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Analysis of Cross-Border Higher Education for Regional Integration
and Labor Market in East Asia

Institutional Development of Cross-Border Higher Education: The Case of an Evolving Malaysia-Japan Project

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Institutional Development of Cross-Border Higher Education: The Case of an Evolving Malaysia-Japan Project

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Abstract

This paper examines institutional governance for a cross-border higher education program, focusing on the effects of introducing a new form of program. The paper analyzes the case of the Higher Education Loan Fund Project between Malaysia and Japan, in which the form of cross-border higher education has evolved from student mobility to program mobility through a twinning arrangement. Although academic staff sent from Japanese universities continued to play important roles and be involved in decision-making, the partner institution in Malaysia began to replace some of them with Malaysian teaching staff, had their initial part of the twinning program accredited as a diploma course, and used this experience to develop a fresh diploma course for engineering. Japanese universities successfully responded to the evolution of the project by adapting the existing curriculum, transferring credits and students, and developing new systems of staff training and quality assurance. By creating a consortium which has gradually become more formalized, the Japanese universities followed common procedures for placement and student support, thus reducing transaction costs. Certain universities have developed new cross-border programs by themselves. A program mobility model of cross-bordering is strengthening the governance and capacity of participating higher education institutions, but the sustainability of the program will depend on the commitment of the institutions and continued financial support by governments.

Keywords: cross-border higher education, Malaysia, Japan, institutional governance, twinning

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1. Introduction

Cross-bordering of higher education has gathered momentum in recent decades, driven by competition for international status following the public disclosure of rankings of the world's universities, such as the Times Higher Education World University Rankings and the Academic Ranking of World Universities by Shanghai Jiaotong University. This coincides with the diversification of the forms of cross-border higher education (CBHE). According to Knight (2005), CBHE evolves from the initial mobility of people (students, professors, researchers and experts) to that of programs (courses, programs, degrees) and further to that of providers (institutions, consortia, companies).¹ Educational programs have become mobile through twinning and franchise arrangements and through the awarding of joint or double degrees. Knight also conceptually argues that this progressive development is facilitated initially by education aid, then promoted by educational linkages and finally by commercially motivated trade (Annex Figure 1).

The trend of CBHE toward program and institutional mobility offers incentives with at least three potential benefits: (i) cost-savings for students and the sending government as their sponsor, (ii) alleviation of the “brain drain” risk, and (iii) capacity-building of higher education institutions (HEIs) in importing countries (OECD and WB 2007, 76). Notwithstanding these benefits, private costs for students and HEIs in importing countries may exceed their financial capacity, and so the governments in these countries may choose to use public funds, such as official development assistance (ODA) and other official flows (OOF) to developing countries, to promote newer forms of CBHE.

The new wave of CBHE is no longer found only within or between Europe and other economically weaker areas. In Asia, the internationalization of higher education is accelerating

1. See Annex Figure A.1 for her conceptual framework.

not only between the region and conventional more advanced areas, but also among countries within the region (Kuroda et al. 2010). In terms of the forms of mobility, program mobility seems to be gaining popularity in East Asian countries, enabling students to obtain foreign degrees or diplomas without staying abroad for the entire duration of the course. There is a recent policy trend toward encouraging cross-border collaboration in higher education. For example, as agreed at the second Japan-China-Korea Trilateral Summit held in 2009, the three countries are in the process of promoting an Asian version of the Erasmus program, called "Campus Asia", to forge collaborative degree programs between their HEIs (Yuki et al. 2012).

Thus, CBHE is not just a concern of individuals (students and lecturers) but necessarily involves an educational institution as a partner entity. Accordingly, the promotion of CBHE requires institutional commitment and an ability to meet and revise quality standards as needed, to attain compatibility and comparability among HEIs across national borders. A strategy of internationalization needs to be put in place clearly in the governance (institutional decision-making) structure of a HEI. For a university to respond to the progressive evolution put forward by the Knight model, institutional governance to enable the process is essential. In parallel, another movement called the New Public Management is making influential demands on HEIs to be more accountable for their performance and use of resources while increasing autonomy (Santiago et al. 2008, 123). Thus, HEIs are facing both international and domestic pressures to strengthen institutional governance, including aspects of cross-border higher education.

In these changing contexts surrounding higher education institutions, the Japanese government's new education cooperation policy (2011–2015) also emphasizes the development of a cross-border network of higher education for the knowledge-based society (MOFA 2010). While the majority of CBHE programs assisted by Japanese ODA have so far been conventional study-abroad programs, there are a few innovative programs which support cross-border collaborations between HEIs between Japan and other countries. This paper examines whether

and how this type of innovative program can contribute to institutional development of higher education institutions for CBHE programs.

2. Research framework

Research questions

This paper will look at the case of a CBHE program in Asia, the Higher Education Loan Fund Project (HELP). As explained in Section 3, HELP started as a full degree abroad program between Malaysia and Japan in the early 1990s and then shifted to program mobility as a collaborative degree program. HELP has evolved over three phases, each phase having a conspicuously different project design, in the regional context of growing internationalization of higher education.

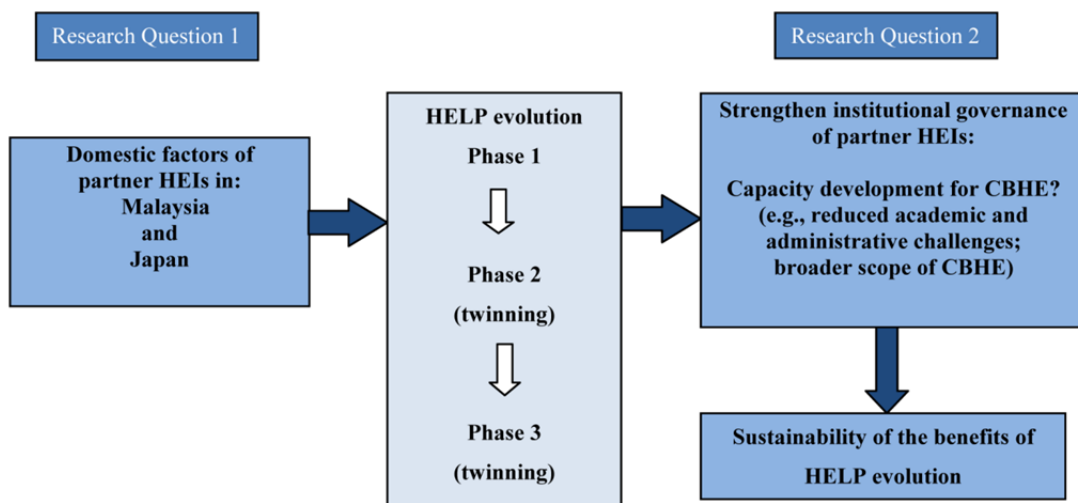
As illustrated in Figure 1, this paper will first consider how the evolution of HELP has been influenced by partner countries' domestic policies for higher education, both in Malaysia and in Japan, taking into consideration the global environment surrounding both countries' higher education. Then, it will examine in what ways and to what extent HELP's evolution towards this cross-border collaborative degree program has been conducive to strengthening the governance of participating educational and related institutions so as to ensure the sustainability of the program.

Governance will be viewed from both institutional and systemic aspects. Following the definition used by the OECD, institutional governance refers to "the formal and informal arrangements that allow higher education institutions to make decisions and take actions" (Task Force 2000, 59; Santiago et al. 2008, 120), whereas systemic governance "comprises a complex web" that includes the legislative framework, the characteristics of the institutions and how they relate to the whole system, resource allocation, accountability system, and system steering (OECD 2003, 61; Santiago et al. 2008, 68). Using these as working definitions, this paper pays

particular attention to the institutional governance concerning roles and decision-making on academic, administrative and financial matters in the light of HELP program management, while giving due regard to systemic governance as a contextual regulatory factor.

Program sustainability will be examined as to whether HELP has evolved by enhancing the capacity of partner institutions and reducing partner institutions’ academic and administrative challenges in engaging in CB degree programs,² thus leading to a broader scope of inter-institutional collaboration, including program mobility. Regarding the sustainability of ODA-funded projects, for example, the World Bank (1990) suggests (a) continued delivery of services and production of benefits, (b) maintenance of physical infrastructure, (c) long-term institutional capacity, and (d) support from key stakeholders. According to the OECD’s DAC criteria for evaluating development assistance,³ sustainability is concerned with measuring whether the benefits of an activity are likely to continue after donor funding has been withdrawn. This paper focuses on institutional capacity as a benefit of the HELP project.

Figure 1.



2. Yuki, et al. (2012, 3) summarizes the concerns of HEIs including different national legal frameworks, different quality assurance and accreditation systems, adequate financing and program sustainability in developing CBHE programs in the EU and US, citing studies by Kuder and Obst (2009) and EUA (2004).

3. www.oecd.org/dac/evaluation.

Research methods

The study reviewed relevant policy and project documents⁴ and literature, and conducted semi-structured interviews at different times in 2010 with key persons who have been involved with HELP since its inception, including policy administrators, project management staff, and members of educational institutions both in Malaysia and in Japan. In addition, a questionnaire survey was administered in 2010 with Japanese universities that have participated in the project for at least two phases to obtain their comparative views on the different project designs.

Previous literature

Malaysia is one of the most active countries in Asia that are developing CBHE. Sirat (2006) provides an overview of the historical evolution of transnational programs in Malaysia. Tham (2011, 9) explains diverse types of transnational programs such as external degree programs, split degree programs including twinning and credit transfer programs, and distance-learning arrangements. When these transnational programs were set up, they were expected to help import international standards and knowledge and to enhance the mobility of human resources (Middlehurst and Woodfield 2004 as cited by Sirat 2006, 115). CBHE can be used strategically to strengthen the institutional capacity of HEIs in Malaysia. Taylor's University and Limkokwing University are examples which successfully upgraded themselves from the initial status of college or institute into a university college and then to a university, building on their experience of twinning and managing foreign degree programs (Limkokwing University 2012; Taylor's University 2012).

However, Sirat (2006, 122) also points out four concerns of these programs: (1) lack of quality assurance due to difficulty of enforcing regulations; (2) acceleration of social disparity resulting from English usage; (3) discrepancy between acquired competencies emphasized by

4. When this research was conducted, the ex-post evaluation report was available only for HELP 1 (Haraguchi 2004). Generally speaking, for JICA-ODA assisted projects, the ex-post evaluation is conducted two years after the completion of the project.

foreign institutions and those needed for employment in Malaysia; and (4) heavy focus on vocational skills leading to students' lack of moral and ethical values. As case studies,⁵ Tierney (2010, 184–86) and Sidhu and Kaur (2011, 11) discuss the roles of twinning programs on HEIs to reduce the cost of hiring distinguished foreign faculty and to prevent the brain drain resulting from study-abroad programs.

Twinning has also been conducted for countries other than Malaysia. According to Oanda, Chege, and Wesonga (2008, 4, 31), several institutions in Kenya, especially not-for-profit religious institutions, that do not award higher education degrees have entered into twinning arrangements with universities in Australia, enabling the Kenyan institutions to offer degree programs on their partners' behalf. Additionally, as a donor-funded project, the World Bank helped to reform the programs of Sana'a and Aden universities in Yemen through university twinning with the Association of Universities and Community Colleges of Canada. However, to the authors' knowledge, there have been few case studies describing and assessing how program mobility or a cross-border collaborative degree program can strengthen the capacity or institutional governance of participating HEIs in undertaking CBHE.

Therefore, based on the research results, this paper attempts to offer valuable insights for other countries that will follow a similar path. The paper also suggests that Japanese universities should be more strategic and proactive in advancing their internationalization strategy.

5. With regard to the roles of twinning programs, Tierney (2010, 185) examines Taylor's University College (previously known as Taylor's College) in Malaysia, which has formed twinning arrangements with universities in Australia, the UK, and France. Sidhu and Kaur (2011, 11) introduce branch campuses in Malaysia set up by the University of Nottingham (UK), Monash University Malaysia (Australia), FTMS-DeMonfort University Campus (Singapore), Curtin University of Technology campuses in Lutong and Miri (Australia), and Swinburne University of Technology in Kuching (Australia).

3. HELP and its evolution

HELP has evolved its designs in three conspicuous phases. The key features and a summary of each phase of HELP are shown in Table 1 and summarized below.

HELP 1: a full-degree abroad program as a '2+4' model

The first phase was implemented from 1992 to 2004. This phase aimed at augmenting local capacity to produce core human resources in the areas of science and engineering. The academic course comprised two years of preparatory study in Malaysia before entering a 4-year undergraduate program in participating universities in Japan, the so-called '2+4' system.⁶ The preparatory program, running for 19 months, provided Japanese language training and basic subjects of mathematics and science to prepare students for the entrance examination of Japanese universities. The program was held at the Japanese Matriculation Centre (JMC) using the space and facilities of Bangi College, one of the colleges owned and managed by Yayasan Pelajaran MARA (YPM, Education Foundation of MARA)⁷ which was a project-implementing body in Malaysia.

The first phase accepted 343 students into the preparatory program, of whom 310 completed the program and went on to enter and complete the undergraduate program in 51 Japanese universities (JBIC 2006 and JUCTe 2011).

6. For a Malaysian to study in Japan in a conventional model, it typically takes two years before entering the university at the undergraduate level: one year of study at one of the approved HEIs is required to satisfy the requirement of 12 years of pre-university education (due to the difference in education systems between the two countries) and another year for learning Japanese (<http://www.studyinjapan.org.my/>).

7. MARA: Majlis Amanah Rakyat, the Council of Trust for the Indigenous People, a governmental body established "to raise the status and dignity of Bumiputera through various economic, educational and social activities" (<http://www.mara.gov.my/web/guest/sejarah>).

HELP 2: A twinning program as a '2+3' model

The second phase was implemented from 1999 to 2009.⁸ The curriculum of the 19-month preparation program was systematically reviewed and condensed into a 12-month course (JBIC 2011) of Japanese language training and basic subjects, and an additional one year was added to cover the first year of the undergraduate engineering program based on the common curriculum and syllabus agreed on by Japanese participating universities. Students in departments of mechanical engineering, information engineering, and electrical and electronic engineering were expected to obtain a total of 66 credits including elective subjects, whereas those in departments of chemistry and materials science and engineering needed to gain a total of 65 credits, corresponding to the specialized course. This phase was taught by Japanese residential teaching staff and short-term teaching staff for intensive course subjects, and used internet and other distance-learning methods. Since the introduction of twinning in Phase II, the Malaysian preparation program has been called the Japan Associate Degree Program (JAD).

The criteria for selecting applicants remained basically unchanged from those of HELP 1. That is, YPM selected students from Bumiputera who had completed secondary education with top-class scores. The main difference for students is that they did not need to sit the Examination for Japanese University Admission for International Students (EJU). After finishing JAD in two years, students could identify which university they wished to apply for (among the consortium member universities) and take the exam in Malaysia to be transferred to the universities. The number of credits to be transferred was assessed and decided by individual Japanese universities, rather than categorically determined according to the field of study.

During the second phase, 299 students entered the undergraduate program in 30 Japanese universities. In HELP 2, scholarships were also provided to HELP graduates who continued onto the master's course for an additional two years.

8. The duration of each phase overlaps, since the subsequent phase started while the batch of students in the previous phase was still in the program.

HELP 3: A twinning program as a '3+2' model

The third phase started in 2005 (approved in 2006) and is expected to continue till 2015 (JICA, 2006). By extending the JAD program to three years following further revision of its curriculum, it is now accredited by the National Accreditation Board [Lembaga Akreditasi Negara (LAN)] as a self-contained diploma course, and JAD graduates are to be admitted to Japanese universities by transfer into the third grade of the four-year undergraduate course. At the same time, the venue of the program in Malaysia was relocated from the YPM-managed Bangi College to Industrial University of Selangor (UNISEL), a state-run private university, for reasons explained in Section 6.1. HELP 3 restricts admitted students to major in one of two areas: mechanical engineering or electrical and electronic engineering.

The number of participating Japanese universities continued to decline as the phase moved on, largely due to the withdrawal of public universities. In HELP 1, 38 public universities and 13 private ones admitted HELP students. In HELP 2, 17 public universities together with the same 13 private universities started to implement the twinning program. For HELP 3, Japan Universities Group (JUG), composed of 15 universities (3 public and 12 private universities) signed an MOU as Japan University Group with YPM on running the twinning program with UNISEL.

Altogether, during HELP 1, HELP 2 and up to the fourth year of HELP 3, 933 Malaysian students came to study at HEIs in Japan seeking a degree in engineering and almost all have successfully graduated. Of the total, more than two-thirds studied in 13 private universities and the other one-third studied in 41 different public (national incorporated) universities. Tokai University (112), Shibaura Institute of Technology (106), and Takushoku University (94), all private, accepted the largest numbers of HELP students (JUCTe 2011).

Table 1. Comparative summary of HELP 1, 2 and 3

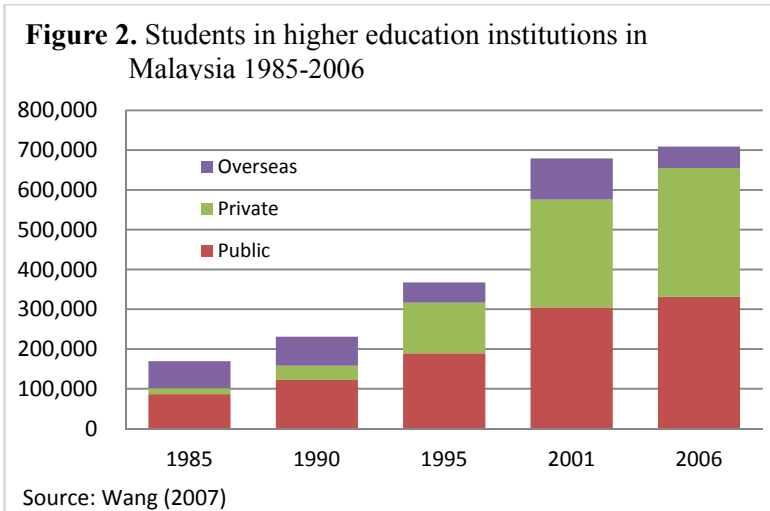
	HELP 1	HELP 2	HELP 3
Implementation period	1992–2004	1999–2009	2006–2015
Program design (years)	2 (M) + 4 (J)	2 + 3	3 + 2
Postgraduate option	None	Masters	Masters & Doctoral
Program in Malaysia	Language & basic subjects	Same as HELP 1 plus UG general subjects	Same as HELP 2 with more UG general subjects
Initial student selection	YPM	YPM	YPM
Campus	JMC	JMC	UNISEL
At exit	Certificate by JMC/YPM	Certificate by JMC/YPM	Diploma by UNISEL
Accreditation	n.a.	n.a.	by MQA
Credit transfer	n.a.	Yes	Yes
Bachelor conferred by	Japanese universities	Japanese universities	Japanese universities
Membership Status and Number of Japanese universities	individual member 51 (Pub. 38, Pri. 13)	Consortium member 30 (Pub. 17, Pri. 13)	JUG member 15 (Pub. 3, Pri. 12)
Students admitted UG PG	310 (Pub. 119, Pri. 191) n.a.	299 (Pub. 74, Pri. 225) M53 (planned)*	(planned) 400* M 66*, PhD 25*
Curriculum developed by	Mostly by Japanese universities in consultation with YPM		
Teaching staff in Malaysia			
Japanese language	Taught by Japanese staff	Taught by Japanese staff	J 14, M 2
Subject teaching	Mostly by Japanese staff		J 4, M 6
UG program	Mostly by Japanese staff		J 8, M 2
Project management	YPM	YPM	YPM
Roles of consultant	Significant	Significant	Moderate
Academic matters	Mostly by Japanese universities in consultation with YPM with UNISEL		

Notes: JUG: Japanese University Group
 JUCTe: Japanese University Consortium for Transnational-education
 MQA: Malaysia Qualification Agency
 NPO: Non-Profit Organization
 UG: Undergraduate
 UNISEL: Universiti Industry Selangor
 YPM: Yayasan Pelajaran MARA (Mara education foundation)
 *: planned figures from YPM/JAD website <http://www.jadypm.edu.my/>

4. Domestic factors: higher education policies of partner countries

4.1 Policy environment and systemic governance in Malaysia

Expansion of higher education system and supply constraints



Malaysia has undergone a spectacular expansion of its higher education system since the early 1990s. Under the Vision 2020 plan that was launched by the then Prime Minister Mahathir in 1991, Malaysia aspired to

become a developed nation by 2020. It required the country to create a globally competitive labor force to support its robust economy that had grown at an annual average rate of 9.2 percent (gross national income, World Development Indicators) over the decade to 1997. Accordingly, student enrollment in higher education quadrupled from 121,412 to 557,118 during 1990–2001 (Edstats), and at an especially rapid pace during the second half of the decade (Figure 2).⁹ The number of public HEIs increased from 7 to 13 during the 1990s, and to 20 by 2007 (Education Guide Malaysia 2007, 289).¹⁰

Consistent growth of its higher education system notwithstanding, Malaysia's domestic capacity was not sufficient to accommodate increasing demand for higher education. In 1990, some 73 thousand students studied in foreign HEIs, accounting for roughly 30 percent of total demand for

9. Figures include enrolment in public and private institutions, but exclude Malaysian students studying abroad. The latest figure is 805,135 in 2007.

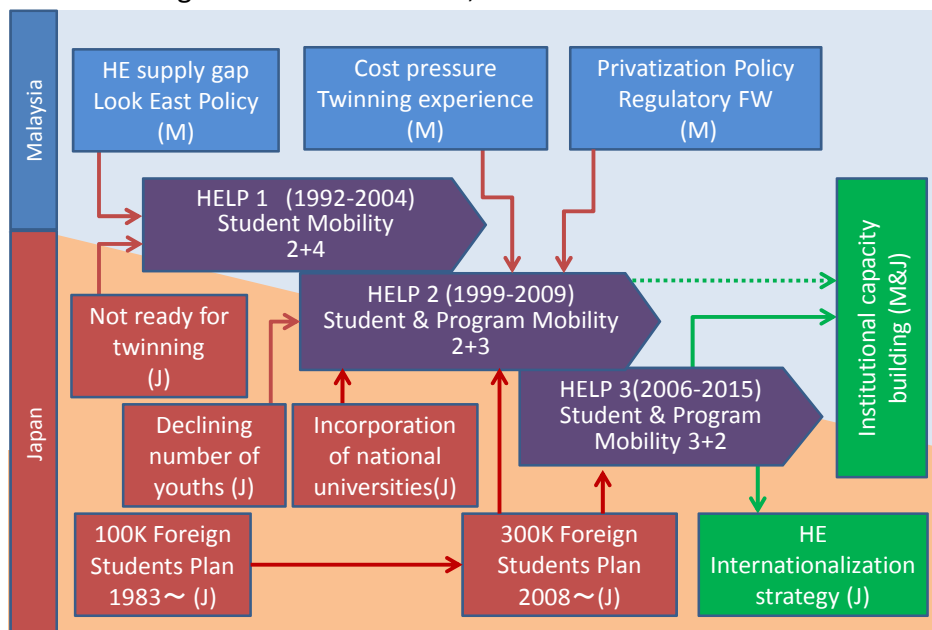
10. See (<http://www.mohe.gov.my/>).

higher education. Thus, Malaysia urgently needed to build up its higher education system. The first phase of HELP was designed to reduce the shortage of highly skilled human resources in the field of engineering.

The development of a CBHE program with Japan also suited Malaysia’s desire to diversify host countries, which were mainly Anglo-Saxon countries with colonial ties. The Look East Policy identified features of Japan’s and Korea’s success and the development of their work ethic, commitment to study and work, morality and entrepreneurship (Embassy of Japan website 2010). The policy was pursued throughout the premiership of Mahatir from 1981 to 2003 and provided a strong impetus for Malaysian youths to study at HEIs in Japan. He also took over the New Economic Policy from his predecessor, which includes the Bumiputera policy in the economic sphere, and tried to counter the unfavorable economic conditions of ethnic Malays and other indigenous people (Bumiputera).¹¹ HELP 1 was drawn up to serve these policy objectives (Figure 3).

Figure 3

Figure 3. HELP Evolution, Factors and Effects



11. Recently, there has been a shift in the Look East and Bumiputera policies: the government emphasizes unity of the nation through its One Malaysia policy and intends to promote harmonious development (Yamada 2006, 20).

Privatization and internationalization

The expansion of higher education in Malaysia is largely explained by the growth of private HEIs, which account for about 35 percent of higher education enrollment (in 2000 and in 2005) (Edstats). Throughout the 1990s, visible progress was made in the cross-bordering of higher education programs, in the form of twinning arrangements, degree transfers in collaboration with foreign HEIs, and the opening of branch campuses by foreign HEIs (Sirat 2006) mainly driven by the desire to reduce the unit cost per graduate. Private universities in Malaysia actively partnered with Australian and UK universities (Sugimura, Yamada, and Kuroda 2006, 66). Today there are 33 private universities and university colleges, four foreign university branch campuses and about 500 private colleges in Malaysia (Education Guide Malaysia 2007, 289). Australian universities have opened branch campuses in Malaysia; Monash University opened the first foreign university campus in Malaysia in Sunway in 1998, and was followed by Curtin University of Technology (1999 in Sarawak) and Swinburne University of Technology (2000 in Sarawak). The University of Nottingham of the UK also opened a campus in Malaysia in 2000.

As for YPM, which is the HELP implementing body in Malaysia, it was running a twinning program respectively with universities in the US, UK, and Australia¹² and wished to introduce such an arrangement with Japan in HELP. However, both the policy makers and universities on the Japanese side were not ready, since there was no precedent of such an innovative CBHE program at that time. Thus, HELP 1 was designed as a conventional student mobility program in which the entire 4-year undergraduate course was taught in Japanese universities after the 2-year preparatory course in Malaysia.

12. Malaysia had already experienced '3 + 0' foreign degree programs since 1998, in which a group of private colleges without having degree-awarding authority "were allowed by (their) foreign partner universities from the UK and Australia to conduct (their) respective foreign bachelor degree programs entirely in Malaysia" (Education Guide Malaysia 2007, 303).

Policy and regulatory framework for quality assurance

Several important laws were enacted in 1996 and propelled the expansion of higher education. The National Council on Higher Education Act 1996 was intended to help formulate policies on higher education, and the Private Higher Education Institutions Act 1996 allowed private HEIs to confer degrees for the first time in Malaysia and prompted the establishment of HEIs by local initiatives as well as branches of foreign universities. The National Accreditation Board [Lembaga Akreditasi Negara (LAN)] was established under the LAN Act and set the standards of programs and qualifications offered by the private HEIs, and accredited courses according to the set criteria. Meanwhile, public universities continued to rely on their internal quality assurance mechanisms and were monitored by the Quality Assurance Division (QAD) of the Ministry of Education.

Not only to steer and manage the expanding higher education system, but also to “turn Malaysia into a Center of Excellence for Higher Education,” the Ministry of Higher Education was established in 2004. In 2007, the Malaysian Qualification Agency (MQA) was established by combining the functions of LAN and QAD as a single quality assurance entity for both public and private HEIs. Professional qualifications were accredited in collaboration with professional bodies through a joint technical committee formulated for each professional field such as engineering, medicine and others. MQA developed and classified qualifications into eight levels within the Malaysia Qualifications Framework (MQF) according to a set of domestically accepted criteria and by benchmarking them against international practices. In the field of engineering, the Engineering Accreditation Council formed by the Board of Engineers became a provisional member of the Washington Accord¹³ in 2001 and then a full member in 2009.

13. The Washington Accord is “an international agreement that recognizes substantial equivalence in the accreditation of qualifications in professional engineering, normally of four years duration” (<http://www.washingtonaccord.org/>). It was concluded in 1989 to recognize equivalence in the accreditation of qualifications in four-year degree programs. Originally, professional organizations of six Anglo-American countries were original signatories, including the US, Canada, UK, Ireland, Australia and New Zealand, and presently thirteen organizations are members including non-English speaking countries with four provisional members. The Japan Accreditation Board for Engineering Education became a provisional member in 2001 and a full member in 2005.

Fast-growing privatization of higher education, helped by the government policies and regulatory framework, encouraged the introduction of program mobility in higher education and pushed HELP to move in this direction.

Another strong driving force behind the transition to the second phase was to reduce the unit costs of the undergraduate cross-border program with Japan to enable more students to benefit, and to allow the scope of scholarship provision to be expanded to the doctoral course. Studying in Japan was considered extremely expensive, four to five times that of studying in Europe or the US (Sugimura, Yamada, and Kuroda 2006). The financial crisis that struck Asian countries in 1997 made it essential to revisit the conventional style of human resources development and forced HELP to devise a more cost-efficient program. Like other countries in the region, Malaysia suffered a severe setback in its economic activities and serious budgetary constraint.

4.2 Policy environment and systemic governance for cross-border higher education in Japan

Japan's policy for advancing CBHE initially took the form of promoting an inflow of foreign students into Japan. In 1983, Prime Minister Yasuhiro Nakasone launched a plan to increase the number of foreign students studying in Japan from 8,116 to 100 thousand by 2000. This plan spanned the period in which the population of 18 year-olds was increasing (up to 1992) and then decreasing thereafter. The premise was that the exchange of international students would promote mutual understanding and trust, advance internationalization, stimulate education and research, and help develop human resources in developing countries (MEXT 2000, chap. 9, sec. 4-1). Politically, the plan was motivated by an aspiration to fill the gap with educationally more internationalized countries such as the US, France and UK which hosted 312 thousand, 119 thousand and 53 thousand foreign students respectively in those days and at least to catch up with France (Terakura 2009, 28). Various measures introduced to achieve the stated goal

included: increasing the number of publicly funded students (both by the sending governments and by Japan), increasing the number of courses provided in English, reviewing the degree conferment requirements, accepting more privately funded students, improving services to foreign students at universities (by setting up a foreign student center with adequate staffing), providing student accommodation facilities, and following-up the returnee students (Terakura 2009, 28–29). The goal was finally attained in 2003 when the number of foreign students reached 109,508.

A typical mode of CBHE at this stage for Japanese universities was still student mobility in the early 1990s at the beginning of the first phase of HELP. In preparation for introducing the twinning arrangement with the 2+3 model into the second phase of HELP, YPM initially approached the Japanese Ministry of Education to discuss the possibility, who advised them to talk to private universities, rather than national universities, according to an interview with a former YPM college principal. The Ministry's view was that the national universities would be less likely to embrace such an innovation. Subsequently, 13 private universities that had participated in the first phase of HELP spent two years and held a lengthy series of joint meetings, eventually forming a consortium. With these 13 private universities as members, the consortium reached an agreement with YPM on the twinning program which included: (1) the development and provision of a common curriculum and syllabus, (2) sending teaching staff to Malaysia, and (3) credit transfer from the Malaysian program and admittance into the second grade of the undergraduate program (Sugimura, Yamada, and Kuroda 2006, 70). The process was led by some innovative-minded Japanese universities which were willing to try the twinning program, faced with the creeping threat of the shrinking population. Developing a common curriculum or syllabus was especially painstaking under the circumstances where each university was expected to “develop distinctiveness under its missions and goals”¹⁴ under the

14. From “Deregulation of University Act” p. 16, NIAD-UE 2009.

policy of the Ministry of Education at that time: Deregulation of Standards for the Establishment of Universities (Sugimura, Yamada, and Kuroda 2006; Interview with a senior manager of Shibaura Institute of Technology, September 4, 2010). In addition to the 13 private universities, 19 national universities joined the program as associate members.

The introduction of program mobility in the form of twinning preceded many policy initiatives of the Japanese government to promote internationalization of HEIs. A report entitled “Higher education required for the globalizing era” was submitted in 2000 by the Council for Universities, and MEXT responded by beginning to explicitly promote internationalization of universities. Notably, it introduced the 21st Century COE Plan in 2002 with a view to creating world-class research and education centers of excellence and began providing targeted support to national and private universities. In 2008, Japan officially shifted its policy to a more proactive drive toward CBHE when it launched the Plan for 300,000 Exchange Students. The plan positioned the student exchange in the context of Japan’s globalization strategy “which aims to expand the flow of people, resources, and information between our country and the rest of Asia and the world” (MEXT et al. 2008). It aimed to increase the number of international students studying in Japan to 300,000 by the year 2020 by enhancing the international competitiveness of Japanese universities, and to acquire and strategically attract excellent students from Asia and other parts of the world. A more systematic and orchestrated set of measures is being taken under this plan to strengthen institutional bases ranging from entrance and qualification examinations, immigration procedures, finding accommodation, matriculating at Japanese universities, and supporting graduates including job seeking in Japan. Reforms of university functions have been facilitated by selecting 30 universities to lead globalization efforts (the Global 30 project), increasing the number of courses that are offered only in English, and enhancing collaboration with foreign universities through means such as student exchanges, credit transferability, double degrees and ensuring high-quality curricula.

Behind this shift lay the fact that Japan's youth population had been declining steadily since 1980,¹⁵ and that it was mostly unlikely that the current level of university enrolment (2.8 million in 2009) could be maintained in the future (based on an analysis of Table 4 at MEXT 2010, 376-77). Indeed, as expected, enrollment in higher education began to decrease in 2005 as a consequence of the declining national population. Universities may have begun to attract more foreign students as a part of their strategy for survival (Yonezawa 2009, 200).

In addition to the momentum of globalization, policies toward changing the governance of universities were prompted by the New Public Management discourse. Universities are granted more autonomy and discretion against increased public demand for accountability. The government retains indirect control of universities through the provision of public funding and establishing the quality control system. Under such a setting, the top management of universities requires a strong sense of leadership (Santiago et al. 2008, vol. 1: 120-32). The key event amid this trend was the incorporation of all national universities in 2004. However, as Honma points out, the top management of Japan's public universities and their support staff do not have the necessary knowledge or skills to strategically use limited resources and efficiently adjust education and research according to the changing needs of society, economy and academia (Honma 2009). CBHE was thus driven mainly by the initiative of private universities in Japan.

Meanwhile, since 2004, it has been mandatory for all HEIs to be evaluated by authorized institutions: the National Institution for Academic Degrees and University Evaluation (NIAD) has been evaluating the performance of the mid-term plans prepared by national incorporated universities; the Japan Institution for Higher Education Evaluation (JIHEE) evaluates the educational and research activities of private universities; and the Japan University Accreditation Association is a voluntary organization modeled on the US accreditation body and is responsible for accrediting both public and private universities.

15. Primary school enrolment has declined from 9.4 million in 1990 to 7.1 million in 2009 (MEXT 2010, 376-77).

In the area of engineering education, the Japan Accreditation Board for Engineering Education (JABEE) was established in 1999 to accredit and evaluate higher education programs. By becoming a full member of the Washington Accord in 2005, JABEE is now recognized as a body that accredits engineering degree programs that are equivalent to those accredited by members in 12 other countries including Malaysia. JABEE has since accredited an increasing number of engineering courses of participating universities.¹⁶ In the early period of HELP, engineering degrees conferred by Japanese universities were not officially recognized by the Malaysian authority, although this non-recognition does not seem to have had negative effects on the graduates (Koda and Yuki 2012). However, this issue has since been resolved. (Also, BEM does not fully represent the professional organizations in Malaysia.)

Introduction of the twinning arrangement in HELP was thus prompted by ripe environments both in Malaysia and in Japan. Accordingly, a twinning arrangement of the ‘2+3’ model was introduced in the second phase of HELP in which, after two years of study in Malaysia, students were transferred into the second grade of the four-year undergraduate program in Japan to complete it in three years. Nevertheless, the response of Japanese universities to cross-bordering has been rather cautious, particularly among the national universities. This necessitated a policy impetus to promote internationalization, and yet the building of a systemic governance structure that is conducive to accommodating diverse forms of internationalization has been slow in Japan compared to that in Malaysia. Indeed, HELP was the first case of a twinning program for Japan, and an ODA project served as an experiment of this innovative undertaking which eased the financial burden on Japanese universities (as service providers) and on the Malaysian government and students (as beneficiaries).

16. From JABEE website: <http://www.jabee.org/OpenHomePage/program-institution.htm> (accessed December 11, 2010).

HELP is currently in the third phase, and the question now is whether the partner universities have seized opportunities through experiencing the evolution of the program to strengthen their institutional governance and strategy for internationalization.

5. Impacts of HELP on institutional evolution of HELP program management

5.1 Impacts in Malaysia

For cross-border higher education to achieve its objectives, certain organizational dimensions need to be institutionalized. OECD cites four dimensions: governance, operations, support services and human resources development. In particular, institutional strategies for governance should include (1) expressed commitment by senior leaders, (2) active involvement of faculty and staff, (3) articulated rationale and goals for internationalization, and (4) recognition of an international dimension in the mission statement and other policy documents (OECD 1999, 25-26). Some of these aspects are examined below.

Project management and administrative matters

Throughout the three phases of HELP, YPM has been an executing body of the project and has exhibited commitment and ownership. Under HELP 1, the YPM management led by the CEO directly managed the project. In the second phase, the HELP Unit was established within YPM headed by a full-time project director and has since been responsible for executing and overseeing the JAD program (www.jadypm.edu.my). Thus, key decisions were made with the involvement of YPM's top management.

Project consultants were used for assisting in designing JAD, financial management concerning the disbursement of Yen loans, and matters related to the transfer of students including university placement and their life in Japan. These roles were gradually taken over by

the HELP Unit and universities in Japan and the latter formed an independent organization to facilitate the work, as discussed in a later section.

Academic affairs

YPM screened eligible applicants who were limited to Bumiputera and who had completed secondary education with an overall grade A of the Malaysian Certificate of Education, known as Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM).¹⁷ To enter a university in Japan under HELP 1, they had to sit the General Examination for Foreign Students and the Japanese Language Proficiency Test before taking the entrance examination administered by the respective university. The examination and test were no longer required for students under HELP 2 and thereafter; instead, Japanese universities accepted the transfer students based on their JAD performance and interview results. Thus the students were able to know which university they were to be transferred to before coming to Japan.

Regarding the curriculum and teaching program, these were initially decided largely by inputs from Japanese universities, in consultation with YPM and with significant assistance of consulting services. During HELP 1 and 2, JMC, an education body in Malaysia, was located at Bangi College of YPM. Educational staff were mostly Japanese sent from universities in Japan. In the second phase, the Ministry of Education recognized JMC as a higher education institution in Malaysia; this status was a prerequisite for the twinning arrangement to work so that student and credit transfers to Japanese universities could be made. In the third phase, a new educational body was sought due to the change in status of YPM which no longer managed educational institutions, and the State University of Selangor (UNISEL) was selected. In cooperation with YPM, UNISEL applied for and obtained approval from MQA of the JAD as a diploma program.

17. With 90 points or more in modern mathematics – only the top 5 percent of those who took SPM.

One YPM senior manager noted during the interview:

“YPM applied for a MQA accreditation of HELP as a 3-year diploma course in 2008, increasing Malaysia’s involvement with curriculum decisions.”

The fact that the Malaysian program of HELP is recognized as a diploma course is an added incentive for students.

The UNISEL management expressed as follows:

“We are learning a lot from twinning and other linkage programs. Using the experience gained with JAD (HELP’s program in Malaysia), UNISEL has opened its own diploma course.”

“While syllabuses are usually updated in 3-4 years in Malaysia, JAD revises them annually.”

(Interview with UNISEL)

These are positive examples of strengthening the institutional capacity of the partner HEI in Malaysia, which was made possible by relocating its educational institutions from the YPM college to a university, namely UNISEL. In addition, the running of HELP in Malaysia increasingly used HELP graduates who gradually took over some of the roles played by Japanese teaching and administrative staff stationed in Malaysia.

The management team of UNISEL has prepared a program sustainability plan by themselves which studies several scenarios of technical and financial aspects.¹⁸ According to the sustainability study, a significant increase is required in the number of qualified students who will pay tuition fees either by themselves or with the support of some sponsors. To attract more students, UNISEL expects to increase the fields of engineering education which are currently limited to mechanical engineering and electrical and electronic engineering. This sustainability plan is another example of self-reliant efforts to develop institutional capacity for the CBHE program.

18. The sustainability plan prepared by UNISEL requires a sizable mass of students. Although this might enable the continuation of the program in Malaysia, financing the costs of study in Japan will likely pose a difficult challenge.

However, the feasibility of such a plan will need to be further assessed. Since some of the teaching roles are taken on by UNISEL but the majority are still handled by teaching staff sent from Japanese universities either on a residential or short-term basis, it will be costly to increase the fields of engineering education or the student intake, as both would add to the teaching load. Full replacement of Japanese teaching staff with Malaysians will not be possible in the foreseeable future because the latter's teaching capacity has not yet fully developed, implying that continued cooperation with Japanese universities is essential. The process of how to ensure the availability, maintenance and upgrading of relevant teaching equipment and facilities is also important, especially for engineering fields. In HELP, they were originally supplied by using grant aid and a portion of loan aid from Japan and were mostly used for the HELP students but not for other engineering students in UNISEL. It may be worth further assessing whether and how to share human and physical resources among various programs.

5.2 Impacts in Japan

To assess how the evolving phases of HELP have influenced institutional governance of participating universities in areas of academic affairs and administrative management, a survey was conducted during 2010. It specifically looked at ways in which HELP has influenced the internationalization and institutionalization of participating individual HEIs. A questionnaire form was sent by email to Japanese universities that have participated in HELP over at least two phases (HELP university survey). In total, 27 universities fall in this category and 17 universities responded, of which 13 have participated in all three phases and four participated in the first two phases. Five of them are incorporated national universities and the other 12 are private universities. Responses and ratings to some of the questions were given by an administrative and/or academic staff member of each university.

Coping with administrative and academic challenges along with HELP's evolution

An important administrative and academic challenge for Japanese universities to continue partnering with HELP is to adequately recognize credits to be transferred from the common JAD program given each university's unique system. For example, according to the HELP university survey, three universities reportedly modified their curriculum for both basic and specialized subjects; all other universities used the existing curriculum. Thus, most universities used the existing curriculum and their own regulations when they accepted Malaysian students under HELP. There seems to have been a conflict between efforts to build a common platform among participating universities for the development of HELP as a project and the desire of participating universities to focus on their uniqueness as individual universities.

This has resulted in different numbers of credits that HELP students can transfer to a Japanese university, creating a sense of unfairness. All valid responses revealed that they decided the number of credits to be transferred within the ceiling specified by the regulations of their own university and by assessing the contents of syllabi of the Malaysian program vis-à-vis those of their own. For example, during the first batch of HELP 2, this resulted in actual credits transferred ranging from the minimum case of 40 to the maximum of 65 which equals the total credits earned in the Malaysian program (JBIC 2001, 56-57). In some cases the same universities often certified different numbers of credits depending on the course. One university referred to rules set by JABEE and three universities reported that they formulated new regulations for credit transfer for HELP while six universities found no need to change their own regulations.

Similarly, most universities seem to be using their existing procedures for accepting transfer students which are usually used for domestic students from other Japanese universities. Four universities had a specific system for foreign transfer students, and four universities administered an examination for admitting foreign transfer students. Three universities said they had a system of admitting students prior to their arrival in Japan.

In order to assure quality for transferred HELP students, some universities have taken special measures. Four universities conducted special training for teaching and administrative staff for accepting HELP students. Three universities reported that they had introduced a peer tutoring system. Four universities provided special orientation and counseling for HELP students. Eight universities provided counseling as they did for other foreign students. Measures such as these were used to ensure that HELP students would not be handicapped in their studies, reflecting the universities' efforts to maintain the quality of the program. In addition, two universities followed JABEE's recommendation, one of which revised the course program to accommodate HELP students, and the other used JABEE as a form of external evaluation of education programs.

Regarding the quality or performance of HELP students, the universities responded using a 5-point scale.¹⁹ Using the responses of the universities that rated at least two HELP phases, the results show that the attitudes of students toward study varied little between the phases. That is, no quality deterioration is observed even though HELP has introduced a twinning arrangement, requiring less study in Japan. Although learning of basic subjects was highest for HELP 1 students, learning of specialized subjects did not show much difference between the phases. HELP 3 students were marked highest for their Japanese language proficiency. This suggests that intensive study of Japanese in Malaysia worked better than staying for a longer time in Japan. Interestingly, HELP 3 in which students stay in Japan for a shorter time than in the other phases also received highest marks for the acquisition of soft skills.

19. Due to the small sample size, statistical significance has not been tested in this analysis.

Table 2. Performance of HELP students rated by participating universities

	Study Attitude	Basic Subjects	Specialized Subjects	Japanese Language	Soft Skills
HELP 1	3.8	3.7	3.4	3.8	3.6
HELP 2	3.9	3.5	3.5	3.9	3.6
HELP 3	3.8	3.6	3.4	4.0	3.9

Interestingly, more universities indicated their preference for HELP 3 than HELP 1 or 2 regarding teaching efficiency. Table 3 shows how the participating universities rated their preference with regard to the three aspects of teaching efficiency, management, and profitability. In terms of management, the three HELP phases did not show much difference. Regarding profitability, HELP 1 with the longest duration of stay at Japanese universities was naturally rated highest while HELP 3 was rated lowest. As the most preferred type of CBHE program, two universities opted for the HELP 1 (2+4) model, four universities opted for the HELP 2 (2+3) model, and six universities opted for the HELP 3 (3+2) model. Proponents of HELP 3 positively perceive the Malaysian program, which sufficiently prepares students in mastering Japanese language and basic knowledge, hence viewing the transfer as efficient.

Table 3. Preference for different HELP phases rated by participating universities

	Teaching Efficiency	Management	Profits	Most Favored Type (no. of universities)
HELP 1	3.4	3.8	3.6	2
HELP 2	3.4	3.8	3.4	4
HELP 3	3.9	3.8	3.4	6

Rating: 5: Very Good, 4: Good, 3: Average, 2: Poor, 1: Very Poor

Spill-over effects of HELP, broadening the scope of CBHE

Cooperation between Japanese universities in accepting foreign students has strengthened through HELP, according to four universities. Meanwhile, for two universities HELP has catalyzed the establishment of a framework for accepting foreign students by setting up new

regulations for credit transfer or improving the system for accepting foreign transfer students. Five universities report they have become more active in accepting foreign students than before.

Some committed universities, notably private universities but also including some incorporated national universities, are building on their experiences gained from HELP and are currently running CBHE programs other than HELP. For instance, Nagaoka University of Technology operates twinning programs with universities in Vietnam (Hanoi University of Science and Technology) and Mexico, and Shibaura Institute of Technology has formed a new consortium, the South East Asian Technical University Consortium, and is implementing postgraduate twinning programs. In addition, five universities have graduate CBHE programs and 10 universities have plans to open new CBHE programs in the near future. Experiences gained through the HELP project are lending impetus to these universities for proactive internationalization. A review of the websites of 14 HELP participating universities reveals that the majority of HELP-participating private universities seem to be more proactive in widening the scope of CBHE programs. These universities have prepared a strategy for promoting internationalization, and consider HELP as a means of implementing the strategy.

On the other hand, the national universities appear to have responded more slowly and cautiously – only a few mention the promotion of the CBHE program, including twinning and double-degree programs (Saitama University). Although all the participating national universities have in principle produced a strategy for promoting internationalization since incorporation, the process appears to have been done in a policy-driven manner rather than at their own initiative. According to the HELP university survey, in general, universities with limited admission of HELP students or admission in limited departments feel limited impacts.

In the survey, six universities complained that the extra administrative work is a burden, and six other universities reported that a shortage of teaching staff who can teach in English is a barrier for expanding the CBHE program. Other universities pointed out that differences in academic requirements between the counterpart HEI and government regulations are additional

barriers. The decreasing number of HELP participating universities over the phases indicates the difficulty of organizing and managing this type of collaborative degree program that involves multiple universities working on a common structure.

Yet, the common structure of a rather focused number of institutions has been developed as a university consortium. In the process, the cooperation and decision-making among participating Japanese universities has become more formalized. During HELP 1, two lead universities (Shibaura and Takushoku) represented Japanese universities and discussed academic matters with YPM and teaching staff were sent through them. But the nature of cooperation between the lead universities and other Japanese universities tended to be bilateral until a consortium was formed in 1999 at the beginning of HELP 2. Thirteen private universities and one organization that specialized in catalytic services for promoting education spent two years before reaching an agreement on academic and institutional matters for initiating the twinning program. The university consortium was joined by 19 national universities as associate members, and a total of 32 universities began to accept students under the twinning (Hamano 2004).

The consortium then developed into a registered non-profit organization: Japanese University Consortium for Transnational-education (JUCTe) in 2006, starting with 12 private universities and three national universities as members. It has the status of a legal entity allowing it to be a contractor that provides services under HELP. A consultant who has been involved in HELP remarked:

“Participating Japanese universities formed JUCTe as an NPO for future expanded operations and as a one-stop service provider for foreign students.”

In HELP 3, the roles played by JUCTe included the provision (redistribution) of scholarships to students, selection and appointment of teaching staff for the program in Malaysia, care services for students, and project management services. Beyond HELP, JUCTe also aspires to operate similar programs with other countries.

6. Concluding notes

In the early 1990s, when HELP 1 started, conspicuous differences existed between Malaysia and Japan in the extent and variation of higher education internationalization as well as the orientation of government policy toward it. In Malaysia, expansion of higher education encompassed its growing internationalization using both forms of outgoing student mobility and program mobility, and the policy provided frameworks for legalization, regulation and quality control for this trend including the promotion of private provision of higher education. In Japan, though its higher education system was already well developed by then, the policy for hosting more foreign students did not envisage or encourage changes in the institutional governance to promote internationalization. HELP was formulated as a means to implement the primary national strategy of the Look East Policy and Bumiputera policy of the Malaysian government, whereas Japan viewed HELP as an ODA project to help Malaysia achieve its development objectives.

A split-degree arrangement called “twinning,” adopted for HELP 2 in the late 1990s, was already familiar to Malaysia which had experienced similar programs with other countries. On the other hand, it was the first time for Japanese universities to introduce such an innovative cross-border collaborative degree program in engineering fields. Before HELP 2, Japanese universities were more conservative and mainly used the conventional means of accepting foreign students, without undertaking collaborative degree programs with overseas universities. In general, Japanese universities have only recently become interested in the idea of “brain gain” and strengthening institutional governance through strategic internationalization of the higher education system, partly prompted by the decreasing population of youths. The incorporation of national universities in 2004 was partly intended to strengthen their corporate governance, but the only clear policy intention of using internationalization was the government plan launched in 2008 to attain 300 thousand foreign students.

The catalytic roles played by the evolution of HELP are worth noting. Although much of the credit goes to a relatively small number of highly committed private universities, HELP's evolution has certainly provided an opportunity to strengthen collaboration among Japanese universities by setting up a consortium and the JUG as an inter-university decision-making body. Inevitably, the universities that participated in HELP 2 have had to clear many hurdles, which reduced the number of participating universities drastically compared with HELP 1. On the other hand, those universities which did show an interest in the CB collaborative degree program continued to be involved in the next phase (HELP 3) as members of their new consortium. The continuation of participation is believed to have helped develop the universities' institutional governance in such areas as joint curriculum development, evaluation of transferable credits, and quality assurance for graduates who stay less time in Japan compared with students in regular programs. This is more visible among the universities that have accepted a larger number of students under HELP. These experiences have also contributed to the formulation of other CBHE degree programs by some participating universities with Asian countries. In summary, the evolution of HELP is considered to have contributed to strengthening the institutional capacity of participating individual universities (when their commitment is strong) as well as to developing a consortium as a joint decision-making entity for partnering in a cross-border collaborative degree program.

From the systemic viewpoint, Malaysia has been using the evolving designs of HELP strategically. The introduction of twinning was largely done at the initiative of Malaysia. The three-year program in Malaysia was successfully turned into a diploma course recognized by the Malaysian quality assurance authority. This change is expected to attract more applications to the program. This kind of process to make a collaborative degree program operational and attractive by taking measures at not only individual HEIs but also at the system level will serve as a useful reference for countries and HEIs which are interested in designing such a program with Malaysia and Japan. As for individual Malaysian partner institutions, an opportunity to

accumulate and strengthen the institutional capacity for implementing and managing the CBHE program has been lost. For the Malaysian HEIs, institutional governance including the capacity to develop, deliver and manage academic aspects might have been developed more efficiently had the phases of HELP been hosted by a single HEI consistently, although this was not a practical option at the time of preparing both phases with different systemic reasons. Also, the project management entity depended heavily on contracted staff and suffered from staff turnover. This could have been prevented had YPM developed and pursued its institutional governance development strategy with mid-term and post-project perspectives.

Options for the future shape of HELP have been considered in view of the sustainability of the program and a soft-landing by the Malaysian implementation agency. A study is also being conducted by the Malaysian host HEI for the Malaysian program to be continued beyond HELP 3. Although the three phases of HELP have already invested in enhancing the capacity of both countries' systems and partner institutions for providing a collaborative degree program, continuous efforts will be required to keep the program attractive and relevant to economic and social needs. The sustainability of HELP will also depend on how to secure an alternative mechanism to finance the operational and investment costs in the event that the Japanese ODA loan comes to an end.

Presently, all the costs of running the program are shared among UNISEL, member universities of JUG and the governments of both countries. As Malaysia continues to grow economically and its graduation from being an aid recipient is foreseeable,²⁰ the continuity of a concessional ODA loan from Japan is not a foregone conclusion, and so other players in HELP urgently need to devise an alternative solution. As long as the majority of HELP students are to be selected from Bumiputera, it is not realistic to extend the cost-sharing to them as most of them

20. Malaysia's gross national income per capita was US\$7760 in 2010 (World Development indicators, World Bank). The World Bank initiates the IBRD graduation process for countries whose 2010 GNI per capita is US\$6925 or more (Annex D, OP 3.10 of Operational Policies, World Bank).
http://siteresources.worldbank.org/OPSMANUAL/Resources/OP310_AnnexD_Aug_17_2011_REVISED.pdf.

belong to a lower socio-economic level. On the other hand, since raising highly qualified human resources corresponds to Malaysia's national policy to become a regional hub of higher education through a mechanism that could further facilitate collaborations among HEIs in partner countries, the government may consider subsidizing the operational costs and scholarships to the students.

The Japanese government recognizes the importance of cross-border university collaboration and networks not only in the context of ODA policies but also in broader terms of international education cooperation, including collaboration with advanced countries. It also emphasizes multilateral cooperation, such as among the East Asian community. The experiences of HELP participating institutions and organizations such as the consortium with the higher education system of Malaysia should help Japan make strategic use of internationalization. Although the main reason why HELP 2 introduced the twinning or collaborative arrangement was to reduce the cost for Malaysian students of studying in Japan, one could evaluate the potential effect on the institutional development of partner institutions and systems.

Today, policies to use public resources are still in place, both by the Japanese government for promoting the internationalization of the country's universities and by the government of Malaysia for continuing to develop high-caliber human resources by sending students to Japan.²¹ Discussions on the possible future shape of HELP will provide valuable opportunities to converge their policy objectives, and should be guided by the perspectives of sustainable evolution and institutional governance. Involving a wide range of stakeholders of both countries in the discussions will be critical. For Japan, an incentive for universities should be combined with a clear signal so that strengthening the institutional governance of academic

21. At the time of publication of this working paper, the author was apprised of the decision by the government of Malaysia to finance the HELP program, replacing the ODA loan from Japan once the third phase comes to an end. Already, the new cohort of intake since 2011 has been admitted by the college under MARA (Kolej Kemahiran Tinggi MARA Beranang) with a new project name, Malaysia Japan Higher Education Project (MJHEP), using the budget of the Malaysian government (<http://www.jadypm.edu.my/>). This symbolizes the strong commitment of the government of Malaysia and assures the continuity of the program by resolving the concern about financial sustainability, but the issues of institutional governance that this paper discusses warrant serious attention all the more.

and administrative matters is explicitly included in their strategy for internationalization. Similarly for Malaysia, developing institutional capacity, especially that of higher education institutions, should be at the core of the government's focus on promoting CBHE.

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Abstract (in Japanese)

国境を越えて提供される高等教育の制度開発：

マレーシア - 日本間で展開する事業事例

要 約

本論文では、国境を越えて提供される高等教育の制度・ガバナンスについて、新しい形態のプログラムを導入する効果に焦点を当てて検証している。マレーシア・日本間の高等教育円借款事業をケースとし、ツイニングプログラムを通して、学生の移動からプログラムの移動へとその形態を変化させてきた点を分析している。同事業においては、日本の大学から派遣された大学職員が、重要な役割を果たし意思決定も行ってきた。他方、マレーシアの教育機関も何人かの教職員をマレーシア人と置き換え、ツイニングプログラムの前半部分である現地学習プログラムをディプロマ課程としての認証を得て、そこで積んだ経験をもとに新たな工学ディプロマ課程を発展させた。日本の大学は、既存のカリキュラム、単位互換、学生の移籍を適応させることによって、また新たに職員のトレーニングや質保証制度を発展させることによって、この事業の発展に貢献してきた。のちに正式なものとなるコンソーシアムを作り上げることにより、学生の配置と彼らへの支援において大学間で共通の手続き方法を取り、移籍にかかる費用を減らした。また、何校かは新しく国境を越えたプログラムを展開してきた。国境を越えて提供されるプログラム移動型のモデルは、参加した高等教育機関の管理制度や受け入れ能力を、ある程度強化している。しかし、プログラムの持続性は、各機関の参加の姿勢及び政府からの継続的な財政支援に因るところが大きい。



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