

CHANGING FLOWS AND DIRECTIONS FOR INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION AND MOBILITIES IN SELECTED ASIAN COUNTRIES: TURNING TO LOOK AT ASIA FROM A NEW ZEALAND PERSPECTIVE

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Introduction

Five million students currently study outside their home countries, a figure predicted to rise to eight million by 2025. International education (IE) literature is weighted towards studies of international students in western countries and the transnational activities of institutions from these countries (e.g. Li, Chen, & Duanmu, 2009; Vu & Doyle, 2014). Asian countries feature as sources for inbound students and as hosts for Western higher education initiatives (Sawir, Marginson, Forbes-Mewett, Hyland, & Ramia, 2012; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). Marginson (2014) argues that, currently, internationalisation is framed within “static models and one-way flows” rather than in terms of “dynamic and relational models” (p. 172). Such models reflect “a complacency of outlook, as if Western education is a given and just needs a bit of tweaking to make it more conscious of, responsible for and respectful to the wider world; more international and cross-cultural” (p. 172).

Other than identifying market competitors and off-shore provision of IE, minimal policy attention is given to locally-driven changes occurring in international higher education within Asian countries (British Council, 2014; Ryan, 2011). This neglect is evident in New Zealand IE policy. The purpose of this article is to highlight changing mobility flows and forms of IE in selected countries: Singapore, Malaysia, and China, specifically as they relate to New Zealand (NZ). The aim is to shift from the current policy preoccupation with selling educational services and products to a recognition of changing mobility flows and a better understanding of the diverse and changing constructions of and aspirations for IE. Particular foci in this paper are the growth in transnational education within and between Asian countries, the development of IE hubs (e.g. Malaysia and Singapore), and China’s emergence as a top destination for mobile students and the future impact on IE of the spread of Confucius Institutes.

The economic value of IE means that it is a core component in the strategic planning of governments and higher education institutions. International education is NZ’s fifth largest export industry and Australia’s third. In 2011 the NZ government used the *Leadership Statement on International Education* to set out its vision and strategy for significantly increasing the economic and social contribution of IE by 2025 (NZ Government, 2011, 2014). In 2016 this document continues to be the touchstone for the Ministry of Education, Education NZ, and other government agencies working in the field of IE (www.enz.govt.nz).

The *Statement's* starting points are NZ as a trading nation dependent on global relationships, particularly with Asia, and selling NZ's excellent education system to the world, particularly to Asian institutions and partners. The priorities for IE are increasing export income through increasing international student enrolment on and offshore, selling education services, and developing beneficial relationships with trading partners. International education is recognised as important for its contribution to the economy and its potential to contribute to international trading relationships and trade.

The *Leadership Statement* and associated policies are underpinned by assumptions that the flow of international students from Asia into Anglophone and European countries will continue and that there is a growing offshore market for NZ's education services and products. Little or no attention is paid to the educational aspirations of and the rise of countries such as China, Malaysia, and Singapore as destinations for international students, their growing emphasis on relationships with globally ranked partners, and the growing Asian inflection of IE initiatives in these countries.

Terminology

The problematic nature of the terms "Asia" and "Asian" is acknowledged. In contrast to the somewhat monolingual, isolated, and sparsely populated nation of NZ, Asia comprises many countries, including China with 1.357 billion people, Malaysia with 29.72 million, and Singapore with 5.333 million. Within and between Asian countries, there is considerable diversity in terms of economic, cultural, and social factors (Campbell & Li, 2008).

The definitions associated with international student data are problematic. The NZ Ministry of Education identifies international students as non-NZ students, who unless they have specific exemptions (such as for doctoral students), pay international fees for their study. This definition includes offshore distance students enrolled in NZ qualifications and thus differs from the definition used by UNESCO's Institute for Statistics (UIS) of a student who crosses a border to study. To assist with comparability across countries and time, the main sources drawn on are the Institute of International Education's Project Atlas, of which NZ, Malaysia, and China are members, and the UIS database on international mobility. Both databases have strengths and limitations. For instance, the UIS database relies on data recorded in host countries and includes short-stay students but not exchange students. Definitions of international students vary, and other differences include whether countries/institutions are reporting on first time enrolment or first time/ongoing/returning students. However, the databases provide insights into mobility flows, and it is these changing flows that are of interest.

Transnational Education and International Mobility

The term *international education* is associated with students moving to an overseas country to study. With *transnational education* (TNE), the programme of study rather than the student travels (McBurnie, 2000). TNE is a significant component of IE in Asia, with forms influenced by regulatory and policy perspectives on education held within borders (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013). TNE is *glocal*, enabling local study for

a global education through cross-border distance education; partner-supported delivery, including twinning programmes, franchising, and branch campuses (Teichler, 2004). Australia is the largest provider of TNE, followed by the UK (Kosmützky & Putty, 2016). Countries such as China, Malaysia, and Singapore strategically host, deliver, and regulate TNE. For instance, overseas branch campuses are used to increase capacity (e.g. University of Nottingham – Malaysia), and the host country is built as a destination for international students and for skilled migration (e.g. Singapore). Distance education and twinning programmes are features of NZ's TNE profile (e.g. Vu & Doyle, 2014).

New Zealand: Trading Nation

Trade and IE have been intertwined with foreign policy and security concerns for New Zealand for many years (Butcher, 2009; Tarling, 2004). New Zealand along with other Commonwealth countries was part of the Colombo Plan developed to support economic development and to stop the spread of communism in Asia. From 1951 until the 1980s, around 3,500 students from Asian member countries studied in NZ. Many of these students became government, business, or education leaders, and their ties with NZ paved the way for cooperative ventures, as did ties with privately funded students from the same countries. The story of Colombo Plan students returning to their home countries with an enduring connection to NZ is a collective narrative that underpins New Zealanders' perceptions of NZ's role in IE.

Centres and Exchanges

The NZ tertiary sector has a range of Asian-related educational, research, and scholarly initiatives and partnership agreements with diverse counterparts in the Asian region for exchange of students, staff, and collaborative research. A variety of relatively small-scale cross-border joint initiatives are in place, including twinning and cross-border delivery of qualifications. Universities host a number of centres which focus on scholarship pertaining to Asia, including the NZ Asia Institute, established in 1995 at Auckland University, and the NZ India Research Institute, at Victoria University. All eight universities support the NZ Centre established in 2007 at Peking University and which promotes projects that lead to greater knowledge and understanding between China and NZ. While laudable without increased resourcing from government, such initiatives are unlikely to scale up and enable New Zealand institutions to have a firm footing in the expanding higher education sectors of Asian countries.

Student Mobility between NZ and Asia

In 2014, 41,609 international students were studying in the NZ tertiary sector, most from Asian countries (see Table 1). Although this figure represented growth over the previous year, there were fewer students than in 2004, when 50,389 international students were studying in NZ. Over the decade the number of Chinese students almost halved, dropping to 15,526 or 33.3% of the total number of international students in New Zealand. It is noteworthy that the number of Chinese students studying in Australia more than doubled over the period (Project Atlas data).

Table 1. Top 10 countries of origin of international students in NZ, 2014.Source: www.iie.org/Services/Project-Atlas.

Rank	Place of origin	Number of students	Percentage of total
1	China	15,526	33.3%
2	India	10,709	23.0%
3	United States	2,208	4.7%
4	South Korea	1,627	3.5%
5	Malaysia	1,543	3.3%
6	Saudi Arabia	1,197	2.6%
7	Viet Nam	1,131	2.4%
8	Japan	1,139	2.4%
9	Philippines	909	1.9%
10	Sri Lanka	635	1.4%

The outbound data provided by the NZ Ministry of Education to Project Atlas in 2014 pertained to those studying abroad on exchange (n=968 in 2014). Exchanges are underpinned by agreements that involve students paying fees to and having courses credited to the home institution. The destination countries are in stark contrast to the source countries, with the United States and Japan being the only countries on both lists. In keeping with Marginson's thesis of one-way flows, the top three countries are Anglophone (>50%), with few students going to Asian countries (<10%).

Table 2. Top destinations and total number of students from NZ on student exchange, 2014.

Source: Data supplied by the Ministry of Education to Project Atlas. Reported out-bound data refers to exchanges only.

Rank	Destination	Number of students
1	United States	216
2	United Kingdom	160
3	Canada	116
4	France	57
5	Germany	55
6	China (incl. Hong Kong)	54
7	Japan	40
8	Netherlands	38
9	Sweden	38
10	Denmark	32

Students who are not exchange students but who cross borders to enrol in an overseas institution or for short-term study abroad are reported in the UIS data on mobile students. The UIS reports that 5,370 NZ students are studying abroad on programmes other than exchange in the 2012/13 year (see Table 3). Of these students, 86% studied in Anglophone countries, with over half studying in close neighbour Australia, and fewer than 3% studying in an Asian country.

Table 3. Destination countries for NZ students studying overseas (excluding those on exchange). Source: UIS (2016).

Rank	Destination	Number of students
1	Australia	2,775
2	United States	1,255
3	United Kingdom	488
4	Germany	112
5	Canada	111
6	Japan	83
7	Korea, Rep.	67
8	France	58
9	United Arab Emirates	56
10	Switzerland	47

The Prime Minister's Scholarship for Asia

The Prime Minister's Scholarship for Asia (PMSA), introduced in 2013, was designed to increase the number of NZ students studying, researching, and interning in Asia. The PMSA is designed for groups and individuals and to contribute to NZ's ability to trade with Asia, increasing internationalisation of institutions, strengthening intercultural understanding, building lifelong friendships and networks, and increasing "international understanding of the strength and quality of NZ's education system" (www.enz.govt.nz). As at December 2015, 617 scholarships had been awarded, and \$9 million budgeted for through to 2020 (www.beehive.govt.nz). While dwarfed by Australia's New Colombo Plan, which in its first four years funded 10,000 Australian undergraduates to undertake study in 38 countries in the Asia-Pacific Region, this is a positive step in building knowledge and relationships in Asia (Byrne, 2016).

The strategic policy focus of IE is on IE as a commodity to generate export income through increased sales from increased enrolments and services (NZ Government, 2011). To date NZ has "punched above its weight" in attracting numbers of inbound international students into the tertiary education system. However, relatively few NZ students study abroad, and even fewer study in Asian countries, and to date efforts to increase the flow of students to Asia appear to be ad hoc and insubstantial in comparison to initiatives such as Australia's New Colombo Plan; the 100,000 Strong Foundation in

the US, designed to increase the number of Americans fluent in Chinese and studying in China; and the British Council's Generation UK initiative to increase the number of UK students studying in China.

Singapore: Global School House

Singapore, recognised as a finance and knowledge-innovation hub, positions itself as a broker between Asian nations and multinational corporations and Western nations (A*Star, 2011; Knight & Morshidi, 2011; Lee, 2015). Its population of 5.54 million (www.singstat.govt.sg) is not dissimilar to NZ's. Whereas Malaysia offers an affordable English-medium option to students from the region, Singapore is the third most expensive country internationally.

Singapore's universities have climbed in the international rankings. Beginning with the *Global School House Strategy* in 2002, Singapore has positioned itself as an education hub, with a quality education system, and as "a magnet for talent" for its economy. Despite setbacks, such as bad publicity from low-quality private providers and the closures of the University of New South Wales' campus after a single semester and of the Johns Hopkins Biomedical Research Centre after eight years (Gribble & McBurnie, 2007), Singapore has attracted and held campuses of elite universities from China, France, the USA, and Europe (Knight & Morshidi, 2011). Overseas universities with branch campuses in Singapore are required to have international students making up the bulk of enrolments, in contrast to local institutions for which international student numbers are capped.

Singaporean universities, supported by Government grants, have partnerships with prestigious institutions in the US, China, and the UK. In 2016 the National University of Singapore (NUS) ranked number 12 in QS World rankings, followed by Nanyang Technological University (NTU). In 2005 NUS (ranked 17th in QS for medicine) formed the Duke-NUS Graduate School of Medicine with Duke University-US. Recently, NUS and Yale University formed Yale-NUS College, offering a four-year liberal arts programme. NUS has partnership arrangements with Stanford University and with NTU, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and China's Zhejiang University. Shanghai Jiao Tong University offers a MBA through NTU. Singapore is able to capitalise on its experience in advising others and is a partner in the Sino Singapore Guangzhou Knowledge City initiative, which aims to attract 10 world-class universities to Guangzhou (Lee, 2015).

Over a decade ago, Singapore set a target of 150,000 international students by 2015 but only reached 75,000, which was depicted in the media as a failure (<http://monitor.icef.com/2014/06/singapore-solidifies-its-reputation-as-a-regional-education-hub/>). From 2015 the number of international scholarships was reduced to increase places for domestic students. Despite being the third most expensive country in which to study, Singapore's top source countries for international students are from across the region: China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, and Vietnam (Lee, 2015), mostly countries that have been important source countries for NZ IE. Internships and

industry placements are a growing component of higher education, and Singaporean-based businesses are popular with students from North America and Europe seeking an Asian business experience. Detailed statistics for inbound international students are unavailable from Project Atlas (Singapore is not a member) or from UIS. However, UIS reported a total of 48,938 international students in Singapore for 2014.

Destination data was available from UIS for Singapore’s outbound students (see Table 4). A total of 22,578 students (excluding exchange students) studied overseas in 2013. The data shows that, with the exception of a relatively small number of students studying in Japan and Malaysia, students studied outside of Asia, with six of the top ten destinations being Anglophone. Similar to NZ, the pattern is for an inward flow from Asia and an outward flow to Anglophone countries. It is noteworthy that Australia hosted 8,773 Singaporean students in contrast to New Zealand’s 293.

Table 4. Top 10 destination countries for Singaporean students studying overseas, 2014. Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2016). Global Flow of Tertiary-level Students.

Rank	Destination	Number of students
1	Australia	8,773
2	United Kingdom	6,774
3	United States	4,366
4	Canada	399
5	Malaysia	397
6	New Zealand	293
7	Germany	236
8	Egypt	236
9	Ireland	210
10	Japan	209

Malaysia: “Truly Asia”

Malaysia (with Thailand and Indonesia) has taken active roles in the initiatives of the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), such as the South East Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO), the ASEAN International Mobility for Students (AIMS) programme, and discussions concerning regional quality assurance, credit transfer, and harmonisation of higher education. Malaysia combines geopolitical interests, economic imperatives, competitiveness, and a cultural stamp articulating sense of place and location in Asia. The Malaysian government wants the country to be recognised as a regional centre of excellence in tertiary education, including for Islamic finance education, and as offering affordable and quality higher education to the region (Lee, 2015). The 2025 target is for 250,000 international students.

Since the 1990s, Malaysian higher education has expanded through growth in the five public universities, developing the private sector, and establishing a plethora of branch, franchising, twinning, and articulation arrangements with foreign institutions. The focus was initially on unmet domestic demand for higher education and latterly on increasing international student enrolments. More recently, there have been ambitious projects in new economic free zones. Malaysia's national strategy for higher education, "Blueprint 2015-2025," utilises the banner "World-Class degrees – Truly Asian Values." Structured around the three Bs, *Bakat* (growing local talent and attracting international students), *Benchmarking* to global standards, and *Balance* (skills, knowledge, and a moral/spiritual context), the strategy is suggestive of an approach to internationalisation that is at once similar to and different from those of Western nations.

Malaysia has well-established branch campuses of foreign universities, with several more underway. Local partners provide land, facilities, and investment. In exchange, foreign universities contribute the intellectual capital, brand name, and human capital (Aziz & Abdullah, 2014; Lee, 2015). Included in these branch campuses are four Australian universities established almost two decades ago. Significantly, in 2016, Xiamen University's campus in Malaysia will open – the first overseas campus of a Chinese University and the base for the China-ASEAN Maritime Research Centre. This campus will cater for up to 10,000 students, and the Chinese and Malaysian governments will recognise its degrees. These institutions make the glocal possible for Malaysian students and others from the region, are fully Asian without the Western implications of Australian/UK counterparts, and open up bi-directional possibilities.

Malaysia: Hubs within a Hub

Bold initiatives linked to economic development are part of Malaysian expectations of continued regional growth in demand for higher education (Aziz & Abdullah, 2014; Lee, 2015). These initiatives require a Malaysian transformation (and considerable effort and finance) from being a "student hub" to being a "knowledge/innovation hub" like Singapore (Knight & Morshidi, 2011).

Kuala Lumpur Education City and Educify@Iskander are expected to play pivotal roles in the achievement of Malaysia's goals to be the leading education hub in the region and a centre of higher education excellence. Educify@Iskander is on the Southern Malaysian Peninsula close to the border with Singapore, and substantial Malaysian government and Singaporean investment has gone into Iskander and its Educify component. Designed for 10 universities to share facilities (hostels, sports, cultural, and retail), universities were courted to establish branch campuses and research centres. The University of Newcastle (UK) established Newcastle University-Medicine Malaysia in 2011. The Universities of Southampton and Reading followed. Southampton offers the option of two years in Malaysia followed by two years in the UK, and Reading also provides for bidirectional student mobility. Other universities include the Netherlands Maritime Institute of Technology and a Multimedia University cooperative venture with the University of Southern California.

Inbound and Outbound Mobility in Malaysia

In 2010, 79,254 (including exchange) Malaysian students were studying abroad (Project Atlas), with 25% of these going to Australia and, reflecting shared Islamic heritage, almost 11% to Egypt. Indonesia, Taiwan, China, and India are in the top 10 destinations. For 2012/14, Malaysia ranked in the top 10 source countries for international students (<http://www.uis.unesco.org>).

Table 5. Top 10 destination countries for Malaysian students studying abroad.
Source: Project Atlas – supplied by the Malaysian Ministry of Education.

Rank	Destination	Number of students
1	Australia	20,493
2	United Kingdom	13,796
3	Egypt	8,611
4	United States	6,100
5	Indonesia	5,588
6	Taiwan	5,133
7	China	2,792
8	Russia	2,521
9	NZ	2,305
10	India	2,175

Marginson's one-way thesis is again apparent, with China and Indonesia the only countries listed in the top 10 as source and destination countries. In 2010 Malaysia reported that 86,923 international students were studying in Malaysia (Project Atlas). The data for the 10 top source countries demonstrate that Malaysia is attracting a significant number of students from Asia (China, Indonesia, Bangladesh) and, importantly, a number of students from Islamic heritage countries (Iran, Indonesia, Yemen, Sudan, Saudi Arabia, Bangladesh). The African continent is a fertile space for recruitment of students to Malaysia, with Nigeria, Libya, Sudan, and Botswana in the top 10 source countries. This is likely due to multiple factors, including perceived quality of education, affordability, cultural affinity, and ease of obtaining visas. Immigration reforms include an online visa application process and visas issued for the duration of study. Increased student numbers and future projections underscore the value of timely processing a high number of visas. In 2012, Malaysia issued 25,000 study visas to students from African countries.

Table 6. Top 10 source countries for international students studying in Malaysia, 2010.
Source: Project Atlas – supplied by the Malaysian Ministry of Education.

Rank	Country of origin	Number of students	Percentage of total
1	Iran	11,823	13.6%
2	China	10,214	11.8%
3	Indonesia	9,889	11.4%
4	Yemen	5,866	6.7%
5	Nigeria	5,817	6.7%
6	Libya	3,930	4.5%
7	Sudan	2,837	3.3%
8	Saudi Arabia	2,252	2.6%
9	Bangladesh	2,041	2.3%
10	Botswana	1,911	2.2%
	All Others	30,343	34.9%

China: Transnational Education and Mobilities

Internationally, China is the top source country for international students and one of the top five host countries for inbound international students. The Chinese higher education system is the largest in the world (Marginson, Kaur, & Sawir, 2011) and one undergoing major change. In a recent issue of *Frontiers of Education in China*, leading scholar Yang Rui profiles the internationalisation of higher education in China. Marginson (2014) highlights Yang Rui's challenge to the current theorisation of international higher education in which internationalisation is constructed from a Western perspective as a benign or positive force. Yang Rui contrasts this construction with the "pain" experienced by China in the wake of Western expansion and dominance. He argues that contemporary definitions of internationalisation may be appropriate to a Western notion of internationalisation but fail to capture diverse forms of internationalisation. Extending his analysis beyond China to others outside the "so-called West," he argues: "internationalization of higher education in non-Western societies necessarily touches on longstanding knotty issues and tensions of Westernization and indigenization" (2014, p. 153). Previously, Yang referred to the "sanctioned ignorance" in which an individual or a nation acts without consideration of others and without recognising "the legacies of colonialism and imperialism" (2008, p. 282). These sobering observations provide a background to China's approaches to the internationalisation of higher education, which include

- regulation of transnational arrangements,
- promoting and using the English language to improve China's position in education rankings (e.g. international publications) and the global economy,

- increasing capability and capacity in teaching and learning the Chinese language and taking China to the world through the Confucius Institutes.

China has avoided relinquishing control of higher education institutions to foreign partners by requiring at least an equal role for Chinese partners in governance while maximising the contribution of foreign institutions (Zheng, 2009). In the wake of recent policy changes in higher education and China's intention to expand its number of world-ranked universities and to establish education hubs that will include foreign partners, it will be interesting to see the partnership models that emerge. The example provided earlier in this article of the Sino Singapore Guangzhou Knowledge City is designed to retain top talent in China and to attract international students, particularly from the Asia region.

Until recently, only a small number of elite Chinese universities and their foreign university partners were permitted to award double degrees (Fang & Wang, 2014; Huang, 2003). To gain a degree from a Chinese university, a student must be a state-planned student, and double degree students are state-planned students. Conversely, non-state-planned students cannot gain a degree from a Chinese university, so they can gain a single degree from a foreign university. A degree from a foreign university needs to be one for which the university is accredited in its home country. So, in this sense, foreign institutions partnering with local Chinese institutions may contribute to the capacity of the higher education system and widen participation for those ineligible to attend a local university.

Confucius Institutes / Kongzi Xueyuan

A controversial aspect of the Chinese internationalisation strategy, positioned as taking China to the world and variously by others as a cultural initiative, soft power diplomacy, anti-democratic, and a propaganda tool, are the Confucius Institutes / *kongzi xueyuan* (Danping & Adamson, 2015; Zeshun, 2012). In 2004, the Office of Chinese Language International, *Hanban*, launched the institutes to establish language and cultural centres around the globe (Danping & Adamson, 2015). Likened to the Alliance Francaise, the Goethe-Institut, and the British Council, which play important roles in promoting the culture, language, and interests of their countries, the Chinese institutes take the name of the renowned Chinese philosopher Confucius (551-479 BCE). Unlike their European counterparts, Confucius Institutes have a local partner, usually a university, which has led to debates between those who view the Institutes as state-controlled propaganda instruments and those who argue that such entities are at odds with the nature of universities (Danping & Adamson, 2015). Critics have regarded the Confucius Institutes as Machiavellian in seeking to promote China as a kinder and gentler power (Gill & Huang, 2006).

By 2015, there were 500 institutes in more than 123 countries (www.english.haban.org). This accomplishment in a little over a decade attests to China's ability to implement a global strategy. NZ has three institutes, based in the University of Auckland, the University of Canterbury, and Victoria University of Wellington. By 2015, the Confucius Institutes had trained over 200,000 Chinese-language teachers, subsidised 25,000 scholarships for students to go to China, provided 800,000

programmes, organised 26,000 cultural events, and taught the Chinese language to millions globally.

The Institutes will contribute to increasing the number of international students studying in China, including studying in Chinese as the language of instruction. Testing regimes similar to IELTS and TOEFL exist for Chinese. The privileged position occupied by English as the lingua franca of trade and in relation to international education may eventually be challenged by Chinese.

The Three Brothers and Other Initiatives

The Chinese Ministry of Education's *two brothers cooperation* programme aims to reduce economic disparity between China's eastern and western regions. It involves partnering a strong university in the east of China – *big brother* – with a university in the west of China – *little brother*. This programme is perhaps a uniquely Chinese approach to education and illustrates China's strategic sourcing of expertise and partners. In 2005, a tripartite agreement brought a NZ university into collaboration and thus became the *three brothers*. The first *three brothers agreement* involved Peking University (big brother), Shihezi University (little brother), and Massey University (overseas brother) working on what became a successful and ongoing sheep genomics research project (<http://en.people.cn/90001/90776/90883/7029221.htm>). By 2015, four NZ universities had *three brothers agreements*, each with a big brother from the east of China and a little brother from the west. Each agreement involves collaborative research and staff and PhD scholar exchanges. The University of Auckland collaborates with Tsinghua University (big brother) and Qinghai University (little brother) in a range of projects related to highland ecology, hydraulic and electric power, advanced metals, and life sciences. Lincoln University is in a *three brothers* collaboration with Tsinghua University and Kunming University, working on Landscape Architecture. The University of Waikato is the overseas brother in a computer science collaboration with Fudan University (big brother) and Yunnan University (little brother). AUT is working with its brothers, Shanghai Jiao Tong University and Xinjiang University, on developing intelligent software modelling systems.

China: Inbound and Outbound Mobility

By 2014, China was one of the top destination countries for international students, with 377,054 inbound international students and a significant number of these coming from the Asia region (see Table 7). Some of the differences in statistics from various agencies arise from the UIS figures which exclude those on student exchanges but include students on short-term programmes that run less than a year. In 2013, China reported 96,409 degree-seeking international students. The Chinese government target is for 500,000 international students by 2025 (www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages).

Table 7. Top 10 countries of origin of international students in China, 2014.

Source: Project Atlas data – supplied by the China Scholarship Council.

Rank	Country of origin	Number of students	Percentage of total
1	South Korea	62,923	16.7%
2	United States	24,203	6.4%
3	Thailand	21,296	5.6%
4	Russia	17,202	4.6%
5	Japan	15,057	4.0%
6	Indonesia	13,689	3.6%
7	India	13,578	3.6%
8	Pakistan	13,360	3.5%
9	Kazakhstan	11,764	3.1%
10	France	10,729	2.8%

China is the top source country for mobile students, with 459,800 students from China studying abroad in 2014. A quarter of a million students went to the US (see Table 8). While five Anglophone countries feature in the top 10 destinations, three Asian countries are included: Japan at 3, Korea (Rep.) at 6, and China – Hong Kong at 7. Interestingly, NZ is 10th. Four countries appear in the top 10 lists for both source and destination countries for China, thus suggesting bidirectionality: the US, Japan, Korea, and France.

Table 8. Top 10 destination countries for Chinese students studying abroad, 2014.

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2016). *Global Flow of Tertiary-level Students*.

Rank	Destination	Number of students
1	United States	260,914
2	Australia	90,245
3	Japan	89,788
4	United Kingdom	86,204
5	Canada	42,011
6	Korea, Rep.	38,109
7	China – Hong Kong	25,801
8	France	25,388
9	Germany	19,441
10	New Zealand	13,952

Summary and Conclusion

This paper adopted a NZ perspective to focus on Asian education and IE. Taking recent NZ government strategy as the starting point, attention was paid to the charge that current one-way and static models that dominate the theorisation of the internationalisation of higher education fail to attend to non-Western concerns and approaches (Marginson, 2014; Yang, 2008, 2014). NZ policy and mobility flows fit the one-way model. Consideration was given to new sites and forms of the internationalisation of higher education and changing student mobility flows in NZ and in three Asian countries. Strategies for international higher education are tied to economic goals in the four countries: NZ, to increasing export income; in Singapore, to becoming a knowledge innovation hub and broker between multinational companies and Asia; in Malaysia, to being both an income earner and a tool for economic development; and in China, to developing global educational, social, and economic markets.

In all three Asian countries, attention is paid to the higher education infrastructure and to longer-term planning of the system and its links to economic goals. Partnerships and relationships are the core of China's expectations of transnational higher education. To date, the status enjoyed by English as a lingua franca has been a factor in international students choosing to study in Anglophone countries, such as NZ. The Confucius Institutes will add to the number of students interested in and able to study in a Chinese-language environment. This article has briefly explored developments that hint at the complexities of transnational engagement, as involving crossing not only regulatory borders but also cultural and ideological borders. The expansion of theorised understandings of international and transnational higher education requires in-depth collaborative research on such initiatives and perspectives.

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