CORE PROGRAM REPORT

# Creating a Hub for Import / Export of the Educational System

## – Exploring the Possibility of Keihanna, an International Educational City –

International Institute for Advanced Studies

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In recent years, the international expansion of higher education institutions around the world has been remarkable, mainly in Europe and North America. In addition to accepting students from foreign countries, the institutions also acquire students by establishing branch campuses and cooperating with partner institutions in host countries. In these arrangements called transnational higher education, many students nowadays are taking courses abroad without traveling abroad. While countries where the providing universities are located can expect additional revenue by the education service export, host countries, where branch campuses or affiliated schools are located, can attract world-class universities at relatively low cost. Japan has lagged behind in this trend of transnational higher education. Although some pioneering projects exist, they depend heavily on Japanese government subsidies. Since 2004, however, several Japanese universities have taken on new challenges to achieve commercially profitable international expansion, and are entering the second phase of Japan's transnational higher education.

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In the Emirate of Dubai, located in the United Arab Emirates, branch campuses of 25 foreign universities(International Branch Campuses; IBCs) are deployed as of 2019. These were considered to have developed under the market principle in the free zone where economic regulations were relaxed, and therefore, there were many discussions that showed concerns about the substantial education, research environment, and continuity. However, since the latter half of the 2000s, the system related to the administrative operation of IBCs and quality assurance has been improved, and the movement to establish or reorganize IBCs has now settled. As a result, the focus of related research is on "understanding individual phenomena related to IBCs " Of course, from the point of view of the main campuses and the home country, maintaining the equality and prestige between the main campuses and the branch campuses is still an important issue. However, from the point of view of the host country, it is also important to deepen the understanding of the IBCs in line with the individual actors surrounding them, in that "how IBCs are integrated into its own society and system" is also important.

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The purpose of this paper is to outline the educational system in India. India, with a population of more than 1,300,000,000, has been experiencing remarkable economic growth in recent years, and the quantitative expansion of education, particularly in the compulsory education stage, is progressing. India, on the other hand, has a federal system, and each state is in principle responsible for education. However, one of the characteristics there is that the central government is also taking various measures, such as the promulgation of the National Curriculum Framework. As of May 2020, under the leadership of Prime Minister Narendra Modi, India is aiming at establishing "National Education Policy (Draft) for 2019." It is expected to be the first major educational reform in about 30 years.

# Introduction

**Shigeru Takami**[i]

**Notice:** *The English in this report was machine translated from the original Japanese before undergoing post-editing by human translators. In the event of any discrepancies between this translated document and the Japanese original, the Japanese original shall prevail.*

Vice Director of International Institute for Advanced Studies, President of Kyoto Koka Women's University, Specially Appointed Professor of Center for the Promotion of Interdisciplinary Education and Research,Kyoto University[i]

**Introduction**

This chapter introduces the concept underlying the theme of “Creating a Hub for Import / Export of the Educational System: Exploring the Possibility of Keihanna, an International Educational City” and outlines the objectives of this study and this report.

**1. Role of education in the community**

There are various roles in education, but the primary one is human resource development. It is an important role of education to develop human resources who support local industries or the whole country.

From the point of view of locality, the activities by students and teachers in local areas lead to the maintenance of population. In other words, education plays a second role in preventing depopulation in local areas.

As a third role, there is a view that education is regarded as an industry. By gathering people from home and abroad to live, consumption in room and board, meals, and shopping, etc. is promoted, and the local economy is revitalized. Education as an industry has pluralistic meanings and is an important viewpoint in considering the possibility of education in regions.

**2. Education as an export industry**

Considering the role of education especially as an export industry, it has two meanings. One is to contribute to the continuing current account surplus, and the other is to contribute to the development of human resources in developing countries through the export of Japanese-style education systems.

**2-1. Change in Japan's Current Account Balance**

The current account balance, which is one of the standards of each country's international balance of payments, consists of the trade balance, the service balance, the primary income balance, and the secondary income balance. A country’s trade balance represents the value of its exports minus its imports, and service balance represents its exports of services minus imports of services. A nation’s primary income balance represents the revenues from external direct investment and securities investment, and its secondary income balance represents assistance in kind such as pharmaceuticals among official development assistance.

Japan's current account surplus decreased over the next three years due to the large trade deficit in fiscal 2011. However, Japan’s current account balance has been on the rise since December 2016. However, it is clear that the COVID-19 pandemic will have an impact not only on Japan but also on the world after fiscal 2020. The impact has already begun to be seen as of early summer 2020.

The contribution of the primary income balance is large in maintaining the surplus after 2011. This period can be regarded as a period of structural change in Japan's current account balance, from the stage where both the trade balance and the primary income balance were in the black to the stage where trade balance in the red and the primary income balance in the black. Japan, like the United Kingdom in the past, may be approaching the age where it lives on investment and its dividends to the world.

It is important for Japan to maintain its current account surplus over the long term for its fiscal soundness. Therefore, I would like to pay attention to the service balance, which has remained in deficit. This is because the service balance can be a stabilizer for the continuation of the current account surplus.

**2-2 Impact of Education on Services Balance**

The service balance represents the balance of expenses related to transportation, travel, finance, use of intellectual property rights, etc. In recent years, the service balance deficit has been on the decline. One of the main reasons for this is the increase in revenue due to the increase in the number of foreign tourists. I can tell the increase in foreign tourists when I see them in Kyoto and Osaka when I commute to work.

How does this service balance relate to education? The acceptance of international students is similar to the acceptance of foreign tourists. In other words, Japan receives their tuition and living expenses. It may also help revitalize local communities. They send back people with knowledge and experience. There are an exporting country (Japan) and importing countries (countries of origin of foreign students) through the service of education. We can think of one trade model like that. Furthermore, as an additional value that is different from simply accepting foreign tourists, we cannot miss the advantage of sending overseas personnel who have affinity for Japan as international students will be familiar with Japanese-style education.

In recent years, the idea that education is the dominant tool in service trade has been spreading. In particular, the United States, the United Kingdom, France, and Australia are strategically trying to attract international students, as the acceptance of the students contributes to the increase of the service balance. Australia, in particular, is very aggressive. It supports international students enthusiastically until they get a job. The United States is said to make an income comparable to that in ICT export in the education industry. As a trend in recent years, it is remarkable in Asia, especially in Malaysia. Some countries have implemented so-called intermediate trade including exporting countries, transit countries, and importing countries, in education and have gained benefits.

**2-3. Characteristics of Japanese-style education system**

How is the education in Japan evaluated at home and abroad? To take an example, it is highly evaluated overall in the interim report of the OECD Education Policy Review, published in July 2017. According to a result of international comparison based on the PISA2015 survey and others, both students and adults achieved top-class performances, and the quality and leadership of teaches were highly evaluated. The fact that Japanese school education takes a holistic approach in which not only subjects but also a wide range of activities are involved is evaluated. In addition, parents' active cooperation and local learning support that enable such approach are appreciated.

Holistic education is considered as one of the factors contributing to the success of education in Japan. The concrete contents of that education are activities related to school life, such as school lunch, cleaning, and day duty, and so-called special education activities, such as class meetings, athletic meets, club activities, disaster drills, and student guidance. As a result, I believe that this kind of holistic education, including extracurricular education, has led to the spirit of respect for discipline and courtesy and the realization of ethical and moral education.

**2-4 Demand for Japanese-style education from developing countries**

In developing countries, interest in Japanese-style education is increasing because there is no such extracurricular education curriculum. For countries where the political situation is highly unstable and countries aiming for technological development, Japan-style discipline, cooperation, courtesy, diligence, ethics and morals seem to be attractive, and how to cultivate them is a challenge. In addition, the morality and attitude of Japanese people to maintain discipline in times of disaster and the accuracy of social systems such as transportation are considered to be based on Japanese education. The demand for Japanese-style education systems in developing countries is gradually increasing.

However, the current situation in developing countries is that it is difficult to realize Japanese-style education. This is because teachers in the field lack in interest and they are not trained for extracurricular education in teacher training courses.

**3. Keihanna as an international educational city**

It is a global trend to place importance on the relationship between education and local communities. Places such as Keihanna Science City area, where prominent institutions of higher education and research institutes are concentrated, and Kyoto and Nara, where Japanese history, traditions and culture take root, have the potential and advantage of being an educational industrial hub. In other words, special education activities in which developing countries have a lot of interest are inseparable from Japanese history, tradition and culture. Therefore, it is desirable to create a hub in the Keihanna Science City area with such necessary conditions, to accept teachers from developing countries for training and to develop Japanese-style educational systems abroad. It is also conceivable that this area could become a transit trade base for European and American universities in East Asia.

**4. Research Objectives and Reports**

This study group has set research objectives: exploring the possibility of "Keihanna as an international educational city" and conducting activities toward the creation of an export/import base of education system centered on the Keihanna Science City area. Specifically, we have conducted our research focusing on the following three points.

Firstly, we will discuss a survey of global trends in offshore schools and conditions for overseas expansion of Japanese-style education. Secondly, we will consider the concept of the establishment of a training center in Keihanna Science City area for teachers of Japanese-style education for developing countries and promotion of the research on the conditions for its realization. Thirdly, we will examine how the creation of such educational export hub could be related to the enhancement and deepening of lifelong learning opportunities for residents living in the university town area. In particular, in the urban space where advanced science and cultural capital such as history, tradition, and culture intersect, we would like to explore the potential impact of spirit or ethical and moral education that values discipline and etiquette, which is often forgotten while being evaluated by other countries, on local residents.

Based on these research activities, the reports were compiled.

Chapter 1 is Mr. Sugimoto's report on new trends in import/export of education In recent years, there have been various types of study abroad. Transnational education, in which students receive education of foreign countries and degrees in their home countries or third countries, has developed. Sugimoto reports on its substance and its impact on education, economy, and society.

Chapter 2 is Mr. Nakajima’s report on international branches in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Three countries in the UAE have branch campuses of foreign

universities. Dubai in particular has a large number of branch campuses. The role of the free zone, attempts to ensure the quality of education, and the impact on the economy and society, which are considered to be major factors for that, are explained from the viewpoints of both providing and recipient countries.

Chapter 3 is Mr. Watanabe's report on compulsory education in India. India has a federal system, and each state is responsible for education in principle. However, the form of school management and curriculum are diverse. On the other hand, India's education system is said to have consideration for the socially vulnerable.

Chapter 4 is a report by Mr. Shimada on the education system in Indonesia. This geographically and culturally diverse country has established an educational system that emphasizes citizenhood and character formation. The chapter reports that there is a demand for Japanese-style education due to the deep involvement of Japanese companies and great interest in the education system and teachers' pedagogical ability in Japan.

Chapter 5 is a report by Ms. Jeon on the establishment and operation of foreign educational institutions in Korea Following an overview of South Korea's education system and administration, this chapter introduces examples of U.S. branch schools, and describes the feature of South Korea's case and the future direction of attracting foreign educational institutions.

Chapter 6 is Ms. Liao's analysis of the possibility of establishing offshore schools in Taiwan. Taiwan and Japan are close to each other both physically and culturally. Therefore, in order to find the demand for Japanese-style education in Taiwan, this chapter considers necessity to consider the characteristics of Japan and establish unique programs and qualification frameworks that attract foreign students.

From these reports, the following issues and perspectives on the import and export of the education system can be seen: the countries and people concerned gain tangible and intangible benefits; people understand differences in religious and cultural backgrounds and establish an education system; emphasis on the quality of education to be sustainable; a multilateral qualification framework to be the key; the use of districts where the economic framework is relaxed ; and the assessment of actual demand.

# Chapter 1 New Trends in Transnational Higher Education

**Hitoshi Sugimoto**[ii]

[Summary]

In recent years, the international expansion of higher education institutions around the world has been remarkable, mainly in Europe and North America. In addition to accepting students from foreign countries, the institutions also acquire students by establishing branch campuses and cooperating with partner institutions in host countries. In these arrangements called transnational higher education, many students nowadays are taking courses abroad without traveling abroad. While countries where the providing universities are located can expect additional revenue by the education service export, host countries, where branch campuses or affiliated schools are located, can attract world-class universities at relatively low cost. Japan has lagged behind in this trend of transnational higher education. Although some pioneering projects exist, they depend heavily on Japanese government subsidies. Since 2004, however, several Japanese universities have taken on new challenges to achieve commercially profitable international expansion, and are entering the second phase of Japan's transnational higher education.

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**1. Global trend in study abroad**

The demand for higher education is increasing worldwide, and there are not so many countries that can meet all the academic demand of local students. This imbalance between supply and demand is a fundamental cause of the flow of international higher education students, that is, study abroad. The acceptance and dispatch of international students is regarded as the most important key to the development of global human resources in the knowledge society in many countries. According to the UNESCO Education Statistics (UIS 2019), the number of students studying abroad has increased from 4,000,000 in 2011 to 5,300,000 in 2017. It is projected that the number will have doubled to 7,200,000 in 2025. The United States is the largest host country for international students and has accepted 985000 students. In recent years, the acceptance of international students has been increasing rapidly in Australia, Russia and China. Japan has accepted 164,000 international students, the ninth largest in the world, and accounts for about 3% of the world's share. 1)

Looking at dispatch of international students, 52% of the total are from Asia. Apart from Japan, which is in the same Asian region, 86% of international students in Australia, 75% of international students in the United States, and 68% of international students in Russia are from Asia. It will not be realistic to design international student policies without considering the Asian market. 2) China is the largest source country of international students, accounting for more than 10% of the world's international students, followed by India and South Korea. The number of international students sent from Japan has been leveling off recently, and Japan has launched a project to actively support them.

It is said that the benefits of accepting international student include the establishment of personal academic connections, the promotion of internationalization, and the revitalization of the university research and education culture. The economic benefits are one of the most frequently discussed points. Tuition fees and living expenses paid by them are regarded as a national income earned by the export of educational services. The economic effect by international students is said to be 4.4 trillion yen (2019) in the United States and 2.6 trillion yen (2018) in the United Kingdom. In Australia, the 1.4 trillion yen by the student acceptance is recognized as one of the main sources of national income following the export of iron ore and coal in the amount of trade export of the nation. 3) There is also a tendency that international students from Asian countries use their study-abroad

**Table 1-1 Acceptance of International Students by Higher Education Institutions in Major Countries (2019)**

| | Host Countries for International Students | All regions | Foreign Student Ratio % * | central Asia | East Asia | South and West Asia | Arab countries | Oceania | North America + Western Europe | Eastern Europe | Latin America and the Caribbean | SS Africa |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | United States | 984897 | 5.17 | 5340 | 463856 | 184481 | 88295 | 6634 | 81776 | 26284 | 78324 | 38184 |
| 2 | United Kingdom | 435734 | 19.92 | 2867 | 164120 | 27668 | 31951 | 2636 | 130233 | 43241 | 10424 | 24923 |
| 3 | Australia | 381202 | 21.48 | 1054 | 218997 | 98534 | 8684 | 5272 | 17110 | 4029 | 13109 | 9126 |
| 4 | Russia | 250658 | 4.26 | 139886 | 16240 | 7581 | 6996 | 11 | 1723 | 32080 | 1106 | 5592 |
| 5 | Germany | 258873 | 8.37 | 5658 | 42722 | 25595 | 19410 | 1106 | 58311 | 46685 | 12631 | 12027 |
| 6 | France | 258380 | 10.2 | 2474 | 38271 | 5381 | 72496 | 662 | 43204 | 17637 | 16308 | 47623 |
| 7 | China * * | 235718 | 0.36 | 124 | 49676 | 924 | 55 | 36 | 674 | 124 | 67 | 210 |
| 8 | Canada | 209979 | 12.92 | 900 | 82301 | 42113 | 12756 | 789 | 31566 | 4812 | 12582 | 17577 |
| 9 | Japan | 164338 | 4.27 | 2106 | - | 17630 | 1211 | 599 | 6767 | 1496 | 1263 | 1308 |
| 10 | Turkey | 108076 | 1.5 | 32375 | 3327 | 13675 | 29803 | 109 | 11451 | 8078 | 322 | 8995 |
| | World total | 5309240 | | 267654 | 1084896 | 68779 | 331144 | 441798 | 2765855 | 61383 | 209676 | 137613 |

Reference: UNESCO UIS Inbound International mobile Students by Regions of Origin 2019 (latest data in 2017), SS = Sub-Saharan ; * Ratio of international student population to higher education institution student population in destination country;
* * Statistics by region of origin in China show only values of Hong Kong and Macau with missing values of mainland

experience as a first step for future immigration to their destination countries. Some countries in North America and Europe, which want to invite highly skilled human resources, give preferential treatment to those who have studied in their own country's higher education institutions as a part of condition for immigration permission.

From the perspective of the dispatching side, European and North American universities are attractive leading in world technology and science, and are academically influential. Studying abroad is one of the most promising social activities to gain knowledge, skills and technology, and to form personal connections with people sharing same time and place. In particular, for developing countries where domestic higher education is underdeveloped, foreign universities can complement their own insufficient academic fields. The degrees and qualifications international students obtained there have great prestige and value in their own countries and are assumed to have a great impact on their success in life after their return. However, the problem is the cost of studying abroad, and the people who can raise money for tuition, living expenses, and travel expenses are limited to the rich in society. In many cases, it is important to obtain scholarships. Although the scholarships of the host country may help them, they are mostly limited to special fields of study for strategic purposes. The scholarships of the dispatching government are also available, but in many cases, restrictions are placed on the students who studied abroad in getting employment after returning home.

According to Kojien, studying abroad means "staying in a foreign country and studying" 4). In a more practical expression, it means that learners take certain courses (mainly) at higher education institutions in a foreign country. Under the Japanese legal system, as provided in the "Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act" and “Appendix 1-4”, study abroad is defined as “activities to receive education at “Japanese universities, colleges of technology, high schools (including the upper division of 6year secondary schools), specialized training schools, or institutions equivalent to these organization” 5). This is the case for international students accepted by Japan. When Japanese people go abroad to study, statistics are taken in a more relaxed way by considering study abroad as "traveling abroad for the purpose of education for about three months or more. 6)" This report also assumes that educational institutions that constitutes study abroad is higher education (generally post-secondary education) institutions. However, the term "study abroad" is also used for different level, such as "studying abroad in high schools" and “studying abroad in compulsory education". The category of "foreign/international students" is in many countries a controlled residential status and may have a privileged meaning among foreigners residing in a country. This status is mainly defined by the length, level, and institution of study (completion of a course). However, the criteria vary in each country.

Another issue concerning studying abroad is the question of what constitutes a “foreign country” and what constitutes a “home country” for particular person. It is obvious to anyone that students studying at a university in their home country are not called "international students." However, the countries that people generally refer to as their home country include “country of birth”, “country of nationality”, and "country of permanent residence”. All of them could be different countries. As international mobility has increased, it is not unusual for a person to live in more than one country during his or her life these days. The term "study abroad" tends to be defined as studying at a university in a different country from the last “country where a person plans to live permanently."

**2. Transnational Higher Education: "Study abroad without traveling abroad”**

This issue stems manly from the increased human flows across borders and globalization of higher education. Not only the presence of national borders in education are increasingly declining, but the national attributes of universities are becoming less clear by the international expansion of them as one of the multi-national industrial bodies. In a recent developing form of study abroad called transnational education, students are not required to travel to the country where degree awarding university is located, but are allowed to study in an affiliated institution located in another country. This is the program called transnational education. According to UNESCO (UNESCO 2001), transnational education is defined as "Programs in which learners are located in the country other than the one in which awarding institution is based". 7)

Traditionally, study abroad was something as follows. Students from Country A physically moved to Country B, lived there, and acquired academic qualifications and skills by attending a university. Transnational program was developed based on the idea that if the purpose of study abroad is only to obtain a degree or qualification, there may be a more convenient way without students staying in a distant country for a long time.

For example, a foreign university may establish a branch campus in a country where higher education has not sufficiently been developed. Instead of students travelling to a foreign country, educational institutions themselves come to the host country. The host country can save the time and cost of starting a university from

the beginning and developing it into an independent degree-granting university. Or if local institution establishes the partnership with foreign world class university, local students may earn a prestigious degree or qualification without travelling to a foreign country. Some foreign universities have entered into partnership with educational institutions in the host country. It has become possible for students to earn a degree or a qualification from a foreign university by attending the partner institutions without travelling to a foreign country. Furthermore, it became possible for students to take courses and obtain degrees from foreign universities using computer terminals all over the world as the universities began to distribute classes for their domestic correspondence courses to foreign countries. This is truly "study abroad without travelling abroad." In other words, the former study abroad means going abroad and the latter means an activity to obtain a foreign degree. The qualifications and degrees that can be obtained are 'supposed to be' the same as or indistinguishable from those obtained by going to and taking courses at main campuses.

There are three main forms of transnational higher education. They are (1) an off-shore branch campus of a foreign university, (2) a course delivered at a partner college affiliated with a foreign degree awarding university, and (3) a course of cross-border distance education through e-learning. educational institutions actually exist. The providers of these degree courses (degree-granting institutions) concentrate in Europe and North America, especially in the United States, United Kingdom, and Australia. On the other hand, the persons taking these courses are students predominantly in Asian countries. It can be said that Asia is the primary place where those students and educational institutions actually exist.

According to OBHE (2006), the overseas branch campus (1) is defined as campus which (degree awarding) foreign institutions (partly) own in the host country outside the country main campus located. (2) It has same education mode as the main campus. Most of the classes are taught on site by qualified teachers. (3) Students may be the residents of host country or citizens of other country.8)[1}[2]{3][4} Furthermore, McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) added the requirement that face-to-face classes are held at a branch campus, and that local students can receive the same support services as offered at the main campus. 9) First of all, the advantage of studying at an overseas branch campus for local students is educational cost saving. Overseas branch campuses are located in local students' home country or, in many cases, in non-Western countries. Unlike traditional study abroad where students study at a university in a foreign country across the miles, they can save travel expenses. In addition, living expenses are less in many cases. The second advantage is that students can take courses in a living environment that is close to the cultural environment in which they were born and raised. This may reduce students' stress. Thirdly, the admission quotas are increased separately from the ones at the main campus. So, the possibility of enrollment is larger than in the case of universities without branch campuses. Fourthly, if the degree or qualification to be granted is recognized in the country where the main campus is located, in the host country, or in the country of origin of the students, the possibility of getting

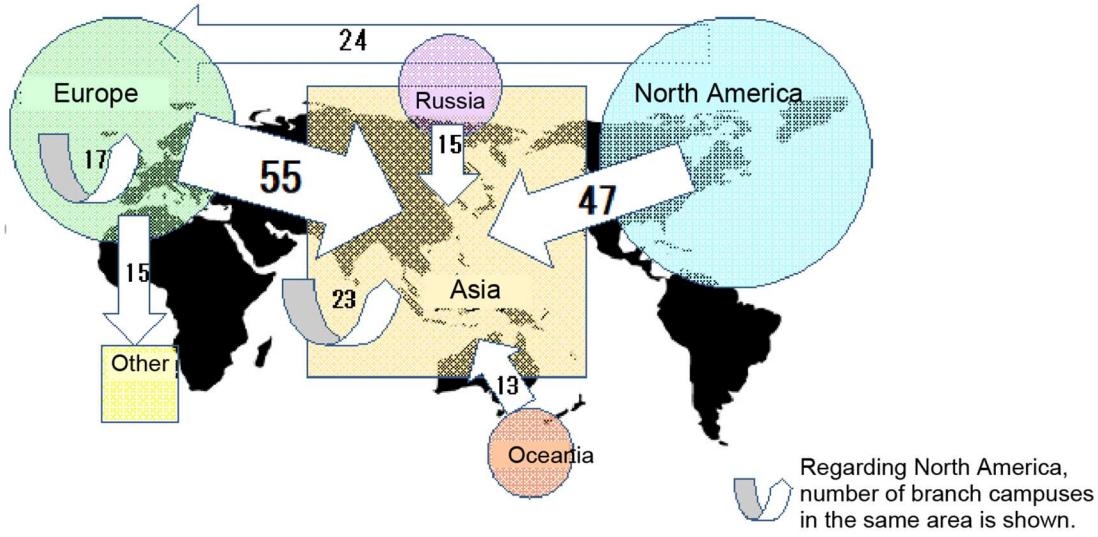


**Figure 1-1: Number of Branch Campuses of Foreign Universities by Region (Sugimoto 2017)**

employment of graduates could have been enhanced.

According to C-BERT (2017/19), the number of branch campuses of foreign universities established around the world was 162 in 2006, but it increased to 250 in 34 countries in 2019. 10) 81 branch campuses (32%) of them are branches of universities in the US, 40 (16%) are branches of universities in UK, followed by 24 in France, 19 in Russia, and 15 in Australia. Looking at the locations of branch campuses (host countries), 49 branches are in the Middle East, 47 in Asia (excluding the Middle East), and 48 in Europe. Expansion of branch campuses in the Middle East is especially notable (Sugimoto 2017). By country, 29 branch campuses are in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), 32 in China (mainland), 12 in Malaysia, and 11 in Singapore and 11 in Qatar. 11)

There are no global statistics on transnational higher education. For example, Australia accepted 347,000 international students in 2014. 260,000 of them were regular international students, and the remaining 24.7%, or 86,000 students, were transnational students who did not actually study at universities in Australia. 12)

In the United Kingdom, 65.2% of the 135 institutions including universities had transnational higher education programs in 2008. The total number of the programs reached 1,536. Programs were offered in Asia most, 43.6%, followed by Europe, 28.3%, the Middle East, 6.2%, and Africa 3.8%. As for the partner institution, private colleges accounted for 22.5%, public universities for 21.4%, public colleges for 10.7%, and private companies for 9.7%. The number of private universities was small, 5.7% 13).

Malaysia and Japan were the pioneering countries in the world to have been chosen as the host countries of this transnational higher education which had physical colleges and branch campuses in the 1980s and 1990s. However, the fate of Malaysia and Japan was very different after that. Five foreign university branch campuses have been developed and partnership programs with many colleges have generally been successful in Malaysia. In contrast to that, many branch campuses of universities, mainly from the United States, were established in the 1980s in Japan but many of them have withdrawn without success.

As part of its global expansion, Monash University, a public university in Australia established a branch Campus in Malaysia in 1998 (in cooperation of Sunway College, Selangor). It was immediately after the Private Higher Educational Institutions Act 1996 was enacted in Malaysia to authorize the establishment of foreign university branches.

Monash University Malaysia offers a bachelor's degree in business, information technology, and engineering and science which are high in demand in Malaysia. It has a good reputation as a private university in Malaysia, having been accredited by both the Quality Assurance Organization and Australian professional associations (accountants, engineers). Most of the more than 100 teaching staff have been employed in countries such as Malaysia. Only a few are from Australia. The number of students is less than 4000, and about 30% of them are international students from countries other than Malaysia. Majority of the international students are from China and Indonesia. They are staying and taking courses in Malaysia to obtain Australian degrees and qualifications. With the success of the branch campus as a stepping-stone, Monash University has established branch campuses in South Africa, the UK and Italy since then. 14)

The transnational expansion of higher education from Japan is lagging behind in the world. Although there have been some overseas branch campuses of Japanese universities, they are established and operated as places for Japanese students to have overseas exposure. Therefore, it does not fall into the categories of transnational higher education institutions that accept non-Japanese students. The demand for education in Japanese outside Japan was not highly profitable. Making arrangement was difficult to dispatch teaching staff to offer classes taught in English. In addition, there were legal problems in granting the same degree as in Japan. At present, the opening of the Egypt-Japan University of Science and Technology (E-JUST) 15) in Alexandria, Egypt in 2010, and the opening of the Malaysia-Japan International Institute of Technology (MJIIT) 16) in Johor Bahru, Malaysia in 2011 are rare examples. The establishment of two institutions are not under contracts by Japanese individual universities but by body of Japanese University Consortium. At present, the overseas institutions of Japanese universities are rather identified as overseas bases to send students to Japan or to provide prior Japanese language education. We can hardly deem them independent branch campuses like those of Western universities. The success or failure of transnational higher education by Japanese universities in the future will depend on if they can clearly define a model of Japanese-style science education and if they can export it to foreign countries with a high level of quality.

### 3. The second phase of transnational higher education in Japan

In response to this situation, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) revised the criteria for the establishment of universities in 2004. The Ministry established a provision allowing Japanese universities to establish "faculties, departments and other organizations" in foreign countries, and started to examine the possibility of the transnational development of Japanese higher education institutions. In other words, the Ministry provides administrative support for the possibility that universities in Japan could expand overseas branch campuses in a profitable manner not depending on the Government subsidy.

According to the Chapter 2 of the Report of the Central

Council for Education, "The Future Vision of Japanese Higher Education," 17) (January 28, 2005) 18), “Not only English-speaking countries but also Germany, etc. have begun to actively establish their local branch campuses in East Asia and Southeast Asia so that local students can obtain their degrees from institutions in offering countries by studying only at branch campuses in their home country. Asian countries such as China, South Korea, Malaysia, and Singapore have also responded positively to such international trends, and have begun to implement measures to attract or cooperate with excellent higher education institutions in foreign countries. This seems to be aimed at coping with the rapid increase in the number of students going on to higher education institutions and becoming a hub for education in their neighboring countries. In Japan as well, there are plans to confer degrees from foreign universities in Japan and degree from Japanese universities abroad by collaboration between foreign and Japanese institutions of higher education.”

“Amid continuing decline in the college-age population, each higher education institution needs to further clarify its distinctive identity, characteristics, and management strategy regarding human resource development and academic research activities, in an international and competitive environment." "When increasing the opportunities to confer degrees through the provision of cross-border university education, it is necessary to pay sufficient attention to ensuring the international recognition of degrees from universities in Japan. In addition, it is an urgent need to establish an international information network on the quality assurance of universities so that students can assess the value and benefit of programs, courses or degrees of Japanese universities. Japan should actively participate in and contribute to such international discussion. "

"In order for Japanese universities to attract excellent international students and researchers from around the world, we need to keep in mind that it is important not only to attain high level of quality of education and research, but to promote a function of international contribution by accepting students and researchers across borders. In particular, in the field of academic research, how to build partnerships within the Asian region is a major issue for higher education in Japan.” All the above is mentioned in the report.

In response to the revision of the university establishment standards mentioned above, Japanese universities are also trying to establish their branch campuses overseas to expand their educational services. These cases go beyond the phase of Japan's international cooperation in higher education to date. They expect the possibility of yielding profits such as tuition on a commercial basis by establishing branch campuses of Japanese higher education institutions or joint degree programs in response to local educational needs. These cases are regarded as the second phase of Japan's transnational higher education.

Such pioneering examples include a branch campus that University of Tsukuba is planning to establish in Malaysia, Chiba Mahidol Collaboration Branch, which Chiba University is planning to establish in Thailand, and Dalian University of Technology-Ritsumeikan University (DUT-RU) International School of Information Science and Engineering, which Ritsumeikan University jointly manage with Dalian University of Technology in Dalian, China.

(1) University of Tsukuba Malaysia Branch Campus

As mentioned above, the University of Tsukuba participated in a consortium with 24 universities for Malaysia-Japan Institute of Technology (MJIIT) in Malaysia, which was founded in 2011. Plans are underway to develop this and create a branch campus of the University of Tsukuba as a Japanese model of university education in Malaysia. When Malaysia's former Prime Minister Mahathir Mohamad visited Japan in 2018, he hoped the establishment of a branch campus of Japanese universities in Malaysia at the meeting with Prime Minister Abe, which led to the start of the project. At that time, Mahathir said “In Malaysia costs associated to university operations are low, and international students from outside Malaysia can also be attracted.” Dr. Mahathir served as the fourth Prime Minister of Malaysia for 22 years from 1981 and initiated the Look East policy to promote exchange with Japan. In 2018, after he retired, he returned to the position of the seventh Prime Minister of Malaysia at the age of 92 and tried to revived his external policy. 19)

Several Japanese universities responded to this offer, but the University of Tsukuba, which was the most positive among them, came to start registering its branch campus in Malaysia in 2020. The Look East policy since 1980s has enabled more than 16,000 Malaysian students to study at universities in Japan on the government scholarships. However, due to the high cost and linguistic environment at universities in Japan, the number of students studying in Japan at their own expense have remained low. The new branch campus is expected to change this trend and to be the driving force for transferring science and technology and commercial know-how in Japan to Malaysia. However, since Prime Minister Mahathir resigned unexpectedly in February 2020, uncertainty has come about the future of the plan. In addition, the establishment of a Malaysian branch campus of Nippon Designers School is being considered as a branch expansion by education institutions in Japan. 20)

(2) Chiba Mahidol Collaboration Branch in Thailand

Thailand is an important part of the international development of Japan’s higher education, and many Japanese universities, including Tohoku University,

Waseda University, and Kyoto University, have established their offices in ASEAN center. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has been promoting “Study in Japan Global Network Project (SJGNA)” since 2018. Regarding Southeast Asia, the Ministry has been conducting study in Japan fairs, academic seminars, and information provision activities centering on the Consortium of Six National Universities in Japan (Sixers) consisting of Chiba University, Niigata University, Kanazawa University, Okayama University, Nagasaki University, and Kumamoto University. The goal is to promote the acceptance of international students from Southeast Asia and increase the total number of international students in Japan by half by 2023. 21) In 2017, the Sixers opened its office in Bangkok.

Among them, Chiba University established the International Exchange Center (IEC) at Mahidol University (Mahidol University) in 2010, and signed an agreement for opening the Bangkok Campus of Chiba University in 2017. 22) Since 2014, Chiba University has been selected for the Top Global University Project (Type B). As one of the performance indicators for internationalization, the university plans to establish an overseas branch campus as a step to realize a global campus plan by 2023. By strengthening cooperation with Mahidol University in Thailand, Chiba University will send more than 200 students a year to build strong cooperative relationships and starting various cooperation to establish the satellite campus. 23) When I visited the Mahidol University in February 2019, there was an office where Japanese staff were stationed at the Mahidol University. However, Chiba University had the uncertainties about the continuity after the end of the Top Global University Project.

(3) Dalian University of Technology – Ritsumeikan University International School of Information Science and Engineering

Ritsumeikan University opened Dalian University of Technology-Ritsumeikan University International School of Information Science and Engineering (DUT-RU) in Dalian, China in 2013. China does not allow foreign universities to establish their branch campuses independently. In that case, China requires them to form a joint organization with Chinese institutions to run branch campuses. DUT-RU International School of Information Science and Engineering is an international IT department jointly established by Faculty of Information Science and Engineering, Ritsumeikan University, and School of Software Technology, Dalian University of Technology in Dalian, Liaoning Province, China. DUT-RU is a four-year university established on the campus of the Dalian University of Technology Development District in Dalian City. The admission quota is 210. 40 of them will enter the third year of Ritsumeikan University, and they can obtain degrees from Ritsumeikan University and Dalian University of Technology by completing the program for 2 years. It is a Dual Undergraduate Degree Program (DUDP). 24)

Dalian University of Technology, which is under the direct control of the Chinese Ministry of Education (equivalent to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology), has been selected for ”211 Project” in which the Chinese government plans to develop 100 universities, and also for "985 Project" in which the Chinese government plans to develop flagship research-type universities. DUT-RU is jointly run by Dalian University of Technology and Ritsumeikan University. Its main features are industry-university cooperation and networking between Japan and China. DUT-RU plans to form a consortium of cooperating companies, organize an endowed chair, accept visiting professors, establish scholarships, and provide international internships. Most of the classes are conducted in Japanese by the staff of College of Information Science and Engineering, Ritsumeikan University. Through international industry-academia collaboration between Japanese and Chinese companies, DUT-RU aims for their students’ employment in Japanese and foreign companies. 25)

In light of the current state of global expansion and development of transnational higher education, Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology has been groping for and actively supporting overseas expansion of higher education in a new form since 2005. As mentioned above, this can be regarded as the second phase of transnational higher education in Japan. However, we cannot see the remarkable progress when we have reached the immediate target year 2020. The plans for branch campuses of the Tsukuba University and Chiba University do not seem to go beyond the level of the universities' strategic overseas offices, due to political instability in the host countries and the issue of the limited period of the project.

Ritsumeikan University’s School of Information Science and Engineering is not a branch campus, but a program-based cooperation. However, this is beside the definition of transnational higher education as some students are physically sent to Japan in the latter half period of the program. In a sense, actual study abroad is included in a part of the program. Of course, if Japanese universities can make a profit from the perspective of international expansion, it would be a desirable result of the "future vision of Japan's higher education," and it does not necessarily need to be transnational. However, in this article, I would like to pay attention to the cases of the students who “will not study abroad,” in other words, students who studied in the program but couldn’t remain in the group to go to Japan (couldn’t pass the selection examination).

Transnational higher education is a new form of international education that greatly changes the concept

of study abroad. It is a system that brings great benefits not only to program providers but also to the host countries and students (learners). However, it still is facing issues. First of all, there is a risk that the quality control that has been functioning in the traditional study abroad, may not be maintained unconditionally in a totally different educational environment. Secondly, as more and more providers will offer the same degree, qualification, or credit, hierarchies could be assembled among them. There may be danger that the value of the degree, qualification, or credit may decline if excessive number of them granted off shore. Thirdly, if branch campuses of famous foreign universities or partner institutions' degree courses are established in the host country while its higher education is not yet sufficiently competitive in the international market, weak domestic educational institutions may lose a share of the market or vie with each other for students. Fourthly, the business, educational, and cultural climates of higher education developed in English-speaking Western countries are brought into the higher education of host countries. Therefore, those climates may not fit in and collide with the host country's system, customs, ideology, and cultural trends.

Even in the development of profitable transnational higher education as a phase of higher education to be explored in a new way in Japan, it still faces all of the above four issues. In addition, in the case of Japan, further challenges of questionable profitability and market value of programs offered in Japanese are ahead.

[Note]

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# Chapter 2 Free Zone and International Branch Campuses in Dubai

## - Are they House of Cards? -

Yusuke Nakajima[iii]

[Summary]

In the Emirate of Dubai, located in the United Arab Emirates, branch campuses of 25 foreign universities(International Branch Campuses; IBCs) are deployed as of 2019. These were considered to have developed under the market principle in the free zone where economic regulations were relaxed, and therefore, there were many discussions that showed concerns about the substantial education, research environment, and continuity. However, since the latter half of the 2000s, the system related to the administrative operation of IBCs and quality assurance has been improved, and the movement to establish or reorganize IBCs has now settled. As a result, the focus of related research is on "understanding individual phenomena related to IBCs " Of course, from the point of view of the main campuses and the home country, maintaining the equality and prestige between the main campuses and the branch campuses is still an important issue. However, from the point of view of the host country, it is also important to deepen the understanding of the IBCs in line with the individual actors surrounding them, in that "how IBCs are integrated into its own society and system" is also important.

**Notice:** *The English in this report was machine translated from the original Japanese before undergoing post-editing by human translators. In the event of any discrepancies between this translated document and the Japanese original, the Japanese original shall prevail.*

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## 1. Introduction

The United Arab Emirates (hereinafter referred to as "the UAE") is located along the Arabian Gulf in the Middle East region and is a federal state with Islam as its state religion. It consists of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, where its capital city of Abu Dhabi is located, the Emirate of Dubai the Emirate of Sharjah, the Emirate of Ras al-Khaimah, the Emirate of Umm al-Quwain , the Emirate of Ajman, and the Emirate of Fujairah (hereinafter the term "Emirate" is omitted). The UAE is also an oil-producing country with abundant reserves of crude oil and other natural resources, and 90% of its crude oil extraction volume is mined in Abu Dhabi. The proceeds from the extraction are offered to the federal government and then distributed to each emirate.

The UAE has such social characteristics as "Islam," "federal system," and "oil producing country." In addition to these characteristics, the UAE has the characteristics of a "nation where citizens are minority." Only about 10% of the total population of 9,630,000 (2018) is citizens in the UAE. The percentage of foreign nationals is 19% for Indians, 11% for Pakistanis, and 7% for Filipinos in descending order, while the percentage of UAE nationals is said to be 11% 1). Therefore, the official language of the UAE is Arabic, but English is also widely spoken in this society. The benefits from oil resources are returned to the people in the form of high salaries for civil servants and free education and medical care system. In addition, the per capita gross national income (GNI) was US $74,410 (in 2017), maintaining the world's highest level.

As a means of economic development, Dubai, which is the main target area of this report, has spent its income from natural resources, which are mined only slightly, on the development of infrastructure such as roads and airports. On the other hand, in order to get out of the resource-dependent economy from the early stage, Dubai has developed special economic zones (hereinafter referred to as "free zones") in which business regulations have been relaxed boldly in order to attract foreign companies. Such free zones are established for a wide range of fields, such as finance, medical and health care, semiconductors, the automobile industry, and the media. Dubai Knowledge Park (hereinafter referred to as “DKP,” 2003~) and Dubai International Academic City (hereinafter referred to as “DIAC,” 2008~) are free zones established for education and human resource development fields developed by educational institutions and companies outside the UAE. In 2019, 25 branch campuses of foreign universities and higher education institutions (hereinafter referred to as "International Branch Campuses; IBCs") were established mainly in these free zones.

This figure shows that a large number of IBCs are established in the limited areas of the free zones in Dubai. These IBCs have been developed rapidly since the 2000s. From the perspective of local communities, factors contributing to this rapid quantitative expansion include, "high demand for economic and management programs and ICT programs as Dubai is the center of business in the middle east-gulf area," and “there was demand from foreign nationals who preferred to enter higher education institutions in their own countries or western countries rather than local higher education institutions." 2) On the other hand, from the perspective of IBCs , it is also important that "infrastructure including buildings and facilities is already developed in the free zones, and IBCs can be run with less risk by using them" while meeting the demand in the host country. 3)

In this way, the rapid quantitative expansion of IBCs in Dubai has often been explained in terms of the so-called market principle, which means that they have been developed in response to social and economic demand in Dubai. Therefore, they could be in financial difficulties and withdraw from their business if they are no longer able to acquire students. They could also provide education that is different from one offered at the main campus prioritizing efficiency even though they promise to "provide the same education and degree as those granted at the main campus.” With respect to those, the "instability" of IBCs is often the focus of the problem. Due to those potential problems, some people raise questions like Smith (2009): "Will the academic activities in foreign institutions in the UAE ‘sink in sand’?” 4) This study pointed out that communication between the main and branch campuses of foreign universities should be deepened, academic activities should be carried out based on the system of the main campuses, and local context should be taken into consideration in order to prevent academic activities at IBCs from sinking in sand. 5)

It has been less than 20 years since foreign universities have established their branch campuses in full swing in Dubai. Is the development of IBCs regarded as an unstable thing like “a house of cards"? The purpose of this paper is to review the moves since the 2000s, focusing on institutional aspects, and to consider the development of IBCs in Dubai. For this purpose, Section 2 summarizes the general definition of IBCs and the questions that can be raised about the development of IBCs. Section 3 outlines the development of higher education systems in UAE, mainly in Dubai, and Section 4 examines the development of IBCs in the free zone of Dubai and recent trends.

## 2. Definition of International Branch Campuses and

**Key Question**

The definition of a IBCs varies depending on the home country and host country for the branch campus, and also on individual researchers and research institutions. For example, Knight (2008), defines as follows. “A provider in Country A establishes a branch campus in Country B and offers courses and programs mainly to students in Country B. (Omitted) Degrees, etc. are awarded by the provider in Country A.” In addition, an “Independent School" is defined separately from “branch campus” as follows. Provider A in a foreign country establishes an independent institution of higher education in country B and offers courses and programs to award degrees, etc. Generally, there is no educational institution that has the functions of the main campus in country A.” 6) However, the relationship between the "independent school" and the educational institution in home country is sometimes not clear. Even though the branch campus and the independent school are systematically separated in the host country, they are sometimes lumped together as "international branch campuses" by researchers. For these reasons, there are situations where it is difficult to clearly distinguish between branch campuses and independent schools.

In addition to these definitions, C-BERT (2017), which conducts a global survey on the status of the development of IBCs, defines IBCs as existence: (1) to be owned, at least in part, by foreign higher education providers; (2) to be operated in the name of foreign educational providers; (3) to provide entire academic programs; (4) to be actually located ; and (5) to lead to degrees awarded by foreign educational providers. According to a survey conducted based on this definition, there were 217 IBCs in the world as of 2017, with 49 in the Middle East, 48 in Europe, and 47 in Asia (excluding China), in descending order by region. 7)

Although there are attempts to grasp IBCs as accurately as possible as just described, it is difficult to grasp the movement accurately because the establishment, revision and abolition of IBCs happens very quickly. In addition, the followings are issued to be focused on in the development of IBCs, based on prior research by Altbach (2010) 8) and Hanada (2013). 9)

① How is the quality of IBCs assured? Does they contribute to improving the quality of national higher education?
② Are IBCs developed on market principles? Are they focused on business, ICT, and other fields that are directly linked to jobs?
③ How are instructors recruited? Isn't it difficult to hire excellent instructors?
④ Can IBCs be operated within the cultural, social and political context of the host country?
⑤ After all, isn't it difficult to develop IBCs in the long run? Are they sustainable?

Although such questions can be raised, in reality, the state of IBCs are diverse and complex. Even if their quality is low, they are not necessarily closed immediately. Even if they are IBCs of famous universities, their long-term development is not guaranteed either. Keeping in mind the diversity and complexity of these IBCs, we will have an overview of the development of higher education systems in the free zones of the UAE and Dubai in the next section.

**3. Outline of the Higher Education System in the UAE and Dubai**

As mentioned above, the UAE is a federal state consisting of seven emirates. However, the authority on education and higher education is vested in the federal government under Article 120 of the UAE Constitution, which was promulgated in 1971. The competent ministry is the UAE Ministry of Education. 10) The Federal Department of Education is in charge of developing laws for higher education. However, the Commission for Academic Accreditation (CAA), which was established in 1999, approves the establishment of higher education institutions throughout the UAE and accredits their programs (accreditation). In addition, the National Qualifications Authority, which was established in 2011, developed the Qualifications Framework Emirates, a national qualifications framework for higher education and vocational education institutions throughout the UAE, and clarified the qualities and abilities expected to be acquired for degrees and qualifications. Looking into the number of higher education institutions in the UAE, in addition to three federal universities (UAE University, Zayed University, and Higher Colleges of Technology), 74 public and private higher education institutions are developed as of 2020 based on the institutional foundation. 11) The number of students in 2013 was 39,566 in Federal Universities and 73,515 in private and public higher education institutions. 12)

However, while the Federal Ministry of Education retains the authority for higher education, why is it possible to attract IBCs in the free zone in Dubai? The reason for this is related to the Article 23 of the UAE Constitution. It says that the natural resources and wealth of each emirate shall be regarded as the public goods of that emirate. Society is responsible for the protection and appropriate development of natural resources and wealth to benefit the national economy. 13) Each Emirate has great authority for economic development in its territory, and it is possible to establish its own free zone. As a result, the “free zone in the education sector" is an area where the authority of each emirate to "develop free zones" and

the authority of the federal government to "manage educational institutions" intersect. In practice, only invitation of IBCs is regarded as “trade.” Each emirate puts them under its’ own control by including them in the economic framework.

Under such framework, in the free zones in Dubai, the emirate has established its own system to regulate IBCs and to make efforts for quality assurance. Dubai Knowledge Village (hereinafter referred as “DKV”. It was renamed DKP in 2016) was established as the first free educational zone in 2003. However, TECOM Investment, a government-affiliated company, has managed the free zone. While the emirate focused on business regulation, it did not make efforts for systematic quality assurance. It was also voluntary to receive accreditation by CAA. In 2006, the Knowledge and Human Development Authority (hereinafter referred to as "KHDA") was established as a government organization that has jurisdiction mainly over private educational institutions in Dubai, and legislation for IBCs in the free zones was also introduced. In 2008, KHDA established the University Quality Assurance International Board (hereinafter referred to as "UQAIB") as a third-party quality assurance organization for IBCs in the free zones. Those IBCs are evaluated by either the CAA or the UQAIB mentioned above, and are required to obtain permission to operate IBCs and to provide programs. 14) As a result, the free zones in Dubai have a dual structure where the institutional framework of CAA (Federal), which derives from the authority of the higher education sector, and the institutional framework of UQAIB (Emirate), which derives from the authority of economic development, overlap.

What are the advantages for foreign institutions, including IBCs , in the free zones where regulations are excluded from the federal government's framework? In general, advantages of foreign institutions in the free zones are: (1) approval of 100% foreign investment; (2) no need for local sponsors; (3) no restrictions on capital and profit repatriation; (4) exemption from corporate tax and customs duties ; (5) long-term land use rights ; and (6) no restrictions on hiring foreign national labor. In addition, foreign institutions are exempted from the application of Federal Companies Act, Federal Industrial Act and Federal Labor Act. Outside the free zone, there are restrictions on the business of foreign-affiliated institutions, such as UAE local partners holding at least 51% of the share capital (foreign ownership of its shares up to 49%), priority on employment of UAE citizens, and prohibition of foreign ownership of land. In the free zones, IBCs can be operated in the environment where regulations have been greatly relaxed. 15) In addition, in the free zones in Dubai, (when following the regulatory framework of the emirate) a definition of branch is "not a legal entity separated from the parent organization, but a place to conduct business while legally relying on the parent organization, and conducts all or part of operations specific to the mother organization. No capital is required.” 16) It is regarded as a branch that is not independent from the main campus.

**4. Development of International Branch Campuses in Dubai**

This section examines the social background of the development of IBCs in Dubai and overviews the recent development. As mentioned above, the UAE has an extremely internationalized society with a large population of the foreign nationals. IBCs have developed in response to the needs of those students, and have provided programs mainly in fields such as business and ICT that contribute to Dubai’s role as an economic hub. However, other social factors that promote the development of IBCs include, for example, “preventing brain drain." In the UAE, the higher education sector is still developing, and there are a certain number of people who are not satisfied with entering higher education institutions in the country. Those students are studying at institutions in the Western countries in search of higher quality education, and the government provides scholarships for citizens to study abroad. Therefore, the establishment of IBCs was promoted as a means to keep these students in the UAE. In addition, we cannot ignore the fact that students avoid studying in Western countries due to the impact caused by the September 11 attacks in the United States in 2001 and the Iraq War in 2003. There are many students who are Muslims in and outside the UAE. The Western governments have become increasingly wary of Muslims since the incidents, and it has become difficult for students in UAE to study in Western countries. Dubai has created the internationalized and modernized society while it is broad-minded about Muslims. Under such circumstances, IBCs are believed to have been in step with the students’ move to seek the degree and educational environment of higher education institutions in their home country and Western countries.

Table 2-1 shows the development of IBCs in Dubai, Abu Dhabi, and Ras al-Khaimah. As of 2019, there were 25 IBCs in Dubai, 6 in Abu Dhabi, and 3 in Ras al-Khaimah. Dubai has the largest number of IBCs. These IBCs are scattered not only in DKP and DIAC, which are the free zones related to education, but also in other free zones such as Dubai Silicon Oasis and Dubai Health Care City. As in Dubai, Ras al-Khaimah, which has 3 IBCs, also has developed free zones to attract IBCs. On the other hand, Abu Dhabi has not developed such free zones, and IBCs are also developing in the same

regulatory framework as for other higher education institutions in the country.

Looking at the home countries of higher education institutions which establish branch campuses abroad, many of them are English-speaking countries, such as the United States, the United Kingdom, and Australia. In Dubai, however, there are also many higher education institutions from developing countries, such as India, Pakistan, Iran, and Lebanon. Some IBCs were established in the 1990s at the earliest, but most of them were established from the first half to the latter half of the 2000s. There was a decrease in the number of newly established IBCs in the 2010s.

Table 2-1 also shows some of the IBCs that have withdrawn. The closed IBCs in Dubai were mainly (1) the institutions that DKV recommended to withdraw due to the quality of the IBCs before the establishment of UQAIB, (2) the institutions that withdrew due to the reorganization of the main campuses, (3) the institutions whose operation in the free zone was suspended as a result of the evaluation of UQAIB, and (4) the institutions that withdrew due to the expiration of the cooperation contract with the free zones. Among the IBCs classified into the above (3), International College of Technology Management and Mahatma Gandhi University, which are branch campuses of institutions of higher education in India, have moved to the free zone in Ras al-Khaimah which provides a more relaxed regulatory framework than Dubai. 17) Michigan State University Dubai Campus was not able to attract students due to the impact caused by the Dubai debt crisis. It continued to operate on a smaller scale, but eventually closed in 2019.

I would like to address the issue of diplomas arising from the institutional frameworks of CAA and UQAIB, i.e., federal and the emirate's governments. Among the IBCs listed on Table 2-1, only 5 IBCs in the free zones of Dubai, including University of Wollongong Dubai and Rochester Institute of Technology Dubai, are accredited by the CAA. The rest of the IBCs are approved by UQAIB and operated within the institutional framework of the emirate. The system was established for IBCs to receive quality assurance from either UQAIB (Dubai) or CAA (Federal). However, the diploma, certificate, or degree were not considered equivalent. For example, students who graduated from higher education institutions that are not accredited by the CAA were not allowed to get employment in the public or government sector at the federal level. Even the private sector did not necessarily recognize their diploma. In addition, CAA prohibited students from entering or transferring from non-accredited institution to an accredited institution. To address these issues, the Dubai Executive Council issued "Executive Council Resolution No. (21) of 2011 Concerning Higher Education Institutions Based in the Free Zones of the Emirate of Dubai." The resolution stated that academic qualifications granted by academic institutions and certified by KHDA shall be recognized by all public and private organizations in the Emirate of Dubai. As a result, KHDA acquired the function to certify the degree and qualification of the students who graduated from the IBCs approved by UQAIB, and the certified degree and qualification became recognized in the private and public sectors throughout Dubai. 18) However, the institutional gap between the federal and the emirate's governments still exists.

Finally, I would like to mention the latest development. In 2019, KHDA rated IBCs established in the free zones in Dubai. The rating was done by KHDA in cooperation with QS, a company known for world college and university rankings. The IBCs were rated in 4 categories, 9 standards, and 44 perspectives. The IBCs are rated on a 1(lowest) to 5-star-plus (highest) scale. However, in order to earn more than four stars, additional criteria must be met.

In fact, there was no IBCs that achieved a 5-star-plus rating. 5-stars were granted to three IBCs, Heriot-Watt University, London Business School, and University of Manchester. 19) However, it should be noted that only 17 IBCs were subject to this rating, 20) and that IBCs accredited by the CAA are not included.

**5. Conclusion**

This purpose of this paper is to review the trend since the 2000s, focusing on the institutional aspects, and to consider the development of IBCs in Dubai. In the 2000s, while the quantitative expansion of IBCs in Dubai progressed, the system to support them was still being developed. As a result, some researchers had at first a sense of distrust towards IBCs this period. From the viewpoint of the main campuses and the home countries, they were considered as "inferior to the main campuses" and "something unknown." In fact, during this period, some IBCs were closed as they could not attract students or were considered to be of low quality.

**Table 2-1 International Branch Campuses in the United Arab Emirates (Chronological Order of Establishment, Confirmed as of 2019)**

| No. | Name of Branch Campus | Location | Year of establishment | School closing year | Providing country |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | University of Wollongong in Dubai | DKP | 1993 | | Australia |
| 2 | Birla Institute of Technology & Science, Pilani - Dubai Campus | DIAC | 2000 | | India |
| 3 | SZABIST Dubai | DIAC | 2003 | | Pakistan |
| 4 | Manipal University Dubai Campus | DKP | 2003 | | India |
| 5 | International Technology Management Organization (closed) | (DKV) | 2003 | | United Kingdom |
| 6 | University of Southern Queensland (closed) | (DKV) | 2004 | 2010 | Australia |
| 7 | SP Jain School of Global Management, Dubai Campus | DIAC | 2004 | 2005 | India |
| 8 | The Islamic Azad University, UAE Branch | DKP | 2004 | | Iran |
| 9 | University of Manchester Middle East Center (Manchester Business School) | DIAC | 2005 | | United Kingdom |
| 10 | Middlesex University Dubai | DIAC | 2005 | | United Kingdom |
| 11 | Heriot-Watt University Dubai | DIAC | 2005 | | United Kingdom |
| 12 | Saint-Petersburg State Economic University, Dubai Branch | DKP | 2005 | | Russia |
| 13 | Royal College of Surgery in Ireland, Dubai | DHCC | 2005 | | Ireland |
| 14 | SAE Dubai | DIAC | 2005 | | Australia |
| 15 | London Business School Dubai | DIFC | 2006 | | United Kingdom |
| 16 | University of Exeter Dubai | DKP | 2006 | | United Kingdom |
| 17 | ESMOD Dubai | DIAC | 2006 | | France |
| 18 | The Institute of Management Technology Dubai | DIAC | 2006 | | India |
| 19 | European University College Brussels-Dubai (closed) | (DKV) | 2006 | 2010 | Belgium |
| 20 | City University of London Dubai Center | DIFC | 2007 | | United Kingdom |
| 21 | Cambridge International College Dubai | DKP | 2007 | | Australia |
| 22 | Murdoch University Dubai | DKP | 2008 | | Australia |
| 23 | Michigan State University Dubai Campus(closed) | DKP | 2008 | 2019(?) | United States |
| 24 | Hult International Business School | DIAC | 2008 | | United States |
| 25 | Rochester Institute of Technology Dubai | DSO | 2008 | | United States |
| 26 | Saint-Joseph University Dubai | DIAC | 2008 | | Lebanon |
| 27 | University of Bolton Dental Education and Research Institute Dubai (closed) | DHCC | 2008 | 2012 | United States |
| 28 | University of Bradford Regional Hub Dubai | DKP | 2009 | | United Kingdom |
| 29 | Amity University Dubai | DIAC | 2011 | | India |
| 30 | Synergy University Dubai | DMCC | 2013 | | Russia |
| 31 | University of Strathclyde Business School Abu Dhabi Center | Abu Dhabi | 1995 | | United Kingdom |
| 32 | New York Institute of Technology Abu Dhabi | Abu Dhabi | 2005 | | United States |
| 33 | Paris-Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi | Abu Dhabi | 2006 | | France |
| 34 | INSEAD Abu Dhabi Middle Eastern Campus | Abu Dhabi | 2007 | | France |
| 35 | Mohammed V University Agdal Abu Dhabi | Abu Dhabi | 2009 | | Morocco |
| 36 | New York Institute of Technology Abu Dhabi | Abu Dhabi | 2010 | | United States |
| 37 | Mahatma Gandhi University RAK Center (closed) moved from Dubai | Ras Al Khaimah | 2002 | 2014 | India |
| 38 | George Mason University (closed) | Ras Al Khaimah | 2006 | 2009 | United States |
| 39 | University of Bolton RAK Academic Center | Ras Al Khaimah | 2008 | | United Kingdom |
| 40 | Vatel International Business School RAK (closed) | Ras Al Khaimah | 2009 | N/A | France |
| 41 | Bharati Vidyupeeth Deemed University RAK | Ras Al Khaimah | 2009 | N/A | India |
| 42 | Pune University RAK (closed) | Ras Al Khaimah | 2009 | 2011 | India |
| 43 | École polytechnique fédérale de Lausanne Middle East | Ras Al Khaimah | 2009 | | Switzerland |
| 44 | Madurai Kamaraj University RAK | Ras Al Khaimah | 2010 | | India |

Reference: Information about the International Branch Campuses in Dubai was compiled by the author by referring to various materials, mainly KHDA. Study in Dubai International Campuses. 2013. DIFC stands for Dubai International Financial Center, DSO stands for Dubai Silicon Oasis, DMCC stands for Multi Commodities Center, and DHCC stands for Dubai Healthcare City. About the information on international branch campuses in Abu Dhabi, Abu Dhabi Education Council.' List of Higher Education Institutions in Abu Dhabi.' http://www.adec.ac.ae/en/Students/Pages/List-of-Higher-Education-Institution.aspx.(acquired on October 4,2015) was revised partly. Information about the international branch campuses in Ras al-Khaimah was compiled by author by referring to Lawton, W. and Katsomitros, A. International Branch Campus: Data and Developments. London: Observatory of Borderless Higher Education(OBHE), 2012. As a whole, C-BERT.' Branch Campus Listing (Updated January 20, 2017).' http://cbert.org/?page_id=34 (obtained on August 2, 2018) was referred to. RAK stands for Ras Al Khaimah.

On the other hand, in the middle of the 2010s, the establishment of the system related to IBCs was almost completed, and the quantitative expansion of IBCs also reached plateau. As a result, distrust toward IBCs seems to be less than before. Of course, such deep-rooted distrust toward the IBCs still exists, but on the other hand, some people regard them as “something that exists there." The related researches on IBCs are focused on "trying to deepen understanding of individual phenomena related to IBCs" rather than "pointing out doubts about their continuity." In particular, after overcoming the recession caused by the Dubai debt crisis in the latter half of the 2000s, the move to establish, revise, or abolish IBCs has declined, and less people regard the IBCs as “houses of cards."

In fact, the meaning of IBCs from the viewpoint of the home countries and from the viewpoint of the host countries may be different, and there is a "gap" in concern regarding the IBCs. For example, from the point of view of home countries of the IBCs and the providers such as the main campuses, the focus seemed to be on how to make the branch campuses "the same" as the main campuses in terms of how to link the branch campuses to their own interests (money, reputation, diplomacy, etc.) and how to maintain “equal quality" and “good reputation." On the other hand, from the perspective of the host countries, how the IBCs contribute to the economic growth, labor market, human resource development, and improvement of the education level in their country will be issues and concerns. In some cases, the equivalence of quality between the branch campuses and the main campuses can be emphasized, and in other cases, it may not be emphasized that much. In practice, it is necessary to focus on IBCs and to deepen understanding in the context of the individual actors surrounding them.

[Note]

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9) Hanada, S. "International Branch Campuses in the United Arab Emirates and Qatar", Comparative Education Research No. 47, Japanese Comparative Education Society, 2013, pp.121-139.
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11) Commission for Academic Accreditation. “Active Institutions.” https://www.caa.ae/caa/Desktop Modules/Institutions. aspx (obtained on April 11, 2020).
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17) Yusuke Nakajima, 2014, forecited, p.182.
18) Same as above, pp.187-188.
19) University Reform Support and Degree Granting Organization “UAE: The Dubai government announce a rating of higher education institutions. 17 TNE institutions receive star-rating.” https://qaupdates.niad.ac.jp/2019/07/31/dubai-classification/ (obtained on April 13, 2020).
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# Chapter 3 Educational System in India

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[Summary]

The purpose of this paper is to outline the educational system in India. India, with a population of more than 1,300,000,000, has been experiencing remarkable economic growth in recent years, and the quantitative expansion of education, particularly in the compulsory education stage, is progressing. India, on the other hand, has a federal system, and each state is in principle responsible for education. Despite all of that, one of the characteristics there is that the central government is also taking various measures, such as the promulgation of the National Curriculum Framework. As of May 2020, under the leadership of Prime Minister Narendra Modi, India is aiming at the establishment of "National Education Policy (Draft) for 2019," which is expected to be the first major educational reform in about 30 years.

**Notice:** *The English in this report was machine translated from the original Japanese before undergoing post-editing by human translators. In the event of any discrepancies between this translated document and the Japanese original, the Japanese original shall prevail.*

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## 1. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to outline the educational system in India. This section summarizes basic information on India.

According to the World Bank, India's population in 2018 was about 1,353,000,000, making it the world's second largest superpower after China. 1) India is a country rich in religious, linguistic, and ethnic diversity, and was born as a federal state due to the need to unify the diversity and transfer authority to each group. It now consists of 29 states and 7 federal territories. According to the 2011 census, Hindus accounted for 79.8% of all religions, while Muslims accounted for 14.2%, Christians for 2.3%, Sikhism for 1.7%, Buddhists for 0.7%, and Jains for 0.4% 2). The federal official language is Hindi (English is treated as an official second language), and there are 21 other state languages that are recognized constitutionally.

Since India became independent from the United Kingdom in 1947, the Indian National Congress (INC), led by the first Prime Minister Nehru, aimed to realize a fair society free from discrimination and inequality under a democratic political system and a planned economic system. On the political front, general elections were held once every five years under the democracy based on the universal suffrage system, and the INC came to power until the late 1980s. On the economic front, the first Five-Year Plan was launched in 1951. From the Second Five-Year Plan (1956-61) in 1956, full-scale nation-building with heavy industry as a key industry began. However, as the economy gradually began to stagnate, confusion began to appear both politically and economically, as seen in the introduction of a market economy in some areas from the 1980s, and the collapse of predominant-party system of the Indian National Congress in 1989. The party had been in power until then. Faced with a serious economic crisis in 1991, the government pushed forward full-scale market development through structural adjustment reforms. In the seventeenth general election held in 2019, the "Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP)" came into power with a majority (the current Prime Minister is Narendra Modi).

Table 3-1 shows the changes in India's overall GDP since 1990. The GDP in 2000 is about 1.5 times larger than in 1990, and the GDP in 2010 is about 3.6 times larger than in 2000. This indicates that the change from 2000 to 2010 was very large in India.

In this section, basic information on India is briefly summarized. India has a population of more than 1,300,000,000 and is rich in religious, linguistic and ethnic diversity. India has continued to enjoy remarkable economic growth especially by the introduction of full-scale marketing in the 1990s.

## 2 Educational System in India

This section outlines India's education system.

First, the school system in India is described. The school levels in India are roughly divided into four: Primary School for grades 1 to 5; Upper Primary School for grades 6 to 8; Secondary School for grades 9 to 10; and Senior Secondary School for grades 11 to 12. Basically, India has a 5-3-2-2 education system (although some states have a 4-3-3-2 system) (see Figure 3-1 at the end of this chapter). Regarding compulsory education, the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act (RTE2009) was enacted at the federal level in 2009 (enforced in 2010). Compulsory education, which had been the responsibility of the state in principle, has been actively pursued under cooperation between the federal and state governments since then. The subjects of compulsory education are grades 1 to 8.

Next, the Gross Enrollment Raito, the number of schools, and the number of students at each school level in India are shown in Table 3-2. Table 3-3 shows the gross enrolment ratio from fiscal 2000 to 2015. In particular, the gross enrolment rate at the primary school level (grades 1 to 5) reached almost 100%, and the number of children reached nearly 100,030,000 in fiscal 2015 to 2016. On the other hand, the gross enrolment ratio declines as students enter higher level schools, finally reaching 50% in late secondary schools (grades 11 to 12) in recent years. 3)

Behind this background, there is the fact that socioeconomic disparity still exists. In India in particular, the socially vulnerable have been marginalized socially, economically, and educationally during its long history. As far as education is concerned, not only their low school enrolment rate (see Table 3-4), but also poor academic performance and high drop-out rate (Table 3-5) are problems. It has been pointed out that the resulting educational disparity has led to the reproduction of further socioeconomic disparity.

Therefore, RTE2009 states that private schools will accept (at least 25% of the quota) children of the socially vulnerable (including categories such as SC and ST) who live in the neighborhood and provide compulsory education free of charge until completion. Since the public sector alone cannot provide satisfactory education with quality as well as quantity, opening private schools to children of the socially vulnerable is considered to be a very effective means to provide them with better educational opportunities. 4)

There are four main types of school management: Government, Local Bodies, Private Aided, and Private Unaided (See Table 3-6).

**Table 3-1. Changes in GDP in India (1990, 2000, 2010, 2018)**

| | In 1990 | In 2000 | In 2010 | In 2018 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| GDP ($1,000,000,000) | 317 | 462 | 1,657 | 2,719 |

Reference: Compiled by the author based on data from The World Bank.
(https://data.worldbank.org/country/india, last viewed on May 27, 2020)

**Table 3-2. Gross enrolment ratio, number of schools, and number of students at each school level in India**

| School Level | Gross enrolment ratio (%) (2015-2016 Academic Year) | Number of schools (2015-2016 Academic Year) | Number of students (Unit:10,000) (In 2017) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Primary School (Grade 1-5) | 99.2 | 840,546 | 12,994.2 |
| Upper Primary School (Grade 6-8) | 92.8 | 429,624 | 7,207.1 |
| Secondary school (grade 9-10) | 80.0 | 139,539 | 4,851.2 |
| Senior Secondary School (Grade 11-12) | 56.2 | 112,637 | 4,371.3 |

Reference: Compiled by the author based on MHRD and EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS AT A GLANCE (2018).

**Table 3-3 2000 - Gross Enrolment Ratio from FY 2000- 2001 to FY 2015-2016 (%)**

| | 2000 to 2001 Academic Year | 2010-2011 Academic Year | 2015-2016 Academic Year |
|---|---|---|---|
| Primary School (Grade 1-5) | 95.7 | 115.5 | 99.2 |
| Upper Primary School (Grade 6-8) | 81.6 | 103.9 | 92.8 |
| Secondary school (grade 9-10) | - | 65.2 | 80.0 |
| Senior Secondary School (Grade 11-12) | 33.3 | 39.4 | 56.2 |
| Higher education | 8.1 | 19.4 | 24.5 |

Reference: Compiled by the author based on MHRD and EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS AT A GLANCE (2018).

“Government" schools are the schools established and operated by the federal or state government. “Local Bodies” schools are the schools established and operated by the local government level of India called Panchayat (based on the village Panchayat which usually consists of several villages). “Private Aided” schools are the private schools that receive financial assistance from the (state) government. "Private Unaided" school are the private schools that are not basically funded by the (state) government.

On the other hand, about the curriculum, the National Council of Educational Research and Training, a federal level council, establishes National Curriculum Framework (hereinafter referred to as “Curriculum Framework"), which serves as a framework in designing actual curriculums and creating textbooks. The council is trying to unify education content to some extent (curriculums may be established at the state level in accordance with the Curriculum Framework). The curriculum framework published in 2005 is the latest and continues to be used as of May 2020.

In parallel with the establishment of each school, each school founder selects and affiliate with a board that provides the actual curriculum based on the curriculum framework. Basically, schools established by the federal government are affiliated with the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE), and schools established by state governments (or subsidized) are affiliated with boards at each state level. Some private unaided schools are affiliated with CBSE, state-level boards and the International Baccalaureate (IB) depending on their intent of establishment. In India, passing an examination conducted by each board at the end of Grade 12 qualifies students for university entrance, and each board mentioned above is the examination implementing body.

About the teacher training system in India, a central organization called the National Council of Teacher Education has established minimum teacher qualifications. For example, in order to become a primary school (grades 1 to 5) teacher, it is necessary to complete a 2-year diploma course (such as DIET at local educational and training institutions) or to obtain a degree in education at a university after completing a senior secondary school. In addition, in order to become an upper primary school (grades 6 to 8) teacher at it is necessary to take a course similar to that for those who

**Table 3-4. Enrolment ratio by category (%) in 2015-16**

| School Level | All | SC | ST |
|---|---|---|---|
| Primary School (Grade 1-5) | 99.2 | 110.9 | 106.7 |
| Upper Primary School (Grade 6-8) | 92.8 | 102.4 | 96.7 |
| Secondary school (grade 9-10) | 80.0 | 85.3 | 74.5 |
| Senior Secondary School (Grade 11-12) | 56.2 | 58.0 | 43.1 |
| Higher education | 24.5 | 19.0 | 14.2 |

Reference: Drawn up by the author based on MHRD, EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS AT A GLANCE (2018).
SC stands for "Scheduled Caste" and ST stands for "Scheduled Tribe."

**Table 3-5 Drop-Out Rate (%) by school level in 2014-2015 Academic Year**

| | All | SC | ST |
|---|---|---|---|
| Primary School (Grade 1-5) | 4.13 | 4.46 | 6.93 |
| Upper Primary School (Grade 6-8) | 4.03 | 5.51 | 8.59 |
| Secondary school (grade 9-10) | 17.06 | 19.36 | 24.68 |
| Senior Secondary School (Grade 11-12) | - | 3.22 | - |

Reference: Drawn up by the author based on MHRD, EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS AT A GLANCE (2018).

**Table 3-6. School Management Type in Each School Level in India (%)**

| School Level/ Management Style | Government | Local Bodies | Private Aided | Private Unaided |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary School (Grade 1-5) | 55.5 | 29.6 | 3.0 | 8.2 |
| Upper Primary School (Grade 6-8) | 55.9 | 14.6 | 9.5 | 16.9 |
| Secondary school (grade 9-10) | 33.1 | 0.9 | 25.8 | 40.3 |
| Senior Secondary School (Grade 11-12) | 32.7 | 7.9 | 21.8 | 37.6 |

Reference: Drawn up by the author based on MHRD, *Statistics of School Education 2011-12*（2014）

wish to become a primary school teacher, or to obtain a degree in humanities or science at a university, etc., and then take a teacher training program for 1 to 2 years at an educational training institution or a faculty of education at a university, etc. Therefore, in the case of those who wish to become upper primary school teachers, students enrolled in institutions other than the teacher training ones cannot earn a teaching license by taking a teacher-training course at the same time unlike in Japan. They are supposed to newly take a teacher-training program again after graduating from a university, etc. In recent years, in order to be employed as a teacher, it has been required to pass the Teacher Eligibility Test.

The higher education system in India consists of not only universities but also affiliated colleges. Basically, the universities are institutions that prepare curricula, give exams, grant degrees, and conduct for themselves education and research. The affiliated colleges, on the other hand, do not have the authority to prepare curriculums, give examinations, and grant degrees. Therefore, they mainly provide education according to curriculums prepared by the universities, and students take examinations of the universities and receive degrees from the universities. About 90 percent of students are enrolled in the affiliated colleges that belong to state universities. Therefore, the role of the states is also important in higher education, but the federal government also has a certain level of authority to establish and operate national universities, coordinate overall higher education, and set minimum standards. On the other hand, the term of courses at the undergraduate level in India is 3 years for general studies, but 4 years for engineering and 5 years for medical science. In terms of higher education from 2018 to 2019 academic year, GER accounted for 26.3%, and the number of universities and affiliated colleges reached 993 and 39,931, respectively, and the number of students reached about 37,400,000. 5)

In this section, I have outlined the education system in India, especially schools, related statistical information,

curricula, teacher training, and higher education. India has a population of more than 1,300,000,000. In recent years, as the country continues to enjoy remarkable economic growth, quantitative expansion has been progressing, mainly in the compulsory education stage. On the other hand, since India has a federal system, each state is responsible for education in principle. However, one of the characteristics of India is that the central government is also taking various measures, such as the promulgation of the curriculum framework.

**3. Recent Reform Trends**

Finally, this section summarizes recent educational reform trends in India.

As of May 2020, India is seeking to implement a major educational reform, the first in about 30 years. This is the revision of the "National Education Policy," which indicates the national education policy.

Since India became independent in 1947, education has been conducted in principle under the authority of the state government under the federal system. On the other hand, as one of the educational policies of the federal government for the whole country, India has a policy called the "National Education Policy 1986" (partially revised in 1992). The contents of this educational policy had not been changed for many years, but when the Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP) took power due to the change of government in 2014, the "National Educational Policy 1986" was renewed and the "National Educational Policy 2016 (draft)" was announced as centerpiece of educational reform. However, the government could not coordinate views on the contents of the draft with state governments and other interested parties. As a result, the draft was not realized. However, when the BJP achieved a landslide victory in the 2019 general elections, the "National Education Policy 2019 (Draft) " was announced again in June 2019. As of May 2020, the final coordination is in progress toward the enactment. 6)

The National Educational Policy 2019 (Draft) consists of 23 chapters, from Part 1 “School Education," including "Pre-School Education," Part 2 "Higher Education," Part 3 "Additional Areas of Primary Importance," including vocational and adult education, and Part 4, "Transformation of Education," including the establishment of the National Board of Education (Rashtriya Shiksha Aayog) to deliberate national education. 7) First of all, "Pre-School Education" includes the establishment of "a Curricular and Pedagogical Framework for Early Childhood Education" and the expansion of pre-school education. It also stated that “the thorough spreads of high-quality early childhood education are probably the best investment for India's children and the country's future." The government is aiming at expanding preschool education following compulsory education. Regarding “school education," for example, the goal is to fully spread primary education by 2025, and to reorganize the existing 10 + 2 (8 years of primary education and 2 years of lower secondary education, and 2 years of upper secondary education) education system into 5 + 3 + 3 + 4 (5 years of foundation stage including 3 years of pre-primary education and 2 years of primary education, 3 years of preparatory stage (upper primary education), 3 years of middle stage (higher primary education), and 4 years of secondary stage (secondary education)). On the other hand, regarding "higher education," there are a number of plans aimed at improving quantity and quality, such as the establishment of 13 national universities and the reorganization of about 800 universities and about 40,000 affiliated colleges into 15,000 excellent institutions.

Also, the National Curriculum Framework in 2005, which was introduced in the previous section, is scheduled to be revised by April 2021, anticipating the passage of the National Education Policy 2019 (Draft). 8) As just described, India is now aiming to enact the "National Education Policy 2019 (Draft)," which is believed to greatly influence the future direction of education in India.

**4. Conclusion**

In this paper, based on the basic information of India, the education system of India, especially schools, statistical information and curriculum related to them, teacher training, higher education, etc. were outlined, and finally, recent reform trends were mentioned a little.

India has a population of more than 1,300,000,000 and has been experiencing remarkable economic growth in recent years. In terms of educational systems, for example, gross enrolment ratio has reached almost 100% in primary school level (grades 1 to 5), but the has declined as students move up to higher schools. In senior secondary schools (grades 11 to 12), it has only recently reached 50%. Preferential treatment is also given to the socially vulnerable to ensure quality as well as quantity. On the other hand, since India has a federal system, each state is responsible for education in principle. However, one of the characteristics of India is that the central government is also taking various measures, such as the promulgation of the curriculum framework.

As of May 2020, under the leadership of Prime Minister Narendra Modi, India is aiming at the establishment of "National Education Policy (Draft) for 2019," which is expected to be the first major educational reform in about 30 years. Therefore, we will need to watch future developments more closely.

**[Note]**

1) The World Bank, "India" (https://data.worldbank.org/country/india, last viewed on May 27, 2020)
2) Ministry of Foreign Affairs “India Basic Data" (https://www.mofa.go.jp/mofaj/area/india/data.html#section1, last viewed on May 27, 2020)
3) I will explain a little about Gujarat. Gujarat is a state in western India facing the Arabian Sea. The population is 60,383,000 (2011 census), and the state capital is Gandhinagar. Ahmadabad is the state's largest city.

   The language is Gujarati. Table 3-7 below compares the gross enrolment ratios in the nation and Gujarat between 2015 -2016 Academic Year.

**Table 3 : Comparison of gross enrolment ratios (%) between the nation and Gujarat in 2015－2016 Academic Year**

| | Nation | Gujarat |
|---|---|---|
| Primary School (Grade 1-5) | 99.2 | 97.24 |
| Upper Primary School (Grade 6-8) | 92.8 | 95.73 |
| Secondary School (grade 9-10) | 80.0 | 74.13 |
| Senior Secondary School (Grade 11-12) | 56.2 | 43.43 |
| Higher Education | 24.5 | 20.7 |

Reference: Drawn up by the author based on MHRD, EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS AT A GLANCE (2018).

4) On the other hand, in India, under Article 46 of the Constitution, preferential treatment has been proactively given to socially vulnerable groups called Scheduled Caste (SC), Scheduled Tribe (ST), and Other Backward Classes (OBC). One of the best examples of this is reservation system. In the system, priority in enrollment in educational institutions and hiring, etc. is given to certain percentage of people in specific categories according to their population ratio (At federal level, 15% of SC, 7.5% of ST, 27% of OBC. In addition, Persons with Disability (PWD) are also eligible for the system, and 3% reservation of each category will be given to them.) The reservation system also applies to the employment quotas for teachers at government-subsidized higher education institutions.
5) Ministry of Human and Resource Development, All India Survey on Higher Education 2018-19 (https://mhrd.gov.in/sites/upload_files/mhrd/files/statistics-new/AISHE%20Final%20Report%202018-19.pdf, last viewed on May 29, 2020)
6) "PM Modi deliberates on national education policy, reforms in education sector", Hindustan Times (https://www.hindustantimes.com/education/pm-modi-deliberates-on-national-education-policy-reforms-in-education-sector/story-SiWGhom9K3U4yTGycCraiJ. html, last viewed on May 29, 2020)
7) Ministry of Human and Resource Development, Draft National Education Policy 2019 (https://mhrd.gov.in/sites/upload_files/mhrd/files/Draft_NEP_2019_EN_Revised.pdf, last viewed on May 30, 2020)
8) "15 years on, schools to get new curriculum", The Times of India (https://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/india/15-years-on-schools-to-get-new- curriculum/articleshowprint/75727846. cms, last viewed 5 / 29 / 2020)

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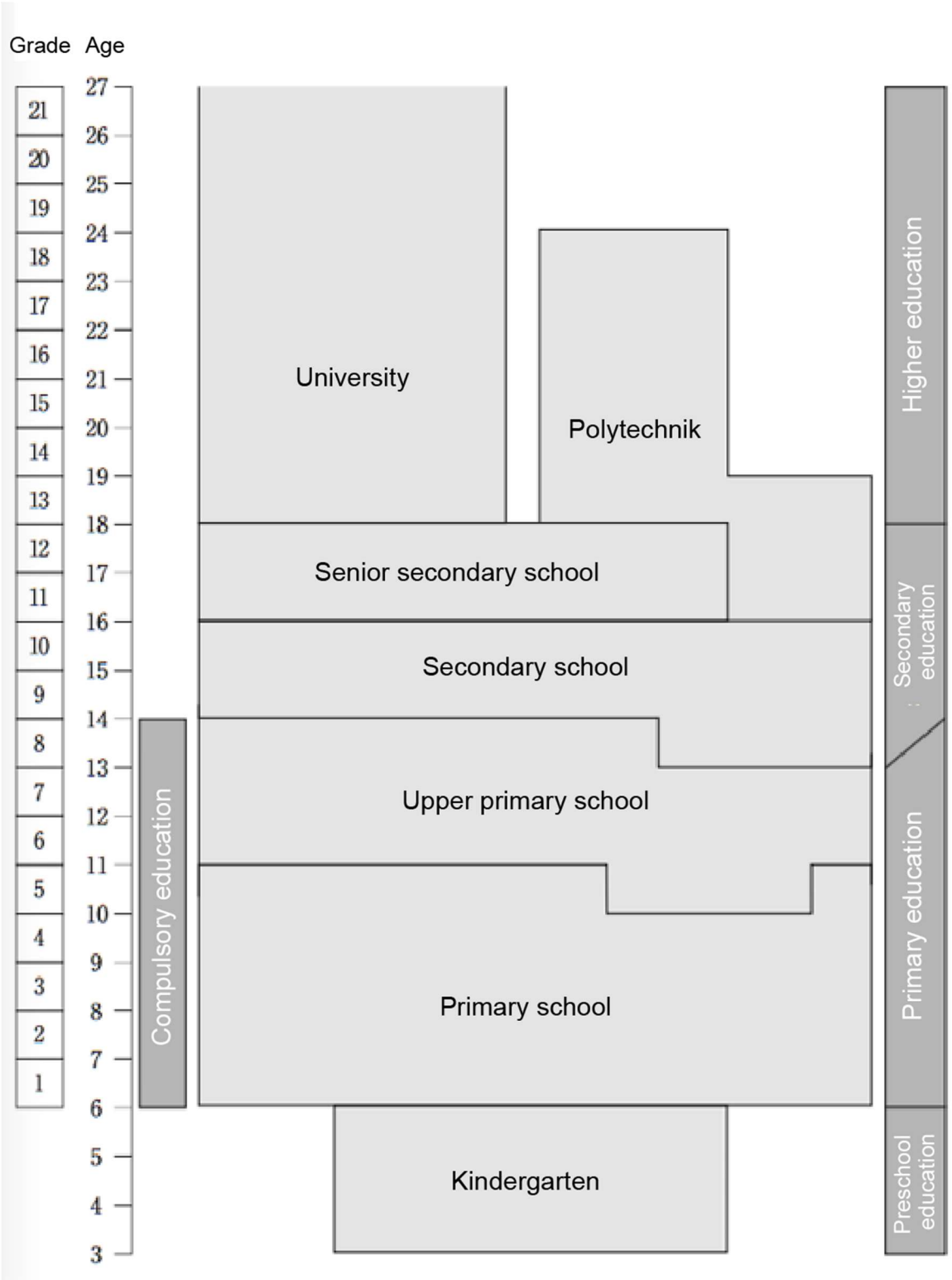


**Figure 3-1 School System in India**

Reference :Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, "World's School System (Website Version)" (https://www.mext.go.jp/component/b_menu/other/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2017/10/02/1396848_001_1.pdf last viewed on May 29, 2020)

# Chapter 4 Educational System in Indonesia

Kentaro Shimada[v]

[Summary]

The purpose of this paper is to outline the educational system in Indonesia. One of the characteristics of the educational system in Indonesia, which is geographically and culturally diverse, is that general schools coexist with Islamic schools. Religious education is systematically incorporated, and an emphasis is placed on citizenship and character formation. Educational reform in recent years aims to ensure fairness as well as quality. Indonesia is in particular in need of assistance in the area of higher education and human resource development in the industry, as democratization was promoted in the early twenty first century and economic growth is expected. Indonesia is Japan's largest recipient of assistance, and has continuously received assistance in various fields from basic education to higher education. Indonesia has been actively accepting Japan's "lesson study." In recent years, private companies have accelerated their expansion in educational exchanges and in the education industry.

**Notice:** *The English in this report was machine translated from the original Japanese before undergoing post-editing by human translators. In the event of any discrepancies between this translated document and the Japanese original, the Japanese original shall prevail.*

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## 1. Introduction

In the global market economy, the international liquidity of people, goods and money in the field of education is increasing. Parents seek better education providers across borders, and policymakers consider ways to improve their country's education from other countries' practices. The same is true for teachers and schools. The competitors are becoming the educational institution in all over the country and neighboring countries beyond the ones in neighborhood municipalities. As society is rapidly changing, students have to think about what they will learn and what their future career will be with awareness of the world. In this regard, International Institute for Advanced Studies (2019) points out that people-to-people exchanges in the course of study abroad, mainly in universities, are a model for trade. As internationalization progresses, the possibility cannot be overlooked that social and economic activities centering on education will become active in the field of basic education in the future.

As education contributes to economic development, education in Japan is drawing attention from around the world. This is because Japanese children show a high level of basic academic ability and norm consciousness. In fact, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has been implementing the "Overseas Development Project of Japanese-style Education" since 2016, which is a public-private partnership project called “Edu-port Nippon.” One of the characteristics of Japanese-style education is that “holistic education, including extracurricular education, results in the establishment of a spirit that values discipline and courtesy, and in the realization of ethics and moral education" (op.cit. Chapter 16). In addition to contributing to economic development, the international community has agreed that education itself leads to the self-realization of individuals and the promotion of happiness, and that receiving a better education is an important element of fundamental human rights. Clarifying the characteristics of Japanese-style education is valuable not only to Japan but also to the world.

The purpose of this paper is to outline the educational system of the Republic of Indonesia (hereinafter referred to as Indonesia) and to summarize the implications of the exportability of Japanese-style education. Indonesia is a country consisting of many islands. It is a developing country that has achieved rapid economic development in recent years among Southeast Asian countries. It is economically and historically deeply connected with Japan. The next section, we examine the outline of Indonesia from the economic and administrative aspects. Section 3 focuses on the education system. It will explain the actual situation of the school system, curriculum, teacher training and educational reform in recent years. Section 4 examines examples of Japanese private sector’s entry into the education industry and overseas educational facilities in Indonesia.

## 2. Basic information

### 2-1. REPUBLIC OF INDONESIA

Indonesia is the fourth largest country in the world with a population of 267,000,000 as of 2018 (world bank, 2020a). This accounts for 40% of the total population of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), and its economic size is more than twice that of Thailand. The total land area is 1,910,931 square kilometers, and there are more than 10,000 islands (See Figure 4-1). Its land area is about 5 times larger than that of Japan. There are 514 prefectures and cities in all 34 provinces. The Special Capital Region of Jakarta is located on Java Island, and is home to about 10,000,000 people. The Special Capital Region of Jakarta is composed of five wards and one province, with a total area of 662.33 square kilometers. Chronic floods and traffic jams are problems. About 60 percent of the Japanese residents in the country are concentrated (about 19,000 people).

Indonesia, a multiethnic country, guarantees freedom of religion and has 6 nationally recognized religions. The composition of each religion in the population is as follows. 87.2% of Muslims, 6.9% of non-Catholics, 2.9% of Catholics, 1.7% of Hindus, 0.7% of Buddhists, and 0.05% of Confucians. So, nearly 90% are Muslims (Indonesia Information Portal, 2020). The Java tribe is the most popular ethnic group, with 41.7%, followed by the Sunda tribe with 15.54%, and other ethnic groups with less than 4%. For example, 3.6% of Batak, 1.2% of Chinese Indonesians, and 0.1% of foreign nationals 1). As mentioned above, the idea of Indonesia, where people from various backgrounds live, is "Unity in Diversity ( Pancasila: The five principles of National Foundation). In Sanskrit, it means the practice of five virtues. The five principles are: "Belief in The One and Only God", "A just and civilized humanity", “Unity of Indonesia", "Democracy led by Inner Wisdom in consultation/representation", and "Social justice for the entire people of Indonesia."

### 2-2 Political, Economic and Administrative Systems

The head of state is President Joko Widodo. He was first elected in 2014 and reappointed in October 2019. He served as mayor of Surakarta and governor of the Special Capital Region of Jakarta. He has the common touch and attracts attention as the first president who is not an elite or military man (JETRO, 2018). The April 2019 presidential election came to an end with the reelection of Joko Widodo with the support of moderate Muslims and non-Muslims. He won against conservative rival

Prabowo Subianto by about 10 percent of vote (55.26 percent) (Honna, 2019).

Indonesia's political system is a republican republic. 2) The term of the president as head of state is 5 years. The highest legislative organ is the People's Consultative Assembly (MPR). The developmental dictatorship of the first president, Sukarno, collapsed after the Asian financial crisis in 1997, and democratization is progressing. In particular, the autonomy of local governments has been expanded, and the influence of local leaders elected through direct elections has become stronger (Miichi, 2019). The National Assembly has 560 seats and the Regional Representative Council has 132 seats. The MPR consists of a total of 692 members from the National Assembly and the Regional Representative Council.

According to Horie (2017), Indonesia's economy is driven by domestic demand. Personal consumption is steady and stable, with no political instability. The export structure is resource dependent. In order to transform the industrial structure, it is necessary to improve the infrastructure and foreign capital inducement policy, and to train good quality workers. 3) Compared to neighboring countries (such as Vietnam, India, Myanmar, and Bangladesh), labor costs are relatively high and foreign investment is difficult to attract. However, Indonesia's strength is that it has the fourth largest population in the world, and the total population will increase until 2070. The working-age population will also increase until 2055, and the consumer market will continue to expand over the next 50 years. If appropriate measures are taken, there is a high possibility of further economic growth. Infrastructure development, the development of high-quality industrial human resources, and adjustments for regional gap are necessary. 4)

The currency is Indonesian Rupiah (1 Yen = 139.44 Rupiah, 1 USD = 14909.80 Rupiah as of May 11, 2020). The real GDP growth rate in 2010 was 6.4%. It dropped to the 5% level in 2013, but it still remained at 5.0% in 2016. The GDP growth rate is expected to remain in the range of 5% (See Figure 4-2).

The Indonesian government has a three-tiered

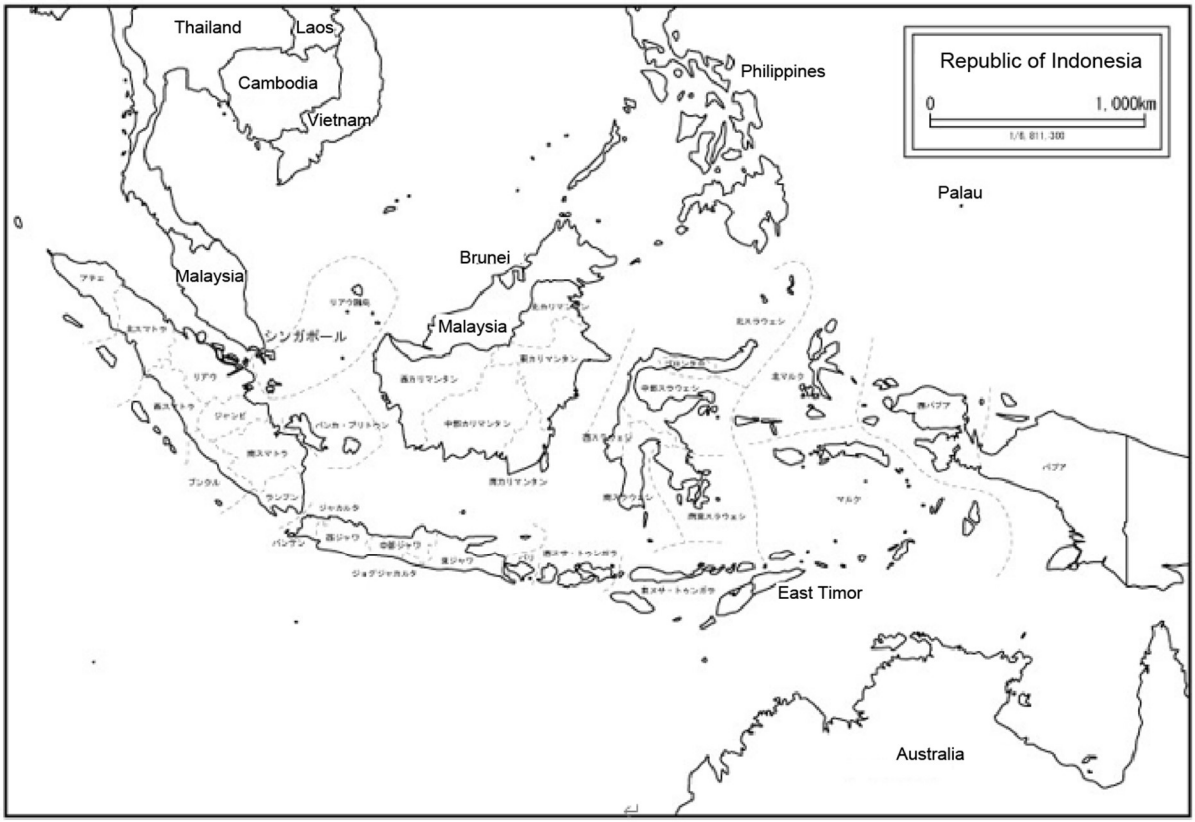


**Figure 4-1 Map of Indonesia**

Reference: Blank Map Store (2020)

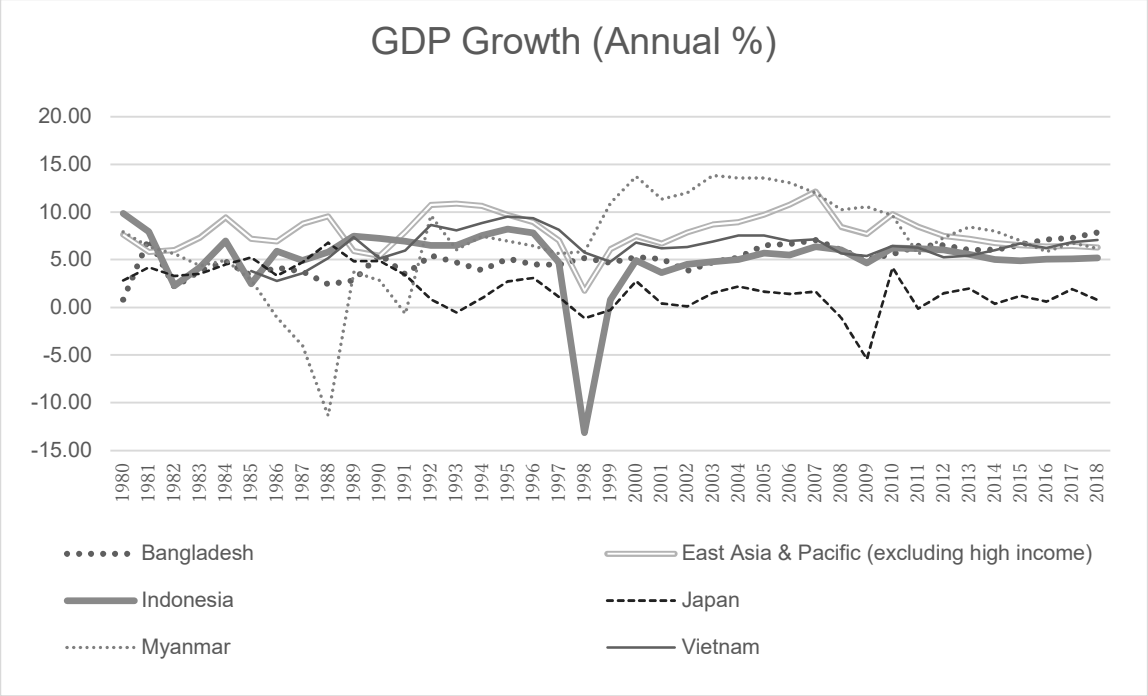


**Figure 4-2 Trends in the Economic Growth Rates of Major ASEAN Countries**

Reference: Created by the author based on World Bank (2020b)

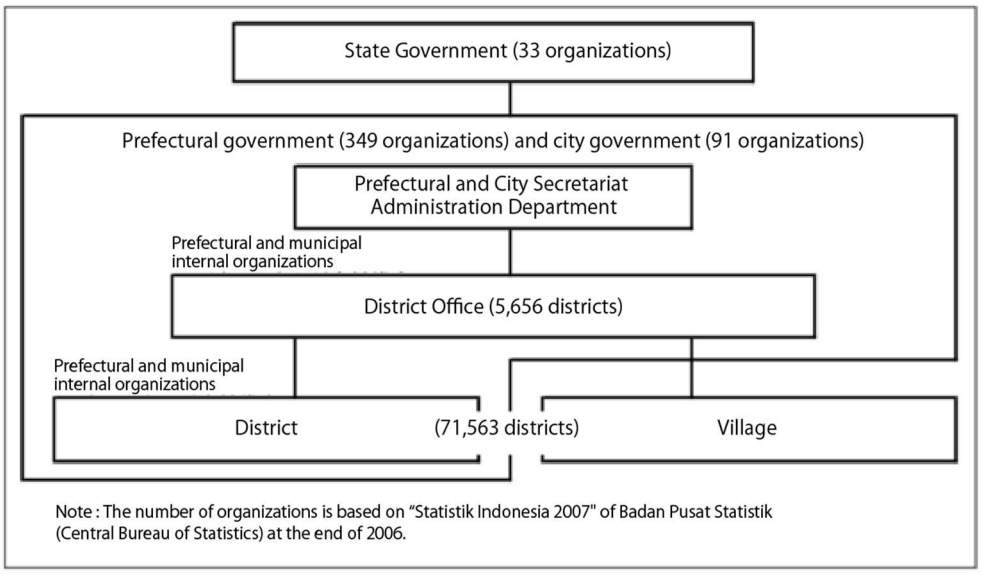


**Figure 4-3 Local Government System in Indonesia**

Reference: Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (2009), 30

structure consisting of the central government, provincial governments, and prefectural and city governments (See Figure 4-3). All states introduced a single system under the Local Government Act 2004. Five provinces, the Special Capital Region of Jakarta, the Special Region of Yogyakarta, provinces of Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam, Papua and West Papua, have special autonomy (Council of Local Authorities for International Relations, 2009, 28). The president will cooperate with the National Assembly and the Regional Representative Council through the MPR. The Cabinet structurally has Coordinating Ministers above each minister and the interior minister, and the Coordinating Ministers communicate with the President. Each Provincial Government is headed by a

governor and consists of a provincial assembly, organizations, and the provincial branch office. Each prefectural/city government is headed by a prefectural governor/city mayor and consists of each assembly, organizations, and a prefectural/city branch office.

According to the two Acts on Decentralization after 2001 (The Local Government Act (No.22/1999), the Revised Local Government Act (No.32/2004), and the Revised Act (No.33/2004) on Financial Balance between Central and Local Government, the authority of the central government was limited to diplomacy, national defense and security, justice, financing and national finance, and religion, and almost all the authority concerning the provision of administrative services was transferred to prefectures and cities (prefectures and cities are equal).

**3. Outline of Education**

**3-1 School System**

Indonesia adopts the 6-3-3-4 education system (See Figure 4-4). 5) Hattori (2014) indicates systematically organized the general schools and Islamic schools under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of National Education and the Ministry of Religion. The central government decides the national education policy and measures, and the provincial, prefectural, and city governments formulate and implement education plans according to each local government. With regard to financial assistance, measures are being taken to meet the demands at central and local levels. The government basically has jurisdiction over higher education. In addition, the central government is in charge of screening textbooks for basic education and setting standards for the contents. Prefectural and private educational institutions hire teachers.

General schools accounted for 86 percent (elementary schools), 69 percent (junior high schools), and 62 percent (high schools), respectively. The ratio of primary public schools to private schools is 9:1. On the other hand, the public schools account for 60% of junior high schools and 50% of high schools. Most Islamic schools are private schools for elementary, junior high, and high schools. (See Table 4-1).

Indonesia's educational reform was triggered by the Asian financial crisis. The influence of democratization also extends to education (Hattori, 2008). The educational policy was changed from uniform education (language, curriculum, value education) to the education where diversity in each region is respected. In addition to the transfer of authority through the systematic introduction of the autonomous school management system, citizens' participation in society has also been encouraged. This is based on the National Education System Act 2003 enacted after the reform in 1998. The objectives of education in the country are defined as follows. In other words, "education is a conscious and systematic effort to realize an environment for learning and learning processes so that those who receive education can actively develop their own abilities in order to acquire religious spirit, autonomy, individuality, intelligence, noble morals, and skills required for themselves, society, the people, and the nation" ((Moriyama, 2015, 77). 6)

Preschool education in Indonesia is not compulsory. Preschool education is important as a condition for entering a private elementary school. 7) In the case of a nursery school, the enrollment fee is 5,000,000 IDR (about 35,000 yen) or more, and the tuition fee is 3,600,000 IDR (about 26,000 yen) or more. 8) Primary and secondary education in Indonesia is compulsory. Compulsory school age is from 7 to 15 years old. The standard school age is 6 years to 12 years old for elementary school, 13 years to 15 years old for junior high school, and 16 years to 18 years old for high school.

The first semester begins in July and ends in December. The second semester starts in January and lasts until June. Non-formal education is also spreading to a certain extent. The education is for students who study without going to school, such as home-schooling students, and for students who attend international schools and study in a curriculum different from that of the Indonesian government. Such education is called Study Group (Kelompok Bejar), and the students take classes three days a week to prepare for the certification examination which is conducted twice a year. The examination has three types: elementary school (Paket A), junior high school (Paket B), and high school graduation (Paket C). The Administrative fee, operating costs and tuition are free of charge for public elementary and junior high schools. Travel expenses, bags, shoes and uniforms will be borne by individuals. Private schools differ from school to school.

In all types of schools, those who pass the national examination at the time of completion are given the National Certificate, which is a basic requirement for entering higher education. As for higher education, entrance examinations are conducted for those who have got a certificate of secondary education. At universities, a S1 degree, which is equivalent to a bachelor's degree is usually awarded in four years, a S2, equivalent to a master's degree, is awarded in two or more years, and a S3, equivalent to a doctor's degree, is awarded in three years. Professional colleges, colleges, polytechnics and academies offer 1-4-year courses. Certificate of D1-D4 is awarded in one to three years, and Certificate of D4, which is equivalent to bachelor's degrees, are awarded in four years.

Table 4-2 The changes in Enrollment Rates for Each Education Level in Indonesia, shows the enrollment rates for each school type and level. The reason why the enrollment rates exceed 100% in primary school education is believed that there are those who repeat their school years or those who are older than the normal age of admission. In terms of changes over time, enrollment rates in the compulsory education level have not changed significantly, except for the fact that the rates in senior secondary education improved from 64.9% in 2011 to 80.7% in 2018. A challenge exists in preschool education and higher education. As of 2018, the enrollment rates were about 30%, and it is necessary to improve them. Table 4-3 shows the net enrolment rates for each education level by province.

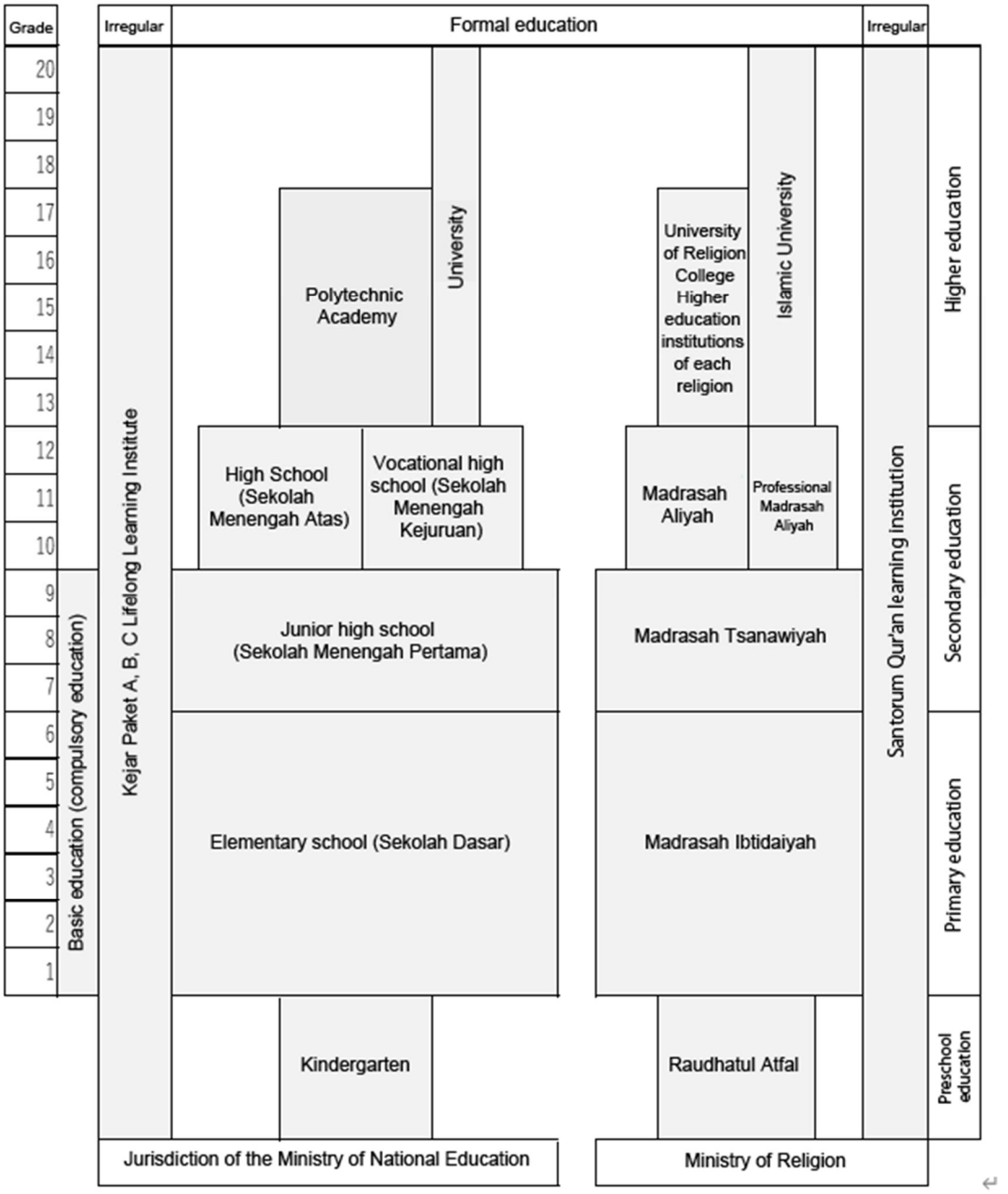


Figure 4-4 School Education System in Indonesia

Reference: Compiled by the author based on the information from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (2019) and Hattori (2014)

Looking at the changes in public education spending between 2007 and 2015, it has remained at around 3% of GDP (See Table 4-4). Although it cannot be said that educational expenditure is sufficiently secured, the annual expenditure has increased more than twice from USD 13,158,000,000 in 2007 to USD 30,850,000,000 in 2015. Looking at the changes in the ratio of current and capital expenditure by education level, the ratio of educational expenditure to total government expenditure has increased slightly from 14.9% to 20.5% (See Table 4-5). The ratio in Primary and secondary education, which is equivalent to the period of compulsory education, accounts for about 70% of the total, and the ratio of current expenditure and capital expenditure is 8-9:1 is common even compared with that in other countries.

Table 4-1. Schools under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of National Education and the Ministry of Religion and the number of schools by type

| | Public | (%) | Private | (%) | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary School | | | | | |
| General School | 131,974 | 89.0% | 16,270 | 11.0% | 148,244 |
| Islamic School | 1,686 | 6.8% | 23,265 | 93.2% | 24,951 |
| Total | 133,660 | 77.2% | 39,535 | 22.8% | 173,195 |
| Junior High School | | | | | |
| General School | 23,227 | 59.6% | 15,733 | 40.4% | 38,960 |
| Islamic School | 1,437 | 8.3% | 15,926 | 91.7% | 17,363 |
| Total | 24,664 | 43.8% | 31,659 | 56.2% | 56,323 |
| High School | | | | | |
| General School | 6732 | 49.9% | 6763 | 50.1% | 13,495 |
| Islamic School | 765 | 9.4% | 7,399 | 90.6% | 8,164 |
| Total | 7,497 | 34.6% | 14,162 | 65.4% | 21,659 |

Reference: Compiled by the author based on the information from World Bank (2019)

Table 4-2. Changes in Gross Rnrolment Ratio in Indonesia

| (Year) | **2011** | **2012** | **2013** | **2014** | **2015** | **2016** | **2017** | **2018** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Preschool Education | | | | | 35.2 | 34.6 | 33.8 | 37.9 |
| Primary Education | 102.6 | 104.3 | 107.7 | 108.9 | 110.5 | 109.3 | 108.5 | 108.6 |
| Junior Secondary Education | 89.8 | 89.5 | 86.0 | 88.6 | 91.2 | 90.1 | 90.2 | 91.5 |
| Senior Secondary Education | 64.9 | 68.8 | 66.6 | 74.3 | 78.0 | 80.9 | 82.8 | 80.7 |
| Higher Education | | | | | 25.3 | 28.0 | 29.9 | 30.2 |

References: Compiled by the author based on the information from BPS-Statistics Indonesia (2019)

**3-2 Curriculum and Teacher Training**

The current curriculum in Indonesia is based on the content revised in 2013. The goal is to develop productive, creative, innovative and emotional Indonesians through inspiring integral attitudes, skills, and knowledge. (Sri, 2016). The 2013 curriculum is the eighth revision from the 1947 curriculum as the starting point. However, the basis of these revisions is based on Pancasila, which is the five National Principles, and the 1945 Constitution (Mukminin, at el, 2019).

The 2013 curriculum is characterized by greater involvement of some central governments than in the 2006 curriculum. The major turning point in the overall curriculum reforms is the curriculum reform in 2004. In 2004, the Ministry of National Education introduced the Competence-Based Curriculum (KBK). Teachers can flexibly organize learning items according to each student's competence. Only the standards of competence to be achieved are set, and the details of education content are left to the discretion of teachers and schools. Nakaya (2006) summarizes the differences from the 1994 edition. The feature of the 2004 curriculum is that the balance of cognitive and psychological aspects is emphasized on the basis of competency, and that it made possible for each school and region to draw up a syllabus. This contrasts with the 1994 curriculum, which is based on content and teaching materials and is characterized by centralized curriculum development emphasizing cognitive aspects (emphasizing knowledge and teaching content). The 2006 curriculum revised KBK and introduced the "Curriculum Led by Educational Institutions (KTSP)". There is no essential difference from the 2004 edition, and the technical implementation system has been improved (Sri, 2016, 78). At public primary schools in Indonesia, students learn religion, citizenship, Indonesian, mathematics, natural science, sociology, art and culture, exercise and health. 9) In addition to those, students learn English and arts and crafts at junior high schools. Classes are offered in mainly Indonesian.

**Table 4-3. Gross Enrolment Ratios by Province (2018)**

| | Preschool Education | Primary Education | Junior Secondary Education | Senior Secondary Education | Higher Education |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Aceh | 31.8 | 113.9 | 99.3 | 84.8 | 43.9 |
| North Sumatra | 24.3 | 111.1 | 90.0 | 91.6 | 31.1 |
| West Sumatra | 30.2 | 111.0 | 90.9 | 84.0 | 44.2 |
| Riau | 29.3 | 106.9 | 94.2 | 83.9 | 34.2 |
| Jambi | 31.7 | 112.0 | 87.6 | 78.9 | 33.8 |
| South Sumatra | 25.4 | 114.1 | 86.5 | 77.4 | 26.2 |
| Bencoolen | 28.8 | 113.5 | 92.1 | 85.6 | 38.3 |
| Lampung | 33.2 | 110.1 | 94.2 | 81.6 | 21.3 |
| Bangka Belitung | 36.1 | 111.2 | 85.9 | 82.2 | 13.2 |
| Riau Islands | 28.3 | 107.3 | 92.4 | 91.0 | 27.6 |
| Special Capital Region of Jakarta | 39.8 | 105.3 | 94.9 | 74.0 | 36.7 |
| West Java | 35.9 | 106.2 | 91.0 | 75.3 | 25.1 |
| Central Java | 49.8 | 108.2 | 92.0 | 84.2 | 22.0 |
| Special Region of Yogyakarta | 69.8 | 105.8 | 97.0 | 87.4 | 70.6 |
| East Java | 56.9 | 106.7 | 94.9 | 79.1 | 30.0 |
| Banten | 29.8 | 109.5 | 91.7 | 71.7 | 33.4 |
| Bali | 35.5 | 103.0 | 96.1 | 87.7 | 36.4 |
| West Nusa Tenggara | 40.3 | 108.8 | 93.8 | 89.6 | 29.8 |
| East Nusa Tenggara | 32.6 | 116.6 | 88.5 | 77.8 | 30.1 |
| West Kalimantan | 22.5 | 117.0 | 83.0 | 79.3 | 22.7 |
| Central Kalimantan | 37.9 | 110.0 | 95.8 | 74.8 | 25.2 |
| South Kalimantan | 47.3 | 110.2 | 86.2 | 75.7 | 26.4 |
| East Kalimantan | 32.2 | 108.0 | 92.6 | 96.1 | 35.6 |
| North Kalimantan | 32.8 | 102.3 | 103.0 | 89.2 | 21.6 |
| North Sulawesi | 31.8 | 109.0 | 88.5 | 82.3 | 35.0 |
| Central Sulawesi | 41.8 | 105.3 | 92.9 | 83.5 | 40.6 |
| South Sulawesi | 32.2 | 110.3 | 87.0 | 81.7 | 41.2 |
| Southeast Sulawesi | 31.2 | 110.8 | 85.2 | 84.8 | 46.4 |
| Gorontalo | 50.2 | 112.0 | 80.2 | 84.3 | 35.2 |
| West Sulawesi | 42.5 | 108.6 | 82.4 | 84.5 | 28.9 |
| Maluku | 30.8 | 112.3 | 95.6 | 87.2 | 48.4 |
| North Maluku | 35.3 | 113.7 | 91.1 | 88.0 | 42.7 |
| West Papua | 27.4 | 110.7 | 89.7 | 90.7 | 36.0 |
| Papua | 13.2 | 94.5 | 87.8 | 65.1 | 19.0 |
| Indonesia as a whole | **37.9** | **108.6** | **91.5** | **80.7** | **30.2** |

References: Compiled by the author based on BPS-Statistics Indonesia (2019a)

Figure 4-5 shows international comparison data of the International Education Achievement Survey. As for the quality of education, the quality of teachers, teaching methods, and problems of school governance were pointed out, the government tried to catch up with the global standard by introducing international standard schools. However, it was abolished from the viewpoint of fairness in 2013 (Hattori, 2014). In response to the trend of the decentralization reform since 2004, the autonomous school management system has been introduced in the educational community, and educational practices based on the needs of local communities have been promoted. At the same time, the gap in educational levels has become apparent.

**Table 4-4. Changes in public education expenditure (2007 - 2015)**

| (Fiscal Year) | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Government Education Expenditure as a Percentage of GDP | 3.0 | 2.9 | 3.5 | 2.8 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.3 | 3.6 |
| Government Education Expenditure in US $ (millions) | 13158 | 14806 | 19021 | 21235 | 28481 | 31276 | 30652 | 29290 | 30850 |

References: Compiled by the author based on World Bank (2020c)

**Table 4-5. Changes in Current and Capital Expenditure Ratios by Education Level**

| Fiscal Year | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Education Expenditure as a Percentage of Total Government Expenditure | 14.9 | 13.7 | 19.3 | 16.7 | 18.0 | 18.1 | 17.6 | 17.7 | 20.5 |
| Preschool Education | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.7 | .. | 2.2 | 1.8 | 1.8 | .. |
| Primary Education | 48.4 | 49.0 | 47.9 | 44.4 | .. | 41.8 | 42.5 | 43.7 | 42.6 |
| Secondary Education | 25.1 | 25.3 | 25.5 | 24.3 | .. | 26.0 | 26.0 | 26.8 | 27.0 |
| Higher Education | 12.8 | 11.0 | 12.2 | 16.1 | .. | 17.2 | 16.4 | 15.1 | 15.8 |
| Capital Expenditure as a Percentage of Public Educational Institution Expenditure | 9.2 | 9.6 | 10.2 | 11.9 | 12.6 | 13.4 | 12.1 | 11.7 | 11.9 |
| Preschool Education | 21.0 | 21.0 | 21.1 | 19.9 | 19.3 | 16.5 | 18.5 | 18.8 | .. |
| Primary Education | 10.8 | 10.9 | 10.8 | 10.8 | 13.1 | 12.6 | 13.3 | 13.1 | 12.4 |
| Secondary Education | 6.8 | 6.9 | 6.6 | 7.7 | 8.7 | 7.4 | 7.6 | 7.6 | 7.2 |
| Higher Education | 12.0 | 13.9 | 21.6 | 27.1 | 25.4 | 28.3 | 19.7 | 18.6 | 22.2 |
| Ordinary Expenditure as a Percentage of Public Educational Institution Expenditure | 90.8 | 90.4 | 89.8 | 88.1 | 87.4 | 86.6 | 87.9 | 88.3 | 88.1 |
| Preschool Education | 79.0 | 79.0 | 78.9 | 80.1 | 80.7 | 83.5 | 81.5 | 81.2 | .. |
| Primary Education | 89.2 | 89.1 | 89.2 | 89.2 | 86.9 | 87.4 | 86.7 | 86.9 | 87.6 |
| Secondary Education | 93.2 | 93.1 | 93.4 | 92.3 | 91.3 | 92.6 | 92.4 | 92.4 | 92.8 |
| Higher Education | 88.0 | 86.1 | 78.4 | 72.9 | 74.6 | 71.7 | 80.3 | 81.4 | 77.8 |

References : Compiled by the author based on World Bank (2020c)

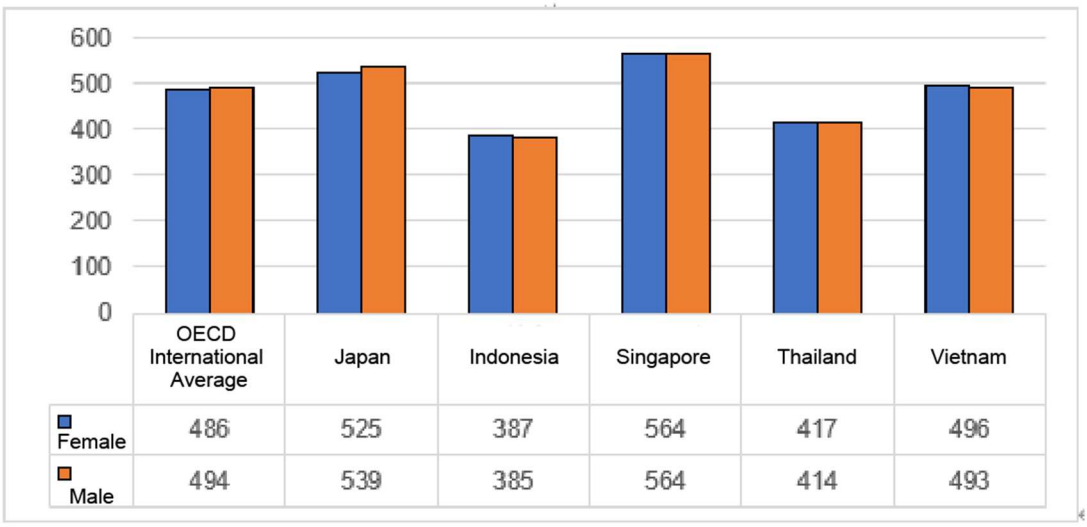


**Figure 4-5 PISA2015 Mathematical Literacy International Comparison**

References: Compiled by the author based on OECD (2015)

### 3-3. Recent Policy Trends

Looking at the Education Development Strategy for 2015 to 2019, we can see the government aims to improve the governance of preschool education, basic education (especially secondary education), adult education, and the overall education system. For each of these, the government seeks high quality and emphasizes equal resource allocation across states, districts, and cities (MOEC, 2016, 81). Since the Asian financial crisis, education reform has been carried out in various fields in response to social change in Indonesia. . Since the reform in 2003, the importance has been placed on education that utilizes the educational functions of local communities, national education that embraces various forms of education as alternative education, and development to improve the quality of teachers and educational personnel (Hattori, 2008).

The teacher training system is stipulated in the law on teachers (including lecturers and professors) established in 2005 (Yabuta, 2010). The National Education Standards Law and the new law mentioned above require that primary, junior high and high school teachers have either S1 (bachelor's degree) or D4 (qualification for 4 years of professional higher education) degrees in their specialty. The educational qualification improvement policy aims to ensure that all teachers in Indonesia have this qualification to improve the quality of education. (world bank, 2019b). Teacher Certification Program is a policy to grant certification to teachers with S1 or D4 qualifications who meet certain criteria.

## 4. International Education Cooperation with Indonesia

### 4-1 The True State of International Education Cooperation

According to JICA (2018), the acceptance of 15 trainees from Indonesia in 1954, before the establishment of diplomatic relations, was the beginning of international cooperation. Japan accounts for 45% of the total amount of ODA to Indonesia since 1960 and is the largest aid donor. At the same time, Indonesia accounts for 11% of the cummulative total amount of Japan’s ODA and is the largest recipient country. Japan supports Indonesia’s economic development through the development of basic infrastructure (transportation, electric power and energy, telecommunications, etc.), and assists in its’ establishment of democratic systems (supports election and police) and development of human resources for industry, and establishment of partnerships for South-South cooperation.

In the field of higher education, Japan has continuously supported Bandung Institute of Technology and other institutions of higher education in engineering that serve as a hub in Indonesia. Japan is supporting the "ASEAN University Network/Southeast Asia Engineering Education Development Network (SEED-Net)" and the establishment of Indonesia Accreditation Board for Engineering Education（IABEE). In the area of basic education, in line with the policy of extending compulsory education in 1994, Japan is conducting projects to maintain junior high school buildings, enhance quality of education in teacher training colleges, introduce "lesson study," and supporting the improvement of local educational administration through the participation of local residents. These supports also contributed to the spread of the current school subsidy system and the government-led “lesson study" method. At present, the method has spread to 67 teacher training colleges. It has also led to the establishment of a base such as the Indonesia University of Education, which accepts trainees from Asia and Africa.

### 4-2 Examples of Expansion of the Education Industry

This section introduces examples of expansion of education industry, which is closely related to this paper, into Indonesia and its problems. JICA et al. (2013) conducted a research on BOP business 11) for education fields. The research focused on the lack of basic academic skills (mathematics and arithmetic). JICA and others conducted a 30-minute class three times a week for 600 students in grade one to three in Surabaya city for 9 months from July 2012, in order to examine the effects of repeated learning such as Hundred-Square Calculations. The research also found that parents are highly aware of the importance of education and that 20-45 percent of children in the lower grades of elementary school go to cram schools. It also revealed that school teachers run a tutoring school after school hours.

Gakken Holdings (Nihon Keizai Shimbun, 2018) conducted after-school classes in Parepare city, Sulawesi island. Gakken conducted math classes four times a week for about 5,000 children at 80 primary schools in the city. Each class lasts one hour and is intended for second to third graders. The city of Palepare pays to Gakken, and students attend a class free of charge. The semipublic "after-school classes" became available because of the connection with the mayor and the support of the government. Thanks to that, a system that benefits children from the poor could be created.

There is also a case of popularization and demonstration projects to enhance children’s achievement level of mathematical skills using e-learning by industry-university cooperation (JICA, 2017). The projects have promoted the introduction of the Indonesian version mathematics drills and e-learning content (Surara Ninja!). The Indonesia University of

Education in Bandung is a co-operator. Behind the success of this project is the fact that the Special Capital Region of Jakarta ICT Utilization Education Quality Improvement Project has established to some extent the environment for ICT utilization education and e-learning introduction for elementary and junior high schools in the region. The cooperative relationship with the Indonesia University of Education, which is the partner, also contributed to the success. The university was a base university of the projects, Strengthening In-service Teacher Training of Mathematics and Science Education at Junior and Secondary Level (SISTTEMS) and Program for Enhancing Quality of Junior Secondary Education (PELITA), which was the popularization phase of SISTTEMS.

**4-3. Overseas Education Facilities in Indonesia**

There is also educational exchange through education for foreign children. Japanese overseas educational facilities (Zaigai Kyouiku Sisetsu) are defined as educational facilities established abroad mainly for the purpose of providing education equivalent to school education in Japan for the children of Japanese nationals residing abroad (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, March, 2018). As of 2019, there are 26 overseas educational facilities in Indonesia that the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan is aware of. This includes international schools. Among them, there are five Japanese schools. There are six overseas educational facilities around Jakarta (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2019b). They are Jakarta Japanese School, German School Jakarta, Jakarta Intercultural School, LFJ Lycee Francais de Jakarta, Australian Independent (International) School-AIS, and Jakarta Japanese School Cikarang Campus (Cikarang Japanese School).

The Special Capital Region of Jakarta runs a financial support program called Jakarta Smart Card (Kartu Jakarta Pintar) to provide educational opportunities for the poor. Subsidies are provided to cover transportation expenses, bags, shoes, uniforms, and miscellaneous expenses for extracurricular activities which are originally borne by individuals. The target of the program is primary to high school and higher professional school students and include students of Islamic schools and special schools that provide education equivalent to primary, secondary, and higher education.

Establishment of a local corporation in Indonesia requires permission from the Indonesian Investment Coordinating Board (BKPM). The minimum investment for the service, based on BKPM's bylaws, is US$300,000 as of 2013. The education sector is on the negative list, with a foreign equity cap of 49%. About 51 percent of domestic capital, a company concludes a shareholder agreement, which includes a non-transferable item, under the name of registered holder, and a notary public approves the agreement. By doing so, actual management rights can be retained by the company. In the case of the education industry, a recommendation letter must be obtained from the Ministry of Education and Culture. If one can register a company as a local corporation, it is possible to obtain a work visa (KITAS). However, there is no restriction on the ratio of the number of employees to the number of KITAS issues. Overseas remittances take the form of stock dividends and royalties, but there is no limit if 10% tax is paid. However, even if profits are large, 20% of the stated capital must be retained internally. It is common to ask a local certified public accountant office to take the investment procedure. About US $ 6000 is needed. (JICA et al., 2013)

**5. Conclusion**

The purpose of this paper is to give an overview of the education system in Indonesia and to summarize the implications of the exportability of Japanese-style education. Indonesia is a geographically and culturally diverse country. Religious education has been adopted, and an educational system emphasizing citizenship and character formation has been established. The government has promoted democratization in the early twenty first century, and economic growth is expected in the future. Especially the private education industry is expected to expand into the country.

The development in the field of higher education and industrial human resource development is inextricably linked with economic growth. As the field is positioned as an important strategy target, it is expected that it will require various support not only from the government but also from the field of international educational cooperation. It is also important to improve the quality of basic education that supports higher education.

In Indonesia, educational system reform has been carried out continuously over a relatively short period of time. When considering exporting Japanese-style education, it is necessary to flexibly reflect the time and the needs of the region in which the Japanese educational services are established. Indonesia's educational policy, which attaches importance to character development and sociability, has a high affinity for the special activities of Japanese-style education, and the history of international educational cooperation shows that it is highly likely that Japan’s educational industry will make inroads into this field because of its friendly relationship of trust. It is highly likely that Japanese-style education will take root in Indonesia, which is taking positive steps one after another to improve the quality of education, if Japan’s educational industry can offer effective improvement measures.

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**[Note]**

1) There are 1340 ethnic groups based on the classification by native language and religion from the result of the census in 2010. There are about 30 categories on the site, but there are no clear definitions. In addition, there has been increase in migration and ethnic intermarriage in recent years. The significance of emphasizing ethnic groups more than necessary is fading away.
2) It is stipulated in the Constitution in 1945.
3) The export items are mineral fuels such as coal and natural gas account for 23.3%, animal and vegetable oil (palm oil) 11.3%, and electronic equipment and parts 4.9% (JETRO, 2019a).
(4) Economic activities are concentrated in the western part of Java Island which accounts for 7% of Indonesia's land area. Jakarta has the highest nominal gross domestic product (GDP) per capita of USD 14,858, followed by East Java (USD 3316) and East Nusa Tenggara (USD 1138) (JETRO2018). GDP per capita varies.
5) 9-year compulsory education was declared by the government on National Education Day, May 2, 1994 (Hattori, 2008, 218). The governing law is Article 34 of the Education Act 2003.
6) Undang-Undang Republik Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional (Moriyama, 2015)
7) The number of kindergartens in Jakarta (Kanak-Kana, TK) is 2119 (public: 24 kindergartens, private93 kindergartens). Other educational institutions other than kindergartens are as follows. Day-Care Center (Taman Penitipan Anak, TPA), Playgroup (Kelompok Bermain, KB), preschool education institution (Pendidikan Anak Usia Dini, PAUD), combination of community health centers (Posyandu) and PAUD, Community facilities for families with children under 5 years old (Taman Pendidikan Al-Quran/TPQ) with children under 5 years old, and Sunday schools (Christian) (MoEC, 2016).
8) 1 yen = 139.44 Rupiah, 1 USD = 14909.80 Rupiah as of May 11, 2020
9) Public schools in Indonesia provide religious classes. Religious subjects are not allowed in Japan by Article 15, Paragaph 2 of the Basic Act on Education. Religion is also taught in "Religion and Courtesy" (Agama dan Budi Pekerti) and "Pancasila and Civics Education" (Pancasila dan Kewarganegaraan), which aims at character formation education and civics education. When the two subject hours are combined, they are eight classes and 280 minutes (Moriyama, 2015).
10) About 90% of the total amount of aid is loan assistance, mainly yen loans, and is mostly to support basic infrastructure such as power plants, irrigation, flood control, reclamation, railways, and roads (JICA, 2018).
11) BOP refers to low-income groups whose annual income is less than $ 3000 on a purchasing power parity (PPP) basis. The population of the BOP (Base of the Economic Pyramid) group, mainly in developing countries, accounts for about 70% of the world's population. BOP business refers to a sustainable business that contributes to the improvement of living standards in the relevant countries by providing useful products and services to the BOP group, while achieving the development of companies. (JETRO, 2019)

# Chapter 5 Establishment and Operation of "Foreign Educational Institutions" in the Republic of Korea

**Jeon Kyounghwa**[vi]

[Summary]

This report introduces the establishment and operation of "foreign educational institutions" in South Korea as an example of the acceptance of foreign educational services. First, I outlined their school education and educational administration in order to understand education in Korea. Next, I summarize the policy on the attraction of "foreign educational institutions" which is being promoted with the aim of strengthening the global competitiveness as a market in the education industry and improving balance in the education service. Next, based on the situation in attracting "foreign educational institutions", I grasped the details of the establishment and management in two case schools. Finally, as characteristics of the cases in the Republic of Korea, I mentioned that a policy of accepting educational services was implemented accompanying economic policy, and that the host country provided generous support in creating a hub.

**Notice:** *The English in this report was machine translated from the original Japanese before undergoing post-editing by human translators. In the event of any discrepancies between this translated document and the Japanese original, the Japanese original shall prevail.*

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## 1. Introduction

In addition to the conventional view of education as a public good, there seems to be some agreement on the view of education as one of the target items in service trade assuming there are producers and consumers. It is important not only to discuss the pros and cons of the view, but also to discuss a desirable direction where the characteristics of education are utilized.

The trade in services, including educational services, is classified into four categories: cross-border trade (Mode 1), consumption abroad (Mode 2), provision of services through business bases (Mode 3), and provision of services through movement of natural persons (Mode 4)[1]. In both situations, there are providers (exporters) and recipients (importers) of educational services. In order to enhance its presence in the field of education in one's country and to strengthen its global competitiveness in the international community, it is necessary to discuss export sectors where profits such as nation's brand power and economic effects can be expected. In addition, it is possible for importers to expect a certain level of profit. For example, it is possible to provide high-quality education to consumers by accepting excellent overseas educational services. It is also possible to receive global education while staying in one's country.

This paper introduces the case of the Republic of Korea (ROK) as a recipient of overseas educational services. In particular, this paper examines the policy of attracting foreign educational institutions, which is being promoted to enhance global competitiveness in the field of education, and describes the history of the establishment and operation of such institutions, as well as the experiences of the host schools.

In this paper, literal translation of word from Korean into English, "foreign educational institution" is used. This term is defined as "schools established and operated under foreign laws and regulations (including branch campuses)" in Article 2, paragraph 5 of the "Special Act on the Designation and Operation of Free Economic Zones" (Act No. 16416).

and education contributed to its human resource development.

The Korean government has traditionally attached importance to education, and has focused on human resource development in order to cope effectively with the shortage of capital and resources that arises during the process of industrialization.[6] The role of education for modernization was emphasized from the time of the military government (1961 - 1987). In particular, the role of education was further emphasized in the national strategy of "globalization" to reach the level of developed countries under the Kim Young-sam government (1993 -

## 2. Education in South Korea

In this section, in order to understand education in South Korea, the basic information of the country, the system of school education, and the educational administration are outlined, and then the types of upper secondary educational institutions related to the contents of this paper are explained.

### 2-1. Basic Information

South Korea has a population of 51,840,000 (May 2, 2020 [2]) and a land area of about 100,000 square kilometers[3]. It has about half the population and is a quarter of the size of Japan. The nation is an ethnically homogeneous nation (Korean people), and 45% of the people are Protestant, 35% Buddhist, and 18% Catholic (in 2015 [4]). The political system is a democratic republic, and the president is elected directly by the people, and the term of office is 5 years (without re-election). The National Assembly is unicameral, and the term of the members of the National Assembly is four years. The National Assembly is basically operated in a manner similar to the two-party system, although the political parties are often merged and separated taking on a fluid look. In terms of economic situation, GDP (gross domestic product) is US $ 172,091,000,000, the twelfth largest in the world, and GDP per capita is US $ 33,346, the thirtieth largest in the world ( in 2018 [5] ).

As for the economic background, after the 1970 s, the country achieved rapid economic development called the Miracle on the Han River, and became the second member of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in Asia in 1996. In 1997, South Korea received financial assistance from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) due to the Asian financial crisis. However, the country continued to reform its economic structure, and in 2001,it freed itself from the IMF's support system. It was human resources that supported Korea's economic growth,

1998). Since then, the role of education has been consistently emphasized as the foundation for the development of all aspects of society[7].

### 2-2 School Education

The school system in South Korea is a 6-3-3-4 system, which is basically a single-track ladder system. Students attend primary school for six years, middle school for three years, and high school for three years before entering university. As shown in Figure 5-1, compulsory education is a total of nine years of education with six years of primary education (primary school) and three

years of lower secondary education (middle school). As the content of education at each stage, except for higher education (university), the national curriculum, which describes the objectives of subjects and the content of education, is stipulated. Primary and secondary educational institutions are mainly classified into national, public and private schools, and about two third of them are national and public schools (FY 2019)[8]. The net enrollment ratio in each school level is highl:98.7% for primary education, 96.7% for lower secondary education, and 91.3% for upper secondary education. The net enrollment ratio in higher education institutions is 67.8%, indicating that university education is being universalized (in 2019[9] ).

**2-3 Education Administration**

As for the education administration, the "Ministry of Education" has been established as the central administrative organization, and is in charge of human resources development policy and affairs related to school education, lifelong learning, and academia[11] . In addition, in first-tier administrative divisions (hereinafter referred to as “upper tier”) consisting of one special city, six metropolitan cities, eight provinces, and two self-governing cities, 17 Offices of Education are established. The central Ministry of Education and the Offices of Education in the upper tier are in charge of the administration of primary and secondary education. In order to ensure the neutrality and professionalism of education, the Offices of Education in the upper tier are positioned as executive agencies independent from the heads of local governments. Superintendents of Education, the heads of the educational offices (four-year term, can be reappointed with conditions), are elected through direct elections by the residents[12] . In addition, the "Board of Education" has been established as a standing committee to conduct deliberations on education in local assemblies of the upper tier. In addition, the "Education Support Agency" is established in the basic administrative divisions (cities, counties, and wards) as a regional office of the Office of Education, and under the direction of the head of education appointed by the Superintendent of Education, the Education Support Agency conducts an administrative operation for public and private kindergartens, elementary schools, and junior high schools within the jurisdiction. Finally, at each school level, the School Management Committee is established

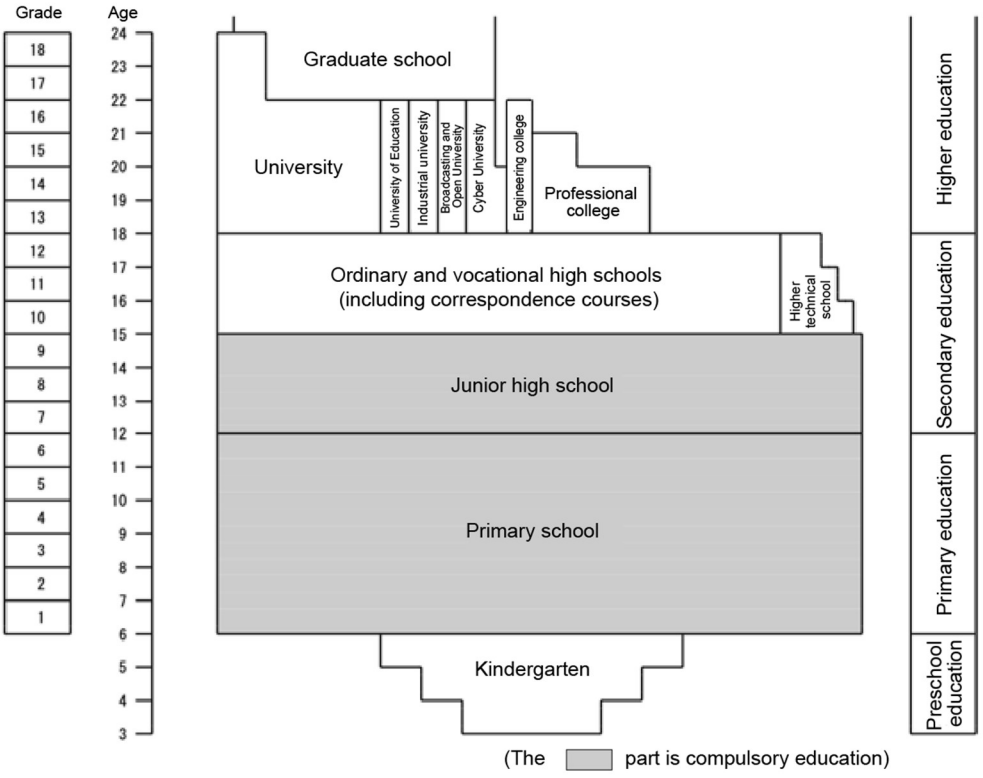


**Figure 5-1 School System in South Korea**

References: Excerpt from "Education Statistics of Foreign Countries" "School System Chart (South Korea)" [10], Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (2019).

**Table 5-1. Types of Upper Secondary Education Institutions in South Korea**

| Classification of Upper Secondary Education Institutions | Types of High Schools |
|---|---|
| General High Schools | Public and Private General High Schools, National High Schools, Creative Management Schools, and Innovation Schools |
| Autonomous High schools | Autonomous Public High Schools, Autonomous Private High Schools |
| Special Purposed High schools | Science High Schools, Foreign Language High Schools, International High Schools, Arts High Schools<br>Sports High Schools, Meister High Schools |
| Specialized High Schools | Vocational Education Specialized High School, Alternative Education Specialized High School |
| Gifted Education Schools | Science Gifted Education Schools, Science and Art Gifted Education Schools |
| Alternative Schools | Alternative Schools Offering High School Courses |
| Foreign Schools and Foreign Education Institutions | Foreign Schools, Foreign Education Institutions, and Jeju International School |
| Open High Schools | Open High Schools |
| Lifelong education institution school where educational attainment is accredited | Lifelong Education Institution School where Educational Attainment is Accredited |
| Special Schools | Special Schools Offering High School Courses |

References: Translated from "Admission System (High School)[14] ", a website for laws and regulations.

regardless of its' form of establishment. As an advisory body composed of teachers, parents, and local residents, the committee conducts deliberations on the school budget, the management of curricula, and the selection of textbooks[13].

**2-4. Types of Upper Secondary Education Institutions**

The following sections describe the types of upper secondary education institutions in South Korea in relation to the foreign education institutions focused on in this paper. There are three types of upper secondary education institutions in Korea: general high schools, vocational high schools, and arts and sports high schools.

In South Korea, the reform of selection system, exemplified by the "Equalization Policy[15]," was implemented in order to adjust the gap in academic ability among high schools and to ease competition in high school entrance examinations. On the other hand, as a supplement to the policy based on such equality, education policies aimed at the expansion of talented education were also pursued. For example, special purposed high schools such as science high schools and foreign language high schools, specialized high schools aimed at developing specialists in specific fields, and schools for gifted and talented children under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Science and Technology (currently the Ministry of Future, Creation and Science) are listed. Other experimental schools such as autonomous high schools are also established. As of 2020, as shown in Table 5-1, upper secondary education institutions in South Korea are categorized into general high schools, autonomous high schools, special purposed high schools, specialized high schools, gifted and talented schools, alternative schools, and foreign schools and educational institutions. In addition, such diversity in the types of upper secondary education institutions has made it possible to establish foreign education institutions, which will be described later, at educational stages other than higher education institutions.

**3. Policies to attract foreign education institutions**

In South Korea, as globalization progresses, there has been continuous discussion on cooperation among countries through education and exchange of educational services. In particular, they thought that the country could strengthen its global competitiveness in the field of education and improve the balance of educational services by attracting excellent foreign education institutions to South Korea. South Korea has seen an imbalance between the number of students sent outside of the country and the number of accepted international students for long time, and that has been a challenge. The number of students who study abroad early has been increasing even at the elementary and secondary education levels, as if it reflects manias for education and learning English[16]. Therefore, there have been discussions on ways to meet such needs in South Korea.

As a solution to both of them, efforts have been made to establish a system to attract foreign education institutions so that students can obtain the same effect as study abroad while studying in South Korea.

This section outlines two policies related to attracting foreign educational institutions and describes which aspects were planned and what were aimed at.

### 3-1. Plans to Revitalize Global Education Services

The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (currently, the Ministry of Education) announced Plans to Revitalize Global Education Services in 2010 as a measure to strengthen global competitiveness in the field of education services. It was also the first comprehensive plan announced by the government to meet the global demand for education, such as the increase of accepted international students and the establishment of overseas branch campuses.

As part of the improvement of the residential environment for foreign nationals in the Special Economic Zones (to be described later), the plan was formulated to enhance educational institutions for their children. It was also necessary to attract foreign education institutions in order to meet the demand for Korean students to study abroad, and to improve the quality of the contents of education at the foreign educational institutions that have been already established and operated. In addition, a plan was also proposed to establish a Foreign Educational Institution Invitation Planning Team to examine the specialty of schools that are being considered as foreign educational institutions and to operate a Foreign School General Information Website to provide information to parents and students.

### 3-2. Plans to Strategically Attract Foreign Educational Institutions in Free Economic Zones

In 2011, the government announced a plan to strategically attract foreign educational institutions through the cooperation of the six Free Economic Zone Authorities, the Intellectual Economic Agency (currently, the Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy), and the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (currently, the Ministry of Education) based on the recognition that national-level measures are necessary in light of the

**Table 5-2. Establishment of Foreign Educational Institutions**

| | |
|---|---|
| Classification | Foreign education institutions |
| Purpose of Establishment | Attracting Foreign Investment, Improving the Living Environment, and Meeting Global Education Needs for Korean Nationals |
| Basis for Establishment | Special Act on Establishment and Management of Foreign Educational Institutions in Free Economic Zones and Jeju Free International City |
| Qualification for Establishment | Non-profit foreign incorporated educational institution |
| Areas where Foreign Educational Institutions are Established | Free Economic Zone, Sejong Special Self-Governing City, Industrial City, Science Business Belt Hub Area, etc. |
| Qualification for Enrollment | Children of foreign nationals living in South Korea, Korean nationals |
| Enrollment Rate | • 30% of the capacity of elementary and secondary educational institutions is for Korean nationals (up to 50% at the discretion of the city or province)<br>• No restrictions for higher education institutions |
| Established Institutions | <Primary and Secondary Educational Institutions> (2 schools)<br>• Daegu International School<br>• Chadwick International School<br><br><Higher Education Institutions> (4 schools)<br>• State University of New York Korea<br>• George Mason University Korea<br>• Ghent University Global Campus<br>• The University of Utah Asia Campus |

current situation where each country's competition is intensifying in the education service industry.

The priority issues were to ease related regulations and provide incentives to strategically attract foreign educational institutions, to develop global human resources through university-industry relation based in foreign educational institutions, and to ensure the soundness of management through qualitative control over foreign educational institutions. By resolving these issues, the government intended to revitalize the Free Economic Zone and reconsider the global competitiveness of South Korea's higher education. The government also announced its policies to actively provide necessary support to attract foreign educational institutions at the elementary and secondary education levels in line with Korea's public education in order to strengthen the social function of schools.

### 3-3. Comprehensive Plan for the Development of Special Zones for the Internationalization of Education (2013 - 2017)

In 2013, the Comprehensive Plan for the Development of Special Zones for the Internationalization of Education (2013 - 2017) - Reconsideration of national competitiveness and balanced regional development through the creation and dissemination of leading models for the internationalization of education at the local level was announced. This was intended to build a global human resources development system that utilizes the characteristics of each region and to strengthen the capacity to promote globalization at the regional level. Behind this back ground is the fact that it became necessary to develop programs to revitalize the internationalization of education as the infrastructure for internationalization was being developed through the enactment of the Act on Special Zones for Regional Development in 2004 and the Special Act on Free Economic Zones in 2005.

This plan is based on the "Special Law on the Designation, Operation and Development of Special Zones for the Internationalization of Education" (enacted in 2012), which aims to cultivate human resources capable of responding to internationalization, and further strengthen the international competitiveness of the nation, and achieve balanced regional development (Article 1). Special Zones for the Internationalization of Education, which is also the name of the plan, is defined as the area that was created to revitalize foreign language education and internationalization education (Article 2). Municipal and provincial governors and the superintendents of education have leading authority over the area designated as this special zone, and schools that are not subject to the Primary and Secondary Education Act (Article 10) can be operated there. It is stipulated that the central government, including the Ministry of Education, provides for systematic support and management under the Special Law.

## 4. Establishment and Operation of Foreign Educational Institutions

This section presents two cases of the establishment and operation of foreign educational institutions in South Korea, particularly in the elementary and secondary education stages.

It is the primary and secondary education institutions and higher education institutions that are expected to be attracted as "foreign education institutions" in the policy outlined in Section 3. However, in the case of elementary and secondary educational institutions, it is necessary to conduct educational activities in accordance with the national curriculum, so it is difficult for schools equivalent to Article 1 schools in Japan to conduct education based on foreign curricula. Jeju International School included in Schools for Foreign Nationals and Foreign Educational

**Table 5-3. Authority and Role of Administration for Establishment, Management and Operation of Foreign Educational Institutions**

| Classification | Ministry of Education | Ministry of Trade, Industry, and Energy | Local Governments and Special Economic Zone Authorities |
|---|---|---|---|
| Responsibilities and Roles | Authority over establishment and management | Invitation and support （Government Subsidy Budget) | Control over the execution of subsidies |
| Purpose of the Invitation | To stimulate investment in the country by attracting foreign educational institutions with excellent infrastructure and educational programs | Improvement and stability of the living environment of foreign companies and research institutions (Education for Children) | Sharing the attraction purpose that the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Industry, Trade and Energy have |

References: Ministry of Trade, Industry, and Energy (2016), translated from page 65.

Institutions listed on Table 5-1 Types of Upper Senior Secondary Educational Institutions are established based on the Special Law and Order for Enforcement of Foreign Educational Institutions. Therefore, the school can organize the curriculum without greatly restricted by the national curriculum.

As mentioned before, the main purpose of foreign educational institutions is to improve the educational environment for foreigners living in the Free Economic Zone and Jeju Free International City, which were created to attract foreign investment. The institutions are established and operated in the areas. However, a certain percentage of Koreans are admitted to such institutions. Jeju International School refers to a school established in Jeju Free International City for the purpose of improving the foreign language ability of the people and fostering professionals to cope with internationalization, and there is no restriction on the admission of Koreans. As of 2020, as shown in Table 5-2, there were two foreign primary and secondary educational institutions and four foreign higher educational institutions.

The Ministry of Trade, Industry, and Energy has the authority over inviting these foreign educational institutions in the Free Economic Zones. On the other hand, the Ministry of Education (the Minister of Education) has the authority to approve the establishment of educational institutions, and the local governments and the Free Economic Zone Authorities are in charge of the administration, operation and support. In addition, if necessary, a part of the authority of the Minister of Education can be delegated to the superintendents of education in a special city, a metropolitan city, or a provinces, as stipulated by a presidential decree.

### 4-1.Chadwick International School[18)]

In this section, Chadwick International School and Daegu International School are taken up as examples of foreign educational institutions in the elementary and secondary educational stages, and are discussed in detail.

Chadwick International School is a foreign educational institution opened in Songdo International New City, Incheon. The school is managed and operated by Chadwick, a private school foundation in the United States. Formal curricula for kindergartens and grade 1 to 12 are organized. The International Baccalaureate (IB) Primary Education Program (PYP), Secondary Education Program (MYP), Pre-IB and Diploma Program (IBDP) are provided too. In addition, the Korean Scholastic

**Table 5-4. Operation of Chadwick International School**

| School Name | Chadwick International School |
|---|---|
| Year of Foundation | September 2010 |
| Main Campus (Governing Body) | Roessler-Chadwick Foundation (US)<br>WASC (the Western Association of Schools and Colleges) accredited school<br>Round Square (International Federation of Private Schools) member school |
| Ratio of the number of students to the quota | 51.6% (1,037/2,080) |
| Ratio of the new admissions to the quota | 42% |
| Percentage of Korean Students | 70.2% (811/1,156) |
| Number of Teachers and Other Staff | Teachers 178, Other staff members: 35 |
| Number of Students per Class | 18.95 |
| Ratio of Male to Female Students | Male students: 607, Female students: 549 (including 345 foreign students) |
| University Acceptances | All 68 graduates got accepted by universities in South Korea and abroad<br>(85% of graduates got accepted by universities ranked top 50 in the world's universities including Cornell University, Johns Hopkins University, Hong Kong University, Waseda University.) |
| Recognition of academic background in South Korea | Students who have studied at least two subjects in the national curriculum of elementary and secondary schools, including Korean and Social Studies, at a school designated as a foreign educational institution for accreditation of academic qualifications will be recognized as having the same academic background as that of Korean high school graduates with some conditions. |
| Support through the government subsidies | No (100% private foreign educational institution) |

Note: All information listed here is the information of 2016.

References: Ministry of Trade, Industry, and Energy (2016), partially extracted and translated from page pages 45 to 47.

Credentials Recognition Program (KSCR) has been set up. If Korean students take two or more subjects, including Korean and Social Studies, for at least two hours a week along with the school curriculum, they will be recognized as having the same academic background as that of Korean high school graduates.

The number of teachers is 178, including 26 Koreans. Most of the teachers have master's degrees in the field of education. Since the number of students per teacher is as small as seven, small-group instruction is provided. The school has the same curriculum as the main school in the United States, therefore classes are given in English. However, ESL (English as a Second Language) program is also provided for students whose first language is not English. In addition, financial support from the South Korean government has not been provided. PTA plays a central role in fund-raising to ensure financial stability in school management. Since the school was opened in September 2010, it has been producing graduates who have been accepted by leading universities every year in South Korea and overseas. It can be said that the school is achieving some positive results as an educational institution. The school continuously cooperates with the Incheon Metropolitan Office of Education in order to eliminate the image of aristocratic schools. The school is also providing opportunities for practice teaching and training of teachers in cooperation with the Gyeongin National University of Education, which is a local university. In addition, using weekend and national holidays, the school teachers conduct English classes for children in Incheon's poor areas.

The ratio of the number of students to the quota of the school is 51.6%, and the ratio of Korean nationals is as high as 70.2%. Although new admissions to the school remains at 42% of capacity, the financial situation of the school has been continuously in the black. When foreign workers who work for Samsung Biologics in the same area as schools sign employment contracts, they often visit the school. The challenge is that it would be difficult to increase the enrollment rate of foreign students in the school without a revitalization of the local free economic zone.

**Table 5-5. Operation of Daegu International School**

| School Name | Daegu International School |
|---|---|
| Year of Foundation | August 2010 |
| Main Campus (Governing Body) | Lee Academy (US)<br>WASC (the Western Association of Schools and Colleges) accredited school |
| Ratio of Enrolled Students to School Capacity | 46.6% (317/680) |
| Ratio of the new admissions to the quota | 42% |
| Percentage of Korean Nationals | 67.8% (215/317) |
| Number of Teachers and Other Staff | Teachers: 52, Staff members: 10 |
| Number of Students per Class | 13.78 |
| Ratio of Male to Female Students | Male students: 150, Female Students: 167 (including 102 foreign students) |
| University Acceptances | All 21 graduates got accepted by universities in South Korea and abroad<br>(More than 75 percent of students got accepted by prestigious universities in the United States including Stanford University, Dartmouth University, Johns Hopkins University, Oxford University, and Pennsylvania University. Some students enter prestigious universities in South Korea.) |
| Recognition of academic background in South Korea | Students who have studied at least two subjects in the national curriculum of elementary and secondary schools, including Korean and Social Studies, at a school designated as a foreign educational institution for accreditation of academic qualifications will be recognized as having the same academic background as that of Korean high school graduates with some conditions. |
| Support from the South Korean government and local governments | No subsidies for school management |

Note: All information listed here is the information of 2016.
References: The Ministry of Trade, Industry, and Energy (2016), extracted and translated from pages 48 to 50.

**4-2.Daegu International School[19)]**

Daegu International School was the first foreign primary and secondary educational institution that was opened in the Free Economic Zone. The school was established in 2010 by the Ministry of Knowledge and Economy (currently Ministry of Trade, Industry, and Energy) and the City of Daegu with financial support and free land loans, and is run by Lee Academy in the United States. The school conducts integrated education for kindergarten and students in grades 1-12 based on the same curriculum as the main campus, and offers the 20 Advanced Placement (AP) courses of the Collage Board. In addition, the school offers English as a Second Language (ESL) program for students whose first language is not English. It includes Chinese and Spanish classes in the regular curricula and gives those classes as part of the in-depth study in the curricula for the kindergarten to the students in 1-7 grades. Just like Chadwick International School, Daegu International School offers the KSCR program, and if certain conditions are met, students can be recognized as having the same academic background as that of Korean high school graduates.

Regarding its teachers, 13 out of the 52 teachers are Koreans. One of the conditions for employment is that they must have a teaching qualification in their home country or have at least two years of teaching experience. Since most of the foreign teachers are from the United States, many teachers are certified teachers in the United States. About region cooperation, Daegu International School has exchanged memorandums with the Daegu National University of Education and has provide student teaching opportunities. The school also has interactions with local junior and senior high schools and gives opportunities for the class observation.

The ratio of the enrolled students to the school capacity is 46.6% of which Korean Nationalities account for as high as 67.8%. The ratio of new enrollment to the quota is only 42%, however, the financial situation of the school has been continuously in the black. The school cited the difficulty of recruiting foreign students as a problem. The number of foreign students in the area is not large due to the stagnation of foreign investment in the area, and the school quota for foreign nationals is not filled. In addition, the school has a problem that the rate of the filled capacity for foreign nationals will be much lower when foreign students return to their home countries. As it is difficult to fill the quota without attracting foreign companies and investment, the school has come up with measures such as asking for increasing the ratio of enrollment of Korean nationals and making efforts to attract foreign students.

**5. Conclusion**

This paper has shown the cases of Korea as a recipient of foreign educational services. What was aimed at in those cases was improvement of the living environment and educational institutions that would contribute to the revitalization of foreign investment in the Free Economic Zones. In addition, it was expected that meeting the demand for early study-abroad in South Korea and being able to provide education to develop human resources who can play active roles internationally. It was also expected to strengthen the global competitiveness as a market for the education industry. Looking back at these goals from the two cases of foreign educational institutions, it seems that they have achieved some positive results in in meeting the needs for early study-abroad.

The cases in South Korea can be said to be similar to Mode 3 in terms of trade in services, as they provide educational services through bases such as overseas branch campuses and partnerships with local institutions. It is characterized by the local context of Korean society, such as the implementation of policies to accept educational services in conjunction with economic policies (revitalization of free economic zones), the assumption that consumers were foreigners who moved to Korea, and the generous support of the host country in the formation of the base.

One of the common problems faced by the foreign educational institutions at the elementary and secondary levels, which were the examples in this paper, was that it was practically difficult to fill the admission quota for foreign students, and the number of students was always fell below capacity. In addition, the fact that students mainly go on to universities overseas after graduation is also a problem from the viewpoint of preventing brain drain. The South Korean government expected that the attraction of foreign educational institutions in the primary and secondary education stages would play a role in strengthening the social function of the school while keeping in line with South Korea's public education. If this is the case, more expectations would be placed on the roles as educational institutions that provide high-quality and global education for Koreans from an early stage. The government is also expected to make a shift in the policy to strengthen the function of foreign educational institutions.

**[Note]**


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# Chapter 6 Possibility of Establishing Offshore Schools at Upper Secondary Education Level in Taiwan

**Yu-Ching Liao**[vii]

[Summary]

The purpose of this report is to consider the possibility of establishing offshore schools at upper secondary school level in Taiwan. In this report, I will do an analysis, in particular, with a view to expanding Japanese-style education in Taiwan. As a result of the analysis, it is clarified that three issues must be reexamined in order to provide Japanese-style education in Taiwan and to establish offshore schools at the upper secondary education level: reconfirmation of acceptance of Japanese-style education, uniqueness of the programs provided under Japanese-style education, and establishment of a qualification framework from Japan side. On the whole, there is a need for Japanese-style education in Taiwan, but it remains on a small scale. Therefore, it is necessary to rethink the conditions necessary to provide Japanese-style education, the elaboration of principles, and the establishment of institutional framework.

**Notice:** *The English in this report was machine translated from the original Japanese before undergoing post-editing by human translators. In the event of any discrepancies between this translated document and the Japanese original, the Japanese original shall prevail.*

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## 1. Introduction

In education in Taiwan, there was no policy interest in transnational or internationalized education before the 1990s. The international development of education was mainly regarded as one of the political and diplomatic means, and under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, emphasis was placed on the acceptance of foreign students, educational support for overseas Chinese, and promotion of cultural exchange[1] . After the entry of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2002, transnational education and the internationalization of education is drawing attention. Education has come to be regarded as an industry. The goal is to form an Educational System that can be competitive in the world while keeping in mind the international education market. On the other hand, the door has to be opened for the provision of education from abroad.

Against this backdrop, the Taiwanese government has often come up with policies on the internationalization of education, such as educational organization reform and the acceptance of foreign students. In concrete terms, the University International Competitiveness Improvement Program (提昇大学国際競争力計画 in the original language) which was formulated in 2002, aimed to encourage universities to recruit foreign students and to provide courses related to the WTO. Subsequently, the "Project to Increase Acceptance of Foreign Students (in the original language: 拡大招收外国学生来台留学案) in 2002 and 「陽光南方政策」 in 2004, and the "Export of Higher Education - Action plan to increase acceptance of foreign students" (in the original language:「高等教育輸出－拡大招収境外学生行動計画」 ) in 2011 were proposed. These plans set out a strategy focusing on Southeast Asia in particular, with the aim of promoting exports of higher education to foreign students and making Taiwan a hub for higher education in East Asia. Specific policies on educational programs include providing and strengthening English programs, enhancing language training programs, building collaborative programs with universities in developed countries, and establishing specialized courses for foreign countries. Looking at the policies of these measures, the international educational development in Taiwan tends to focus on the provision of education overseas, mainly in the higher education stage. Also, as a social image, receiving foreign education is usually linked to studying abroad from the graduate school stage.

Nevertheless, with the recent development of the international education system in Taiwan and the active recruitment of foreign students by foreign countries under globalization, there is a growing tendency for Taiwanese students to receive education overseas after completion of secondary education. According to the survey report on the entrance to higher-level schools and employment status of graduates of senior high school (equivalent to high schools in Japan) (in the original language: 高級中等学校應届畢業生升学就業概況調査報告) by the Ministry of Education (equivalent to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan), the number of students who completed the upper secondary education stage in 2010 and entered higher-level schools abroad was 476. The number exceeded 1,000 in 2013 and reached 1,900 in 2018, accounting for 1.0% of the total graduates[2)]. Those graduates' destinations to study abroad is not limited in Western countries like before. The number of students who study in China, Hong Kong, Singapore, and Japan is increasing as the neighboring Asian countries are actively recruiting international students.

The international development of education described above shows that while Taiwan's acceptance of foreign education is institutionally conservative, it tends to be relaxed in terms of expansion of the educational stage and diversification of the providing countries. In light of these developments, the establishment of offshore schools, which are in the upper secondary education stage, will be considered as a clue to the diversification and internationalization of education in the future. The purpose of this report is to consider the possibility of establishing offshore schools at the upper secondary education level in Taiwan. An analysis is conducted in this report, in particular, with a view to expanding Japanese-style education in Taiwan. In Japan, a pilot project to disseminate Japanese-style education overseas (EDU-Port Japan) was launched in 2019 to develop and promote businesses that serve as a model for overseas expansion of Japanese-style education. Against this background, by targeting Taiwan, which has cultural and social affinity with Japan and is geographically close to Japan, and examining the possibility of providing Japanese-style education there, it will be possible to provide a new perspective for promotion projects that have been conducted mainly in South America and Southeast Asia[5)].

The structure of this report is as follows. First, the educational system in Taiwan is explained (Section 2), and then, the enrollment status at each education stage and the trend of students who study abroad are analyzed (Section 3) in order to clarify the needs and acceptance of Japanese-style education. After the overall situation is understood, the institutional framework for the establishment of offshore schools is considered through examining the law on the establishment of upper secondary schools. Finally, the offshore schools already established in Taiwan are taken up as examples. Based on this institutional framework, the contents of the

courses, qualifications that students will have, the number of students, and the composition of teachers of the schools are examined to analyze the current situation of the provision of education from overseas in Taiwan.

Based on this social context, institutional basis and case studies, this paper examines the situation and problems on the establishment of offshore schools in Taiwan.

## 2. Taiwan's educational system and the dissemination of education at each level

Let's take a look at the current school educational system in Taiwan.

As shown in Figure 6-1, the school educational stages in Taiwan continues to/from the national elementary school (equivalent to elementary school in Japan), national junior high school (equivalent to junior high school in Japan), upper middle school (equivalent to high school in Japan), and higher education stage. The educational system is basically the same as the 6-3-3-4 system in Japan, but differs in that it is largely divided into a general education system and a vocational education system from the upper secondary education stage. The curriculum of upper middle schools at the upper middle education stage is divided into 2 types, general and specialty-based (vocational) courses.

The Regular course provides education to broaden students' education and cultivate citizens. The goal of regular course is to establish the foundation necessary for the acquisition of academic research and expertise. Graduates of the regular course mainly go on to

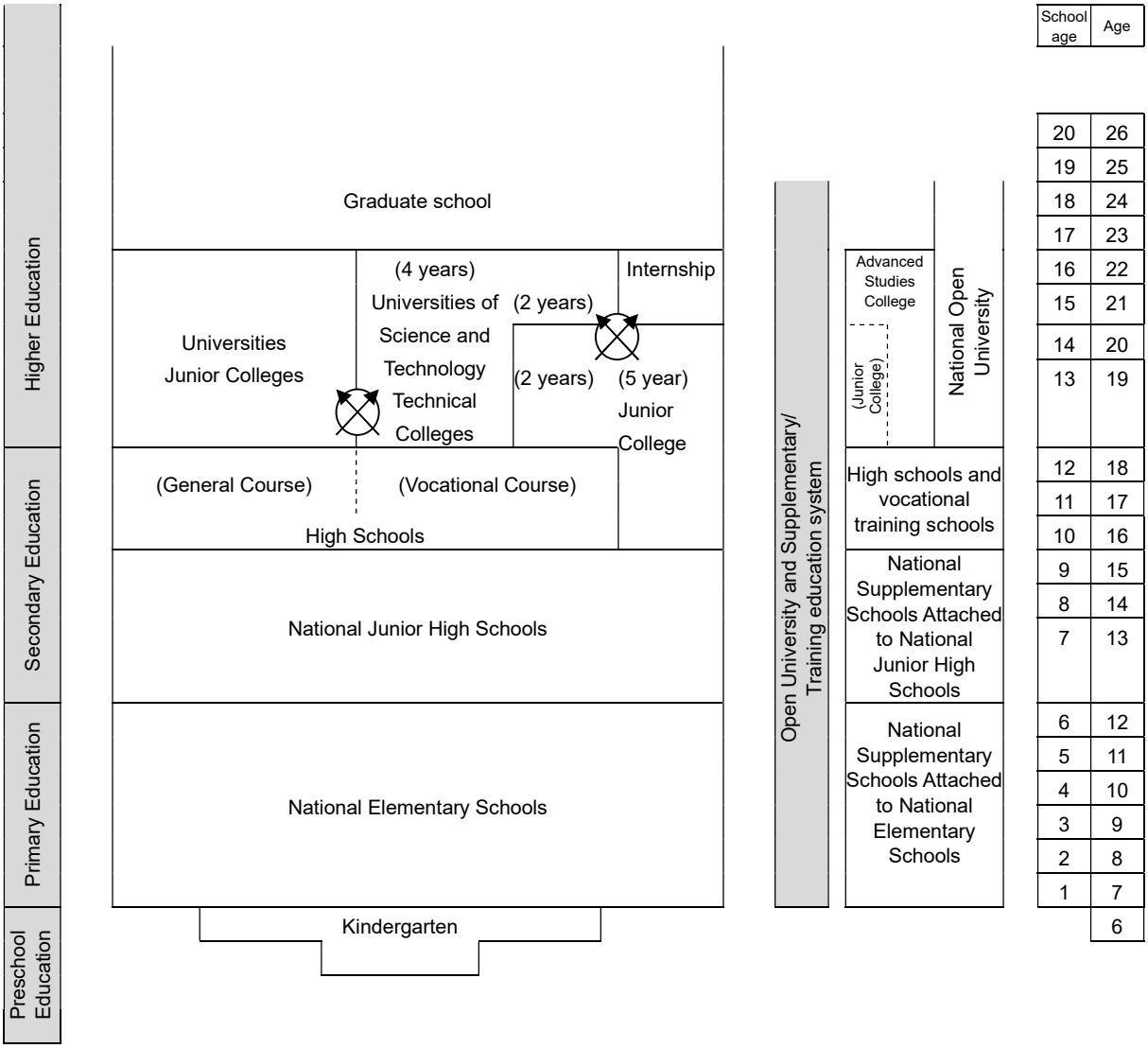


**Figure 6-1 School Education System in Taiwan**

References: Compiled based on 教育部統計処『中華民国教育統計　民国 107 年版』 the Ministry of Education, 2018, page 239 with some additions and revisions.

universities and colleges. They can also go on to junior colleges and vocational colleges one year after graduation[6]. The purpose of the specialized (vocational) course is to teach vocational knowledge and ability, to develop vocational morals, and to train sound elementary-level engineers. Graduates of the course mainly go to 専科学校 vocational schools and vocational universities, but they can also go to regular universities and 学院 schools[7]. The educational institutions at this stage were divided into three types: upper middle schools providing conventional general education, upper vocational schools providing vocational education, and comprehensive upper middle schools providing both of the two types of education mentioned above. However, the policy of extending the national basic education to 12 years, which was established in 2014, led to the reclassification of these institutions into Regular, Skill-based, Comprehensive, Specialty-based upper middle schools[8]. Under the Upper Middle Education Act of 2013, these schools, regardless of type, are free to offer regular courses, specialty-based (vocational) courses and practical technology programs, etc.

However, these upper secondary schools have different objectives as schools, and there are differences in the main curriculum offered by each school type. Regular upper middle schools and skill-based upper middle schools have been converted from conventional upper middle schools and upper vocational schools. Regular upper middle schools are schools which provide mainly regular subjects and enrich student education. Skill-based upper middle schools offer courses that are mainly professional and practical, provide education in practical technology, cooperate with industry and academia, and develop students' expertise and vocational abilities. Comprehensive upper middle schools provide both basic courses and specialized courses, and corresponds to the above-mentioned comprehensive upper middle schools. In addition, there are schools called specialty-based upper middle school that specialize in a particular area of expertise The school focuses on specific subjects, and aims to further develop the potential of students who are judged to have special abilities and characters in fields such as physical education, art and science[9].

The higher education stage also consists of two sub-systems in line with the regular education system and the vocational education system. The first is a general higher education system consisting of universities and institutes of higher education, and the second is a higher vocational education system consisting of higher vocational education institutes such as National University of Science and Technology, National Institute of Technology, and specialized schools (equivalent to the level of Japanese colleges of technology or junior colleges). There is basically no difference between a university and a college in terms of level, but their scales are different. Colleges may apply to change status to “University” if the school site, facility, school, academic system, research laboratory, and funding meet the relevant regulations.[10]

In addition to the regular educational system, there is a supplementary and training educational system (in the original language: 補習及進修教育体系).This is related to the establishment of schools, which will be described later. The system is different from the meaning of supplementary education in Japan. It is a non-regular education system which is formed in parallel with the ordinary school education system for the purpose of supplementing the basic knowledge of the people, improving the level of education, teaching practical skills, cultivating awareness as a citizen, and promoting the development of society[11] . In this system, corresponding institutions are established at each educational stage, and they are mainly attached to regular schools. Specifically, from the elementary education stage to the higher education stage, there are National Supplementary Schools Attached to the National Elementary Schools, National Supplementary Schools Attached to the National Junior High School, Upper Middle Schools, Vocational Training Schools, Skills-Based Training Schools, and University Training Schools. Open University, which is equivalent to the Open University of Japan, is often treated as a part of supplementary education and training because of its historical background and nature of lifelong education. Open University meets needs of working adults more than regular institutions of higher education. Although these schools are treated as non-regular schools, if the students complete the course, they will be recognized as having the same academic background as that of graduates of regular schools of the same level.

As described above, in Taiwan's education system, the regular education system has been developed by dividing the content of education into vocational education and general education in accordance with the 6-3-3-4 system. The non-regular education system is being formed in parallel with regular education, and the provision of flexible and diverse education is required.

### 3. Number of Students at Each Level in Taiwan and Students who Study Overseas

In order to understand the educational system in Taiwan described above, this section analyzes the needs for Japanese education in Taiwan based on the number of students at each level and the students who study overseas.

Table 6-1 shows the number of students and the net enrollment rate[12] and the advancement rate at each

**Table 6-1: Number of Students, Net Enrollment Rate, and Advancement Rate at Each Education Stage in FY 1 2019**

| Education Stage | Number of students | Net enrolment ratio | Advancement rate |
|---|---|---|---|
| Higher Education | (Bachelor of Arts) 961,905<br>(Junior College) 86,658 | 71.0% | |
| Upper Secondary Education | 696.875 | 93.8% | 94.3% |
| Lower Secondary Education | 624.407 | 96.5% | 99.8% |
| | | | |

References: Compiled by the author based on Republic of China Academic Year 108 Educational Statistics, Ministry of Education Republic of China, 2019.

educational stage in FY 2019. According to the table, the dissemination of education in Taiwan can be summarized as follows. First of all, in terms of the net enrollment ratio, the scale of education up to the upper secondary education stage in Taiwan can accommodate more than 90% of the total population of people who should receive the same level of education. In addition, almost all students who have completed the lower secondary education go on to the upper secondary education. 90% of them went on to higher education after completing upper secondary education. Taiwan has already met the needs of education up to higher education level, and is considered to have an educational scale that can meet almost all of the needs of education. Under this developed system, Taiwanese school-age children, students and students receive education to the higher education level. It can be assumed that it is common practice to study abroad and receive overseas education from the higher education stage, especially from the graduate school education stage.

Based on understanding of the scale of education mentioned above, this section describes which foreign education is accepted in Taiwan by analyzing the number of students who have studied abroad and study abroad destinations. First of all, the number of students in Taiwan who studied abroad (including for language training) in 2018 was 71,221. The Destinations of 80% of them are concentrated in the following five countries. The United States (23,269 students), Australia (18,791 students), Japan (9,524 students), Canada (4,390 students), and the United Kingdom (3,850 students). Looking at the number of foreign students and the major destination countries, students in Taiwan tends to choose English-speaking countries as popular destination countries. On the other hand, Japan is the

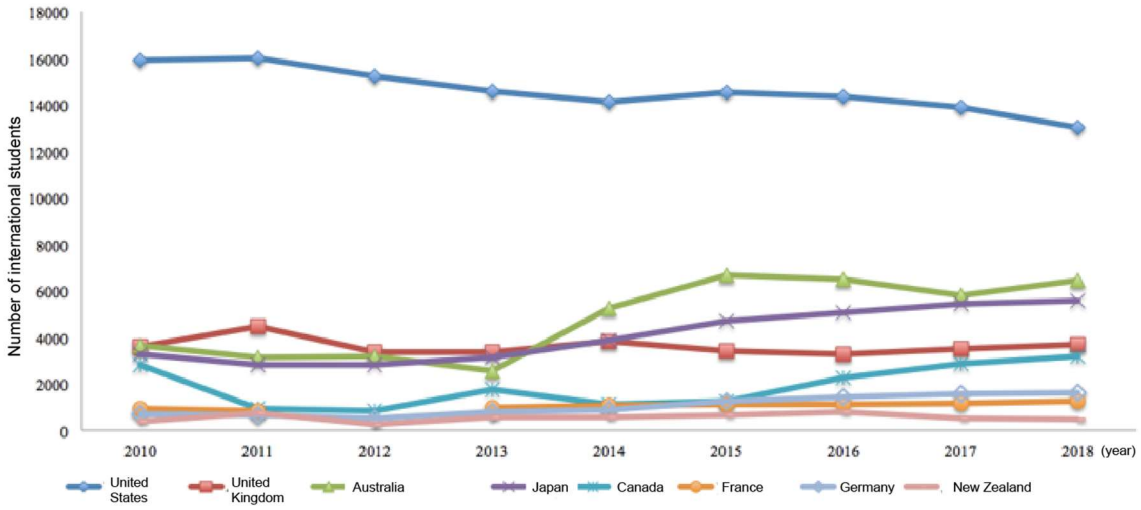


Figure 6-2 : Number of Foreign Students Studying Abroad from Academic Year 2008 to 2018

References: Compiled by the author based on “Leaving the Country and Study Abroad" by 国際及両岸教育司 (https://depart.moe.edu.tw/ed2500/News.aspxn=2D25F01E87D6EE17&sms=4061A6357922F45A, last viewed on January 25, 2020)

only non-English-speaking country among the five destinations and accounts for 10% of the total. Japan is considered to have a certain scale.

Based on the structure of the ratio mentioned above, the trend in the number of students who have studied abroad from FY 2008 to FY 2018 shows that there is still a certain scale of demand for education in Japan although the needs for overseas education in Taiwan are limited. There is also a tendency for the demand for education in Japan to increase. Figure 6-2 shows the number of students who studied abroad and had a student visa[13] from Academic Year 2008 to 2018. According to this figure, the number of students who studied abroad in 2018 increased 1.7 times compared to 5 years ago in 2013. Among them, the number of students studied in the United States is the largest but is declining. On the other hands, the number of students who studied in Australia, Germany, Canada and Japan, are on the rise. The number of students who studied in Japan has increased about 1.8 times.

Due to Taiwan's educational system mentioned above, the ratio of those who receive education abroad account for a low percentage of the total number of people who receive education. Students study abroad mainly at the higher education stage. On the other hand, there is still a certain scale of demand for education in Japan. The demand tends to increase.

**4. Institutional framework for the establishment of offshore schools**

Based on the above discussion on the needs for education in Japan, this section examines the institutional framework for the establishment of offshore schools, using the Act on the Establishment and Operation of Upper Secondary Education Institutions in Taiwan as a clue, and analyzes the possible forms of establishment and issues when Japanese educational institutions providing education in Taiwan.

As mentioned in Section 1, private educational institutions can be established not only as a regular education system but also as a non-regular education system in Taiwan. The non-regular education system is further divided into a supplementary education system, a training education system, and an experimental education system which is developed on the extension of the supplementary and training education systems (details will be described later). The supplementary and training education system institutions are attached to mainly regular schools and are not related to the establishment of offshore schools. Therefore, attention is mainly focused on the experimental education system here. In the following sections, the possibility of establishing an offshore school is examined according to the systems.

First of all, the establishment of offshore schools as a regular education system is mainly stipulated in Articles 82 and 83 of the Private Schools Act. The Act provides that "foreign nationals or legal foreign corporations may establish private schools whose stage is higher than senior high school stage within the borders of the Republic of China (Article 82)" and "foreign nationals or legal foreign corporations may establish private schools whose stage is lower than senior high school stage and attached kindergartens within the borders of the Republic of China, and students of foreign nationality shall be recruited (Article 83)." According to these laws, offshore schools for Taiwanese cannot be established at the upper secondary education level or lower, and only foreign students can be recruited. In addition, although it is possible to establish an offshore school at the upper secondary education level or higher, teachers, curriculum contents, and school facilities must be based on the same standards as Taiwanese educational institutions. For these reasons, there are many restrictions on the establishment of offshore schools within the regular education system as a whole, and it is difficult to provide Taiwanese with Japanese-style education in the regular education system.

In contrast, the establishment of offshore schools in experimental education systems is more flexible and relatively likely. The experimental education system is related to three acts (hereinafter, these three acts will be referred to as "Three Acts Governing Experimental Education") : the Enforcement Act for Non-school-based Experimental Education Across Levels Below Senior High School (in the original language:高級中等以下教育段階非学校形態実験教育実施条例), the Enforcement Act for School-based Experimental Education, and the Act Governing the Commissioning of the Operation of Public Elementary and Junior Secondary Schools to the Private Sector (in the original language:公立国民小学及国民中学委託私人辦理条例) enacted in 2014. These acts were introduced to promote educational innovation and to enable the provision of education/forms of education that are different from normal education[14]. The educational institutions established under the Three Acts Governing Experimental Education are further divided into 3 types: school-based, commission of the operation of public schools to private schools, and non-school-based. According to the statistical data in 2019, there are 40 experimental educational facilities at the upper secondary education stage. The breakdown is four school-based institutions, two institutions in the form of commission of the operation of public schools to private schools, and 34 non-school-based facilities[15].

From the point of these forms, there are only a few experimental educational facilities that are school-based or in the form of commission of the operation of public schools to private schools. The reason for this is that the establishment of experimental educational facilities that are school-based or in the form of commission to private schools is influenced by the ordinary school organization and school system, and the development as an experimental education is limited more than that of non-school based institutions.

However, in the experimental education system, the establishment and operation standards concerning the contents of education, the qualifications of administrative and educational personnel, and the operation of facilities and schools are less stringent than those of regular educational institutions, and it is possible to freely provide education based on their own principles. For example, in addition to securing a certain number of school sites, experimental educational institutions can apply for and use space that will not be used by public schools or other schools, and flexibly choose places to conduct classes. In addition, it is possible to carry out activities restricted in ordinary educational institutions, such as the employment of non-qualified foreign teachers in Taiwan, the fostering of teachers suitable for the needs of institutions, and the development of curricula.

According to the institutional framework that we have seen so far, it is possible to establish offshore schools in both the regular and non-regular education systems. However, the regular education system has more restrictions on the education content, purpose, and conditions of establishment than the non-regular education system. For this reason, it is difficult to establish an offshore school within the regular education system in order to achieve and develop Japanese-style education, which is the subject of concern in this report. On the other hand, the establishment of an offshore school as an experimental education facility, which is classified into the non-regular education system, is more appropriate for the goal to develop Japanese-style education.

**5. Case Studies**

Based on the institutional framework described above, when setting up an offshore school in Taiwan, it is most likely to be established as an experimental educational facility. How can offshore schools be established as experimental educational facilities to develop Japanese-style education? In order to find an answer to the question, this section uses Taiwan Adventist International School, which is a non-school-based experimental educational facility as an example and examine it.

As already mentioned, experimental educational facilities can provide education based on their own principles. Therefore, the experimental education facilities of the 40 schools mentioned above provide education based on specific educational principles such as Montessori education, Steiner education, and natural environment education. Unlike these facilities, Taiwan Adventist International School's primary purpose is to provide American-style education. These characteristics can be often used as a reference from the perspective of the development of the Japanese-style education system, which is the issue of concern in this report. For this reason, the school is chosen as an example in order to conduct analysis.

Let's take a look at the educational philosophy/objectives, educational contents, teacher-student structure, graduation requirements, and qualifications to be given at Taiwan Adventist International School (hereinafter referred to as TAIS).

TAIS is a non-school based experimental educational facility established in 2015[16]. The school aims to provide all-around education (equivalent to liberal arts education) suitable for the American-style Christian doctrine[17]. The school provides a total of six years of education corresponding to middle and high school levels. Those who want to go on to higher education can be enrolled in each grade. The completion certificate of the American Course is awarded to those who have only enrolled for more than 1.5 years after the entrance and met the specified requirements[18]. The ratio of students to teachers of the school is 4 to 1, and the number of students per class is 3 to 18. The school conducts education under the policy of classes with fewer students.

The educational content of the organization is the programs certified by Griggs International Academy (GIA)[19], an international educational institution in the United States. The program is mainly conducted in English by GIA accredited foreign teachers[20]. The specific subjects are English literature appreciation, leaning things in areas of mathematics, science, and international humanities, aesthetics and practical work, life and interpersonal relations, and applied arts[21]. These subjects are developed under the American curriculum, which is different from the curriculum guidelines stipulated in the Upper Secondary Education Stage in Taiwan. In addition to these regular courses, extracurricular educational support is also provided, such as supplementary courses for the U.S. University Examination and career guidance for applications.

Regarding graduation requirements and qualification to be given, students who meet a certain attendance rate and complete the required literature, mathematics, science, second language courses as well as required subjects will be awarded a GIA certificate, which

academic qualifications in the United States[22]. The school's policy on its students' entrance into a higher-level school is to send graduates to universities in the United States and abroad. According to the information materials on the academic destinations of graduates in the academic year 2018, those graduates mainly go on to schools in English-speaking countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia[23]. Overall, 90% of the graduates of the school go on to schools in foreign countries[24]. If students meet the graduation requirements, they will be awarded not only the GIA certificate but also the certificate of completion of the experimental education at the upper secondary education stage. This certificate of completion is treated as equivalent to the certificate of completion of upper secondary education and allows students to enter a university in Taiwan.

In this way, TAIS, as an experimental educational institution, is forming its own educational model by separating itself from the Taiwan's educational system and building its own educational content, qualifications and career options.

**6.Conclusion**

According to the current situation of education in Taiwan and the institutional framework and examples of the provision of overseas education, the following three issues can be summarized for the provision of Japanese-style education in Taiwan and the establishment of offshore schools at the upper secondary education stage.

First of all, it is necessary to reconfirm the acceptance of Japanese education. As mentioned earlier, regarding overseas education, Taiwan is more eager to receive education of Western (English-speaking) countries rather than that of Japan. Therefore, regarding the provision of Japanese-style education at the upper secondary education stage, it is necessary to consider again from various points of view what advantages Taiwanese students could have and what kind of people would like to receive Japanese-style education. For example, students who receive Japanese-style education in Japanese mainly go to Japanese universities. However, compared to the cases mentioned in this report, the number of students who go to Japanese universities is considerably limited, and it can be assumed that Japanese universities are not attractive to students who want to go abroad.

In addition, the uniqueness of the programs provided under Japanese-style education must be considered. This point is related to the above. As an Asian country, Taiwan has many similarities in society and culture to Japan. That makes it difficult to distinguish Taiwanese education from Japanese-style education, which emphasizes non-cognitive aspects such as ethics and morals. In order to make an appeal to Taiwanese students for the merits of Japanese-style education, it is necessary to dig deep into the contents of the courses and others at the micro level.

The last point is related to the qualification framework. According to the examples used in this report, TAIS can be positioned as an intermediary institution for the students to mainly go on to American universities. About the establishment of offshore schools envisaged in this report, it could be assumed that the schools would send their graduates to Japanese universities and educational institutions while aiming to provide Japanese-style education. In such cases, a person who has completed an offshore school should be granted not only a certificate of completion of an experimental educational facility, but also, like a GIA certificate, a qualification corresponding to the Japanese academic qualification. It is necessary to understand how the Japanese qualifications from the Japan side are granted.

On the whole, there is a need for Japanese-style education in Taiwan, but it remains on a small scale. It is necessary to rethink the conditions required for the provision of Japanese-style education, the elaboration of ideas, and the establishment of institutional frameworks.

**[Note]**

1) Ministry of Education "The fourth Yearbook of Education of the Republic of China", 1974, pp.1-33.
2) The Ministry of Education, 「高級中等学校應届畢業生升学就業概況調査」 https://www.edu.tw/News_Content.aspx?n=829446EED325AD02&sms=26FB481681F7B203&s=1547C271DEDAE960, last viewed on May 30, 2020.
3) 聯合新聞網「我出国留学人数創５年新高　徳日加成長最多」　HYPERLINK "https://udn.com/news/story/7270/3979373" https://udn.com/news/story/7270/3979373Last viewed on May 30, 2020.
4) Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology "The results of the selection of the pilot project of “FY 2019 "EDU-Port Nippon" https://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/houdou/31/06/1418465.htm, last viewed June 10, 2020.
5) For details, refer to “the outline of a pilot project to disseminate Japanese-style education overseas (EDU-Port Japan)” by Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. https://www.eduport.mext.go.jp/summary/index.html, last viewed on May 30, 2020.
6) 教育部統計拠『中華民国教育統計　民国 107 年版』, Ministry of Education, 2018, pp.223-228.
7) Same as above.
8) For details, see Article 5 of the Higher Secondary Education Act. （教育部主管法規查詢系統「」、 http://edu.law.moe.gov.tw/LawContent.aspx?id=GL001143, last viewed on February 3, 2019.
9) Same as above.
10) 教育部主管法規查詢系統「教育部辦理独立学院申請改名為大学審查作業規定」、 http://edu.law.moe.gov.tw/LawContent.aspx?id=FL008673, last viewed on February 3, 2019.
11) For details, refer to 「補習及進修教育法」(2017) (https://law.moj.gov.tw/LawClass/LawAll.aspx?PCode=H0080002, last viewed on September 29, 2018)
12) Net enrolment ratio is the ratio of the people who are actually receiving education at a certain education stage to the total number of people of the age at which they should be educated at that stage. N/A
13) With regard to those who have student visas, if they are qualified to study in the United States, they are those who aim to acquire a degree, engage in short-term training outside the course period (at least 18 hours per week), and engage in short-term exchange. The United Kingdom, Japan, and Canada, have implemented a visa exemption policy since 2009. The increased number of international students after that is considered to be the number of students studying abroad for a long period of time. In other words, students who receive participate in language training and short-term exchange programs in the above-mentioned countries are no longer counted from 2009. As a result, the number of people who have received education overseas since 2009 is considered to be bigger than the figures shown.
14) 行政院「重要政策《実験教育法》三法修正一讓台湾教育創新更具動能」、 https://www.ey.gov.tw/Page/5A8A0CB5B41DA11E/d0f42a96-289c-4bb2-8c1a-87575a998a50, last viewed February 5, 2020
15) 台湾実践教育推動中心「各類高中職実験教育単位整理表」、https://teec.nccu.edu.tw/school2_detail/23.htm、 Last viewed on June 29, 2020.
16) 南投県復臨国際実験教育機構「関於復臨」、https://tais.tw/zh-hant/about/last viewed on June 29, 2020.
17) Same as above.
18) Same as above.
19) Griggs International Academy is an international educational institution established in 1909. The academy provides remote courses, programs, program certification, and teacher training courses. The institution is accredited by the Association for Higher Education, the Junior and Senior High School Board, the Christian School Association and the University Association, and a certificate of completion will be awarded upon completion of the program accredited by the institution. Students can apply to universities with the certificate. (For details, see GRIGGS, "Approved & Accredited," https://www.griggs.edu/about/accreditation, last viewed June 29, 2020.)
20) Some second foreign language classes and Chinese and subjects of Chinese and foreign cultures are taught in Chinese by Taiwanese teachers.
21) 南投県復臨国際実験教育機構「師資与課程」、https://tais.tw/zh-hant/teacher-class/、 Last viewed on June 29, 2020.
22) 南投県復臨国際実験教育機構「畢業条件」、https://tais.tw/zh-hant/graduate-rule/、 Last viewed on June 29, 2020.
23) For details, refer to 南投県復臨国際実験教育機構「榜単」、 https://tais.tw/zh-hant/admission/, 復臨 International Experimental Institute, Nantou Prefecture. Last viewed on June 29, 2020.
24) 南投県復臨国際実験教育機構、https://tais.tw/zh-hant/, last inspected on June 29, 2020.

## Study Group Meetings

First Meeting

Date: Saturday, December 22, 2018 , 13:00 - 16:00
Place: Kyoto University
Content: Explanation of the purpose and future development

Second Meeting

Date: Saturday, April 13, 2019 14:00 - 17:00
Place: Kyoto University
Content: Hitoshi Sugimoto: "New Trends in Transnational Higher Education"
Masayuki Watanabe: “Educational System in India”

Third Meeting

Date: Saturday, July 6, 2019 14:00 - 17:00
Place: Kyoto University
Content: Yusuke Nakajima: "Free Zones and International Branch Campuses in Dubai - Are they House of Cards ?”
Kentaro Shimada: "Education System in Indonesia"

Fourth Meeting

Date: Saturday, February 8, 2020 14:00 - 17:00
Place: Kyoto University
Content: Kyounghwa Jeon: “Establishment and Operation of "Foreign Educational Institutions" in the Republic of Korea”
Yu-Ching Liao: "The Possibility of Establishing Offshore Schools at Upper Secondary Education Level in Taiwan"

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* Positions and titles are based on the data as of April 1, 2020.

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**Founding Philosophy**

Humanity is currently facing a number of challenges to its continued existence caused by a range of factors. Can we or future generations continue to live on this planet in the same way and with the same values we've held up to now? How can we resolve such problems that have historical and social origins? And in the 21st century, what form should our culture, science, and technology take? There are no set methods for developing ideas when it comes to such challenges.

The founding philosophy of the International Institute for Advanced Studies (IIAS) is to "conduct research for the future and happiness of mankind" and we address these issues through fundamental research based on cooperation among government, industry and academia. By consolidating wisdom from around the world and taking research forward, we aim to produce new directionality in academic research or orient ourselves towards creating new concepts, and contribute to the development of academic research culture.

**Mission**

Our society has reached a turning point where we veer off the path of "single-minded pursuit for development and efficiency" and follow the one of "peaceful and sustainable coexistence of all mankind." Along this new road lie fundamental questions that need to be answered in order to secure the future and well-being of mankind. IIAS takes it on as its mission to explore those questions, uncover new problems and present our "findings" to the world. We are committed to leading in-depth discussions and shedding light on the discovered paths towards solution.

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IIAS was established in August 1984 as an incorporated foundation strongly supported by entities from industry, academia and government that agree with its founding philosophy outlined above, and has since been running on donations from major companies and philanthropists across Japan. In October 1993, IIAS opened a research facility in the Keihanna Science City (officially known as Kansai Science City) on a land granted by the Kyoto Prefectural Government. The Institute serves as the central research organization or the "brain" of the Keihanna Science City.

CORE PROGRAM REPORT

# Creating a Hub for Import / Export of the Educational System
## - Exploring the Possibility of Keihanna, an International Educational City -

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