector in Malaysia, as well as increasing liberalization and democratization in the entry of new players, pertinent questions and concerns are raised regarding how providers with diverse backgrounds, stages of development and objectives conduct their teaching and learning, research and services in tandem with their internationalization efforts. While some HEIs internationalize all aspects of their core business as institutions of higher learning, others may view internationalization as one important aspect or even just another aspect of their institutions' activities. These two extremes can be said to represent two possible approaches toward internationalization of HE in a country. As shown in this chapter, there are various shades in the understanding, dimensions, motivations and rationales, as well as functions and delivery and, therefore, substantial differences in the way HEIs engage in internationalization. Likewise, the review of the challenges in this chapter indicates that there are similarities and differences in the internationalization efforts at the country level and also at the institution level. Exploring further the challenges encountered by the different stakeholders in the HE sector can serve to enhance efforts to internationalize HE in Malaysia.

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3

PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES
Development and Internationalization

Azizah Kassim

INTRODUCTION

Since Independence, Malaysia has established twenty public institutions of higher learning that are entrusted with the major task of nation building. Initially they had a monopoly in student enrolment and the conferment of degrees but this monopoly was challenged in the latter half of 1996, when the Private Higher Educational Institutions Act 1996 was enacted allowing private higher education institutions to confer degrees. This chapter seeks to explain the development of public universities in Malaysia and their role and contributions towards the internationalization of higher education. It will focus on the following themes: the development of public universities; efforts to internationalize by these institutions and their rationales; as well as plans of action, strategies and measures that were adopted to realize the objectives of internationalization. It will only highlight the case of two of the twenty public institutions, namely Universiti Malaya (UM) and Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). Both universities, which were established under different historical and socio-political environments, are among the five universities in the country collectively categorized as research universities since 2006. UM, the oldest public institution of higher learning in the

country, is an offshoot of two British colonial tertiary institutions. UKM was established as a national university in the post-independence era and the first university in Malaysia to use the national language, Bahasa Melayu, as the medium of instruction. Both UM and UKM are aggressively pursuing internationalization as leading research institutions of higher learning. These institutions are chosen as case studies for practical reasons. Access to data in the two institutions is relatively easy as the writer was previously employed in UM and she is currently employed in UKM. Data for the paper are based on both secondary and primary sources. The former includes documents such as the Annual Reports of the two institutions, reports from the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) and previous related studies. The latter relies on data collected through focus group discussions with faculty members, and interviews with the relevant officials engaged in the governance and administration of these institutions.

EMERGENCE AND EXPANSION OF PUBLIC HIGHER EDUCATION

Compared to industrialized nations, the development and expansion of higher education in Malaysia is a relatively new phenomenon that began only after Independence. Under the British colonial administration, local tertiary education was limited to colleges such as the Raffles College in Singapore, the Serdang College of Agriculture and the Technical College in Kuala Lumpur, and Malaysians were dependent on foreign colleges and universities in Britain and the Commonwealth countries for higher education. With Independence in 1957, Malaysia (or the Federation of Malaya as it was known then) embarked on national development, and this created a need for educated and skilled manpower. Access to formal education was democratized and this led to a demand for local institutions of higher learning — a university. Such an institution was also deemed essential for political reasons. A university was, and still is, seen more than just a place to acquire and pursue knowledge. It is also a venue where the cream from the diverse ethnic groups in the country can meet, interact and forge national unity, the prerequisite for nation building. A university is also a symbol of independence and nationhood (Mohd Ali 2006).

Universiti Malaya was the first university to be established in Malaysia. It was established in 1962 in Kuala Lumpur, which was the Federal capital at that time. It traces its origin to two colonial colleges based in Singapore, namely King Edward VII College of Medicine and Raffles College, which were established in 1902 and 1929, respectively. The two institutions were

merged in October 1949 to form the University of Malaya which was located in Singapore. In 1955, this university established a branch in Kuala Lumpur and this institution was later developed into the present University of Malaya (Khoo 2005). In the subsequent three decades, institutions of higher education was the monopoly of the public sector, and this period saw the emergence of many public universities such as Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM, 1969), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM, 1970), Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM, 1971), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM, 1972), Universiti Islam Antarabangsa (UIA, 1983), Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM, 1984), Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS, 1993) and Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS, 1994). Some of these institutions are new entities, while others, like the UM, are based on existing educational institutions which were elevated to university status. The UPM, for example, previously known as Universiti Pertanian Malaysia, is the amalgamation of two educational institutions: Serdang College of Agriculture, which was established in 1947, and the Faculty of Agriculture in UM. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM), on the other hand, owes its origin to Maktab Teknik Kuala Lumpur, established in 1946. The twenty public universities in Malaysia are now divided into three categories: five Research Universities, eleven Focus Universities and four Comprehensive Universities (Table 3.1) which reflect their core business.

The two public universities that were established in the 1960s were driven by internal socio-economic and political imperatives. Malaysia, as a new independent nation, was set on development, and there was a high demand for educated and skilled manpower in practically all fields of knowledge. The graduates were trained for the local job market in the public and private sectors. However, without any tradition for higher education, the university's structure, governance and curricula had to be borrowed from elsewhere especially from Britain, the United States as well as countries in the Commonwealth. In UM, its first year (1962–63 academic session), in the new campus in Lembah Pantai, Kuala Lumpur, was dominated by international teaching staff (UM 1963). In the four pioneer faculties, three of the Deans were Europeans, and all heads of departments with the exception of the geography department, were foreign nationals. The head of the Department of Malay Studies, Professor Roolvink was a Dutch. The Islamic Studies Department was headed by Professor Rauf from Egypt, and the Indian Studies Department by Professor Thani Nayagam from India. All the other heads of departments were from Europe, Australia and the United States. The first Vice-Chancellor, Professor Oppenheim, was a British. All five professors appointed for the year were Europeans. As the employment of these foreign academics was expected to be a temporary phase, local academic staff were sent for training abroad, especially in Britain, with

TABLE 3.1
Public Universities in Malaysia, 2009

	Name of University	Location of Main Campus	History & Former Name	Status	Date of Establishment
1	Universiti Malaya (UM)	Kuala Lumpur	Raffles College & King Edwards College of Medicine, Singapore which were merged into University of Malaya in Singapore (October 1949).	RU	2.1.1962
2	Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM)	Penang	New	RU	1969
3	Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM)	Bangi, Selangor	New	RU	18.5.1970
4	Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)	Serdang, Selangor	Serdang College of Agriculture & Faculty of Agriculture, UM.	RU	4.10.1971
5	Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)	Johor Bahru	Technical College, KL	RU	1.4.1975
6	Universiti Islam Antarabangsa (UIA)	Gombak, Selangor	New	CU	10.5.1983
7	Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM)	Sintok, Kedah	New	FU	16.2.1984
8	Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS)	Kota Samarahan, Sarawak	New	CU	24.12.1992
9	Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS)	Kota Kinabalu, Sabah	New	CU	24.11.1994
10	Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI)	Tg. Malim, Perak	Maktab Perguruan Sultan Idris	FU	24.2.1997
11	Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia (USIM)	Nilai, Negeri Sembilan	Kolej Universiti Islam Malaysia (KUIM)	FU	13.3.1998
12	Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM)	Shah Alam, Selangor	Maktab MARA	FU	28.6.1999

13	Universiti Malaysia Terengganu (UMT)	Kuala Terengganu	Kolej Universiti Sains & Teknologi	CU	15.7.1999
14	Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (UTHM)	Batu Pahat, Johor	Kolej Universiti Teknologi Tun Hussein Onn (KUiTHO)	FU	30.9.2000
15	Universiti Teknikal Malaysia Melaka (UTeM)	Air Keroh, Melaka	Kolej Universiti Teknikal Kebangsaan Malaysia (KUTKM)	FU	1.12.2000
16	Universiti Malaysia Pahang (UMP)	Kuantan, Pahang	Kolej Universiti Kejuruteraan & Teknologi Malaysia (KUKTEM)	FU	16.2.2002
17	Universiti Malaysia Perlis (UniMAP)	Arau, Perlis	Kolej Universiti Kejuruteraan Utara Malaysia (KUKUM)	FU	2.5.2002
18	Universiti Darul Iman Malaysia (UDM)	Kuala Trengganu	Kolej Universiti Sultan Zainal Abidin	FU	1.1.2006
19	Universiti Malaysia Kelantan (UMK)	Kota Bahru Kelantan	New	FU	14.6.2006
20	Universiti Pertahanan National Malaysia (UPNM)	Sungai Besi, Selangor	New	FU	10.11.2006

Notes: RU= Research University; CU= Comprehensive University; FU= Focus University.
Source: Adapted from MOHE <http://www.etawau.com/edu/IndexUniversityGovernment.htm>. Accessed 11 November 2009.

a few to the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. They were expected to return home after completing their higher degrees and take over from the expatriates.

The curricula were based on the curricula in foreign universities and the language of instruction in all faculties, except the Department of Malay Studies, was English. Other foreign languages were also offered — French, Spanish, Arabic, German, Dutch, Italian Chinese, Tamil and Sanskrit — for which certificates of proficiency were given (Khoo 2005). External assessors, referees for appointments and external examiners were also from overseas.

The participation of Malaysians was limited largely to the university's administration. The twelve member university council comprised mainly Malaysians in addition to four foreign professors, including the Vice

Chancellor. The support staff were mainly Malaysians and so were the students at the undergraduate level. Elements of internationalization were inevitably embedded in its initial development due largely to its colonial past. This legacy was followed in the post-Independence era with the establishment of Malaysia's second public university, the USM in Penang, in 1969. As in the case of UM at its inception stage, USM also had to depend on international expertise and used English as a medium of instruction.

However, the international elements that were embedded in the public universities started to be eroded in the beginning of 1970s, in the aftermath of the politicized ethnic riot on 13 May 1969. The inter-ethnic conflicts were perceived by many, rightly or wrongly, as a clear sign that the Malaysian multiethnic population was highly fractious, and there was a need for unity among the major ethnic groups. The use of Malay as a medium of instruction at the institutions of higher learning was seen as one way of achieving this objective. In addition, with the increase in the number of students in the national schools, there was also a pressing need for the use of Malay as the medium of instruction at the university level. But this was strongly resisted by the academic communities in UM and USM. This setback was overcome by the formation of a third university, the Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM) or the National University of Malaysia. As a national university, UKM was entrusted with the task of upholding the "supremacy" (*mendaulatkan*) of the national language, Bahasa Melayu, by expanding its use as the language of knowledge (*bahasa ilmu*), and to internationalize its usage. The use of the national language was essential to national unity as it is deemed a critical prerequisite for nation building. However, due to the lack of academic staff conversant in Malay, UKM, at its infancy stage also had to depend on international lecturers, especially from Indonesia.

Soon after, as a result of strong political pressure from some sections of the populace, all public universities were required to use Malay as the medium of instruction, and the process was carried out in phases starting with the social sciences. The shift from English to Malay as the medium of instruction in all faculties in public universities took more than a decade. It was only in the mid-1980s when the "nationalization" of public universities was completed (Gill 2005). But in the subsequent years there was a gradual increase in the use of English in education due to a combination of factors, including globalization and liberalization of higher education.

Repaving the way for internationalization

By the early 1990s, the demand for tertiary education had escalated and this imposed a heavy financial burden on the government. By then, about

15.4 per cent of the total public development allocation was for education (Malaysia 1991). There was, therefore, a pressing need for the government to reduce the growing public expenditure on education and to find new sources of funding for this sector. The higher education system was reformed and among others, two important measures were taken. First, public universities were corporatized in 1995 to give autonomy to public institutions of higher learning in order to provide them with greater flexibility in their own revenue sources, etc. Universiti Malaya was the first to corporatize in 1996; and in 1998 the government instructed all other public universities to do likewise (MOHE 2007). Second, the Private Higher Educational Institutions Act was introduced in 1996 to regulate the increasing number of private universities and colleges. This Act, which officially curtailed state monopoly on tertiary education, further boosted the expansion of private universities and colleges. These measures were the results of a changing perception on the role of education among policy-makers and others. Education was no longer seen as merely a public service to develop human capital for nation building but increasingly as a commodity to be bought and sold for profit, and the education system was to be developed into an export industry that "will help to reduce the deficit in the balance of payments" (Malaysia 1996).

By then, Malaysia had also undergone significant economic transformation. It had become an integral part of the world capitalist economy as it increasingly opened itself to globalization. The Mahathir government recognized the fact that Malaysia's human capital must gear itself towards the requirement of the world job market, and public universities had to adjust their programmes accordingly. In addition, in the realm of international trade, education has increasingly become a commodity with high potential to secure export revenues. Given such a context, internationalization of higher education in both the private and public sector became national imperatives.

As the number of graduates from the private higher education increased, there were complaints from some Malaysian educationists that the higher education system had become divisive. While public universities were producing graduates proficient in Bahasa Melayu, private tertiary institutions were producing the converse, or graduates proficient in English. There was a widely held perception among employers that graduates of private institutions, because of their better command of English, are better than those from public universities. As a result, public university graduates started to lose out to those from the private institutions in the private sector job market (Juriah Che Long et al. 2004). This division was seen as alarming because it overlapped with the ethnic divide as most *bumiputra* students were (and still are) in public universities while the majority of non-*bumiputra* students are in the private higher institutions due to the quota system that

was institutionalized to redress ethnic imbalances in the country.[1] This gave the then Prime Minister, Mahathir Mohamad a good reason to push for the reintroduction of English as the medium of instruction in Malaysian public education system in 2002, a measure he was unable to implement in 1993 due to strong public opposition (Gill 2005).

The reversal to English as a medium of instruction in state schools was implemented in early 2003 for mathematics and science subjects. Affected students were those in primary one; and at the secondary level, students in forms one, three and those in lower six. By 2005, some of these students were admitted to the universities and have to be taught in English as well. The shift to English as a medium of instruction is a step towards internationalization of public universities. The use of English would enable academic staff and students in local universities to interact more effectively with their counterparts from other universities worldwide.

INTERNATIONALIZATION IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES

What does internalization mean? An indication is provided by UTM's definition of the concept, as follows:

> Internationalization at Universiti Teknologi Malaysia *is a process of strategically integrating diverse international dimensions into the University's activities of teaching and learning, research and enterprise (consultancy), and community service so as to create a synergistic and multicultural organisation*. Internationalization is part of the University's participation in extending the nation's role in the wider world and requires commitment from all levels of the University. The University aims to provide an international experience for its community characterized by reciprocal and responsive understanding, global citizenship, and ongoing learning and improvement. *The University hopes to achieve its aims by means of strategic alliances and partnerships, and staff and students mobility. [Italics mine].* (UTM 2007).

There are common elements in the internationalization strategies carried out by various public universities in their attempt to "integrate diverse international dimensions into university activities" (UTM 2007). This is because public and private universities are guided by directives from the Ministry (MOHE) as indicated in the National Strategic Plan for Higher Education (NSPHE) 2007 of the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE 2007). According to the NSPHE 2007, the main objective of internationalization is to make Malaysia an excellent hub for higher education at the global level. To achieve this, it emphasizes the need to improve the quality of tertiary

education to contribute towards the country's development, and hence it has to be relevant and competitive. Malaysian tertiary education must be recognized internationally to be able to produce graduates suitable for both domestic and foreign job markets and to attract more international students. The NSPHE 2007 targets an increase in international student population in public institutions of higher learning to 15 per cent of all student enrolment in 2020, and the number of international academic staff to 15 per cent of all teaching staff at the tertiary level. It also emphasizes the need for networking between Malaysian institutions of higher learning and those abroad, for collaboration in research, teaching and related activities.

Prior to the publication of the NSPHE 2007, there were no clear guidelines on how the objectives of internationalization were to be achieved. With the establishment of the MOHE in 2004, there were attempts to co-ordinate internationalization measures taken by the various public universities, although no written guidelines were made available until 2011. Thus each public university was left on its own to interpret what "internationalization" means and to devise its own strategies and measures to achieve its objectives. Nonetheless, the strategies and measures adopted by the various public universities bear some similarities as shall be seen in the case of UM and UKM.

Universiti Malaya

UM was the first public university to respond to the call to internationalize. In 1996, it established an International Relations Unit (IRU) to attend to its external linkages. The IRU later changed its name to International Corporate Relations (ICR) office whose functions are "to facilitate and co-ordinate in promoting UM in the global community of higher learning institutions". Its mission is to "internationalise the University of Malaya (UM) to be in the forefront as a centre of academic excellence" (PAUM 2008).

Elements of internationalization include teaching, learning, research and services, and these involve teaching staff, students and management. These are to be achieved through student and staff exchanges with universities abroad, collaboration in research and publications, participation in and organization of international conferences/seminars and upgrading the quality of teaching by securing more international academic staff. To attain this, fostering of linkages with foreign universities is essential and this is done through Memoranda of Understanding (MOU), Memoranda of Agreements (MOA) and Letters of Intent (LOI). As of 2007, UM has signed 210 MOUs with partner universities from more than thirty-three countries worldwide (Universiti Malaya 2008*a*).

Some of these MOUs have a specific timeframe and have since lapsed. As of June 2009, UM have active collaborations with 130 partner universities from thirty countries worldwide. Their global partners are shown in Table 3.2. UM's top partner universities are from Japan, followed by Indonesia, Korea, United Kingdom, United States and Australia. The university has also made inroads into South America by linking with a university in Peru and also with Africa by establishing ties with a university in Zambia. The collaborations between UM and its global partners as enshrined in the MOUs and MOAs are for specific or general purposes such as academic collaborations, student exchange programmes, staff exchange, co-operation to foster promotion, research and education in international law, education and exchange, joint research, exchange of publications and others.

Apart from making linkages as shown in Table 3.2, UM has also established a regional centre, the Asia Europe Institute (AEI) in 1997. This initiative "reflects UM's commitment to internationalizing higher education by working in partnership with other ASEM[2] countries" (PAUM 2008). UM also became a member of several key international academic associations such

TABLE 3.2
UM's Global Partners, June 2009

Countries	No. of Universities	Countries	No. of Universities
Australia	10	Netherlands	4
Austria	1	New Zealand	2
Brunei	1	Norway	1
China	7	Peru	1
Denmark	1	Philippines	1
Estonia	1	Singapore	3
Egypt	3	Sweden	1
France	3	Switzerland	1
Germany	3	Syria	1
Hong Kong	1	Taiwan	1
India	1	Thailand	4
Indonesia	15	United Arab Emirates (UAE)	1
Iran	1	United Kingdom	13
Italy	2	United States of America	10
Japan	18	Yemen	2
Jordan	1	Zambia	1
Korea	16	**Total**	**130**

Source: UM (2009*b*).

as ASEAN University Networks, Association of Commonwealth Universities, Association of Pacific Rim Universities, Association of Asian Institutions of Higher Learning (ASAIHL), Federation of Universities of the Islamic World, International Association of Universities, and International Association of University Presidents. This involvement brings benefits in terms of funding for scholarships for academic staff and students to attend conferences and to conduct research.

To internationalize its graduate and postgraduate programmes, UM does aggressive promotional exercises abroad. It also introduced new programmes allowing dual degree conferment and joint supervision between universities for postgraduate studies. For the undergraduate level, it moved towards increasing its international students, and started a student mobility programme. To facilitate the entry of international students, UM further formed an International Student Centre and operates an international student house which serves as a hostel. Some of the programmes to internationalise its student and teaching include the following:

Postgraduate: Joint PhD Programme[3]

This programme is open to all disciplines. It requires local students to register at both UM and one of its partner universities abroad, and they will be supervised by academic staff from both institutions. It has two types of arrangements for degree conferment. In the first case, the degree is conferred by the foreign partner university only. To date, UM has arrangements with Imperial College, London, and University of Nottingham in the United Kingdom and with the University of Melbourne, Australia for this joint degree programme. In the second case, both UM and its partner university confer a "double badge degree", or one degree with the names of both universities on the certificate. The second arrangement between UM and the University of Sydney, Australia, presently involves two local graduates. It is touted as a fee-saving programme as the students, who may spend part of their study at the foreign partner university, pay only local Malaysian fees.

Dual Degree PhD Programme

A dual degree programme has been initiated with the Consortium of French University Presidents in 2007, which enables Malaysian students from UM to study in a university in France. One student is currently following a course in business at a university in Paris. In 2009, UM has started a similar

programme with John Moore University, Liverpool. Under this programme, a student will be conferred two degrees, one by UM and another by the partner university.

Undergraduate Student Mobility Programme

This programme, as described by a UM undergraduate brochure, is designed to enable students to have "a global outlook" (Universiti Malaya 2009*a*). UM's target is for 25 per cent of its undergraduates to go abroad and participate in the student exchange programmes in any one of its partner universities. The exchange programme has two components, namely cultural and academic, which students can choose. At the same time, students from partner universities may also visit UM on similar terms.

Student Exchange Programme

UM has student exchange arrangements with some of its global partners which enable international students to come to UM for short courses. One such exchange is with Beijing Foreign Studies University (BFSU). For example, from July 2007 to January 2008, twenty students from BFSU completed their studies in Malay language and culture at UM (UM 2008*b*).

Home Stay

The home stay programme at UM is to give international students the unique experience of living with Malaysian families. For example, the abovementioned Chinese students from BFSU were hosted by Malay families and their home stay programme was managed by the Malay Studies Academy.

As of April 2009, UM has 27,369 students, and 3,367 (12.3 per cent) were international students. Most of them are in postgraduate studies programmes, where they form 26 per cent of the student population (UM 2009*b*).

In the case of teaching and research, among measures taken was the establishment of the Ungku Aziz Chair in Poverty and Development Studies in 2006 to which world renowned economists are invited to come and share their expertise with the students and staff of the university. At the same time, the recruitment of international staff is actively pursued. In 2009, 21 per cent of all academic staff in UM comprised foreign nationals (UM 2009*b*).

To maintain high and internationally recognized academic standards, staff training for higher degrees abroad continues and so is the practice of having international assessors for the promotion and appointment of

staff. For higher degree programmes, international examiners are utilized. Other collaborative activities with its foreign partner universities include joint research, publications, academic visits, attending and organizing international conferences.

Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia[4]

As the national university entrusted with elevating the use of the Malay language as *bahasa ilmu* (language of knowledge) at the tertiary level, UKM faces a bigger challenge with regards to internationalization which generally requires the use of English as a medium of instruction. Nonetheless, it is very committed to internationalization as seen in the Pelan Strategik UKM 2006–11 or the Strategic Plan of UKM 2006–11. Among the six objectives identified in this plan, two has direct relevance to internationalization. These are to upgrade the quality of its teaching to that of international standards; and to internationalize the image and contributions of UKM. These objectives are reaffirmed in the Programme Transformasi UKM sebagai Universiti APEX 2008 (Transformation Programme of UKM as the APEX University 2008). These documents, besides the MOHE National Strategic Plan for Higher Education 2007, form the basis for the Pelan Tindakan Pengantarbangsaan UKM 2009–10 (UKM Action Plan for Internationalization 2009–10, or Pelan Tindakan for short) which now guides the internationalization activities at the university.

Prior to the implementation of the Pelan Tindakan, a number of internationalization activities were already in place. As in the case of the UM, elements of internationalization were already embedded in the core activities of the university, namely teaching, research and services. UKM accelerated its internationalization efforts under the directives to internationalize by the Ministry of Education in the mid-1990s. Among measures taken were the establishment of a number of regional research centres such as the Institute of Malaysian and International Studies (IKMAS), Institut Kajian Oksidental (IKON or the Institute of Occidental Studies) and Institut Kajian Asia Barat (IKRAB or the Institute of West Asian Studies).

UKM has also made arrangements to facilitate the inflow of renowned international scholars by establishing Chairs for Visiting Professors, such as the Pok Rafeah Chair at IKMAS. Such collaborations to internationalize its research, teaching, learning, and services require UKM to establish linkages with foreign universities, and this was done by signing MOUs, MOAs and LOIs with partner universities worldwide. Between 1992 and 2009 UKM has signed 285 MOUs/MOAs/LOIs with several universities

from forty-six countries (Table 3.3). Perhaps because of its emphasis on Bahasa Malaysia as the medium of instruction, its main global partner are universities in Indonesia (78 linkages), where the medium of instruction is Bahasa Indonesia which is similar to Bahasa Melayu. UKM's other major global partners are universities in Australia, United Kingdom, China, Korea, Japan, United States, Yemen and Thailand. UKM has also reached out to universities in South America, namely in Argentina, Brazil and Venezuela; and with institutions of higher learning in Eastern Europe, namely Russia and Romania. With the establishment of IKRAB, ties with the West Asian countries seem to be on the rise.

Some of the MOUs/MOAs/LOIs between UKM and foreign universities are for a specific time period, between one and eight years, while others are

TABLE 3.3
UKM's Global Partners (1992–2009)

Countries	No. of Universities	Countries	No. of Universities
Argentina	1	Kuwait	1
Australia	22	Mexico	4
Austria	1	Morocco	1
Belgium	1	Netherland	1
Bosnia-Herzegovina	3	New Zealand	5
Brazil	2	Norway	2
Canada	2	Pakistan	2
China	19	Romania	1
Denmark	2	Russia	1
Egypt	2	Saudi Arabia	2
Philippines	4	Singapore	2
Finland	2	Spain	3
France	5	Sudan	1
Germany	7	Sweden	2
Greece	1	Syria	1
Hong Kong	3	Taiwan	1
Iceland	1	Thailand	8
India	2	Turkey	4
Indonesia	78	United Arab Emirates	1
Iran	5	United Kingdom	19
Italy	4	United States of America	15
Japan	16	Venezuela	1
Korea	17	Yemen	9
		Total	**285**

Source: Unpublished data from the Department of International Relations, UKM.

not time bound. Many of the former have now lapsed. Only about 219 MOUs/MOAs/LOIs are still active in 2009. In terms of objectives, some are specific such as for research in selected areas and disciplines, or for staff training or student mobility only, while others are general in nature. Some of the internationalization activities are explained below:

Double Degree Programme

The double degree programme in UKM involves the Faculty of Engineering and the Faculty of Science and Technology. In the case of the former, UKM collaborates with University of Duiseberg-Essen (UDE), a university in Germany to run a double degree programme for civil, mechanical and electrical engineering at the undergraduate level since 2003. Third-year students from UKM with cumulative grade points aggregate (CGPA) of 3.5 and above are given the opportunity to study for another year in UDE for which they will obtain another degree from the university in addition to that from UKM. A reciprocal arrangement is also made for UDE students. The programme, which was initiated under the European Union Asian Link project, has produced over fifty dual degree graduates in engineering. However, the majority of students who took advantage of this programme are from UKM.

The Faculty of Science and Technology, on the other hand, runs a double degree Master's Programme in geology with Institute Teknologi Bandung (ITB), Indonesia. The two-year postgraduate course, which started in the 2008/09 academic year, requires the student to spend a year each at both universities. Students from both Indonesia and Malaysia will be getting two sets of degrees, that is a Master of Science in Petroleum Geoscience (UKM), and Master of Engineering in Applied Petroleum Geoscience (ITB).

Lund-UKM Master's Programme

Since 2005, UKM has an arrangement with the Centre for East and Southeast Asian Studies, Lund University, Sweden, to conduct applied fieldwork courses for the latter's Master Programme (UKM n.d.). In 2005 and 2006, the courses were conducted by the Institute of the Malay World and Civilisation or ATMA. In the following year, they were conducted in IKON and in 2009 by KITA (or the Institute of Ethnic Studies). Under this programme, students from Sweden spend five weeks at the UKM campus in Bangi where they are given eight hours of intensive lectures and another eight hours of mentoring for fieldwork in preparation of their Masters' thesis. The students are conferred degrees by Lund University.

UKM-Global Student Mobility Partnership

This four-week programme was launched in June 2009. According to its brochures, it is designed "to build bridges for international understanding and friendship". It provides an opportunity for undergraduates from abroad doing their second year to come to UKM and experience life in Malaysia and to meet and interact with local students. It also provides an opportunity for UKM students to go abroad. Inbound students, who will be joined by local students, are required to follow one of the following two courses: Sustainability of Tropical Heritage or Indigenous Communities. For each course they are given fifty hours of intensive lectures and discussions at the UKM campus, followed by eighty hours of fieldwork in any one of three locations in the Peninsula (Tasik Chini, Cameron Highlands or Langkawi Geopark), in Sarawak Cultural Village, or Mount Kinabalu in Sabah. The course has a value of three credits. Until December 2009, about sixty students have benefited from the project. Of these, twenty-eight were from abroad and the rest local students.[5]

Outward bound student mobility involves both undergraduate as well as postgraduate students from UKM. They are sent to partner universities for a short study period or, in the case of the postgraduate students, to conduct research. They are given a supplementary grant of RM10,000 each from a special fund, Dana Pejabat Yayasan Canselor (Fund from the Chancellery Foundation's Office) and from the Research Universiti Grant for Post Graduate Programme.

Enrolment of International Students

One of the targets of internationalization is to increase the number of international students, especially at the postgraduate levels. This has been achieved at UKM in the last few years. For example, in the 2007/08 academic session there was 2,843 international postgraduate students and the figure subsequently rose to 3,645 in the 2008/09.[6] This upward trend seems to continue in 2009/10 when registration for the first semester had an intake of 1,912 international postgraduate students and 566 international undergraduates. Based on the 2009/10 statistics, international students in UKM now form 21 per cent of the total student population. Although the medium of instruction in UKM is Malay, international students are allowed to write their thesis and dissertation in English, on condition that they have passed a certain level of English necessary for the postgraduate level. Otherwise they are required to take and pass English courses. As UKM is

a national university entrusted with the task of elevating the status of the national language and internationalizing its usage, all international students in UKM are required to take Malay language classes before they are conferred their respective degrees.

International Linkages for Academic Staff

International linkages for academic staff involve research, staff mobility and training. Academic staff are encouraged to conduct collaborative research with foreign universities and to secure foreign funding for their research from such external agencies as the World Bank, Asian Development Bank, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and research funding agencies such as Friedrich Naumann Stiftung, Konrad Adeneur, Nippon Foundation, etc. Collaboration with partner universities also include organizing or participating in international seminars, joint publications or publications in reputable international journals or other media; and taking part in international scientific exhibitions and competitions that are periodically held.

UKM staff mobility also involves visits by academic staff to foreign universities, and short attachments such as during their sabbatical leave. Foreign staff are also invited to come as visiting professors or lecturers. In 2007, there were about thirty-three international academic staff at UKM and this number rose to about a hundred in 2009.

Other Linkages for Internationalization

As part of its internationalization efforts, UKM also encouraged the formation of international students' alumni in their home country. UKM also joined international Academic Associations such as the Asia-University Network, Association of Universities in Asia Pacific and ASAIHL.

The formulation of Pelan Tindakan Pengantarabangsaan 2009–10 (or Action Plan for Internationalization 2009–10) as alluded to earlier makes the internationalization efforts more focussed, strategic and efficient. The Plan outlines the objectives of internationalization at UKM and how to go about achieving these objectives. It spells out in clear terms the activities to be taken, the targets to be achieved, the key performance index, and the agencies responsible for these activities. Its implementation in 2009 creates greater awareness among members of the UKM community of what internationalization of the university means and their role in the implementation of the plan.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO INTERNATIONALIZATION

There are various ways of assessing the milestones achieved by public universities in their internationalization efforts. However, only two dimensions will be discussed here: enrolment of international students, and recruitment of international staff by these universities based on available data.

Annual enrolment of international students rose significantly from 5,045 to 24,214 from 2002 to 2010 (Table 3.4). Prior to 2007, this number is relatively insignificant compared to the enrolment of local students due to a quota for the enrolment of international students at the undergraduate level. For example in 2005, the total enrolment of students in public universities was around 390,388 while the enrolment of international students was only 6,622 or 1.7 per cent of the total student population. Nevertheless, the participation of research universities in ranking exercises has increased the need to increase the enrolment of international students. By 2010, international students account for 5 per cent of total enrolment in public universities.

International students' enrolment are concentrated in UIA and six of the older universities, namely UM, USM, UKM, UPM, UTM and UUM. Understandably, UIA, which was established as an international university, has the largest number. Among the more established universities designed for locals, UPM led the way for 2002 and 2003. In the next two years UM took the lead, followed by USM in 2006, and UM again from 2007 to 2010.

In terms of source countries, Malaysia has enrolled students from numerous countries. In 2002, the top ten source countries accounted for 45 per cent of all the students. In 2010, they accounted for more than 74 per cent of the total (Table 3.5). Most of these are developing countries in the Middle East, East Asia and the Pacific, East and West Asia, Central and Eastern Europe and Sub-Saharan Africa. The attraction for these countries could be the relatively low cost of living in Malaysia and the significantly lower fees at Malaysian public universities compared to those in the more established universities in Europe, United States, Australia and New Zealand. The increase in the number of students from the Middle East could also be due to the 11 September 2002 bombing catastrophe in New York which unleashed anti-Islamic sentiments in Europe and the United States, thus making many Arab/Muslim students feel relatively unsafe to study in those regions. Students from Iran, for example, constituted the largest share of international students in 2010 (Table 3.5). Enrolment of students from industrialized countries is negligible, perhaps indicating that the quality of Malaysian university courses has not reached a level to which these countries are accustomed to.

TABLE 3.4
Enrolment of International Students in Public Universities, 2002–10

No.	PU	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
1	UM	763	679	914	1,038	815	2,242	2,963	2,925	3,208
		(15.1)	(12.9)	(15.9)	(15.7)	(10.3)	(15.7)	(16.0)	(13.0)	(13.3)
2	USM	550	615	877	903	1,332	1,422	1,772	2,388	2,474
		(10.9)	(11.7)	(15.3)	(13.6)	(14.3)	(9.9)	(9.6)	(10.6)	(10.2)
3	UKM	608	859	844	228	1,038	1,490	1,842	2,554	2,847
		(12.1)	(16.1)	(14.7)	(3.4)	(13.1)	(10.4)	(10.0)	(11.4)	(11.8)
4	UPM	848	860	642	984	935	2,018	2,557	2,622	2,829
		(16.8)	(16.1)	(11.2)	(14.9)	(11.8)	(14.1)	(13.8)	(11.7)	(11.7)
5	UTM	153	237	286	361	433	811	2,001	2,818	2,995
		(3.0)	(4.4)	(5.0)	(5.5)	(5.5)	(5.7)	(10.8)	(12.6)	(12.4)
6	UUM	225	277	84	627	325	2,178	2,553	2,890	2,918
		(4.5)	(5.2)	(1.5)	(9.5)	(4.1)	(15.2)	(13.8)	(12.9)	(12.1)
7	UIAM	1,838	1,637	1,902	2,151	2,558	3,353	3,592	4,545	4,940
		(36.4)	(30.7)	(33.2)	(32.5)	(32.2)	(23.4)	(19.4)	(20.2)	(20.4)
8	UNIMAS	6	10		27	21	34	35	48	79
		(0.1)	(0.2)		(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.3)
9	UMS	13	9	96	144	216	269	334	444	398
		(0.3)	(0.2)	(1.7)	(2.2)	(2.7)	(1.9)	(1.8)	(2.0)	(1.6)
10	UPSI	8	35	14	32	19	17	28	71	80
		(0.2)	(0.7)	(0.2)	(0.5)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.3)
11	UiTM			22	63	168	260	424	442	427
				(0.4)	(10.0)	(2.1)	(1.8)	(2.3)	(2.0)	(1.8)
12	UDM					8	5	30	7	11
						(0.1)	(0.03)	(0.2)	(0.03)	(0.1)
13	USIM	10	6	21	24	23	53	74	105	175
		(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.5)	(0.7)
14	UMT	23	15	24	25	13	28	46	74	118
		(0.5)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.5)
15	UTHM			6	8	11	17	55	223	280
				(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.3)	(1.0)	(1.2)
16	UTeM				3	8	103	46	52	92
					(0.05)	(0.1)	(0.7)	(0.3)	(0.2)	(0.4)
17	UMP			2	2	5	9	43	106	155
				(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.23)	(0.5)	(0.6)
18	UniMAP			1	2	13	24	90	140	183
				(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.5)	(0.6)	(0.8)
19	UMK								2	4
									(0.01)	(0.02)
20	UPNM									1
										(0.004)
	TOTAL	5,045	5,239	5,735	6,622	7,941	14,324	18,485	22,456	24,214
	(Percentage)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

Note: UMK and UPNM did not have any international students until 2009 and 2010.
Source: <http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/>. Accessed 11 November 2009.
<http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/statistik_2009.htm>. Accessed 15 September 2011.
<http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/perangkaan_2010.pdf>. Accessed 15 September 2011.

TABLE 3.5
International Students Enrolment by Source Countries (2002 & 2010)

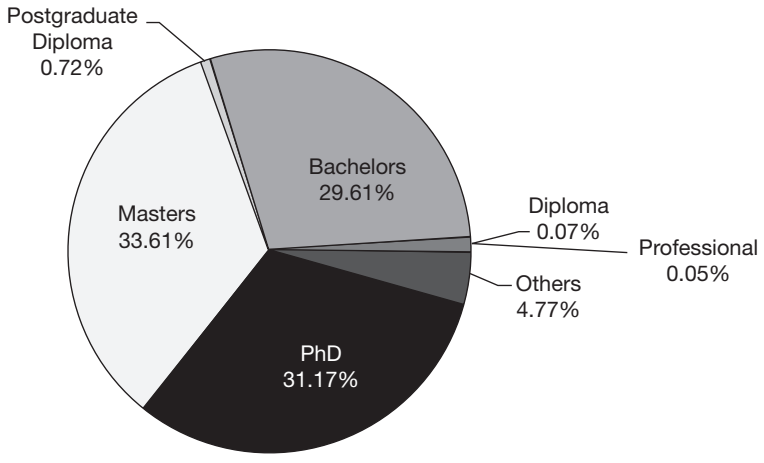
2002			2010		
Countries	**No.**	**%**	**Countries**	**No.**	**%**
Indonesia	633	12.5	Iran	4,814	19.9
Thailand	394	7.8	Indonesia	3,769	15.6
India	267	5.3	China	2,168	9.0
Libya	202	4.0	Yemen	1,809	7.5
Singapore	195	3.9	Iraq	1,255	5.2
Sudan	160	3.2	Libya	1,125	4.7
China	118	2.3	Thailand	786	3.3
Yemen	117	2.3	Somalia	739	3.1
Iraq	105	2.0	Nigeria	737	3.0
Bangladesh	103	2.0	Saudi Arabia	668	2.8
			Sudan	596	2.5
			Jordan	573	2.4
			Singapore	543	2.2
			Bangladesh	538	2.2
			Palestine	369	1.5
			India	349	1.4
			Pakistan	297	1.2
			Maldives	195	0.8
			Brunei	157	0.7
			Algeria	156	0.6
Others:	2,751	54.7	Others	2,571	10.6
Bosnia, Brunei, Guinea, Iran, Myanmar, Oman, Pakistan, Somalia, Vietnam.	50–100				
Afghanistan, Djibouti, & Eritrea.	40–49				
Algeria, Ethiopia, Mauritius, Philippines, Sri Lanka.	30–39				
Albania, Maldives, Palestine, Russia, Turkey, Yugoslavia.	20–29				
Cambodia, Comoros, Egypt, Gambia, Ghana, Japan, Kenya, Laos, S. Arabia, Syria, Uganda, USA.	10–19				
Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Mali, Morocco, Norway, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Tanzania.	5–9				
Other countries	1–4				
Total	**5,045**	**100.0**		**24,214**	**100.0**

Source: MOHE (2009) and (2011). <http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/perangkaan_2010.pdf>. Accessed 15 September 2011.

Figure 3.1 shows that the majority of international students in public universities are in the post-graduate programmes (65 per cent in 2010). In contrast, undergraduate students comprise 30 per cent of the total, due to the quota at the undergraduate level. However, by discipline, the share of international students in the category, "literature" accounts for 50 per cent of the total while the share in the sciences, namely engineering and vocational and sciences and technology accounts for the other half (Figure 3.2). This is less than the targeted share of science enrolment for the country that is deemed necessary to shift Malaysia to a knowledge-based economy.

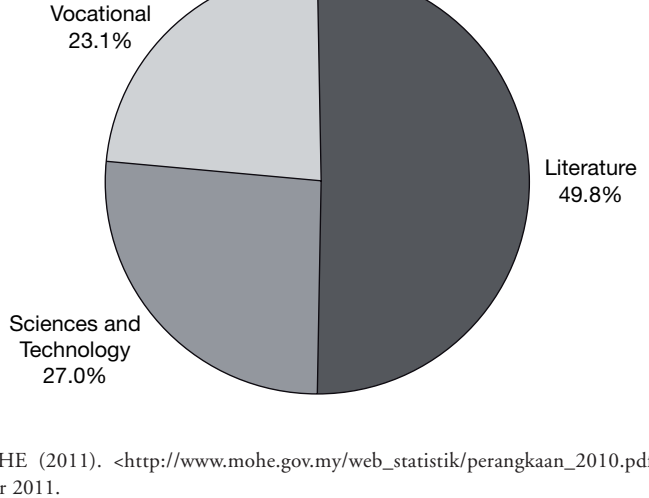
In terms of international academic staff, available statistics indicate that there has been an increase in their number. In 2007, there were 1,027 international academics in public universities and the number rose to 1,681 by 2010. Although UIAM used to lead in terms of the number of international academic staff by virtue of their international status, UM has the largest share of international staff by 2010 (Table 3.6). The five RUs together have a share of international staff of 46 per cent of the total for public universities in the country. Of the RUs, UKM has the smallest share of international academic staff due possibly to its language requirements.

FIGURE 3.1
Enrolment of Foreign Students by Type of Degree, 2010 (N=24,214)



Source: MOHE (2011). <http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/perangkaan_2010.pdf>. Accessed 15 September 2011.

FIGURE 3.2
Enrolment of Foreign Students by Discipline, 2010 (N=24,214)



Source: MOHE (2011). <http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/perangkaan_2010.pdf>. Accessed 15 September 2011.

In terms of appointments, lecturers occupy the largest share of international academic staff in 2010, followed by associate professors and professors. A relatively small share is taken up by language teachers (Table 3.6).

CONCLUSION

Internationalization of public universities in Malaysia has been revived and restructured to accommodate changing circumstances and challenges. Established in the post-Independence era, many of these institutions, especially those instituted prior to the mid-1990s were designed to fulfil national aspirations for unity, nation building and as a symbol of independence. Their emergence and functions were politically driven, and as education was considered a basic social need, the cost of establishing and running a university were undertaken fully by the government. Since Malaysian tertiary education has its foundation in its colonial past, elements of internationalization were already embedded in the teaching, learning, research and services in these institutions. However, internationalization then, involves largely the outflow of Malaysians to foreign universities. By the mid-1990s, internationalization

TABLE 3.6
International Academic Staff in Public Universities by Types of Appointments, 2010

No.	PU	Prof.	Assoc. Prof.	Lecturer	Language Teacher	Tutor	Others	Total	Ranking
1	UM	60 (28.0)	67 (17.9)	159 (17.8)	34 (27.2)		14 (20.0)	334 (19.9)	1
2	USM	12 (5.6)	28 (7.5)	98 (11.0)	8 (6.4)			146 (8.7)	3
3	UKM	9 (4.2)	9 (2.4)	41 (4.6)	3 (2.4)			62 (3.7)	9
4	UPM	2 (0.9)	16 (4.3)	38 (4.3)	2 (1.6)		49 (70.0)	107 (6.4)	7
5	UTM	14 (6.5)	29 (7.7)	73 (8.2)		2 (40.0)		118 (7.0)	6
6	UUM			16 (1.8)	1 (0.8)			17 (1.0)	14
7	UIAM	55 (25.7)	88 (23.5)	135 (15.1)	52 (41.6)			330 (19.6)	2
8	UNIMAS	8 (3.7)	24 (6.4)	32 (3.6)	2 (1.6)	3 (60.0)		69 (4.1)	8
9	UMS	13 (6.1)	37 (9.9)	63 (7.1)	6 (4.8)			119 (7.1)	5
10	UPSI		3 (0.8)	8 (0.9)				14 (0.8)	16
11	UiTM	11 (5.1)	28 (7.5)	93 (10.4)				132 (7.9)	4
12	UDM	3 (1.4)	1 (0.3)	8 (0.9)	7 (5.6)			19 (1.1)	13
13	USIM	8 (3.7)	3 (0.8)	24 (2.7)	1 (0.8)			36 (2.1)	11
14	UMT			8 (0.9)			7 (10.0)	15 (0.9)	15
15	UTHM	2 (0.9)	5 (1.3)	20 (2.2)				27 (1.6)	12
16	UTeM	3 (1.4)	6 (1.6)	18 (2.0)				27 (1.6)	12
17	UMP	2 (0.9)	12 (3.2)	22 (2.5)				36 (2.1)	11
18	UniMAP	7 (3.3)	17 (4.5)	30 (3.4)	6 (4.8)			60 (3.6)	10
19	UMK	2 (0.9)	2 (0.5)	6 (0.7)	3 (2.4)			13 (0.8)	17
	TOTAL	**214 (12.7)**	**375 (22.3)**	**892 (53.1)**	**125 (7.4)**	**5 (0.3)**	**70 (4.2)**	**1,681 (100.0)**	

Source: <http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/perangkaan_2010.pdf>.
Accessed 15 September 2011.

as a project directed by the government required a reverse flow that is wooing foreigners to come to Malaysia as students, teachers, etc. In short, the objective is to encourage "internationalization at home". This is the result of commoditization of education both at the tertiary and pre-tertiary levels. As education has become a commodity to be bought and sold at home and abroad, the functioning of and management of public universities are now more economically driven. Public universities, like their private counterparts must gear their programmes to the requirements of international and local students and the global job market. It is also expected to contribute to the gross domestic product (GDP) of the country and also to reduce public expenditure on education. In the pursuit of internationalization, public universities often find themselves in a dilemma on how to balance between the economic interests of the nation on the one hand and its political and other interests, on the other. Failure to find the right balance can impede the full realization of the internationalization project and may compromise the national interests of the country.

Notes

1. This was introduced in 1971 as part of Malaysia's New Economic Policy (NEP).
2. Refers to countries attending the Asia Europe Meeting held in 1996.
3. Interview with Assoc. Prof Dr Kamila Ghazali, Director, International and Corporate Relations Office, University of Malaya on 23 December 2009.
4. Interview with Prof Dr Salina Abdul Samad, Director, Department of International Relations, UKM on 1 December 2009. See also Norzaini Azman and Yang Farina Abdul Aziz (2008).
5. Email communication on 23 November 2009, with Dr Yuen Chee Keong, who was an administrator of the project until the end of 2009.
6. Unpublished data from Pusat Pengurusan Siswazah (PPS, or the Centre for Management of Post Graduate Studies).

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4

PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS
Development and Internationalization

Tham Siew Yean

INTRODUCTION

At the time of Independence, opportunities for higher education in Malaysia were limited as there were no public universities in the country. Private higher education institutions (PrHEIs), however, were already present as tutorial centres for transnational programmes that were geared towards selected skills and professional qualifications. After Independence, PrHEIs continued to grow over time, in response to market forces from within and without the country. In particular, the shift from a government-led to a private sector-led strategy for development in the country in the mid-1980s led to domestic liberalization in manufacturing and services, including the educational sector. Consequently, government permission was given for the setting up of twinning-arrangements between local private and public educational establishments with foreign universities (Sivalingam undated, p. 14).

Economic recovery and the subsequent buoyant economic growth in the second half of the 1980s intensified corporate presence in the education sector. Malaysian companies, be it individually, or as a consortium of companies or

public listed companies or government corporations viewed private higher education as an alternative source of revenue as well as a means to enhance the property values of corporations that are involved in the development of new townships (Tan 2002, p. 120).

Later, the development of this sector was boosted with the enactment of the Private Higher Educational Institutions Act 1996 which further liberalized the sector. In turn, the dynamic growth of this sector served to reduce international exchange losses by providing an alternative pathway to an overseas education for domestic students. The government also envisioned the emergence of a regional education hub in the country by furthering the development of this sector. It is hoped that this will allow Malaysia to shift from being a net importer to a net exporter of higher education. At the same time, its development will also complement public provision towards meeting Malaysia's human resource needs for development.

This chapter aims to outline the development of PrHEIs and their contribution towards the various dimensions of internationalization of higher education in the country.

TYPES OF PRHEIS

Based on Table 4.1, it can be seen that there are five main types of PrHEIs operating in Malaysia. As at 2011, there are forty-four PrHEIs with university status. Out of these, slightly more than half are private universities while about slightly less than half are university colleges or private colleges that have been upgraded to the status of universities based on a given set of criteria determined by the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE). Some examples

TABLE 4.1
Number of Private University/Colleges as at 2011

No.	Category of Private Institutions	Number of Private Institutions
1	Private Universities	23
2	University Colleges	21
3	Foreign University Branch Campuses	5
4	Colleges	403
5	Total	452

Source: Higher Education Statistics retrieved from MOHE.
<http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statstikportal/institusi/ipts.html>.
Accessed 15 September 2011.

of the latter include Taylor's University, Sunway University and others. Private universities may be comprehensive in nature or specialized universities such as International Medical University.

In addition, the government has also invited a few foreign universities to set up branch campuses in Malaysia. As at 2011, there are five operating in the country, namely, Monash University, Curtin University of Technology, and Swinburne University of Technology, from Australia and Nottingham University from the United Kingdom. The latest addition in 2009 is the Medical Faculty from the University of Newcastle that is located in the Iskandar Corridor in the state of Johor.

Based on Table 4.1, the bulk of private providers are, however, in the form of private colleges that do not confer degrees of their own but conduct transnational or locally established programmes of public universities. It should be noted that out of the 403 PrHEIs, only about 200 of them are allowed to recruit international students and permission is given for specific programmes within each institution (Challenger 2006*a*, p. 237; Tham and Kam 2007).

Push and Pull Factors in the Development of PrHEIs[1]

Both push and pull factors are involved in the development of PrHEIs as these institutions by and large conduct transnational educational programmes that are imported from the developed world, namely the United Kingdom, Australia and the United States. Nevertheless, these push and pull factors, acting in isolation are not enough to drive the explosive growth in PrHEIs in the country. Rather, it is the "double coincidence of wants" or the coincidence of both push and pull factors at specific points in time that fostered the exponential growth of these institutions (Tham 2010, p. 23).

Pull Factors

Excess Demand for Higher Education in Malaysia

There were only two public universities in the 1960s, and this increased to a total of five in the seventies and later to seven in the eighties. Enrolment ratio was only 1 per cent in 1975, increasing to 12 per cent in the mid-1980s (Sivalingam undated, p. 8; Ismail 2007). An indication of the extent of excess demand can be ascertained from the percentage of places offered in public universities relative to the total number of applicants during this period. Table 4.2 indicates the vast shortfall in the supply of places for higher education from 1970 to 1986, despite an expansion in the number of public universities

TABLE 4.2
Applicants and University Intake, 1970–86

Year	Number of Applicants	Number of Places Offered	Percentage of offered places (%)
1970	5,324	3,561	67
1981	16,698	5,847	35
1986	48,000	8,635	18

Source: Selvaratnam (1988).

during this period. Therefore, a large number of applicants were not able to secure a place for furthering their education and had to consider alternative options, be it overseas or locally, depending on their cost constraints.

The extent of excess demand may also be inferred from the number of Malaysians studying abroad for a degree, diploma or certificate. Nevertheless, it should be cautioned that students studying overseas are not necessarily driven to do so due to a shortage in supply at home. Some of these students are government-sponsored scholars who have been channelled for overseas studies due to affirmative action by the government, based on the New Economic Policy (NEP). Others may have chosen to study overseas due to the perceived advantages that come with having such an education.

According to Sivalingam (undated), there were about 19,515 Malaysian students studying abroad for a degree in 1980, and this was only slightly less than the total number studying in the local public universities (20,045). However, the total number studying abroad for a degree, diploma or certificate was estimated at 29,721. Table 4.3 shows the "leakage" to overseas institutions has persisted over time, despite increasing enrolment in both public and private institutions of higher learning. The number studying abroad increased from 63,000 in 1985 to 103,736 in 2001 and fell by half to 56,609 in 2005 but this has increased steadily to 79,254 in 2010. These include students sponsored by their parents, private institutions in the form of scholarships, as well as the government. The large and persistent excess demand can be attributed to the growing population and expected economic returns from investing in higher education.

Policy Shift Towards Import-Substitution and Export Generation

In 1995, Mahathir Mohamad, who was the Prime Minister then, announced a plan for transforming Malaysia into a fully developed economy and society

TABLE 4.3
Student Enrolment in Tertiary Education, 1985–2010

Types of Institutions	Number of Students							
	1985	1990	1995	2001	2005	2008	2009	2010
Public Institutions	86,330	124,340	189,020	304,628	307,121	419,334	437,420	462,780
Overseas Institutions	63,000	73,000	50,600	103,726	56,609	59,107	58,963	79,254
Private Institutions	15,000	35,600	127,594	207,904	258,825	399,852	484,377	541,629
Total	164,330	230,940	367,214	616,258	622,555	878,293	980,760	1,083,663

Source: Lee (2002) for the years 1985–1995;
2001–2005: Higher Education Statistics in Malaysia 2006.
2008: Higher Education Statistics in Malaysia 2008, retrieved from <http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/index.htm>.
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2010: Higher Education Statistics in Malaysia 2009, retrieved from <http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/perangkaan_2010.pdf>.
Accessed 15 September 2011.

by 2020 (Vision 2020). Realizing this vision required, among others, greatly expanded access to higher education through both public and private provisions. This expanded access will also enable Malaysia to become a regional hub for higher education, thereby reducing the outflow of funds due to student outflows and instead increase export revenues through the inflows of international students. In 1996, it was reported that approximately 50,000 students were studying abroad, leading to an outflow of US$1 billion a year in terms of international exchange (Sato 2005, p. 83). This leakage had serious implications on the perennial deficit of the services sector,[2] and reversing this outflow thus became a policy priority. Import-substitution by increasing access to domestic providers will redirect Malaysian students to study locally rather than abroad. At the same time, export promotion in the form of specific policies directed towards attracting international students into the country were also formulated to improve the balance of payments position in this sector.

Both import-substitution and export promotion are supported by a relative cost advantage of studying in Malaysia. A three-year degree programme in Malaysia is estimated to cost between RM60,000 to RM90,000 in 2005, including tuition fees and living expenses (Challenger 2006*a*, p. 317). Completion of a three-year programme in Malaysia under the 3+0 international degree programme can save a student from A$15,000 to A$94,500, depending on the field of study. A foreign branch campus administrator estimated that the cost of living in Malaysia is 30 to 40 per cent lower than in the mother campus while the fees may be 20 to 40 per cent lower depending on the exchange rates as fees are stipulated in ringgit for the Malaysian campus (Tham and Kam 2007). Completing a degree in an Australian branch campus in Malaysia can cost US$31,770 as opposed to costing US$87,189 in the Australian mother campus (Challenger 2006*b*, p. 214). The relatively lower cost is a critical pull factor as surveys of international students have found the cost of higher education to be one of the most important factors influencing a student's decision to study in a particular country (OBHE 2007, p. 32).

Several government measures are provided to facilitate both import substitution and export promotion. First, the development of private provision was facilitated with the enactment of the Private Higher Educational Institutional Act in 1996, as it enabled the private sector to establish degree-granting institutions as well as foreign universities to set up branch campuses in the country (Malaysia 1996, p. 337). Subsequent development of PrHEIs is promoted, monitored and regulated by this Act. The Private Higher Educational Institutions Act stipulates that PrHEIs are required to be managed by locally incorporated companies as it is believed that this would provide

these institutions with the financial backing needed to offer better facilities, better campuses as well as a better quality of education (Tan 2002, p. 99).

Second, the programmes of PrHEIs are allowed to be taught in English to meet the demand for English-based transnational programmes even though the national language, Bahasa Malaysia, is the mandated language to be used in all other institutions of higher learning. Students favour these programmes as they are geared for private local and international job-markets where English is the lingua franca and where foreign degrees are perceived to be preferred.

Third, academic interests are safeguarded with the imposition of quality assurance measures such as the provision of basic standards and quality that are developed by the National Accreditation Board (LAN) based on international and national best practices in consultation with the stakeholders and the professional bodies. Before 2005/06, all programmes and courses taught in PrHEIs, including branch campuses have to be assessed by LAN, with the exception of the University of Nottingham. The government subsequently adopted the Malaysian Quality Framework (MQF) as the platform for Quality Assurance in Malaysia in December 2005. The MQF is a description of the national education system, including all qualifications and learning achievement in higher education. The MQF also facilitates the articulation of equivalency among those qualifications. In July 2007, the Cabinet has approved the establishment of the Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA) that will merge LAN with the Quality Assurance Division (QAD) of the MOHE that was in charge of public providers. MQA will thus manage and approve qualifications awarded to all Malaysian higher education institutions (HEIs). The availability of quality assurance in the form of LAN accreditation has also enabled local private universities to sell their own home-grown programmes to international students. For example, Multimedia University (MMU), which is selling their own home-grown programmes, has a student population of 21,000 in 2007, of which 3,800 are international (Tham and Kam 2007).

Fourth, the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) was established in 2004 to oversee the governance of tertiary education. Professional bodies such as for the legal, accountancy and architectural profession also assist the government to monitor and guide the development of their respective professions through joint technical accreditation committees.

Fifth, provision of loans to students studying in both private and public higher education institutions facilitated access for students. This in turn contributed to the demand for studies in PrHEIs by making it feasible for financially needy students to study there.

Sixth, incentives are also given such as double deduction for the promotion of export of higher education, and tax exemptions on the value of increased exports of services. Market development grants are also provided in the form of a matching grant to assist small and medium enterprises (SMEs) to undertake activities for the development of export markets, including participation in international trade missions, specialized selling missions, international trade fairs and international trade and industry related conferences, as well as participation in meetings for negotiating mutual recognition agreements (MRAs). A brand promotion grant of up to a maximum RM1 million is also made available to the service sector.

Economic Recessions

The economic recessions in 1985, 1997/98 and 2008/09 significantly curtailed the financial abilities of parents to pay for an overseas education. According to Sivalingam (undated, p. 5), the drain on the accumulated international reserves in the country due to outflows of students was brought to the fore when Malaysia slipped into her first recession in 1985/86 with the collapse in the prices of primary commodities and its ensuing negative impact on the balance of payments and international reserves of the country. Sponsoring government scholars for an overseas education therefore became increasingly expensive in terms of the loss in international reserves. This forced the government to reconsider this policy as well as the larger issue at stake, namely the role of the state in the provision of education, especially higher education.

Private students were also affected as the recession affected the ability of parents to send and provide an overseas education for their children. Exchange rate changes such as the depreciation of the ringgit during the Asian financial crisis (AFC) in 1997 dampened significantly the demand for overseas education. As noted by Papademetriou, Sumption and Somerville (2009, p. 5), outflows of self-financed students are decimated in the short run as students redirect their educational choices to educational institutions closer to home or at home. Import-substitution accelerated as the ringgit fell from an average of RM2.5 to US$1 before the crisis to RM3.8 to US$1 in 1998. Overall, the number of students be it private and sponsored students studying in the United Kingdom fell down by 41 per cent from 1996/97 to 1999/2000 and decreased further by another 3 per cent between 2003/04 to 2004/05 when it fell from 11,800 to 11,475 (OBHE 28 April 2006*a*, p. 2). In the United States, it fell by almost 50 per cent between 1997/98 and 2000/01 and again by another 27 per cent between 2000/01 and 2004/05 from 7,795 to 6,142. On the other hand, private providers in the

country benefited from the rechannelling of Malaysian students from overseas institutions to local institutions as evidenced by the surge in enrolment in these institutions (Varghese 2009, p. 13). Moreover, the country also gained from the redirection of international students from other crisis-hit countries to lower cost destinations such as Malaysia.

Push Factors

Changes in the Higher Education Sector in the United Kingdom and Australia

This section focuses on the changes in these two countries for two main reasons. First, British higher education has and continues to be a popular destination for Malaysian students due in part to the historical, educational and cultural links formed since the colonial days, Britain's reputation as a high-quality provider as well as the attractiveness of the English language as a global language. Policy changes in the United Kingdom will therefore inevitably affect the outflow of Malaysian students studying there. Second, universities in Australia and the United Kingdom are the market leaders in developing overseas-validated courses (OVC).

British universities have during most of the twentieth century, seen themselves as international as well as national institutions (Williams 1987, p. 17). Consequently, they attempted to fulfil their international obligations partly by accepting international students on exactly the same basis as home students in the period up to the mid-1960s. Students were then not seen as "customers" with public funding as the main source of income then. However, cuts in public funding for higher education by the Thatcher administration in the United Kingdom in autumn 1980 led to the withdrawal of subsidies to higher institutions in respect of overseas students and the imposition of "full-fees".

At the same time, from 1980, the Australian government imposed an overseas student charge, which in effect recompensed the Australian taxpayer for a substantial part of the cost of the studies of overseas students (Williams 1987, p. 17). The number of students who are admitted on the subsidized level is also limited to levels to ensure that overseas students do not take up more than 10 per cent of all enrolments in an institution or 20 per cent of places on any single course so that international students do not displace Australian students.

The changes in fees in these two popular destinations for Malaysian students served to reduce the demand of private students to study in these two

countries. It also encouraged British universities to modify their product range to include the creation of special short course modules at the undergraduate level, which can be available as course credits from universities in other countries. Based on Bennell and Pearce (2003, p. 228), this was facilitated to a great extent by the ending of the university-polytechnic divide in the early 1990s. Polytechnics with their newly acquired status channelled their entrepreneurial energies into generating additional sources of income, thereby increasing competition in the higher education sector. Institutional validation became an important mechanism for these new universities to expand their market as they were less risk adverse compared to the older universities who were more wary about tarnishing their institutional reputations. Many of these universities were more willing to introduce more flexible forms of course provision that allow greater access for home and international students as exemplified by the widespread use of twinning arrangements. Moreover, these twinning programmes are deemed to be less risky than establishing an offshore branch and hence it was seen to be a more suitable initial mode of entry for a foreign provider that is venturing into a new country to supply its educational services.

Visa Regulations for Studies in the United States after 9/11

It is commonly perceived that visa applications for study in the United States became more stringent after 9/11. OBHE (2006*b*, p. 2) reports the number of students from predominantly Muslim countries studying in the United States have declined significantly since 2001. For example, the number of Indonesian students at American institutions declined by 25.6 per cent from 2002 to 2006, while the enrolment of Saudi Arabian students dropped by 15.7 per cent between 2002/03 and 2003/06. Visa application processes and concerns over delays and denials were listed as one of the main reasons for the drop in international students in a survey conducted in October 2005 in the United States. This has benefited Malaysia as students from predominantly Muslim countries may prefer Malaysia for religious reasons.

DIFFERENT DIMENSIONS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION

Both Chapters 1 and 2 in this book have shown that internationalization can take many different forms and these forms also evolve over time. In the case of the PrHEIs in Malaysia, the primary forms are the movement of programmes, students, lecturers and providers. While some PrHEIs are also engaged in

research and research collaboration with international partners, there is no secondary data to indicate the extent to which this is pursued. Nevertheless, since PrHEIs are very much dependent on tuition fees for their financial sustainability, their academic staff tend to have a higher teaching workload and less time for research as the latter does not generate immediate revenue for their employers. Sivalingam (undated, p. 9) reported that a lecturer in a private institution typically teaches on average 20 hours a week as compared to their counterparts in public institutions who teach an average of about 10 hours a week.

Mobility of Programmes

A variety of programmes are offered by PrHEIs due to their historical development and funding constraints. Although some PrHEIs do offer their own internally developed programmes, most offer transnational programmes. Historically, Malaysia has hosted transnational programmes since Independence, though the types of programmes offered have changed over time (Fernandez-Chung undated, p. 2). For the period post-Independence till the early 1980s, private providers offered skills and business-related professional qualifications that were mainly British such as Pitman, London Chambers of Commerce and Industry (LCCI) and the Association of Business Executive (ABE) due to historical links with the United Kingdom. PrHEIs basically provided tuition support for students who are sitting for these external examinations.

Since PrHEIs were initially not allowed to confer degrees, they had to forge various types of linkages with foreign universities. British and Australian ventures into overseas validation programmes coincided with the emergence of corporate interests in this sector in the mid-1980s due to the shift in policy orientation as explained earlier. Consequently, numerous transnational programmes emerged and evolved over time, such as transnational university programmes completed wholly in Malaysia, be it in branch campuses or in private colleges through franchise programmes; twinning degree programmes, credit transfer programmes, external degree programmes and distance learning programmes (Table 4.4). Branch campus programmes may also be conducted solely in Malaysia or at both the mother and daughter campuses. In the case of the University of Nottingham in Malaysia, a student may choose to study in other branch campuses as well as there is another branch campus in China.

The latest type of transnational programme developed by PrHEIs in Malaysia is the multi-varsity concept that is available at the Iskandar Corridor

TABLE 4.4
Types of Transnational Programmes Conducted by PrHEIs

No.	Types of Programme	Description of Programmes
1.	3+0 Foreign University Degree Programmes completed in Malaysia	PrHEIs are permitted by foreign university partner to conduct the entire degree programme in Malaysia for the foreign university partner. Degree is awarded by the foreign university partner.
2.	Foreign University's External Degree Programme leading to degree qualifications	Students register as an "external student" with a foreign university and study through the tutorials conducted by the local private college. The syllabi, entry requirements and examinations are determined by the foreign university. The degree awarded is no different from the degree awarded to "internal" students.
3.	Split Degree Programmes	This allows the partial completion of the degree programme in local private colleges but the final part has to be completed at the twinning partner's campus overseas. Degree is awarded by the twinning partner overseas. There are several options: • Twinning degree option: The student attends part of the course locally and the balance at the twinning university; • American degree transfer/credit degree transfer: The student collects sufficient credit through a local private college and then completes the remaining credits in the foreign university; • Advanced standing entry option: The courses offered by local private colleges are validated and moderated with "advanced standing" entry status by a group of foreign universities for advanced entry into the final part of their degree programmes.
4.	Distance Learning Programme Arrangements	This is similar to the external degree programme with students admitted directly into a foreign university, with local private college providing the tuition classes and administrative support. Self-study materials are provided and the electronic media like the Internet, video-conferencing, satellite, video cassettes, audio-visual teaching aids etc are used as the teaching media; private colleges provide face-to-face meetings with tutors in a class room setting. Evaluation may include a local component, unlike the external degree programmes.

Source: Challenger (2006*b*).

in the southern part of Malaysia (Fernandez-Chung undated, p. 3). In this case, foreign universities that are invited to participate in the multi-varsity project will be setting up a branch campus for a specific programme only. For example, the University of Newcastle conducts only its medical programme here. In other words, only one faculty, namely the Faculty of Medicine, is established in Malaysia unlike older branch campuses that carry a variety of programmes from their respective mother campuses.

Since tuition fees are the main source of revenue for most of the PrHEIs, their programmes have to be tailored to market demand. Although some corporate-linked PrHEIs did receive some financial subsidies from their parent company in their initial years, these subsidies have mostly been withdrawn over time and the PrHEIs have to be financially self-sufficient. Consequently, PrHEIs tend to offer programmes in disciplines that do not require a large capital outlay in disciplines such as accountancy, business studies, and computer studies. Student enrolment also reflects the students' preference for these types of programmes. Table 4.5 shows the enrolment of students for a bachelor degree programme is higher in the literature category, compared to science and technology and technical and vocational categories, with an enrolment ranging from 51 per cent in 2002 to as high as 63 per cent in 2010, contrary to the human capital requirements of the country.

Mobility of Students and Lecturers

As explained earlier, Malaysia started out as an importer of higher education due to the limited supply of higher education in the country, perceived advantages of obtaining a foreign degree and or the desire to study solely in another language, usually English as the medium of instruction was changed from English to the national language, Bahasa Melayu in 1974 (OBHE 28 April 2006*a*, p. 2). Increasing provision of transnational programmes has, therefore increased the enrolment of students studying in PrHEIs over time. Total enrolment in PrHEIs has more than doubled from 127,423 in 1995 to 261,043 in 2000, including registration at the certificate and diploma levels. This grew further to 541,629 in 2010 or 54 per cent of total enrolment in higher education (MOHE, http://www.mohe.gov.my, accessed 19 September 2011). While it cannot be ascertained as to how many in this number may have substituted a local education for an overseas education, the development of PrHEIs has certainly widened access in higher education in Malaysia. In the mid-1980s, only 12 per cent of the 17–23 age group had access to higher education in Malaysia and this increased to 23 per cent in 2000 and further increased to 29.9 per cent by the end of 2006 (Ismail 2007, p. 2).

TABLE 4.5

Student Enrolment for a Bachelor Degree in PrHEIs according to Field of Studies, 2001–10

FIELD OF STUDIES	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
LITERATURE										
Arts, Design and Music	590	1,215	1,111	1,663	4,521	5,465	3,203	1,126	5,507	4,867
Business and Administration	29,246	25,995	36,220	44,895	35,934	43,881	46,193	51,828	49,071	51,624
Education	475	3,715	7,281	8,813	12,610	14,995	27,822	20,838	37,358	38,061
Humanity	1,555	837	931	1,072	777	976	825	749	n.a	n.a.
Law	1,313	1,209	1,158	1,115	1,504	1,988	2,515	4,580	4,048	4,633
Service Sector	100	94	171	244	243	345	69	78	2,962	5,123
Social Science	149	949	1,254	1,642	6,039	7,231	5,650	5,341	6,821	8,513
Language	237	11	159	199	96	131	778	4,982	3,240	2,250
Religious Studies	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3,093	2,587
Economics	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1,035	1,164
Accountancy	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13,538	20,033
TOTAL	**33,665**	**34,025**	**48,285**	**59,643**	**61,724**	**75,012**	**87,055**	**89,522**	**126,673**	**138,855**
SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY										
Agriculture	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	272	335	n.a.	37	138	n.a.
Computer and Technology	13,883	18,617	25,754	25,466	21,282	26,194	21,186	19,153	24,810	26,793
Health and Welfare	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	753	938	1,274	2,319	9,993	13,728
Medicine	2,381	2,469	3,886	4,724	4,916	6,245	6,797	6,959	n.a.	n.a.
Science and Mathematics	260	1,360	412	600	2,029	2,678	7,040	9,863	2,463	4,019
TOTAL	**16,524**	**22,446**	**30,052**	**30,790**	**29,252**	**36,390**	**36,297**	**38,331**	**37,404**	**44,540**
TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL										
Engineering and Technical Skills	9,289	10,058	11,801	14,229	10,047	12,019	17,007	21,855	29,620	29,609
Air and Maritime	75	153	72	130	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1,321	n.a.	n.a.
Manufacturing and Construction	412	380	421	533	372	650	340	n.a.	3,670	5,262
Architecture and Building	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1,393	2,033
Others	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	562	n.a.	n.a.
TOTAL	**9,776**	**10,591**	**12,294**	**14,892**	**10,419**	**12,669**	**17,347**	**23,738**	**34,683**	**36,904**
GRAND TOTAL	**59,965**	**67,062**	**90,631**	**105,325**	**101,395**	**124,071**	**140,699**	**151,591**	**198,760**	**220,299**

Source: MOHE 2011.

<http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/perangkaan_2010.pdf>. Accessed 15 September 2011.

The government aims to increase this to 40 per cent by 2010, 45 per cent by 2015 and 50 per cent by 2020 (MOHE 2007, p. 55). In 2010, enrolment at the tertiary level for the 18–23 age cohorts is reported at 44 per cent.

The rapid expansion of PrHEIs in the country as well as their growth in student enrolment led to an increasing emphasis on the promotion of Malaysia as a centre of educational excellence for international students. In turn, the number of international students enrolled in PrHEIs grew from 22,827 in 2001 to 62,705 in 2010 (Table 4.6), the majority of whom are from Southeast Asia, especially Indonesia, China, and the Middle East. These students include those who are enrolled in split degree programmes where only part of the programme is conducted in Malaysia. While the government aims to have at least 100,000 international students in Malaysia by 2010, the actual number achieved is 86,919 in 2010.

Public HEIs have a quota on the number of international students at the undergraduate level (5 per cent, see MOHE 2007, p. 116) and this quota is usually underutilised. However, starting from 2007, there is a jump in the number of international students enrolled at these public institutions as this is one of the factors that can assist them in their quest to improve their international ranking. Table 4.6 shows the number of international students enrolled in public HEIs almost doubling between 2006 and 2007 and at the same time, a drop in the enrolment of international students in PrHEIs, indicating the possibility of students shifting from private to public HEIs

TABLE 4.6
Enrolment of International Students in Public and Private HEIs, 2002–10

YEAR	HEIs	
	Public	Private
2002	5,045	22,827
2003	5,239	25,158
2004	5,735	25,939
2005	6,622	33,903
2006	7,941	36,449
2007	14,324	33,604
2008	18,486	50,679
2009	22,456	58,294
2010	24,214	62,705

Source: Statistics on Higher Education in Malaysia MOHE.
<http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/statistik_2009.htm>.
<http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/perangkaan_2010.pdf>.
Accessed 15 September 2011.

due to cost considerations. However, the data from 2008 onwards shows an increase in the enrolment in both private and public institutions as both types of institutions are aggressively marketing their programmes abroad, albeit for different motives. Nevertheless, the share of international students is still higher in PrHEIs, especially at the undergraduate level.

The rapid growth in private HEIs has accordingly created a large demand for academic staff, especially those with PhD qualifications. As can be seen from Table 4.7, the bulk of the staff, be it Malaysian or foreigners, that is hired at private HEIs have mainly a first and second degree and there are less with PhDs. The number of international staff employed at PrHEIs is quite small. They averaged between 6 and 9 per cent from 2001 to 2008. However, the share of international academic staff employed in PrHEIs have almost doubled from 2008 to 2009, with the largest increase found in the "others" category or academics with qualifications at the certificate, advanced diploma or professional level (Table 4.7).

There is no significant shift of lecturers from the public universities to the private universities, indicating that the pay structure in PrHEIs and working hours may not be better than that offered at the public universities for local staff. PrHEIs have to minimize staff cost as their main source of revenue, namely the tuition fees have to be approved by the MOHE. It appears that local and international academic staff are offered the same pay, although certain highly specialized fields may offer a relatively higher pay due to the lack of local experts (Tham and Kam 2007). It should, however be noted that foreign lecturers from developed countries in some PrHEIs and for some programmes may be paid significantly more than their Malaysian counterparts. However, some PrHEIs also source their foreign lecturers from other less developed countries such as India as they are less expensive and are willing to work in Malaysia at more or less the same pay as their local counterparts. Branch campuses can afford to pay more as they charge higher fees than their local counterparts. Thus, while some PrHEIs may have to depend on international expertise for some fields and may be willing to pay for their expertise; local staff may be more cost-efficient for them. Moreover the early retirement age in public universities at 55 (subsequently revised to 56, then 58, and revised again to 60 in the latest budget announcement in 2011), also enabled private providers to tap on retired lecturers from public universities.

Mobility of Providers

There are currently five branch campuses in Malaysia. Foreign institutions can enter only by invitation of the government as in the case of Singapore and China. Such an institution has to establish a Malaysian company and

TABLE 4.7

Academic Staff in PrHEIs, according to their Qualifications, 2001–10

QUALIFICATION	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
MALAYSIANS										
Doctorate	235	540	589	679	1,059	1,112	1,173	1,688	1,839	1,937
Masters	2,016	3,551	4,241	5,268	4,830	5,414	6,242	9,531	10,936	13,328
Bachelor's Degree	5,108	6,974	6,868	6,592	5,684	6,360	7,502	8,164	9,508	10,697
Diploma	1,050	2,211	1,525	1,051	852	861	1,788	2,309	1,205	1,193
Certificate								470		
Others									930	834
TOTAL	**8,409**	**13,276**	**13,223**	**13,590**	**12,425**	**13,747**	**16,705**	**22,162**	**24,418**	**27,989**
(PERCENTAGE)	**(94.2)**	**(92.2)**	**(93.2)**	**(91.8)**	**(92.5)**	**(91.5)**	**(92.4)**	**(93.1)**	**(84.1)**	**(84.8)**
INTERNATIONAL STAFF										
Doctorate	127	227	279	351	279	352	497	428	521	512
Masters	273	368	503	690	514	664	604	839	819	1,016
Bachelor's Degree	102	257	162	161	203	241	252	321	372	531
Diploma	17	264	14	19	15	16	23	33	34	78
Certificate								13		
Others*									2,859	2,866
TOTAL	**519**	**1,116**	**958**	**1,221**	**1,011**	**1,273**	**1,376**	**1,634**	**4,605**	**5,003**
(PERCENTAGE)	**(5.8)**	**(7.8)**	**(6.8)**	**(8.2)**	**(7.5)**	**(8.5)**	**(7.6)**	**(6.9)**	**(15.9)**	**(15.2)**

Note: Highest qualifications — certificates, advanced diplomas and professional levels

Source: MOHE 2006 & 2009.

<http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/statistik_pdf_2008_05/ipts_3-37.pdf>. Accessed 30 September 2008.

<http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/statistik_pdf_2008_05/ipts_3-38.pdf>. Accessed 30 September 2008.

<http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/Buku_Perangkaan_2008.pdf>. Accessed 11 November 2009.

<http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/statistik_2009.htm>. Accessed 15 September 2011.

<http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/perangkaan_2010.pdf>. Accessed 15 September 2011.

foreign equity was initially restricted to 49 per cent (Tham and Kam 2007).[3] Tham and Kam (2007, p. 172), however, found that this is not deemed to be a restrictive factor for establishing commercial presence, based on the response of the branch campus of two foreign universities in the country. One even mentioned that the foreign partner would prefer to hold less equity as there is less risk. Since the foreign partner holds the brand name of the university, academic control in the running of the academic programmes of the branch campus remains in the hands of the foreign partner. Local partners are also used to help the foreign partner to liaise with the regulators.

In 2008, Laureate Education Inc., an education services company based in Baltimore, Maryland, which owns a number of for-profit colleges and online universities including Walden University and other colleges worldwide, acquired INTI University-College in Malaysia. This enables INTI's programmes to be franchised to Laureate Education's international network while at the same time enabling INTI's students to benefit from Laureate's programmes in their stable of colleges and universities. It is hoped that with this acquisition, more local and international students will be attracted to study at this college that has been upgraded to a university status.

Some PrHEIs have also ventured overseas by establishing branches in other countries. Although the data on this phenomenon is quite sparse, at least four of them have reportedly established centres in other developing countries. Of the four, Limkokwing University is an exception as it has also a centre in the United Kingdom.

CONCLUSION

PrHEIs have undergone substantial changes over the last few decades since Independence. These changes can be seen in the variety of institutions that have emerged in response to the domestic and increasingly international demand for higher education. Within this diversity, some among these institutions have evolved from being mere tutorial centres to full-fledged universities that are conducting their own home grown programmes as well as awarding their own degrees. Some have continued to be small and possibly struggling to survive. This evolution did not occur as a result of mere domestic pull factors alone. Rather it is the coincidence of push and pull factors that led to the dynamic growth in the PrHEIs in the country.

Due to historical circumstances, PrHEIs tend to claim that they have always been international in their outlook by virtue of their transnational programmes. This indeed continues to be an important dimension of internationalization in PrHEIs. It remains to be seen if the private universities,

including upgraded university colleges, will be willing to shift completely out of the lucrative transnational programmes to home-grown ones. Increasingly, though, inflows of international students are also another important dimension of internationalization in these institutions, which is in turn driven by intense competition from inside and outside the country. Foreign lecturers occupy a less prominent position in the movement of people dimension in the internationalization process, due possibly to the availability of domestic resources and financial considerations in this area.

Government policies certainly play an important role in the internationalization process observed in PrHEIs, as for example in the provision of regulatory supervision and quality assurance. In particular, the movement of providers are screened and regulated by the licensing process. Innovation in government policies such as the recently launched multi-varsity concept that is taking shape in the Iskandar Corridor is expected to increase further the variety of PrHEIs in the country.

In the short to longer term, the development of PrHEIs will undoubtedly become even more crucial as the higher education sector is expected to play an important role in the new economic model that was launched in 2010 (NEAC 2010). Data up to 2010 indicates that it is the PrHEIs that are contributing to the bulk of international students coming into the country. Consequently, the targeted inflows of international students can only be realized with the cooperation of this sector, especially if Malaysia is to attain the aspired status of an educational hub for the region. But over and beyond export considerations, this sector is also contributing towards the development of human capital in the country. Realigning the focus of this sector towards the human capital needs of the country in terms of the fields offered and deepening the development of this sector, especially in the direction of postgraduate studies and research and development is also necessary for this sector to fulfil the national ambitions of the country.

Notes

1. This section is based on the arguments developed in Tham (2010, pp. 108–13).
2. Malaysia has experienced an annual deficit in the services account since Independence in 1957. A surplus was registered for the first time in 2007 and hence been maintained up to 2010, the latest data available at the time of writing.
3. Other conditions include registration with the government, permission for courses offered, accreditation and approval in the home country as well as recognition by professional associations in Malaysia.

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5

MACRO PERSPECTIVES
Ideas, Practices and Challenges

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INTRODUCTION

Given the policy emphasis in Malaysia, it is important to gauge the readiness and extent of internationalization in higher education institutions (HEIs) in the country. Pertinent issues to be examined include the current status of internationalization, providers' understanding and perceptions of internationalization, the reasons for internationalizing, its advantages and disadvantages, and providers' strategies for internationalization. It is also equally important to ascertain which aspects of internationalization are expanding rapidly and the key drivers of internationalization. It is generally assumed that private higher education institutions (PrHEIs) are relatively more profit-motivated compared to public higher education institutions (PuHEIs) due to the provision of government funding for the latter. PuHEIs, especially those designated as research universities, are expected to be more comprehensive in their understanding of internationalization due to their background, as explained in Chapter 2. Hence, it is hypothesized that different institutions, either by type or age, may have different understandings and rationales for internationalizing their respective institutions.

However, even if PrHEIs and PuHEIs have the same or similar motivations and priorities, this decision is not without implementation problems. The IAU 2005 Internationalization Survey Report (Knight 2006) listed several obstacles that can impede a successful and sustainable implementation of internationalization in HEIs. These include competing priorities, human resource, finance, administrative difficulties, problems in managing international students as well as problems related to recognizing qualifications from other countries. Thus, another relevant issue to be examined is whether different types of institutions face different obstacles in their internationalization process. In other words, it is hypothesized that different types of HEIs may face different challenges in their endeavour to internationalize. In order to test both hypotheses, a survey instrument was developed based on the IAU 2005 Internationalization Survey of Institutions (IAU 2005) but adapted to suit the local context for the purpose of the field work that was conducted for this book.

A study by the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) (Norhisham et al. 2008) was published after the field work for this book was launched in 2008. The MOHE report focuses on assessing the state of internationalization in the HEIs in the country using the IAU 2005 Internationalization Survey of Institutions (IAU 2005) as the basis of their survey instrument. Although there are similarities between the MOHE study and the issues investigated in this book, the objectives are quite different as the former does not seek to test for differences by type and age of establishment as hypothesized in this chapter. The MOHE study, however, did find some differences in the internationalization efforts of PuHEIs and PrHEIs.

Nevertheless in view of the common issues examined, the results from the MOHE study are compared with the survey findings reported in this chapter, where possible. In comparing the results, we must bear in mind that the sample for the MOHE study was drawn from PuHEIs and PrHEIs that have been accorded the status of university and university colleges, as compared to the survey findings reported in this chapter, which also included private colleges. Their results are based on institutional response, including Vice-Chancellors, Rectors and Presidents and faculty deans and departmental heads while the survey findings analysed in this chapter are based only on the responses of the former, that is, the Vice-Chancellors, Rectors and Presidents of the respective institutions. The focus group responses from the deans, directors, lecturers, and students are discussed in the next chapter of this book.

SURVEY FINDINGS

This chapter will describe the key findings of our survey on the challenges in internationalizing higher education in Malaysia. Based on MOHE data, there were altogether 220 private HEIs and 20 public HEIs that are allowed to recruit international students, as at June 2008. However, not all of them had international students enrolled in their institution while some had relatively small numbers. Therefore, the sample used includes all PuHEIs and PrHEIs with more than 30 international students. Language and aesthetic colleges were eliminated from the list leaving a total of 193 HEIs that were sent the survey questionnaire in December 2008, after testing out the questionnaire in a pilot study in early November 2008. The questionnaire was then couriered in late November 2008 to each institution selected. In total, 175 questionnaires were sent to PrHEIs and 18 were sent to PuHEIs as these had the requisite minimum of 30 international students enrolled in their respective institutions.

Since the response rate to mail-order surveys is usually quite poor, personal phone calls and e-mails were used to encourage a higher response rate. This was targeted at a subset of HEIs in the Selangor state, comprising 68 institutions. By May 2009, 11 out of 18 PuHEIs (61 per cent) and 38 out of 175 PrHEIs (21.7 per cent) that were surveyed had responded, giving a total response rate of 25.4 per cent. However, very few HEIs responded to the questions concerning the number and percentage of international students and faculty members, making it impossible for this aspect to be analysed.

Profile of the Respondents

Table 5.1 shows that the respondents are located all over the country, with 18 or 36.7 per cent in Selangor, 12 (or 24.5 per cent) in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur; nine (or 18.4 per cent) from Southern Malaysia (Johor, Malacca and Negeri Sembilan); 4 (or 8.2 per cent) from Northern Malaysia; 1 (or 2.0 per cent) from the East Coast; and 5 (or 28.6 per cent) from East Malaysia. While the PuHEIs surveyed are rather well distributed throughout the country, most of the PrHEIs are concentrated in Selangor and Kuala Lumpur due to the intensive follow-up via telephone calls and e-mails.

The respondents, based on their respective age of establishment, is distributed relatively evenly among the PuHEIs and PrHEIs and across the three age groups shown. Some 18 (or 36.7 per cent) were established less than

TABLE 5.1
Profile of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

	PuHEIs	PrHEIs	Overall
State/Region			
Selangor	2 (18.2)	16 (42.1)	18 (36.7)
Kuala Lumpur	1 (9.1)	11 (28.9)	12 (24.5)
Southern Malaysia	2 (18.2)	7 (18.4)	9 (18.4)
Northern Malaysia	3 (27.3)	1 (2.6)	4 (8.2)
East Coast	1 (9.1)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.0)
East Malaysia	2 (18.2)	3 (7.9)	5 (10.2)
Age of Establishment			
less than 10 years	4 (36.4)	14 (36.8)	18 (36.7)
10–20 years	3 (27.3)	14 (36.8)	17 (34.7)
more than 20 years	4 (36.4)	10 (26.3)	14 (28.6)
Status			
Research university	3 (27.3)	—	3 (6.1)
University	8 (72.7)	10 (26.3)	18 (36.7)
Foreign university branch campus	—	3 (7.9)	3 (6.1)
University college	—	5 (13.2)	5 (10.2)
College	—	20 (52.6)	20 (40.8)
Students Population			
less than 1,000	0 (0.0)	13 (34.2)	13 (26.5)
1,000 to 5,000	4 (36.4)	16 (42.1)	20 (40.8)
more than 5,000	5 (45.5)	5 (13.2)	10 (20.4)
no response	2 (18.2)	4 (10.5)	6 (12.2)
Share of International Students			
less than 10%	7 (63.6)	14 (36.8)	21 (42.9)
10% to 20%	0 (0.0)	8 (21.1)	8 (16.3)
more than 20%	1 (9.1)	9 (23.7)	10 (20.4)
no response	3 (27.3)	7 (18.4)	10 (20.4)
Total	**11 (100.0)**	**38 (100.0)**	**49 (100.0)**

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

10 years ago, another 17 (or 34.7 per cent) were established between 10 and 20 years ago while 14 (or 28.6 per cent) were established more than 20 years ago. It is important to note that the HEIs are relatively new compared to the more established institutions of higher learning in Europe, North America, Australia, and Japan.

In terms of status, three of the PuHEIs that responded are research universities, while the rest of the PuHEIs are comprehensive or focus

universities (see Chapter 3). PrHEIs who responded, include colleges (20 or 52.6 per cent of all respondents from the PrHEIs), universities (10 or 26.3 per cent), university-colleges (5 or 13.2 per cent), as well as branch campuses of foreign universities (3 or 7.9 per cent of PrHEIs) (see Chapter 4).

Table 5.1 also shows the student population in these HEIs. This ranges from below 1,000 students to more than 5,000 students in PrHEIs, while PuHEIs tend to have larger student populations. Most of the international students are found in the PrHEIs as only one of the PuHEIs has a share of international students to total students of more than 20 per cent, while 7 (or 63.6 per cent of the respondents) have less than 10 per cent. Three of the PuHEIs (or 27.3 per cent of the respondents) did not respond to this question. On the other hand, 9 or 23.7 per cent of the PrHEIs respondents have a share of international students of more than 20 per cent, another 8 (or 21.1 per cent of the respondents) have a share of international students of between 10 to 20 per cent while 14 (36.8 per cent of the respondents) have a share of less than 10 per cent. Thus, overall, 20.4 per cent of the HEIs have a share of international students of more than 20 per cent while another 16.3 per cent of the respondents have a share of 10–20 per cent and another 42.9 per cent of the respondents have a share of less than 10 per cent.

Understanding of Internationalization

The first issue investigated in this chapter is the respondents' understanding of internationalization. The number and percentage distribution of the respondents' understanding is shown in Table 5.2. Some 23 of the total respondents (or 46.9 per cent), with 7 (or 63.6 per cent) of the respondents from the PuHEIs and 16 (or 42.1 per cent) of the respondents from the PrHEIs, viewed internationalization from a teaching and learning perspective. In other words, internationalization is seen as a change process, with the institution evolving from a national HEI to an international one, leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning and to achieve the desired competencies (Soderqvist 2002, p. 29 as quoted by Knight 2004, p. 10). Another perception based on van der Wende's definition, whereby internationalization is viewed as "any systematic effort aimed at making higher education more responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalization of societies, economy and labour markets" (quoted by Knight 2004) was chosen by two (or 18.2 per cent) of the PuHEIs as their understanding of internationalization while seven (or 20 per cent) of the PrHEIs shared this understanding.

TABLE 5.2
Respondents' Understanding of Internationalization by Type of Establishment

	PuHEIs	PrHEIs	Overall
Bringing in international students & programmes	1 (9.1)	7 (18.4)	8 (16.3)
Multiple activities that fall within international studies, educational exchange, etc.	1 (9.1)	4 (10.5)	5 (10.2)
Integrating an international dimension into the teaching & research	0 (0.0)	4 (10.5)	4 (8.2)
Systematic effort aimed at making HE more responsive to the global environment	2 (18.2)	7 (18.4)	9 (18.4)
Inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects in order to enhance the quality of teaching & learning	7 (63.6)	16 (42.1)	23 (46.9)
Total	**11 (100.0)**	**38 (100.0)**	**49 (100.0)**

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

This result implies that for most of the HEIs, be it public or private, internationalization means more than just bringing in international students and programmes for their institutions. But, for eight respondents (16.3 per cent), seven PrHEIs and one PuHEIs, internationalization of higher education is viewed as a process for bringing in international students and programmes based on their potential to generate more revenue. Based on the Chi-square test, it was found that there is no significant difference in the understanding of internationalization between the different types of institutions. However, variations in the understanding of internationalization can be observed among the PrHEIs.

Since the respondents were established at different times and possibly for varying objectives, they also vary in size, scope and maturity. As such, the importance they give to internationalization may differ. The results shown in Table 5.3 reveal that more than half (57.1 per cent) of both public (6 or 54.5 per cent) and private (22 or 57.9 per cent) HEIs regard internationalization as very important to their institutions, while another 19 (or 38.8 per cent) consider internationalization to be important. Only two PrHEIs consider it as somewhat important rather than very important or important. This result is not

TABLE 5.3
Importance of Internationalization by Type of Establishment

	PuHEIs	PrHEIs	Overall
Somewhat important	0 (0.0)	2 (5.3)	2 (4.1)
Important	5 (45.5)	14 (36.8)	19 (38.8)
Very important	6 (54.5)	22 (57.9)	28 (57.1)
Total	**11 (100.0)**	**38 (100.0)**	**49 (100.0)**

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

surprising for the PuHEIs because internationalization is a crucial component in the Times Higher Education Ranking, and the more established and older institutions, especially those that are designated as research universities, are pressed to aim for higher rankings in line with the government's ambition to produce world-class universities as represented by these rankings. As for PrHEIs, internationalization is also important to them as many of them source their programmes, students, and some of their academic staff from abroad (see Chapter 4).

It is hypothesized that the HEIs' understanding and importance attached to internationalization may be associated with the age of the establishment (Table 5.4). Majority of the older and younger HEIs (those that are more than 20 years old and less than 10 year old) deemed internationalization as very important. This is reflected in their view of internationalization as an inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of their management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning. However, there is greater variation in the understanding of internationalization within the group that is 10–20 years old. Nevertheless, this group also views internationalization as important or very important.

Features of Internationalization

There are many features of internationalization found in the literature and these have been listed in Table 5.5. The respondents were asked to tick the features of internationalization that are relevant to their institutions. Overall, the most common features of internationalization are international institutional agreements/networks (relevant to 42 institutions or 85.7 per cent of the respondents), followed by the recruitment of fee-paying international students (relevant to 39 institutions or 79.6 per cent of the respondents), and having

TABLE 5.4
Understanding and Importance of Internationalization by Age of Establishment

	less than 10	10 – 20	more than 20
Understanding of Internationalization			
Bringing in international students & programmes	3 (16.7)	5 (29.4)	0 (0.0)
Multiple activities that fall within international studies, educational exchange, etc.	2 (11.1)	1 (5.9)	2 (14.3)
Integrating an international dimension into the teaching & research	1 (5.6)	2 (11.8)	1 (7.1)
Systematic effort aimed at making HE more responsive to the global environment	2 (11.1)	4 (23.5)	3 (21.4)
Inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning	10 (55.6)	5 (29.4)	8 (57.1)
Importance of Internationalization			
Somewhat important	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (14.3)
Important	7 (38.9)	8 (47.1)	4 (28.6)
Very important	11 (61.1)	9 (52.9)	8 (57.1)
Total	**18 (100.0)**	**17 (100.0)**	**14 (100.0)**

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

an international/intercultural dimension of the curriculum (relevant to 35 institutions or 71.4 per cent of the respondents). Out of the 18 features listed, 5 were found to be significantly different between PuHEIs and PrHEIs. These are namely, visiting scholars, lecturers/staff training overseas, international research collaboration, international/intercultural extracurricular activities and the recruitment of non-fee-paying international students. The percentage of respondents who ticked these five features as relevant are different between PuHEIs and PrHEIs.

The three most common features of internationalization of PuHEIs, as shown in Table 5.5, are international/intercultural dimension of curriculum, visiting international scholars and further training overseas for lecturers/staff. On the other hand, the MOHE study (Norhisham et al. 2008, p. 170) found that the three most common elements of internationalization in the PuHEIs are foreign travel opportunities for staff, international institutional agreements/networks, visiting international scholars and international research collaboration.

TABLE 5.5
Relevant Features of Internationalization

	PuHEIs	PrHEIs	Overall
International institutional agreements/networks	9 (81.8)	33 (86.8)	42 (85.7)
Recruitment of fee-paying international students	8 (72.7)	31 (81.6)	39 (79.6)
International/intercultural dimension of curriculum	10 (90.9)	25 (65.8)	35 (71.4)
Having visiting international scholars	10 (90.9)	23 (60.5)	33 (67.3)
Recruitment of international faculty members/researchers	9 (81.8)	24 (63.2)	33 (67.3)
Sending students on exchange programmes overseas	9 (81.8)	22 (57.9)	31 (63.3)
Sending lecturers/staff for further training overseas	10 (90.9)	20 (52.6)	30 (61.2)
International research collaboration	9 (81.8)	20 (52.6)	29 (59.2)
Joint/Double/Dual degrees	6 (54.5)	23 (60.5)	29 (59.2)
Membership in international organizations	6 (54.5)	19 (50.0)	25 (51.0)
Liaison with community-based cultural & international groups	5 (45.5)	15 (39.5)	20 (40.8)
International/inter-cultural extra-curricular activities	7 (63.6)	13 (34.2)	20 (40.8)
Area studies, foreign language, international focused courses	6 (54.5)	13 (34.2)	19 (38.8)
Establishment of branch campuses abroad	2 (18.2)	14 (36.8)	16 (32.7)
Selling your programmes overseas e.g. franchising	3 (27.3)	11 (28.9)	14 (28.6)
Sending lecturers to lecture at overseas branch campuses	2 (18.2)	10 (26.3)	12 (24.5)
Having distance programmes overseas	1 (9.1)	9 (23.7)	10 (20.4)
Recruitment of non fee-paying international students	4 (36.4)	4 (10.5)	8 (16.3)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

The features that are most relevant to the PrHEIs in Table 5.5 are international institutional agreements/networks, recruitment of fee-paying international students, and international/intercultural dimension of curriculum. The MOHE study found that the most important features of internationalization for the PrHEIs are international institutional agreements/networks, as well as the recruitment of fee-paying international students and international faculty teaching staff/researchers.

Do the features of internationalization vary by year of establishment? Based on Table 5.6, there is no statistical difference according to the age of

TABLE 5.6
Relevant Features of Internationalization by Age of Establishment

	less than 10	10 – 20	more than 20
International institutional agreements/ networks	15 (83.3)	16 (94.1)	11 (78.6)
Recruitment of fee-paying international students	13 (72.2)	15 (88.2)	11 (78.6)
International/intercultural dimension of curriculum	12 (66.7)	13 (76.5)	10 (71.4)
Having visiting international scholars	12 (66.7)	12 (70.6)	9 (64.3)
Recruitment of international faculty members/researchers	12 (66.7)	12 (70.6)	9 (64.3)
Sending students on exchange programmes overseas	11 (61.1)	13 (76.5)	7 (50.0)
Sending lecturers/staff for further training overseas	11 (61.1)	11 (64.7)	8 (57.1)
International research collaboration	13 (72.2)	10 (58.8)	6 (42.9)
Joint/Double/Dual degrees	13 (72.2)	9 (52.9)	7 (50.0)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

establishment although there is some reordering in the importance of the features across the three age groups.

Reasons for Internationalization

Higher education institutions may differ in their reasons for internationalizing as well as the degree of importance that they attach to each of the possible reasons, as shown in Table 5.7. The three main reasons indicated in the overall mean response are to create an international profile and reputation, contribute to academic quality and for the purpose of benchmarking. While this concurs with the three most important reasons for the PrHEIs, PuHEIs have chosen strengthening research and knowledge capacity as the second most important reason as opposed to internationalization's contribution to academic quality.

This compares favourably with the findings reported in the MOHE study (Norhisham et al. 2008, p. 172) which found that the top-ranked motivation of PuHEIs for internationalization was strengthening research and knowledge capacity and production, followed by creating an international

TABLE 5.7
Importance of Reasons for Internationalization by Type of Establishment

	Mean Response		
	PuHEIs	**PrHEIs**	**Overall**
Create international profile and reputation	3.82	3.61	3.65
Contribute to academic quality	3.36	3.53	3.49
Benchmarking	3.38	3.43	3.42
Promote curriculum development and innovation	3.36	3.39	3.39
Strengthen research and knowledge capacity	3.45	3.32	3.35
Increase knowledge & intercultural understanding	3.27	3.32	3.31
Broaden & diversify source of faculty and students	3.09	3.27	3.23
Easier for students to get a job	2.73	3.37	3.22
Diversify income generation	2.45	3.21	3.04

Note: 1 – not important, 2 – somewhat important, 3 – important, 4 – very important.
Source: Survey 2009.

profile and reputation, contributing to academic quality and promoting curriculum development and innovation. The MOHE findings for the top two motivations of PrHEIs are the same as those ranked by the survey findings in this chapter, which is to create an international profile and reputation followed by contributing to academic quality. Generally, while the ranking are not in the same order, both results indicate the same reasons for the top four or five motivations.

Diversifying income generation was found to be ranked the least important by both PuHEIs and PrHEIs in our survey findings as well as in the MOHE study. However, no statistical test was used in the MOHE study to test if this motivation was more important for the PrHEIs although it was expected to be so. Using the t-test, the mean response in our survey findings was found to be significantly different between the PuHEIs and PrHEIs for the use of internationalization to get jobs for students and to diversify income generation. These two reasons are found to be more important for PrHEIs than PuHEIs.

Analysis by age of establishment hardly altered the results above as the F-test shows no significant difference in the mean response across the three age groups, as shown in Table 5.8. This is probably due to the increasing use of internationalization as a response of HEIs to contend with the increasing pace of globalization.

TABLE 5.8
Importance of Reasons for Internationalization by Age of Establishment

	Mean Response		
	less than 10	**10 – 20**	**more than 20**
Create international profile and reputation	3.61	3.65	3.71
Contribute to academic quality	3.50	3.41	3.57
Benchmarking	3.44	3.25	3.64
Promote curriculum development and innovation	3.22	3.41	3.57
Strengthen research and knowledge capacity	3.33	3.47	3.21
Increase knowledge & intercultural understanding	3.11	3.41	3.43
Broaden & diversify source of faculty and students	3.29	3.24	3.14
Easier for students to get a job	3.28	3.12	3.29
Diversify income generation	2.45	3.21	3.04

Note: 1 – not important, 2 – somewhat important, 3 – important, 4 – very important.
Source: Survey 2009.

Benefits of Internationalization

Table 5.9 shows that the perceived benefits of internationalization vary with different institutions. Overall, the most commonly chosen perceived benefit is improvement in academic quality, whereby this benefit was chosen by 25 (or 51.0 per cent) of the respondents. The second most popular choice (24 or 49.0 per cent) is innovation in curriculum, teaching and research, followed by more internationally oriented students and staff. However, among the PuHEIs, the chosen perceived benefits lean more towards producing more academic output (and as such revenue generation is not seen as a benefit) such as internationally oriented students and staff, and strengthening research and knowledge. In contrast, the PrHEIs chose perceived benefits such as improved academic quality, innovation in their curriculum, teaching and research, having more internationally oriented students and staff, as well as increasing revenue generation.

Do the perceived benefits vary with the age of the HEIs? Here, we can see similarities in response in the 10–20 age group and the more than 20 age group (Table 5.10). For both groups, the top three perceived benefits are innovation in curriculum, teaching and research, and having more internationally oriented students and staff and improvement in academic quality. However, for the

TABLE 5.9
Benefits of Internationalization

	PuHEIs	PrHEIs	Overall
Improved academic quality	5 (45.5)	20 (52.6)	25 (51.0)
Innovation in curriculum, teaching and research	5 (45.5)	19 (50.0)	24 (49.0)
More internationally-oriented students and staff	7 (63.6)	15 (39.5)	22 (44.9)
Strengthen research and knowledge production	7 (63.6)	9 (23.7)	16 (32.7)
Increased revenue generation	0 (0.0)	13 (34.2)	13 (26.5)
Greater diversity of education programmes and qualifications	2 (18.2)	10 (26.3)	12 (24.5)
Greater international cooperation and solidarity	3 (27.3)	4 (10.5)	7 (14.3)
Foster 'national and international citizenship'	1 (9.1)	3 (7.9)	4 (8.2)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

TABLE 5.10
Benefits of Internationalization by Year of Establishment

	less than 10	10 – 20	more than 20
Improved academic quality	9 (50.0)	10 (58.8)	6 (42.9)
Innovation in curriculum, teaching and research	7 (38.9)	6 (35.3)	11 (78.6)
More internationally-oriented students and staff	6 (33.3)	7 (41.2)	9 (64.3)
Strengthen research and knowledge production	8 (44.4)	4 (23.5)	4 (28.6)
Increased revenue generation	5 (27.8)	4 (23.5)	4 (28.6)
Greater diversity of education programmes and qualifications	4 (22.2)	5 (29.4)	3 (21.4)
Greater international cooperation and solidarity	4 (22.2)	1 (5.9)	2 (14.3)
Foster 'national and international citizenship'	2 (11.1)	2 (11.8)	0 (0.0)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

HEIs that have been around for less than ten years, strengthening research and knowledge production is the second most commonly chosen perceived benefit, after improved academic quality, followed by innovation in curriculum, teaching and research.

Disadvantages of Internationalization

Internationalization is perceived not only to produce benefits but may also result in some negative impact. The choices of the respondents are shown in Table 5.11. Overall, the main perceived negative aspect of internationalization is cultural conflict, followed by the commercialization of education programmes, the fear that the curriculum cannot take into account of students' needs and the decreasing use of the national language as well as an increase in the number of low quality providers. Congested facilities for students and loss of cultural or national identity as well as growing elitism in access to international education chances are ranked next in importance. Some 14.3 per cent also indicate that internationalization may jeopardize the quality of education. PuHEIs appear to be relatively more concerned about congested facilities and loss of cultural or national identity than PrHEIs.

Does the age of the HEIs have any influence on the negative perceptions of internationalization? Again, there are some variations in the ranking according to age of the establishment, as shown in Table 5.12. For the oldest group of HEIs, the main disadvantages of internationalization are the commercialization of education programmes and the fear that the curriculum cannot take into account of students' needs, followed by cultural conflict and increase in number of low quality providers. For the middle-age group, their main concern is cultural conflict, followed by the fear that the curriculum cannot take into account of students' needs and decreasing use of national

TABLE 5.11
Negative Aspects of Internationalization by Type of Establishment

	PuHEIs	PrHEIs	Overall
Cultural conflict	5 (45.5)	15 (39.5)	20 (40.8)
Commercialization of education programmes	4 (36.4)	15 (39.5)	19 (38.8)
Curriculum cannot take into account of students' needs	1 (9.1)	17 (44.7)	18 (36.7)
Decreasing use of national language	3 (27.3)	12 (31.6)	15 (30.6)
Increase in number of low quality providers	3 (27.3)	12 (31.6)	15 (30.6)
Congested facilities for students	5 (45.5)	7 (18.4)	12 (24.5)
Loss of cultural or national identity	4 (36.4)	4 (10.5)	8 (16.3)
Growing elitism in access to international educ. chances	2 (18.2)	6 (15.8)	8 (16.3)
Jeopardize quality of education	3 (27.3)	4 (10.5)	7 (14.3)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

TABLE 5.12
Negative Aspects of Internationalization by Age of Establishment

	less than 10	10 – 20	more than 20
Cultural conflict	8 (44.4)	7 (41.2)	5 (35.7)
Commercialization of education programmes	8 (44.4)	5 (29.4)	6 (42.9)
Curriculum cannot take into account of students' needs	6 (33.3)	6 (35.3)	6 (42.9)
Decreasing use of national language	7 (38.9)	6 (35.3)	2 (14.3)
Increase in number of low quality providers	6 (33.3)	4 (23.5)	5 (35.7)
Congested facilities for students	3 (16.7)	5 (29.4)	4 (28.6)
Loss of cultural or national identity	4 (22.2)	0 (0.0)	4 (28.6)
Growing elitism in access to international education chances	2 (11.1)	3 (17.6)	3 (21.4)
Jeopardize quality of education	1 (5.6)	2 (11.8)	4 (28.6)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

language. For the youngest group, their main worries are cultural conflict and commercialization of education programmes followed by decreasing use of national language. It is interesting to note that the more recent HEIs are more concerned about the decreasing use of national language while the older ones ranked this as the least important among the negative aspects.

Action Plans, Policies and Strategies for Internationalization

Table 5.13 shows possible action plans for internationalization that may have been undertaken by the HEIs. The results show that overall, 42 (or 85.7 per cent) of the respondents have a plan for internationalization, and another 34 (or 69.4 per cent) have a person in charge of internationalization and an office to oversee the implementation. Another 27 (55.1 per cent) have a budget to implement internationalization while 24 (49.0 per cent) have explicit targets/benchmarks included in the policy. Among the PuHEIs, all 11 (or 100 per cent) of respondents have a plan for internationalization, with another 10 (or 90.9 per cent) of respondents have a person in charge and another nine more (or 81.8 per cent) have provided an office as well as a person in charge of internationalization. Seven of the PuHEIs have a monitoring/evaluation mechanism to assess the progress while another 6 (or 54.5 per cent) have set explicit targets to be achieved. On the other hand, 31 (or 81.6 per cent)

TABLE 5.13
Action Plans, Policies & Strategies for Internationalization by Type of Establishment

	PuHEIs	PrHEIs	Overall
Action Plans for Internationalization			
Plan for internationalization	11 (100.0)	31 (81.6)	42 (85.7)
Person in charge of internationalization	10 (90.9)	24 (63.2)	34 (69.4)
Office to oversee the implementation	9 (81.8)	25 (65.8)	34 (69.4)
Budgetary provision for implementation	9 (81.8)	18 (47.4)	27 (55.1)
Monitoring/evaluation mechanism to assess progress	7 (63.6)	20 (52.6)	27 (55.1)
Explicit targets/benchmarks included in the policy	6 (54.5)	18 (47.4)	24 (49.0)
Policies for International Cooperation			
Student's Program	8 (72.7)	30 (78.9)	38 (77.6)
Services	5 (45.5)	23 (60.5)	28 (57.1)
Research Program	8 (72.7)	17 (44.7)	25 (51.0)
Strategies for Internationalization			
Inflow of international students	10 (90.9)	36 (94.7)	46 (93.9)
Inflow of international faculty members	10 (90.9)	30 (78.9)	40 (81.6)
Strengthening international research collaboration	10 (90.9)	21 (55.3)	31 (63.3)
Inflow of international programmes	4 (36.4)	23 (60.5)	27 (55.1)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

of respondents among the PrHEIs have a plan, with 25 (or 65.8 per cent) providing an office to oversee the implementation, and 24 (or 63.2 per cent) have a person in charge. Only 18 (or 47.4 per cent) have a specific budget to implement their internationalization programme, although 20 (or 52.6 per cent) have instituted a monitoring/evaluation mechanism to assess the progress and 18 (or 47.4 per cent) have explicit targets.

International cooperation between institutions of higher education around the world is an important aspect of internationalization. Table 5.13 also shows that, among the respondents, 38 or 77.6 per cent (eight or 72.7 per cent of the PuHEIs and 30 or 78.9 per cent of the PrHEIs) have a policy for international cooperation with respect to students' programmes. As expected, the policy for international cooperation in research is relatively more prevalent in the PuHEIs (eight or 72.7 per cent), particularly as three of the respondents are research universities, as compared to the PrHEIs (17 or 44.7 per cent) as the latter are relatively new in research. On the other hand, more PrHEIs (23 or 60.5 per cent) are into having a policy for international cooperation in services than PuHEIs (five or 45.5 per cent).

Table 5.13 also shows the various strategies used by the HEIs to promote internationalization. These could take the form of inflows of international students, international programmes, and faculty inflows or through strengthening international research collaboration. Overall, 46 (or 93.9 per cent) of HEIs indicate that they have strategies pertaining to inflows of international students. Only one PuHEI and two PrHEIs did not have this strategy. With respect to inflows of international programmes, 27 (or 55.1 per cent) of respondents practised this strategy, especially the PrHEIs, which accounted for 23 responses. Recruiting international faculty is also an important strategy for both PuHEIs (10 or 90.9 per cent) and PrHEIs (30 or 78.9 per cent), resulting in an overall score of 40 or 81.6 per cent. Finally, 31 respondents or 63.3 per cent participated in strengthening international research collaboration, with 10 or 90 per cent of the PuHEIs and 21 or 55 per cent of the PrHEIs, again indicating again the relative importance of research for PuHEIs.

We also analyse the action plans, policies and strategies by age of establishment, as shown in Table 5.14. The plan for internationalization still topped the action plans of all three age groups. Except for those established less than 10 years ago, the action plans for the other two groups are more or less similar. The former type of establishments' lack of emphasis for a person in charge of internationalization is probably due to the fact that they are relatively young and may not yet need a particular person just to be in charge of internationalization. In terms of the policies, there is not much difference in the response of the three groups based on the year of establishment. The same can also be said for the strategies.

Markets for Recruitment and Programmes Offered

Where do these HEIs recruit their international students and faculty members? Table 5.15 provides the answer. The first choice for the PuHEIs to recruit their students is West Asia (33.3 per cent), followed by Southeast Asia (26.7 per cent) and East Asia (23.3 per cent). Some of these students are recruited based on government to government arrangements. The PrHEIs targets first, Southeast Asia (30.6 per cent), followed by West Asia (19.8 per cent) and East Asia (18 per cent).

These institutions also recruit their faculty members from abroad to complement available domestic human resources. Moreover, when PrHEIs import some of the transnational programmes, it is also mandatory for them to hire international faculty members associated with a particular programme. For example, the provision of a Canadian Degree Programme would necessitate

TABLE 5.14
Action Plans, Policies and Strategies for Internationalization by Age of Establishment

	less than 10	10 – 20	more than 20
Action Plans for Internationalization			
Plan for internationalization	15 (83.3)	15 (88.2)	12 (85.7)
Person in charge of internationalization	9 (50.0)	14 (82.4)	11 (78.6)
Office to oversee the implementation	11 (61.1)	13 (76.5)	10 (71.4)
Budgetary provision for implementation	10 (55.6)	9 (52.9)	8 (57.1)
Monitoring/evaluation mechanism to assess progress	10 (55.6)	8 (47.1)	9 (64.3)
Explicit targets/benchmarks included in the policy	10 (55.6)	7 (41.2)	7 (50.0)
Policies for International Cooperation			
Student's Program	14 (77.8)	13 (76.5)	11 (78.6)
Services	9 (50.0)	11 (64.7)	8 (57.1)
Research Program	10 (55.6)	7 (41.2)	8 (57.1)
Strategies for Internationalization			
Inflow of international students	16 (88.9)	16 (94.1)	14 (100.0)
Inflow of international faculty members	16 (88.9)	14 (82.4)	10 (71.4)
Strengthening international research collaboration	13 (72.2)	11 (64.7)	7 (50.0)
Inflow of foreign programmes	7 (38.9)	9 (52.9)	11 (78.6)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

some Canadian lecturers to manage the programme. The results of the survey are also shown in Table 5.15. Overall, as a first choice, the most popular recruitment regions for faculty members are South Central Asia and Southeast Asia. PuHEIs gave equal importance to the recruitment destinations of South Central and Southeast Asia but less importance to Europe (probably due to the higher costs involved). PrHEIs mainly recruit from South Central Asia, followed by Southeast Asia and Europe.

Four types of programmes are offered to international students studying in Malaysia — undergraduate, professional, postgraduate and English. The last programme is normally undertaken to prepare students to follow the other programmes, as shown in Table 5.16. The undergraduate programme is the most popular with 45 or 91.8 per cent of HEIs offering it, followed by the English language programme (34 or 69.4 per cent), the postgraduate (29 or 59.2 per cent) and the professional programme (16 or 32.7 per cent). All PuHEIs offer undergraduate and postgraduate programmes to international

TABLE 5.15
Top Three Target Markets for Recruiting Students and Faculty Members

	PuHEIs		PrHEIs	
	Region	**%**	**Region**	**%**
Students				
First	West Asia	33.3	Southeast Asia	30.6
Second	Southeast Asia	26.7	West Asia	19.8
Third	East Asia	23.3	East Asia	18.0
Faculty Members				
First	South Central Asia	24.2	South Central Asia	30.0
Second	Southeast Asia	24.2	Southeast Asia	21.4
Third	Europe	12.2	Europe	18.6

Source: Survey 2009.

TABLE 5.16
Programmes Offered to International Students

	PuHEIs	PrHEIs	Overall
Undergraduate	11 (100.0)	34 (89.5)	45 (91.8)
English Language	7 (63.6)	27 (71.1)	34 (69.4)
Postgraduate	11 (100.0)	18 (47.4)	29 (59.2)
Professional	3 (27.3)	13 (34.2)	16 (32.7)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

students, but only three of them or 27.3 per cent offered professional programmes and seven or 63.6 per cent of these institutions offered the English Language programmes. Among the PrHEIs, 34 or 89.5 per cent provided undergraduate programmes, 27 or 71.1 per cent offered English Language programmes, 18 or 47.4 per cent offered the post-graduate program and 13 or 34.2 per cent offered professional programmes.

Since different HEIs embarked on internationalization at different times and focused on different aspects, it is expected that the speed of expansion of the different dimensions of internationalization would also differ. Table 5.17 shows that overall, expansion in the recruitment of international students is the fastest, representing the choice of 40 respondents or 81.6 per cent of the total number who responded. This is true for both PuHEIs (with 10 or 90.9 per cent) and PrHEIs (with 30 or 78.9 per cent) indicating this choice.

TABLE 5.17
Dimensions of Internationalization that are Expanding Rapidly by Type of Establishment

	PuHEIs	PrHEIs	Overall
Recruitment of international students	10 (90.9)	30 (78.9)	40 (81.6)
Recruitment of international faculty members	11 (100.0)	17 (44.7)	28 (57.1)
Strengthening international research collaboration	7 (63.6)	10 (26.3)	17 (34.7)
Adoption of transnational programmes	0 (0.0)	13 (34.2)	13 (26.5)
Joint academic programmes	2 (18.2)	11 (28.9)	13 (26.5)
Adopting an international dimension of curriculum	1 (9.1)	7 (18.4)	8 (16.3)
Selling your programmes overseas e.g. franchising	0 (0.0)	3 (7.9)	3 (6.1)
Sending lecturers to lecture at overseas branch campuses	0 (0.0)	3 (7.9)	3 (6.1)
Establishing a branch campus overseas	0 (0.0)	1 (2.6)	1 (2.0)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

The second dimension that is expanding most rapidly is the recruitment of international faculty members, chosen by 28 or 57.1 per cent of respondents, including all PuHEIs and 17 or 44.7 per cent of the PrHEIs. This is followed by strengthening international research collaboration, which is relevant to 17 or 34.7 per cent of respondents, with a higher percentage occurring among the PuHEIs (7 or 63.6 per cent) as against the PrHEIs (10 or 26.3 per cent).

Table 5.18 provides the results for the speed of expansion of internationalization according to age of the establishments. It can be seen that majority of the respondents in all groups indicate the recruitment of international students as the fastest expanding activity of internationalization, followed by the recruitment of international faculty members. For other dimensions, the choice would differ by age of establishment. Those in the oldest group chose joint academic programmes as the next rapidly expanding activity, followed by the adoption of transnational programmes and strengthening international research collaboration as well as adopting an international dimension of curriculum. The other two age groups, chose strengthening international research collaboration as the third fastest expanding activity followed by the adoption of transnational programmes.

Expansion, Key Drivers and Challenges

The push for internationalization in an institution does not happen automatically. Different groups within an institution have their own vision

TABLE 5.18
Dimensions of Internationalization that are Expanding Rapidly by Age of Establishment

	less than 10	10 – 20	more than 20
Recruitment of international students	13 (72.2)	13 (76.5)	14 (100.0)
Recruitment of international faculty members	10 (55.6)	8 (47.1)	10 (71.4)
Strengthening international research collaboration	8 (44.4)	6 (35.3)	3 (21.4)
Adoption of transnational programmes	4 (22.2)	5 (29.4)	4 (28.6)
Joint academic programmes	2 (11.1)	6 (35.3)	5 (35.7)
Adopting an international dimension of curriculum	1 (5.6)	4 (23.5)	3 (21.4)
Selling your programmes overseas e.g. franchising	2 (11.1)	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)
Sending lecturers to lecture at overseas branch campuses	1 (5.6)	1 (5.9)	1 (7.1)
Establishing a branch campus overseas	1 (5.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

and some would play the role as key drivers in internationalization efforts of their institution. As can be seen from Table 5.19, the most important player in driving internationalization is the president and the chancellery with 37 (or 75.5 per cent) of respondents indicating this choice. This is also true when the results are analysed by type of institution, as both PuHEIs (10 or 90.9 per cent) and PrHEIs (27 or 71.1 per cent) also stated that the president and chancellery are the main driver of internationalization. Other important drivers are students and faculty members.

When the results are analyzed by age of establishment, there is no change in the identification of the key drivers of internationalization in these HEIs. They are still the president and chancellery, followed by the students, faculty members, owners and shareholders, and finally the board members of all groups, as shown in Table 5.20.

Challenges Faced in Internationalization

As in any venture, an enterprise is bound to meet some challenges. Overall, the top challenge faced by the majority of respondents (22 or 44.9 per cent of respondents) is competing priorities for time and resources in the institution

TABLE 5.19
Key Drivers of Internationalization by Type of Establishment

	PuHEIs	PrHEIs	Overall
President and Chancellery	10 (90.9)	27 (71.1)	37 (75.5)
Students	7 (63.6)	22 (57.9)	29 (59.2)
Faculty Members	9 (81.8)	19 (50.0)	28 (57.1)
Owners and shareholders	1 (9.1)	13 (34.2)	14 (28.6)
Board members	1 (9.1)	12 (31.6)	13 (26.5)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

TABLE 5.20
Key Drivers of Internationalization by Age of Establishment

	less than 10	10 – 20	more than 20
President and Chancellery	14 (77.8)	14 (82.4)	9 (64.3)
Students	12 (66.7)	10 (58.8)	7 (50.0)
Faculty Members	12 (66.7)	9 (52.9)	7 (50.0)
Owners and shareholders	7 (38.9)	2 (11.8)	5 (35.7)
Board members	4 (22.2)	6 (35.3)	3 (21.4)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

(see Table 5.21). The other four overall most important challenges are limited experience and expertise of staff, lack of financial support from the national level and managing international students. It is an unexpected result to find that PuHEIs also listed the lack of financial support from the government as one of their challenges as they are relatively well supported financially by the government compared to the PrHEIs. Statistically, there are no significant differences between the responses of the PuHEIs and PrHEIs. Thus the top three perceived challenges are the same for both PuHEIs and PrHEIs, though they differ in terms of the percentage of response.

While the MOHE study (Norhisham et al. 2008, p. 173) also looked at the barriers or challenges to internationalization, not many of the factors listed are similar to the survey results shown in this chapter. The factors listed that are similar to those in the survey results reported in this chapter include insufficient faculty interest, financial constraint, administrative bureaucracies, and limited institutional support. The MOHE study found that both PuHEIs and PrHEIs agreed that financial constraints, competitiveness of international

TABLE 5.21
Challenges Faced in Internationalization by Type of Establishment

	PuHEIs	PrHEIs	Overall
Competing priorities for time and resources (PR)	5 (45.5)	17 (44.7)	22 (44.9)
Limited experience and expertise of staff (HR)	7 (63.6)	14 (36.8)	21 (42.9)
Lack of financial support from the national level (FN)	5 (45.5)	15 (39.5)	20 (40.8)
Managing international students (MG)	4 (36.4)	14 (36.8)	18 (36.7)
Lack of policy/strategy to guide the process (GP)	3 (27.3)	10 (26.3)	13 (26.5)
Administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties (AD)	3 (27.3)	10 (26.3)	13 (26.5)
Validating qualifications from other countries (QF)	1 (9.1)	10 (26.3)	11 (22.4)
Difficult to arrange credit transfer systems (QF)	1 (9.1)	5 (13.2)	6 (12.2)
Little recognition or interest by top management (AD)	0 (0.0)	3 (7.9)	3 (6.1)
Lack of faculty interest and involvement (HR)	1 (9.1)	1 (2.6)	2 (4.1)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages; Dimensions: Administration (AD), Government Policy (GP), Human Resource (HR), Priority (PR), Managing Students (MG), Financial (FN), Qualifications (QF).

research funding and insufficient promotional and tenure incentives are the main limitations to internationalization.

In terms of the HEIs' response to their challenges, one of the respondents in our survey indicated that they would work out a detailed plan of internationalization with measures and targets as well as provide budgetary allocations. Others stated that they would examine their priorities and monitor the progress. Measures taken to overcome the lack of faculty interest and involvement include the provision of training and appropriate information or exposure to the staff, recruiting staff with suitable experience, as well as engaging the staff in their internationalization activities. Other measures taken to overcome financial constraints include ensuring budget allocation for internationalization activities as well as lobbying for national funding. In order to manage international students, measures taken include engaging qualified and experienced counsellors to advise international students, setting up international students' office with qualified staff, and introducing international students to Malaysian culture.

By age of establishment, some similarities and differences in response can be seen emerging from the different groups, as shown in Table 5.22. In terms of similarity, competing priorities and lack of financial support at the national level are two challenges that are picked up by all the three age groups. For

TABLE 5.22
Challenges Faced in Internationalization by Age of Establishment

	less than 10	10 – 20	more than 20
Competing priorities for time and resources (PR)	10 (55.6)	7 (41.2)	5 (35.7)
Limited experience and expertise of staff (HR)	9 (22.2)	6 (35.3)	6 (21.4)
Lack of financial support from the national level (FN)	7 (38.9)	7 (41.2)	6 (42.9)
Managing international students (MG)	6 (33.3)	6 (35.3)	6 (42.9)
Lack of policy/strategy to guide the process (GP)	4 (22.2)	6 (35.3)	3 (21.4)
Administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties (AD)	7 (38.9)	2 (11.8)	4 (28.6)
Validating qualifications from other countries (QF)	1 (5.6)	5 (29.4)	5 (35.7)
Difficult to arrange credit transfer systems (QF)	3 (16.7)	2 (11.8)	1 (7.1)
Little recognition or interest by top management (AD)	1 (5.6)	1 (5.9)	1 (7.1)
Lack of faculty interest and involvement (HR)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (14.3)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages; Dimensions: Administration (AD), Government Policy (GP), Human Resource (HR), Priority (PR), Managing Students (MG), Financial (FN), Qualifications (QF).
Source: Survey 2009.

institutions less than 10 years old, administrative inertia or administrative difficulties are perceived to be more of a challenge compared to the other two age groups. In the case of the middle age group, it is the limited experience of staff that is perceived to be more of a challenge compared to the other two age groups. For older institutions that are more than 20 years old, validating the qualifications from other countries are perceived to be more of a challenge than the other age groups. Two challenges, namely validating qualifications from other countries and lack of faculty interest and involvement was found to be statistically different among the three age groups.

Knowledge about the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)

These days, a country's membership in the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) or other regional trade agreements that include commitments

in education services may have serious implications on the providers of education as it opens the domestic market to greater competition. At the same time, these agreements also open up opportunities for domestic providers to enter the markets of partner countries in these agreements. As such, these agreements may have crucial impact on our local providers and they should prepare themselves for increasing competition from other foreign providers. Unfortunately, our survey shows that only about half (26 or 53.1 per cent of respondents) are familiar with GATS and the like (see Table 5.23). This lack of knowledge is more critical among the PrHEIs than the PuHEIs.

Among those who responded that they are familiar with GATS or other regional trade agreements, most (16 or 61.5 per cent) think that it will have an overall positive impact on their institutions (see Table 5.24). Those who gave this response are likely to be large, well established HEIs who are able to compete with their international counterparts.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In general, it was found that the results in this chapter are similar to the earlier study undertaken by MOHE. Differences in results can be attributed to differences in sample size and the composition of sample.

TABLE 5.23
Familiarity with Trade Agreement in Services

	No	Yes	Not Sure
PuHEIs	2 (18.2)	5 (45.5)	4 (36.4)
PrHEIs	13 (34.2)	21 (55.3)	4 (10.5)
Overall	15 (30.6)	26 (53.1)	8 (16.3)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

TABLE 5.24
Impact of Trade Agreements on Internationalization of Education Services

	No impact	Overall positive	Overall negative	Not sure
PuHEI	1 (20.0)	2 (40.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (40.0)
PrHEIs	3 (14.3)	14 (66.7)	2 (9.5)	2 (9.5)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Survey 2009.

We began the chapter with some hypotheses, namely, different types of institutions would have different understanding and rationales for internationalizing their institutions. The MOHE study did not explore the issue of understanding nor did the study compare the responses across different age groups. Key findings from the survey response analysed in this chapter show that while there is no significant difference in understanding according to the type and age of establishment, there are variations in understanding within the private HEIs and within the 10–20 age group. There are, however, significant differences in five features of internationalization according to the type of HEIs but no significant differences by age of establishment. By types of establishments, PrHEIs are more motivated to use internationalization to facilitate their students to get a job and to diversify their income generation than PuHEIs. By age again, the middle age group exhibited a greater variety of responses in terms of motivations.

Secondly, we also hypothesized that different types of HEIs will face different challenges in their endeavour to internationalize. However, the challenges are found to be fairly consistent across the two types of HEIs. Some challenges can be observed to be peculiar to specific age groups. For example, bureaucratic difficulties are viewed to be more of a challenge by younger institutions rather than older ones. It was also found that although there are no significant differences in terms of understanding, features and motivations between the establishments by age, this was not the case in the challenges perceived. Rather, validating qualifications from other countries, lack of faculty interest and involvement are two challenges perceived differently by the three age groups.

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6

MICRO PERSPECTIVES
Ideas, Practices and Challenges

Abdul Rahman Embong

INTRODUCTION

Ideas and practices of internationalizing higher education, although not really new in terms of the history of higher education in Malaysia, may be new to, and understood differently by, different people and institutions today. While there may be some commonalities in the understanding of certain aspects of the idea of internationalization among different institutions and people, the variations in the idea and views can be quite remarkable. Naturally, the variations would necessarily lead to different emphasis being given to the practice of internationalization in their respective institutions. Similarly, the challenges of internationalization perceived and faced by the institutions tend to vary between public and private higher institutions of learning, and also between academics, administrators and students. While the survey of the various institutions, as shown in Chapter 5, shows both similarities and diversities in the responses, the differences perceived at the micro level, through interviews with the relevant informants, namely the administrators, academics and students in these various institutions appear to be far greater than the differences at the macro level.

This chapter will discuss the ideas and practices as well as the challenges in internationalizing higher education in Malaysia, based on the findings from focus group discussions and interviews with administrators, lecturers and students (local and international) from selected institutions that participated in the research base of this book. In all, more than sixty informants consisting of a number of administrators, lecturers and students from nine higher education institutions — five public universities and four private universities and colleges — were engaged either in focus group discussions or in in-depth interviews to obtain the qualitative data (see list of institutions at the end of the chapter). It will first examine the ideas and practices of internationalization in these institutions, followed by discussion on the challenges in internationalization. The chapter will show, wherever possible, the similarities and differences between public and private higher institutions of learning, and also will give particular attention to the research universities. While the analysis presented in the sections below does not claim to represent all higher institutions in the country with respect to the ideas, practices and challenges in internationalizing higher education in Malaysia, it does however provide some useful insights concerning various aspects of the problem under study.

VARIED IDEAS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION

In his regular column in the *New Sunday Times* (7 February 2010, p. H24), the then Vice-Chancellor of Universiti Sains Malaysia, Professor Dzulkifli Abdul Razak, cautions about institutions of higher learning going overboard with internationalization, and opines that at the moment, "internationalization is more of a 'cherry-picking exercise' aimed at only some institutions and countries". He also suggests that "even as the term 'internationalization' gains popularity, a firm meaning (of the word) has yet to be assigned to it." This is an interesting observation that is worth examining in some depth, coming as it does, from the former top administrator of the APEX (Accelerated Programme for Excellence) University in the country. Is this observation borne out by the findings of this study?

In this study, it is found that although ideas and practices of internationalization are quite varied, implying that there is no "firm meaning" to the term, for analytical purposes, they can be put into two categories, viz. the broad and comprehensive view as well as the specific and instrumentalist view. These two constructs, however, are not necessarily mutually exclusive as they exist in a continuum. In fact, it can be said that the constructs contain both the idealism and pragmatism in the idea and conduct of higher education. Some institutions, especially the older and well-established public

universities which have been designated as research universities, understand and practice internationalization in both the broad as well as the specific senses. Nevertheless, smaller colleges especially those offering either franchised or twinning programmes tend to see internationalization in a rather specific sense due to the specific mission of the institution.

The broad comprehensive view on internationalization contains two key dimensions, viz. academic, and civilizational or cultural. The academic dimension tends to emphasize the advancement of knowledge and achieving international standards in order to be globally competitive. The civilizational or cultural dimension on the other hand emphasizes the process of intercultural communication and understanding each other through the presence of international faculty and students, as well as exposure to international environment and experience with diversity.

The most important idea regarding internationalization that comes through from various key informants in the universities is very much related to the academic dimension, that is, the core business of the university which is to advance knowledge, to spearhead the creation of new knowledge, to be at the knowledge frontiers, and to raise quality or standards of their staff and students. As one senior-ranking administrator in a research university put it, "Internationalization is not limited to students only…. It also includes collaboration among academic staff, faculties, institutes and the university as a whole." Many of these universities are members of international associations such as the Association of Southeast Asian Institutions of Higher Learning (ASAIHL) and the Association of Commonwealth Universities. In fact, on 15–19 June 2009, Kuala Lumpur hosted the seventeenth Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers, in which education ministers of commonwealth countries as well as vice chancellors and senior academics from many of the commonwealth universities participated. Among other things, they discussed the issue of internationalization.

This view of internationalization as academic collaborations between universities, faculties and academics is a reflection of the broad and comprehensive understanding of the idea of internationalization of higher education and an expression of idealism of academia. The common understanding of internationalization among them is that it is a process of "achieving international standards" in various domains such as "research, teaching, publication and quality of lecturers" so that these institutions can remain competitive. Internationalization is seen as a very important process for Malaysian universities to raise their profile and make the qualitative leap to be at par with the top universities in the world. This is the direction these universities hope to go in order to remain relevant. This has been particularly

emphasized by those from research universities such as Universiti Malaya (UM), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) and Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM).

What this means is that, from the perspective of these informants, universities as citadels of knowledge dissemination, creation and advancement cannot remain isolated and confined within national borders. Instead they need to open themselves to their peers internationally, be subjected to international screening and evaluation, and facilitate the free flow of knowledge as well as of scholars and students across borders. This is necessary because knowledge knows no artificial national borders although the application of such knowledge may be defined in terms of national needs and goals.

Achieving this goal requires a number of ways. As articulated by several of those interviewed, the priority should be on training of academic staff overseas, namely in leading universities overseas so that they can get the best training and exposure. Besides staff training, collaborative projects such as research collaboration with institutions and individual scholars on themes of common interest should be in place. Another form of collaboration is to have scholars' exchange — we receive visiting senior scholars at local universities while we also send our scholars for short stints during their sabbatical in foreign universities. Seminars and conferences are a means of internationalization too. It is agreed among informants that local scholars need to attend and present papers at selected international conferences that produce edited and — better still — refereed proceedings. They do so not only to share their research findings but to gain exposure and develop networking.

Exposure at the international level is absolutely essential. This is not confined to lecturers only but extended to students as well. Informants emphasized that internationalization requires our students to be sent abroad to participate in seminars, workshops, and attachments overseas as part of the student mobility programme. The exchange of students as a component of this programme is especially important for postgraduates as part of the process of raising standards and advancing knowledge. The value of such exchange cannot be over-emphasized. As argued by a deputy dean from a public university, internationalization is a process of "giving our staff and students international exposure". About the exchange programme, she has this to say: "Our students through the exchange programme are sent abroad. Internationalization [in this way] gives our students a lot of exposure." Quoting the experience of students in her university, she said: "Students who return from Melbourne on the RMIT programme tell us that it is a life-changing experience. International students on the exchange programme here also give the same kind of response."

Nevertheless, quite a lot of the ideas propounded about internationalization seem to be rather specific and instrumentalist in nature. In a way, they reflect the pragmatism in the idea of internationalizing higher education and also the view of education as a commodity that should be turned into an opportunity. As some informants put it: Internationalization is a process or a mix of processes involving "students and lecturers from abroad coming here"; "having syllabus from abroad [and used in local colleges]"; and "Malaysian lecturers teaching abroad".

One common thread seems to prevail in all institutions when they talk of internationalization. All of them emphasize the dimension of international student recruitment into Malaysian institutions of higher learning at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels as the critical element in it. As articulated in several interviews and focus group discussions, internationalization is about getting international students to come to Malaysia. As summed up by one administrator in a private university: "internationalization is when the institution has international students". Indeed, this view is quite widespread even among the top administrators of certain universities. For example, the Vice-Chancellor of Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia (USIM), Professor Dr Muhamad Muda when asked the meaning of the concept of internationalization of universities by the host of a talk show on *Astro Awani*, a local satellite TV station (televised on 21 February 2010) that "internationalization is a business concept, not an educational one", that it is meant to recruit international students to contribute towards bringing in foreign exchange to Malaysia.

Getting international students is related to the financial bottom line. This idea is especially emphasized by private colleges and universities. An administrator from a private university defines internationalization as such: "Internationalization is when the institution is open to accept students from other countries, and by commercializing education, they actually tend to cater to the needs of international students." Informants from institutions involved in franchised as well as twinning programmes with foreign universities are very much in tune with this line of thinking on internationalization. For colleges that offer franchised diploma programme, they regard Malaysia's involvement in internationalization as a means of providing international students from other developing countries such as Sri Lanka, Myanmar, Bangladesh and Nigeria to undertake a higher national diploma (a franchised programme from the United Kingdom) to proceed with studying for a diploma in Malaysia, then join second year degree course either in one of the local universities or in the United Kingdom itself.

Of course, public universities also give a great deal of emphasis on international student recruitment as a part of their internationalization efforts,

more so since one of the criteria in university ranking is the proportion of international students to local students. In fact, some of these institutions hope to achieve between 30 to 40 per cent of their student population consisting of international students although they do not place a timeline to achieve this. In short, the bottom line in the instrumentalist view of internationalization, when translated into practice, means the race to recruit international students into local institutions to fulfil their respective quota requirements.

Besides university or college administrators and academics, the fieldwork of this book also solicited the views of students — both local and international. As expected, both categories of students tend to stress less on the instrumentalist view that emphasizes recruitment of international students. Rather, they tend to reflect and emphasize the civilizational or cultural dimension of internationalization. They see internationalization as a process of cross-cultural mix that arises, thanks to the presence of international students and the mutual cultural learning arising from it. It is a process that provides opportunities to study in different countries and experience different cultures. As one Malaysian student argues, "[internationalization] is when other people (from other countries) come to study with us and live with us." Another student views internationalization as a process whereby we "communicate with people from other countries… people from different cultures come together and mix around." This would result in "mixing of cultures, understanding of other cultures" and "appreciating different cultures". This view is also shared by international students. This is aptly described by one student from China who said: internationalization is a process "(where) people of different cultures come together and share ideas, cultures and friendship."

PRACTICES OF INTERNATIONALIZATION

Representatives from various institutions interviewed indicated that their institutions have been actively involved in internationalization, with the pace becoming more intensified today than ever before. The group identified the drivers of internationalization as being the university top leadership, and at the faculty level, it is the deans and deputy deans together with departmental heads. In public universities, the vice-chancellor is the principal driver, assisted by a deputy vice-chancellor in charge of academic and international affairs. They in turn direct the faculty deans and heads of departments as well as the relevant centres to put into effect the internationalization programme. The centre in charge of graduate students is often one of the most active in pushing for internationalization, with some universities appointing a director in the centre to be specifically in charge of international students. In some

private university colleges, the executive director and the course director of certain programmes are the main drivers of internationalization for their institutions.

What has been the practice of internationalization carried out by these institutions? The practice can be seen as a two-part process: first, the process of directly dealing with foreign institutions to set up the programme, and second, the process of putting in place internal mechanisms to implement and sustain the programme. The first part normally involves signing a series of memorandum of understanding between local institutions with a number of foreign universities. Representatives of local institutions often go on road shows abroad to selected countries and organize exhibitions to promote study programmes in their institutions there. They also set up websites to advertise and promote their programmes so that they can easily be accessed by those interested. A lot of investment — planning, financial and human resources, time and effort, and of course, networking with relevant partners — is required to translate this into reality.

The experience of one Research University that has been involved for quite a long while in internationalization is pertinent. This university has formulated and put in place a well-thought out programme to get the most benefit out of internationalization. The director of the graduate students' management centre of this university whom this researcher interviewed indicated that his institution has been "very aggressive in the promotion exercise". For 2009 alone, his university has sent promotional missions to twenty-two countries in five different regions; the latter includes Southeast Asia (Indonesia and Brunei), the Middle East, Central Asia, Balkan states, and Africa (including the West Coast of the continent). As of July 2009 when the first semester for session 2009/2010 began, this university had 7,900 postgraduate students, of which there were 1,746 (or 22.1 per cent) international students. As part of its mission as a research university, this university will be scaling down the intake of undergraduates from the present 16,500 (5 per cent of whom consist of international students from Indonesia and China) to 15,000 by 2015, while the number of postgraduate students will be increased from the current number of 8,000 to 15,000 by the same year, thereby maintaining a ratio of 1:1. There is no fixed quota for international students, but this university hopes to eventually have 40 per cent of its postgraduates consisting of international students.

According to the director interviewed, what is important to ensure that the internationalization programme achieves the desired results is not to leave its overseas marketing to agents (in fact, they are rather cautious about the latter). He feared that some of these agents, in the interest of getting higher

commission for themselves, tend to "oversell" the university's programmes, resulting in false hopes and promises. What his university has done is to undertake overseas promotion trips directly, by relying on their own staff with representatives from faculties and institutes joining the team. To ensure they could meet with the right authorities, they normally make use of the services of an experienced event management company to touch base with the relevant ministries or agencies in the countries to be visited. This event management company would contact the relevant authorities such as the ministry of education in the receiving country and make appointments for the Malaysian team to visit and conduct briefings and road shows there. The director said that based on his university's experience, this approach is more systematic and targeted, and has yielded better results in terms of getting students that fulfil the criteria.

In focus group discussions with the academic staff, the latter tend to highlight the usual practice of internationalization by public universities, that is, by having visiting scholars from various disciplines and universities abroad such as those from Europe, the United States, Australia, Japan, and other countries to the university. These scholars may come for a short stint of a few weeks while others may have a longer sojourn of six months to a year. They drew attention to a number of professorial chairs set up in established public universities that are often filled by leading scholars from abroad for certain duration. These scholars are often required to deliver public lectures, lead collaborative research projects, give seminars to the faculty and students, and generally interact with the staff and students to share their knowledge and experience. Those involved in the focus group discussions regard this practice as highly useful and necessary not only to raise the profile of the university, but to enrich the experience and knowledge of the university community, especially staff and students.

Another level of the practice of internationalization is the recruitment of international students. The normal process is that intending students apply while they are still in their home countries. Only when their application has been accepted, can they proceed to apply for the student visa and come to Malaysia to undertake their study. While this is the normal practice, students from neighbouring countries are more innovative. Having friends who are already registered as students in the respective institutions in Malaysia is a window for them to know and make choices regarding where to study. What happens sometimes is that the students who are already studying in this country would bring along their friends and visit the respective faculties or institutes to find out more about the programmes and at the same time, solicit for potential supervisors. This is the practice adopted by many postgraduate

students from nearby countries such as Indonesia. In fact, one of the most effective ways to promote the internationalization programme of any institution is through the alumni, i.e. graduates who have completed their studies in the institution who will recommend it to their friends.

Another form of internationalization that a number of institutions practise is through the staff and student exchange programme. As explained by the informants, selected lecturers from their institutions are sent abroad on sabbatical to selected institutions or centres to undertake research and write their monograph. While there, the lecturers are expected to interact with the faculty members and present seminars as stipulated by the host. This is not just a one-way process. While the experience gives the necessary exposure to the staff concerned, at the same time, the host institution and its students also get to know about Malaysian universities and culture through the presence of Malaysian visiting scholars.

Graduate students from Malaysian universities are also sent abroad on the exchange programme. As this is part of their international exposure and academic training in research and seminar presentation, they are advised to contact scholars at the host institution who will act as their mentors. These students are often recipients of small fellowships from sending institutions. They are also cases of students receiving fellowships from the host institutions for a short period while they are doing research there. This kind of exchange provides a very good exposure for students to gain intellectual and social maturity. To provide exposure at an international level to graduate students, many universities provide funding for their graduate students to present papers at international conferences at least once during their period of study. In order to attract international students, 30 per cent of the funding in the form of fellowships, is allocated to them.

CHALLENGES TO INTERNATIONALIZING HIGHER EDUCATION

As a whole, we can say that the attitude towards internationalization across the board — administrators, academics and students in both public and private institutions of higher learning — seems to be positive, although their practices may vary. They regard internationalization not only important but necessary because as a process, internationalization is here to stay, and is seen as providing an opportunity for the university to be part of the international network, while for faculty it is to share experience and knowledge beyond national borders through having visiting scholars as well as having international students. The presence of the latter is seen as positive

as it gives opportunities for local students to mingle with them, practise the English language, conduct intercultural communication, improve skills especially communication skills, learn about other countries, and generally experience cultural diversity. However, informants from all categories do feel there are a number of challenges that need to be addressed effectively for internationalization to achieve its stated objectives. They feel that there are tensions and contestations in the implementation of this programme, and in participating in it.

In this section, we will analyse some of the key challenges with regard to the experience of informants with internationalization, and the practice of internationalization by the respective institutions of higher learning. For analytical purposes, these challenges are presented based on the perspectives of four categories of informants in both public and private institutions of higher learning, namely administrators, academics, local students, and international students. Some of the challenges are perceived in common, for example, by both administrators and academics, but they will be placed under the relevant category of informants based on the latter's immediate official responsibility.

Challenges Perceived by Administrators

In general, administrators perceive four main types of challenges that they need to address in order to expedite internationalization of their institutions. First is how to attract more international students into their campuses in order to meet their target or key performance indicators (KPIs). This is worrying to many of them as the exercise is becoming more and more competitive. For public institutions especially research universities, they see this as a big challenge because of university ranking. For private institutions on the other hand, this is the issue of the bottom line, a question of survival. In fact, some of the informants from private institutions feel that there are too many players in the industry, but they appear rather sceptical and non-receptive to the proposal from the Ministry of Higher Education to rationalize and merge smaller institutions into larger ones. They agree that dormant institutions should not have their licence renewed, but they maintain that Malaysia still needs small institutions especially to cater to those in small towns.

Second is how to provide enough facilities and cater to the legitimate needs of these students not only in terms of academic programme but also in terms of accommodation, counselling, socialization, and general welfare. This challenge is most felt by smaller institutions in the private sector especially those with serious financial, human resource, technical and space constraints.

They are not alone in feeling the pressure. Even established public universities face a number of constraints especially in terms of facilities, and also the lack of experienced staff to help manage international students. While they can improve on facilities, the lack of experienced staff with the right attitude and frame of mind towards international students as well as the necessary social skills is still an issue.

Third is the challenge of how to ensure international students comply with their visa requirements and complete their study. This is an important issue because an increasing number of international students have reportedly abused their student visa either by overstaying or by using it as a means to seek employment. The informants stressed that institutions must be vigilant and monitor these students who come not to study but instead they abuse their student visa to undertake part-time jobs and use this country as a stepping stone for something else. They said that students should be made more aware and to abide strictly by the government's ruling that they can only work part-time for duration of twenty hours a week during holidays and in certain sectors only.

The fourth challenge is related to the third, that is, how to ensure that international students do not get involved in crimes and other undesirable activities, and the negative public perception arising from this. Many informants in various categories interviewed in this study raised this question, pointing to news reports that a number of international students have been involved in crimes especially drug abuse, prostitution, and other social problems. Reports about some of these students getting caught for crimes including drug abuse or involved in social problems whereby some of the female students were even involved in prostitution, have had an impact upon many of them. Indeed the issue of some international students especially from Africa being involved with social problems and crimes has hit the headlines in the Malaysian media. Of late, public views seem to have hardened especially towards African students. The leading Malay newspaper, *Utusan Malaysia* has been rather virulent on this subject. In one of its issues, it ran a report with the title "Kaji semula kemasukan pelajar Afrika" (Review the entry of African students) (*Utusan Malaysia*, 11 February 2010 p. 14) in which it said that "the entry of foreign students especially those from Africa should be reviewed because a number of them were involved in drug cases and were also rude." Another report in the same paper quoted the Director of Enforcement and Security Division of the National Anti-Narcotics Agency who wanted international students to be screened at all entry points by means of conducting urine test to weed out those involved in drug abuse. Nevertheless, our informants are fairly level-headed about the issue. They

suggested that to address this problem, international students should be made to follow an introductory course on Malaysian culture and laws so as to avoid cultural shock, prevent crimes and at the same time, to help them adjust better to the Malaysian way of life.

Challenges Perceived by Academics

In general, academics are warm and open to receiving international students, and feel that their presence helps to diversify the campus and also open up spaces for healthy competition with local students, while contributing towards opening up the minds of local students to other countries and cultures. However, they feel that a number of challenges need to be addressed effectively so that internationalization becomes beneficial to institutions of higher learning and to the country.

First is about getting quality students from overseas. This view is expressed not only by informants from public universities but also by those from private institutions. The informants concede that the respective institutions have identified and come out with a register of recognized overseas universities or colleges from where international students can and should be recruited. Road shows are held at some of these institutions and memoranda of understanding have been signed. So far, the sending countries are from regions such as the Middle East, various parts of Africa, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and East Asia. Generally, of the foreign students, those from Indonesia, Iraq and Iran constitute the top three largest groups. In some institutions such as Universiti Putra Malaysia, they have a large number of students from the Middle East, namely from Iran with over 600 students. Indeed to cater to the socio-cultural needs of these students, a number of the institutions even allow foreign food outlets such as restaurants, especially those catering Middle Eastern food, to be opened in the university campus or in the vicinity.

International students come to Malaysian public universities to do their Masters and PhD degrees although a certain number undertake undergraduate or diploma courses. The specific concern is with those undertaking higher degrees. The courses and thesis are in English, but the level of English proficiency of many of these students is far from satisfactory. According to a group of lecturers from one research university: "You sometimes can't even understand what they are talking about [or what they write]…. So how can they really write a good thesis with poor command of English?"

The experience in other universities seems to be similar. One lecturer in an established public university with a lot of international students from the Middle East stated that his experience with international students has

been varied. There are good students from abroad, especially those from English-speaking countries, as well as there are weak ones. What worries him is that "In the craze to get international students, the university authorities sometimes bend backwards and are prepared to bend the rules" be they academic, class attendance, dress code and so on. To him this would create problems in the long run for the image of the university, especially with respect to standards.

However, our informants also caution that we should not generalize and adopt a one-sided view on this. One senior academic from an established private university informed the researcher that although his university does not have many international students, those who are there "seem to assimilate well", and that some of these students speak far better English than many local students. According to him, the president of his university's students union (at the time of the study) was a female student from Kashmir, and she is well respected by both local and international students.

Second is ensuring the effectiveness of the screening mechanism and remedial classes. While the informants take note that universities do undertake screening of international students and only recruit those from recognized foreign universities, their concern is the effectiveness and rigour of the screening process. Although the entry requirement is that international students intending to follow postgraduate programme conducted in English must attain a minimum score of 550 for TOEFL or a band 5 for IELTS, many of these students do not sit for either of these two examinations. So to overcome it, some universities offer remedial classes in English — the English Language Proficiency Module — conducted over one semester with 168 contact hours, and students have to pay an additional fee over and above the university admission fee. For this module, the students are required to pass a minimum of Band 3, but some faculties insist on a higher band. Undoubtedly some universities conduct this programme more effectively than others.

While this programme is good, a number of the academics interviewed feel that the effectiveness of these classes needs to be regularly assessed to achieve the desired results. Admittedly monitoring is being done, and a number of students have been expelled because of poor performance, among others, due to poor command of English. But the crux of the problem, that is, bringing in qualified international students, remains a nagging issue. The lecturers in the focus group discussions said they are aware universities are under tremendous pressure as they are subject to world ranking, and one of the important ranking criteria is the proportion of international students and lecturers. However, they worry if the university continues to go for numbers,

it might improve its ranking, but it will not get quality students and this will tarnish the reputation of the university and of Malaysia.

Sensitive to this problem, some universities after having had tough experience implementing remedial English classes, have decided to do away with it, sticking only to the minimum entry requirements of 550 for TOEFL or 6.00 for IELTS. After having instituted this, they claimed there are fewer complaints from lecturers, but they face the problem of prospective students turning away to other universities that practise more flexible entry requirements. Here, obviously, the policy of minimum entry requirement for English has not been standardized between universities.

Third, the question of facilities for international students and lecturers has to be addressed seriously. Many informants feel that currently the facilities in various institutions are not yet sufficiently in place for this purpose. The problem of student accommodation on campus is an issue, just as their accommodation outside. At the same time, while an international students' centre with all the necessary facilities for recreation, getting together, and so on is absolutely necessary, it is not yet available in many universities. In some campuses, the graduate studies complex is quite physically isolated while campus transportation needs to be more student-friendly in terms of frequency of services. Students also need facilities on campus for making local and international calls, thus the provision of more phone booths with facilities for international direct dialling (IDD) — properly located in the campus — will be a great help. Many international students have complained about this, and feel that their needs have not been properly addressed. Some of these issues have been addressed by universities, especially research universities that are better endowed financially. They have addressed this problem by setting up an international student house which serves as a centre for international student activities. At the same time, other facilities such as an auditorium for international activities are also in the pipeline. All these are a welcome development by the students.

Fourth, there is the challenge in terms of the understanding of university lecturers at various levels and in different faculties regarding internationalization and their readiness to participate in it. The informants are generally uneasy about this issue as the lecturers' understanding and involvement in internationalization may not be up to the level required. If they do not really understand and appreciate its significance, their commitment to and readiness to participate may not be that strong. Many informants regard participation in international seminars and conferences as part of internationalization, as this will help strengthen understanding and lecturers' commitment to internationalization. But universities are often constrained by funding, thus

each lecturer will be allocated funding for only one international conference per year. The faculties in some universities, especially younger universities have not had the experience of organizing international conferences; they do organize university-level, national and regional seminars. Although this is a good step, internationalization requires them to have these seminars at the international level too. One of the challenges for them therefore is to restrategize and plan for international level events so that they can contribute towards profiling their institutions among international scholars and also allow more local lecturers to participate and present papers at an international forum.

Fifth relates to the challenge of how education should be viewed: as a public good or as a commodity for sale? The view that education is a commodity is quite prevalent. One administrator from a private university regards internationalizing higher education to mean "commercializing education" and justifies this it by saying that when we do that "we actually tend to cater to the needs of international students". Many informants especially from public universities are concerned that Malaysian higher education and public universities are being trapped in the same game as profit-driven education institutions, that is, the game of "the bottom line" or profit. To them, this is not good for Malaysia because this deviates from the philosophy of education.

Challenges Perceived by Local Students

Local students in the main are also receptive to internationalization and welcome international students. However, they point out to two challenges that are uppermost in their minds.

First, internationalization should be a win-win exercise for both local and international students. The local students interviewed feel rather strongly that it should not be at their expense, be it in terms of financial allocation (such as grants for research and conferences) and also the language of instruction. A number of local students in a research university complain that to accommodate international students, teaching even at the undergraduate level is conducted in English, thereby relegating the use of Malay, the national language, to a secondary position. While acknowledging the importance of English, they feel the university should not undermine the use of Malay. They also feel that teaching in English will affect students who are weak in it, especially those from rural areas.

Second, the question of limited interactions among students. A number of local students interviewed point out to the limited intercultural mixing all round, stating that even among Malaysian students, they do not mix freely

among those of different ethnic and religious backgrounds despite being from the same country. They agree that internationalization is to facilitate the cross-cultural flows and mixing between local and international students, but such interactions are limited, confined only to a few cosmopolitan ones. They point out to the unease among some local students towards international students from certain countries, due partly to ignorance and to prejudices which had been made worse no thanks to the moral panic generated by both the print and electronic media. They feel that university authorities should do more to promote genuine intercultural understanding and mixing so that internationalization brings benefits to all students irrespective of their origins and colour.

Challenges Perceived by International Students

The challenges perceived and articulated by international students are varied, ranging from access to facilities, homesickness, and financial problems to benefits from the programme. Of these challenges, three will be highlighted for further discussion.

First, how to ensure the benefits of an internationalization programme are not soured by shoddy programmes. This is a question of a few bad apples spoiling the whole lot in the applecart. Several international students interviewed agree their course of study is worthwhile and beneficial, that they are getting the best from the institutions they have enrolled in. However, there are those who are disillusioned with the programme, with some going so far to say that "we feel short-changed", and that "we're not getting our money's worth". They point out to some instances whereby the programme offered is not what was advertised or what they had wanted, and that some lecturers were not well prepared and have problems of communication.

Second, addressing the tension between official acceptance on one hand and social distancing on the other. This is the dilemma faced by not a few international students, although the degree varies depending on their nationality. The students lament that while they are accepted as international students, some of them especially those from Africa, feel that social distancing is being practised by other students, some lecturers as well as administrative and support staff. Outside of campus, they feel that social distancing is being maintained by the locals on the street and in the neighbourhood. In the words of one African student, "I do feel it. I come here to study, but I feel I'm not fully accepted…there's a distance maintained." Another student agreed, saying that, "I like Malaysia, but you know these things make you unhappy."

Third, the question of how far they can achieve the objectives of an international education they have come for. International students interviewed agree that internationalization is positive and will bring benefit, but there are tensions and contradictions that undermine these objectives. These tensions and contradictions need to be understood and addressed by various stakeholders so that the study environment is more conducive. This issue relates to the readiness of local institutions in receiving and engaging with international students, and also to the preparedness of the latter in going through an international programme.

In summary, it can be said that different stakeholders seem to have different perceptions and perspectives regarding the challenges in internationalizing higher education. This is to be expected as they have different expectations and interests. It is to be expected that administrators emphasize numbers because their institution's success or selling point is often predicated upon this, while academics emphasize quality because they are the ones having to engage with the students in their teaching and learning. Local students on their part do not want their interests jeopardized by the presence of foreign students while the latter want value for their money. Nevertheless, despite having different priorities and emphases depending on their expectations and interests, what is important to highlight is that all the stakeholders interviewed agree with internationalization and its benefits to higher education and to the promotion of intercultural understanding.

CONCLUSION: PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

The micro perspectives reported in this chapter has found a number of interesting issues and questions regarding internationalization and that it has a complexity of its own that should not be underestimated. It has also shown that the various institutions in this study regard internationalization in Malaysia is here to stay, and the future seems to be to pursue along this route. Due to this, the management and staff of the academic institutions have to be more committed and ready to participate in it, and their participation should strive towards achieving "international" standards.

However, in the quest for internationalization, the nagging question remains: Are we going after quantity and the bottom line at the expense of quality? In the numbers game and the demands of the KPIs, have these institutions and their management wittingly or unwittingly become enthralled with numbers that will improve the university ranking on various international ranking surveys? These are some of the nagging questions that are often discussed among the faculty members when they are confronted with the

problems and prospects of internationalizing higher education as it is being practiced today, especially in top public universities.

The fact that Malaysia is not getting students from the developed countries is a point to seriously consider about the nature of Malaysia's engagement with internationalizing higher education thus far. It means that at the present stage, Malaysian educational institutions are not on the radar screen as places of study for higher degrees among these students except to come for a holiday programme to study the Malay language as well as learn and experience Malay/Malaysian culture, or those who come as non-graduating students to undertake their research fieldwork here.

One of the main concerns is the qualification in, and mastery of the English language. As many international students do not sit for TOEFL and IELTS, home-designed programmes known as the English Language Proficiency Module to improve oral communication, academic writing and academic reading in English such as the one offered by some top Malaysian universities should be strengthened. While the impact of this programme is positive, the duration of the module should be reviewed as having it only for one semester with 168 contact hours is not enough. The course duration should be extended as language proficiency requires continuous learning and practice. It is felt that a proper transition programme should be worked to integrate and assimilate international students in the local milieu. This includes social programmes as well as courses on Malaysian culture and laws.

Internationalization should serve our needs, that is, to make our education system more competitive. Universities should thus focus on the "higher end" of internationalization that is to raise quality through "the brain gain". The approach of getting more experienced and well-known scholars from abroad as visiting scholars and professors or as part of the faculty is in line with this. Similarly, sending Malaysian scholars abroad especially to established foreign universities for further training or sabbatical is also positive as it contributes towards capacity building which in the long run will strengthen the critical mass of academic staff for the university's advancement. The student mobility programme which enables Malaysian students to be sent abroad for industrial attachment or exposure is certainly very useful and should be extended further so that more could benefit from it.

One of the added values of internationalization is the cross-cultural mix and interaction among staff and students. This will foster better understanding about each other and is very useful in the long term in building better relations between countries. However, the mixing sometimes does not take place unless special attention is paid to this.

Indeed, the findings in this chapter show that it is true there is no firm meaning attached to the idea of internationalization as yet. But this should not be a big issue so long as internationalization does not continue to be a "cherry-picking exercise", but rather an exercise that adds academic and socio-cultural value to the institutions concerned and to Malaysia as a whole. In brief, for internationalization to succeed and meet its objectives, it requires imagination, proper planning, sufficient financial and other investment, and above all, effective and visionary leadership. Addressing the above challenges effectively and in a wholesome manner is urgent and should be high on the agenda of various institutions, especially top public universities in Malaysia.

List of Interviewees

Over sixty selected administrators, lecturers and students from the following institutions:

- Kuala Lumpur Infrastructure University College (KLIUC)
- SAITO College
- Sunway University College
- Universiti Islam Antarabangsa Malaysia (UIA / IIUM)
- Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM)
- Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS)
- Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)
- Universiti Tun Abdul Razak (UNITAR)
- WIT College

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7

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Tham Siew Yean

DIVERSITIES AND SIMILARITIES

Before summarizing the main findings in this book, some caveats are in order. In general it is quite difficult to conduct surveys and collect primary data in Malaysia as respondents are by and large, wary of the motivations behind such surveys. We have followed up each of the survey respondent for focus groups (FG) discussions but given the general reluctance, these discussions are in the end based on individual respondent's willingness to respond. Overall, the small sample size of our survey has limited us from conducting more statistical testing. Further, while the findings reveal certain interesting aspects of internationalization, it may not have captured all aspects, given the very complex nature of the phenomenon as shown in Chapter 2.

Bearing these caveats in mind, the main findings show that while the top management of each institution, as represented by those who responded to the survey instrument, appear to have a more comprehensive understanding of internationalization, focus group discussions display a rich diversity of understanding. This diversity is not dichotomous in nature. Instead, it lies in a continuum from a strictly instrumentalist view to a broader and more comprehensive view of internationalization. In the case of the former, internationalization is seen as a means for generating more revenue while the

latter view envisages internationalization as a means for enhancing the academic standing of a university as a centre of learning and knowledge creation.

In terms of practices, there is a strong association of internationalization with various types of mobility such as students, programmes and faculty mobility. This may be expressed in terms of curriculum design such as having an international/intercultural dimension in the curriculum as well as cross-institutional agreements and the recruitment of international students. Staff mobility is viewed in terms of two way exchanges of faculty members and the establishment of professorial chairs to draw in world renowned scholars for collaborative research, exposure, and learning purposes.

As for the challenges faced in internationalization, the views of management seems to concur and focus more on managing internationalization as a process such as competing priorities for time and resources, staff experience, financial support at the national level and the management of international students. At the micro level, the challenges tend to focus on the management of international students as exemplified by recurring expressions of concerns over a myriad of issues associated with international students, ranging from their recruitment to graduation. This is not surprising as the stakeholders at the micro level have to contend with the realities and problems pertaining to the implementation of top-down driven directives to internationalize, especially in terms of bringing in more international students.

There are also some key commonalities in the findings that need to be highlighted. First, there is an emphatic agreement that internationalization is necessary and it is here to stay. While this is not surprising at the management level, respondents at the micro level also seem to agree with this even when they are concerned with the challenges raised by internationalization. Secondly, all agree that there are huge challenges ahead and managing internationalization is a prerogative.

POLICY ISSUES

In July 2011, the government unveiled its operational policy for internationalization (MOHE 2011). As stated in the document, the objective of the policy is to accelerate the inflows of international students to 150,000 by 2015 and further to 200,000 by 2020. Given the stated target and the findings in this book, the greatest challenge is managing international students at both the macro and micro levels.

At the macro level, both public and private HEIs in the country are actively competing for these students. Let us consider first the global market

for international students. While projections on the growth of international students indicate an annual growth rate of around 6 per cent, with the numbers estimated to increase from around two million in 2000 to around seven million in 2025, Ruby (2009) provides some cautionary notes on such projections. These projections may well have to be adjusted downwards as countries increase their domestic provisions and the quality of their higher education, in an attempt to absorb the demand growth in their respective countries. Economic recessions and demographic changes are other factors that may add further dents to the movement of students across borders. On the other hand, the economic rise of big countries such as China and India are expected to increase the number of middle income households in these two countries, thereby adding to the expected growth in effective demand. Ruby concludes that the projected growth in international students is in the end speculative as comparable data across countries is lacking while factors influencing student choices need greater study.

Nevertheless, the potential growth of the international student market continues to cast its alluring spell on all providers. Consequently, there are a number of aspiring education hubs in the world, particularly in the Middle East and Asia (Becker 2009, p. 14). There are five hubs in the UAE alone where a large number of branch campuses are located. Hubs in Asia include Singapore, Malaysia while South Korea has recently joined the race for education hubs in the Incheon Free Economic Zone. Australia, a leading exporter of higher education is also building a hub in South Australia, called "University City". Analysis on the transnational hubs in the Gulf indicates the need for international students to sustain and develop these hubs as local demand is limited by their population size (OBHE 2007, p. 4). Notably, participating institutions will need to attract students not just from the Gulf region itself alone, but also from the entire Middle Eastern market and beyond. These hubs indicate substantial competition for international students from outside Malaysia.

In the face of such intense competition from inside and outside the country, the recruitment of international students has to ensure that quality is not sacrificed for the sake of quantitative targets. The current cost advantage, especially at the undergraduate level, can be bolstered by ensuring a positive learning experience, including academic content and delivery, facilities and amenities, as well as a warm and caring host environment.

In terms of academic content and delivery, quality assurance is of prime importance as it contributes towards the branding and reputation of the higher education sector and branding and reputation is an important component of the "pull" factors that attracts international students to study outside

their home countries (Ruby 2009, p. 10). At the undergraduate level, the current comparative advantage is based on the affordability of transnational programmes that are conducted by local twinning or franchise partners. For local home grown programmes that are also accredited by MQA, the greatest challenge is to ensure that these programmes have international recognition as well. MQA is currently a member of several international networks for quality assurance agencies in higher education such as the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE), ASEAN Quality Assurance Network (AQAN), Asia-Pacific Quality Network (APQN) and the Association of Quality Assurance of the Islamic World (AQAAIW). It is important for MQA to strengthen these ties as well as cultivate new ones that can facilitate the recognition of Malaysia's accredited programmes. At the government to government level, mutual recognition agreements can also be used to facilitate the recognition of programmes accredited by MQA. Increased recognition of accredited programmes in the country can boost the attractiveness of these programmes to international students. While this is recognized in the MOHE 2011 policy guidelines, an accelerated implementation of this suggestion is vital if the targets are to be met.

At the postgraduate level, government financial support is critical to build up national research capacity and the reputation of domestic providers. This is clearly demonstrated in Horta (2009), where it is shown that public funding and support is used to enable prominent national universities to compete at a global level as global ranking is based on research. Financial resources are needed to enhance the research capacity of universities because the internationalization of academic staff is shown to be strongly and positively associated with the internationalization of student population which is in turn is used to support the research activities of a university. The availability of financial means is closely linked with the implementation of internationalization, with special programmes and priorities playing the role of steering instruments (van der Wende 1996, p. 249). For example, financial support is needed to attract renowned scholars and professors to Malaysia. This strategy is also used in other neighbouring countries to improve the ranking of their universities. At the same time, the provision of scholarships as well research assistantships can be used to draw students from both the developing and developed world to Malaysia.

The demand for postgraduate studies in Malaysia can be further strengthened by a concerted effort to develop and strengthen research niches that can attract researchers to the country, as for example, in Malay, Malaysian, Southeast Asian, and ASEAN studies, ethnicity and diversity, halal markets, Islamic finance in the social sciences, and biodiversity in the sciences. Research

niches provide the branding and reputation elements for postgraduate studies in Malaysia. Other policy considerations include the provision of work permits for outstanding doctoral students who have completed their studies in fields that can contribute toward the development goals of Malaysia.

The recently released internationalization policy of the government has stated policy support towards attracting more outstanding graduate students to Malaysia through the provision of research assistantships, scholarships, and research grants (MOHE 2011). The same document also suggests awarding special immigration residential privileges after graduation to outstanding international students for employment purposes. Again, implementation is the key in order for this to contribute effectively towards realizing the stated targets for international students in the country.

In terms of institutional integrity, while the establishment of MQA has provided students with some measure of quality of assurance, the sheer number of higher education institutions in the country makes monitoring a challenge. As noted by Tham (2010, p. 116), while MOHE is constantly devising ways to improve the delivery system, it faces domestic capacity constraints in terms of monitoring the large number of PrHEs and PuHEIs that have evolved over time. Although the large numbers of providers have improved access, it also faces monitoring problems. Rationalizing the number of providers will reduce the monitoring burden of the government as well as create stronger domestic providers that are able to compete with foreign providers on home ground and abroad. There are signs that the monitoring system is getting more stringent with reportedly 47 fines imposed on PrHEIs from January to March 2011, compared to 48 fines for the whole of 2010 and a mere nine for 2009 (Liz Gooch 2011). These fines are imposed for a range of infractions, including violating registration regulations to offering unaccredited courses. Strengthening the monitoring system is definitely a move in the right direction for safeguarding the institutional integrity of MQA and the reputation of Malaysia's providers.

In terms of the management of international students, both public and private HEIs can benefit from government assistance in terms of credential evaluation from other countries, harmonizing minimum standards for entry, including English language proficiency and reducing bureaucracy associated with inflows and outflows of students.

At the micro level, HEIs have to prepare their academic staff and local students for effective pastoral care of these students and to minimize the different forms of social distancing as expressed in Chapter 6. It is pertinent to learn from the experience of Malaysian students studying abroad where many developed warm ties and memories of their overseas educational experience

through the foster family system that is used in numerous universities in countries such as the United States and the United Kingdom for taking care of the emotional needs of their international students. While the proposed Code of Practice in the recently released policy guidelines for internationalization (MOHE 2011) may provide best practices for providers in the management and administration of international students, it may not have the necessary clout for compliance unless both carrots and sticks are provided to ensure its implementation.

An increasing number of Malaysian providers are also venturing overseas to enhance their market share, especially in less developed countries. Not all developing countries have a quality assurance system in place to evaluate the quality and to accredit transnational programmes as found in Malaysia. If the host country does not provide these prudential regulations, it is crucial that Malaysian providers venturing overseas are regulated from the Malaysian side, namely HEIs can export or conduct only accredited Malaysian programmes to preserve Malaysia's reputation. Currently, there is little regulatory control over this as it lies outside the jurisdiction of the regulatory authority.

Policy imperatives for internationalization in Malaysia appear to be very much centred on economic rationales as explained in the introductory chapter. However at a deeper level, there is also a search for excellence whereby excellence cannot be defined within the confines of a local context alone. After all, higher education in Malaysia has already moved beyond its earlier phases of institution building, expansion and consolidation to its present day globalization phase (Zaini Ujang 2009, p. 27). This phase is tied to the economic and international realities of the country as economically, Malaysia is one of the most globalized countries in the world in terms of flows of both goods and factors of production such as capital and labour. As noted by Kälvemark and van der Wende (1997, p. 268), a real internationalization of universities should reflect the wider internationalization policies of a country. A globalized Malaysia requires the country to be able to compete at the global level. Similarly, the evolution of higher education has come to a stage whereby it also has to be able to compete at an international level. Herein lies the main rationale for the internationalization of higher education in the country: the higher education sector has to support a country that has been and continues to be open to the external world due to its relatively small size. The internationalization of higher education will therefore serve not just the economic needs of the country but it will also need and support an open-minded society that is necessary for an outwardly-oriented and culturally diverse nation.

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