Technical and Vocational Education and Training:
Issues, Concerns and Prospects 25

Ly Thi Tran
Kate Dempsey *Editors*

Internationalization in Vocational Education and Training

Transnational Perspectives

Springer

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Series Editor's Introduction

Work is a major feature of most people's lives. Not only does it provide them with the means to meet basic needs, such as food, clothing and shelter, but the type of work undertaken by individuals and groups also has a major impact on their self-identity, social status and standard of living. Technical vocational education and training (TVET), which is sometimes interchangeably referred to as vocational education and training (VET), is essentially concerned with 'applied learning': that is, with the acquisition of knowledge, skills, values and ethics appropriate for the world of work to increase opportunities for productive work, sustainable livelihoods, personal empowerment and socio-economic development.

This Springer book series on skills development for employability (TVET) seeks to provide research based information about many key cutting edge aspects of TVET. The series showcases best and innovative approaches to TVET and education for the world of work. In so doing it also seeks to create an effective bridge between research, policy and practice. It is a long standing publications programme which commenced in 2005, the various volumes in this major Springer book series providing a comprehensive, in depth picture of current issues, concerns and prospects in TVET, as they relate to both individual countries and worldwide.

This book, which is edited by Ly Thi Tran and Kate Dempsey, examines key aspects of the powerful, widespread impact of globalisation, internationalisation and cross border student mobility on TVET, with particular reference to a range of countries including the United States, Australia, Europe, England, Kuwait and several countries in Asia. It identifies key emerging issues, and policy implications, regarding the internationalisation of TVET.

The volume pays particular attention to various aspects of TVET transfer and appropriation concerning the management of knowledge in TVET, and the ways in which countries adapt international influences to meet their own specific needs and the national context.

I have no doubt that this volume will be of great interest and value to researchers, policy makers and practitioners, with an interest in areas such as school administration, teaching, international student mobility and vocational education and training, throughout the world. The book is a substantial contribution to the field of TVET

with 24 contributors to the volume who are drawn internationally. I have no doubt it will be widely read for the valuable insights it provides concerning transnational perspectives on the internationalisation of vocational education and training.

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Preface

This book brings together key vocational education and training (VET) researchers across different countries and regions to provide the most comprehensive view available of emerging issues in the internationalisation of VET in both developing countries such as Laos, Kuwait, Vietnam, Korea and China and developed countries such as the USA, the UK, Australia, Germany and the Netherlands. The volume addresses a range of internationalisation dimensions in both the public and private VET sectors and onshore and offshore VET delivery in developed countries as well as foreign-funded VET programmes in developing countries. Most scholarly works in the field of internationalisation of education do not focus on the vocational education and training sector. Thus, this is the first time such a volume has been created to address the concepts, models, tensions, opportunities and innovation in internationalisation of VET across national borders and the impact of these internationalisation trends on institutions, students, staff and educational work in VET. In addition, the VET sector has a high level of flexibility in approach and course design as it matches courses with industry demands and in response to local workplace requirements that all sectors of education could adapt and learn from.

This edited collection of chapters addresses a range of aspects of internationalisation in vocational education and training. The volume considers the impact of internationalisation and student mobility on VET at the sectoral, institutional and individual levels as the sector emerges as a key tool for social and structural change in developing nations and as a flexible and entrepreneurial means of growth in developed nations. It explores not only the effects of the neoliberal market principle underpinning VET practices and reforms but importantly considers internationalisation as a powerful force for change in vocational education and training. The text provides insights into the 'internationalisation' nature and practices of a significant but often-neglected player within the field of international education – vocational education and training. This text:

- Represents the first volume in the world that addresses the concepts, models, tensions, opportunities and innovation in internationalisation of VET across different countries

- Provides readers with unique insights into a range of internationalisation dimensions as VET is adopted or adapted across national boundaries between developed nations and developing nations
- Presents both practical tools and conceptual frameworks on the internationalisation of VET practice, localisation of foreign training models and the impact of mobility on educational work in the distinctive context of VET
- Provides foundational work to develop an emerging field of scholarship and research on internationalisation of vocational education and training

This book is a unique contribution to the field of international education and to current debates about internationalising the VET sector. Currently, there is an absence in the literature and published work on issues related to the internationalisation in VET around the world. Many chapters included in this volume provide the reader with new data, conceptual knowledge and emerging models relating to teacher professional development in international VET, localisation of foreign training models in developing countries and the impact of mobility on educational work in the distinctive context of VET. Thus, in contrast to many existing titles, this book can engage with readers on both practical and scholarly levels. The insights into these crucial aspects of internationalisation in VET, from a wide range of cultural perspectives presented in this book, are hoped to attract dialogue about some of the critical issues related to the engagement of VET institutes at the forefront of internationalisation. This book challenges an essentialising perspective that considers internationalisation as uniform and unproblematised. Instead, it attempts to consider the commonalities and context-specific differences as well as tensions in internationalisation policies and practices at the sectoral and institutional levels and in different domains across developed and developing countries.

VET reforms in various countries have been aligned with neoliberal ideology, globalisation, changing global/national/local labour markets and demands of the knowledge economy. Despite the growing focus of institutions around the world on internationalisation of education and worldwide interest in international education, the internationalisation of VET remains a largely under-theorised and under-researched field. Little has been written about the synergies and contestation over the conceptualisation, purpose, nature and effects of processes and practices of internationalisation in the VET sector across different countries and continents. Our volume, through its focus on these themes, responds to this gap in scholarly work, as well as complements studies of internationalisation in higher education. It seeks to meet this need by providing VET and international education policymakers, practitioners, researchers and educators with informed, practical information about the implementation of internationalisation in VET, based on empirical evidence that can be used by others to develop beneficial outcomes in specific national contexts. In particular, as the first volume in the world that examines internationalisation practices in VET, this book provides an international forum to address the strengths, potentials, constraints and tensions involved in contemporary internationalisation in VET institutes and community colleges.

Ly Thi Tran
Kate Dempsey

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Melbourne, Australia
December 2016

Ly Thi Tran
Kate Dempsey

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Chapter 1
Internationalization in VET: An Overview

Ly Thi Tran and Kate Dempsey

Abstract Internationalization is a powerful force that influences the orientation, operation, and development of all education sectors around the world. Recent reforms in the vocational education and training (VET) sector have been associated with the internationalization trend and aligned with the neoliberal ideology, globalization, changing global and national labor markets, and demands of the knowledge economy. Even though internationalization is manifested in various dimensions of the vocational education and training system in both developed and developing countries, it is an often-neglected phenomenon in the existing VET and internationalization literature. This chapter addresses the emerging ideological orientations, trends, tensions, and opportunities for internationalization in different VET systems. This chapter also points out that as an emerging field of research, international VET should be recognized as an interdisciplinary scholarship that represents both the potential and the challenge for contemporary VET policy and practices.

Keywords Internationalization • VET • Knowledge economy • Student mobility • Labor market

Introduction

The past 30-year period has witnessed the internationalization of education and cross border student mobility as key phenomena influencing the policy and practices of education institutions in different parts of the world. Today, more than five million students are moving globally every year for their tertiary education (OECD 2015). Globalization, neoliberalism, demand of the knowledge economy, and changing global/national/local labor markets have been considered important factors, underpinning internationalization of education over the past few decades

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(Altbach and Knight 2007; Knight 2004; Marginson 2007; OECD 2012; Rizvi 2004; Tran 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012; 2013a). Recognizing the critical need for internationalization across different education sectors and continents, the OECD states that a commitment to internationalization can open up the possibility for flexible responses to the changes and demands of the current globalized age and for innovation in teaching and learning practices (OECD 2012). The OECD statement is in line with the key findings from a recent global study on internationalization, the IAU's *4th Global Survey* (2014), which shows that students' increased international awareness and engagement with global issues is cited as the most significant benefit of internationalization, which is followed by quality enhancement of teaching and learning.

Internationalization is crucial for the development of relevant skills, knowledge, and attributes to engage and perform in a globalized and intercultural world of work, especially given the growing number of international companies and increasing mobility of the workforce between national economies. National policy texts in Australia and Europe such as the Australian Government's New Colombo Plan (2016), Australia – Going Global (2013a), and the European Commission's Green Paper (2009) cite the development of global and intercultural competencies for domestic students and the mobility of young people as being crucial for national capacity building due to the rise of the knowledge economy and the demands of globalization. A range of international education dimensions and activities occur in both the higher education (HE) and vocational education and training (VET) sectors. These include student mobility and recruitment onshore and offshore, staff mobility, internationalization of programs, transnational institutional partnerships and industry networks, and the involvement of aid and development activities in the developing regions. Among these dimensions, cross border student mobility has been considered one of the key driving forces as well as interconnected features of international education. Also, there are emerging philosophical constructs and ideological orientations governing institutional internationalization practices including the promotion of student mobility.

This edited collection of chapters addresses a range of aspects of internationalization in vocational education and training (VET) in different countries. The volume considers the impact of internationalization and student mobility on VET at the sectoral, institutional, and individual levels as the sector emerges as a key tool for social and structural change in developing nations and as a flexible and entrepreneurial means of growth in developed nations. It advances our understandings of not only the effects of neoliberal marketization trends on VET practices but importantly internationalization as a powerful force for change in VET across different national contexts. This text provides insights into the "internationalization" nature and practices of a significant but often-neglected player within the field of international education – vocational education and training. In so doing, it suggests a research agenda that moves beyond a simple description of the various dimensions of internationalization to a more sophisticated analysis of how institutional changes under the impact of internationalization are context situated. As an emerging field of

scholarship and research, international VET should be acknowledged in an interdisciplinary scholarship that represents both the potential and the challenges for contemporary VET practices.

Internationalization of VET

An historical perspective on internationalization and mobility indicates that in the eighteenth century, the British, French, and European colonizers utilized education and student mobility to promulgate the colonizers' civilization and serve colonial imperatives (Rizvi 2009). Then during the postcolonial decades, the mission of international education was to assist developing countries in human capacity building in the form of foreign aid. This approach was criticized as serving the political and economic aspirations of the provider countries (Rizvi 2009) and increasing the dependence of the receiver countries on the provider countries. The driving force behind the subsequent change of international education from aid to trade that has characterized the field over the past three decades has been the neoliberal marketization of education and the considerable decrease in public funding for tertiary education in a number of countries.

The underpinning principles and focus of internationalization of education may vary between developing and developed countries. Economic, political, sociocultural, and academic factors have been proposed as the four key forces driving the internationalization of education (Knight and de Wit 1997). The focus of internationalization of education can be humanistic, developmental, cooperative, or commercial. Aspirations for fostering intercultural understandings and engaging with the region and the world can be the main driver of internationalization of education in some Asian countries (Tran et al. 2014). A growing stream of the literature has pointed out that educational institutions in English-speaking countries tend to link internationalization with the marketization and commercialization of education (Marginson 2007; Matthews and Sidhu 2005). For many developing countries, particularly in Asia, internationalization can be developmental in nature, as it is regarded as a tool for developing a more qualified workforce. For other countries, internationalization of education is predominantly motivated by an engagement and cooperation approach, in addition to a capacity building approach, rather than by market-driven principles as is the case in English-speaking countries (Tran et al. 2014). Criticizing the commercialization and economic orientation of internationalization, Ng (2012) argues that internationalization should represent "a commitment to the development of an internationalized curriculum where the pursuit of global citizenship, human harmony and a climate of global peace is of paramount importance" (p.439).

Over the past two decades, the vocational education and training sector in various developed countries has sought to internationalize its practices and boost the delivery of its programs to full-fee paying international students as part of a fundamental strategy for improving the sector in the globalized knowledge-based

economy, generating revenue and rendering it competitive in the international education market. In Australia, for example, the VET sector currently ranks second, behind the higher education (HE) sector in volume of international student enrolments and it is growing: International student commencements in Australian VET in early 2014 grew by 10.1 % as compared to this period in 2013 (Australian Education International 2014). In the USA, the proportion of international student enrolments in community colleges accounts for almost 40 % of the total international student population (Hulstrand 2009), and in 2012–2013, there were 86,778 international students enrolled (Institute of International Education 2014). Both in the USA and Australia, a growing number of international students have used VET as a pathway to articulate to HE.

The process of internationalizing the vocational education sector is also associated with the current global context and global workforce mobility, which has required that students be trained to perform in an increasingly globalized, transnational, and intercultural environment. Various studies in the USA see the development of intercultural capabilities and global perspectives as critical for domestic students from American community colleges due to the nature of intercultural workplaces they may find themselves in after graduation (Braskamp 2011; Emert and Pearson 2007; Raby et al. 2014). Engaging in mobility and harnessing international experience have been seen as a vehicle to enhance the employability of young people in Europe (Egetenmeyer and Rueffin 2011). The recent *Erasmus Impact Study* by the European Union shows a marked increase from 37 % in 2006 to 64 % in 2013 in the importance that employers accord to study abroad (de Wit and Jones 2014). But little is known about whether and how VET institutes, teachers, and students across different continents have been prepared to engage in this internationalization discourse and respond to the demand of internationalization and transnational workforce mobility.

The European Union places increased focus on internationalization of vocation education especially through the mobility dimension. Notably, the *Copenhagen Declaration* of the European Ministers of Vocational Education and Training and the European Commission highlights "the need for a European dimension to education and training" (2012). The demand for internationalization of VET in Europe is seen to be linked to the background trend of internationalization of the European economy and the international nature of many European companies, which creates an increased demand for employees with international and intercultural competencies (Egetenmeyer and Rueffin 2011). A European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET) has been introduced to facilitate VET student mobility through the recognition of VET systems and qualifications throughout Europe (Egetenmeyer and Rueffin 2011).

In Australia, the first international education activity in VET began in the late 1980s with the hosting of international scholars in technical areas in Technical and Further Education (TAFE) institutes under the Colombo Plan (Hall 2011). The Colombo Plan has been regarded as the symbol of an era of international education as an aid process. However, this was replaced by a pragmatic commercialization-driven approach through the introduction of "Overseas Student Policy" in 1985

(Meiras 2004). The past three decades have marked the shift from education as a form of aid to trade, which has seen the mass recruitment of international students to generate revenue for the host institutions and countries including Australia. The commercialization of educational services as a key feature of international VET has been well recorded in the literature (Cully 2006; Moran and Ryan 2004; Smith and Smith 1999; Tran 2013a, b, c). Significant reforms in VET since the late 1990s underpinned by neoliberal principles have been regarded as the key drivers for the commercialization of education in VET. These reforms have led to a decrease in government funding for VET and the increasing privatization and commercialization of VET. Indeed the development of "a competitive training market" is regarded as the most remarkable aspect of VET reforms (Anderson 2005, p. 13). Despite this shift and the increase in export of VET programs globally, international education in VET is to some degree still marked by the engagement in aid and development activities in the Asia Pacific region (Hall 2011).

While many publications have focused on a range of aspects of internationalization in higher education (e.g., Brooks and Waters 2011; Carroll and Ryan 2005; Jones and Brown 2007; Marginson et al. 2010; McBurnie and Ziguras 2006; Mok and Yu 2014; Turner and Robson 2008), little has been written about the synergies and contestation over the conceptualization, purpose, nature, and effects of processes and practices of internationalization in the VET sector across different countries and continents. Our volume, through its focus on these themes, will respond to this gap in scholarly work, as well as complement studies of internationalization in higher education.

Internationalization and VET Programs

VET teaching and learning practices in many countries are industry driven. Research into community colleges in the USA and Canada has shown that in a globalized knowledge economy, vocational education needs to respond to the expectations of students and the demands of business and industry for skills training (Levin 2000, 2006). Within this context, it is increasingly important for the curriculum to be developed in accordance with marketplace demands. Marketplace demands in VET are changing partly due to global forces, workforce mobility, technological advances, and the flow of international students into the VET sector, especially in European and English-speaking countries. The globalization of VET content and teaching has been identified as critical to ensure training programs are relevant to diverse learning groups in VET (Australian Flexible Learning Quick Guide Series 2002). In particular, it is important to develop pedagogies that encourage the development of global views and awareness (Ibid, 2002). Drawing on research undertaken on the internationalization process in the higher education sector, Smith and Smith (1999) derived implications for VET and argued that the development of programs that prepare students for professions in international contexts should be a key characteristic of the curricula. However, McKay observed that though the

Australian VET sector claims it has embraced the imperative to prioritize the needs of local industry *and* the need to expand its share of the international education market, in practice its orientation to internationalization has induced little more than the addition of an extra key competency to existing training programs this being "cultural understanding" (Mckay 2004, p. 209). The author argues while Australian VET training is centered on the demands of the Australian industry, a greater emphasis on internationalization opens up the possibility to learn about a variety of vocational practices and support the development of skills and attributes for effective engagement with the diverse world of work.

Based on empirical research on internationalizing VET programs, Tran (2013a) argues that a commitment to developing an internationalized and broader program will place the Australian VET sector in a better position, not only to attract international students but also to enhance the employability of all VET students, domestic and international alike. If Australian VET providers are to sustain a strong role in global exports, the program and "product" will need to provide strong vocational training geared to the needs of international students, in their home countries' work environments. Such an internationalized program is also the key to addressing the needs of domestic students, who are likely to work in international contexts within Australia or wish to work in an international context beyond their national border. VET institutes need to match their rhetoric as "world class education providers" with a vocational program of relevance and utility to international learners in a cosmopolitan world in order to successfully promote themselves on the global education market.

Due to the flow of international students into the VET sector in developed nations, VET teaching and learning contexts are becoming increasingly diverse and no longer reflect the traditional training characteristics and boundaries that apply for local students (Tran and Nyland 2013; Tran 2013b, c). Divergent and shifting study purposes, new learning characteristics, new relationships between students and training providers, and new demands for wide-ranging global industries have emerged and demanded more effective approaches to teaching the growing cohort of international students in VET. It has been argued that there is confusion in the VET sector about how training packages developed for the Australian market can be adapted to suit the complex needs of international students and international markets (Moran and Ryan 2004). Accordingly, there is a critical need to explore how curriculum content and pedagogical practices are implemented in courses and programs in the process of internationalizing the VET sector. In order to effectively engage and teach this new group of students, teachers need to develop new knowledge and capacities beyond their traditional expertise and experience. Yet, what is largely overlooked in scholarly literature and policies regarding the internationalization of Australian VET is the relevancy and adaptation of the training programs to different group of learners and different global/national labor markets in the process of internationalizing the VET program (Tran 2013a, b, c).

Offshore Delivery and the Appropriation of VET Models

Labor markets are increasingly volatile in developed and developing knowledge economies (Brown et al. 2012). The World Bank stresses that one of the critical problems facing East Asian countries is the disconnection between the education system and the labor market, with the paradox of high unemployment rates among university graduates and shortages of skilled workers resulting in unfilled positions in trades (World Bank 2012). Accordingly, vocational education and training has been repositioned as a new resolution to developing the skilled labor force for governments in developing nations, due to its distinctive focus on providing flexible and practical training for the world of work. Within this context, there has been growing recognition of mutual learning and expansion in partnerships between VET providers across developed and developing countries. Exporting VET programs to other countries has become an important aspect of internationalization in VET in many developed countries. Delivering 533 offshore programs in 2012 (Australian Government 2012), public VET institutes in Australia, for example, see offshore teaching as the primary component of their international education (Custer 2013). There were 73,371 students enrolled in Australian VET offshore programs in 2011 (AEI 2011). To date, the most significant works done in the area of Australian VET offshore delivery are the good practice guides produced by Dempsey (2009, 2011a, b, 2012) in conjunction with government-owned TAFE providers in the State of Victoria, which undertake around 70 % of this offshore VET.

The usual approach of transnational education – curricula developed by the home institution in one nation and simply given to the local staff and students in a foreign nation to absorb – has its supporters and detractors. Bodies such as the OECD find convergence of education systems across national boundaries efficient and useful to benchmark progress, and the assumption is that best practice is occurring. For others (see e.g., Steiner-Khamsi 2004), this approach has been considered a negative, neocolonial approach, imposing a so-called best practice system on that of others without regard to their needs and cultural differences. Steiner-Khamsi further suggests that developing nations can merely pay "lip service" to the desires of aid bodies (see Chap. 9 by Dempsey and Tao (2017)) and use the resources given for their own purposes. Chapter 11 of this volume (Barabasch 2017) indicates that Korea has moved from being a recipient country for aid programs to a donor country, but that more research is needed to establish if Korea has learned from the mistakes of other countries in terms of how it "donates" vocational education (Barabasch et al. 2016). Chapter 9 in this volume (Dempsey and Tao 2017) similarly looks at the increasing sophistication of China in its adaption of VET to its own milieu (Dempsey and Tao 2016), and Vietnam (see Chap. 8: Reich and Ho 2017) looks for its own identity and character to flourish in its education system. Steiner-Khamsi and Waldow (2012) note the increasing convergence of educational outcomes across borders and explore if this is in fact a good thing, but as chapters in this volume show: it is happening regardless. The global circumstances of educational adaption and adoption are more fluid than in previous decades. China is itself a significant aid donor in particular to

Africa and its aid includes "education and skills development" (China 2011) Authors have argued also that simple commercialization of VET misses opportunities for broad and inclusive learning from students and teachers of varied backgrounds and experience (Leask 2004). More recently, it has been understood that successful transnational education involves a more global approach, where it is recognized that students and teaching staff bring a diversity of cultural perspectives and educational experience to be harnessed in an education program. In addition, Leask (2004) and O'Donoghue et al. (2009) in particular argue that transnational education can impact on the home institutions more generally in building their own intercultural capacities. Shams and Huisman (2012) criticize the notion of education as either local or global and call for a "both and" approach that does not lead to a polarized view of global education.

But as Steiner-Khamsi notes, "the pace with which reforms currently circumnavigate the globe is truly astounding" (2012, p. 4). The experiences described in Chap. 9 of this volume suggest that often educational institutions are ahead of government, creating alliances, partnerships, and networks across national boundaries that leave national governments fighting for control of their own education systems and outcomes. The pace of change has led to national governments participating more as regulators of education systems, rather than as providers and enablers of education (Steiner-Khamsi and Waldow 2012). Thus "selective borrowing" and local adaptation (ibid) do occur in practice, and host and home institutions adapt their offerings and find innovative ways to provide relevant outcomes for students as well as maintaining lip service to the government control mechanisms in the host country and the regulation and quality assurance requirements of the home country. Ziguras and McBurnie (2015) have investigated how national governments respond to internationalization of education by attempting to control and manipulate the movement of both organizations and individual students across borders. While the Australian VET system, for example, operates as if it is a closed system for domestic students only, it is in fact exported very broadly. However, little is known of how VET programs and traditional "Western" VET models have been appropriated to suit local needs in another country and how different VET systems can mutually learn from each other to improve their ways of designing and delivering VET programs. This volume highlights the synergies, challenges, and contradictions when different VET systems respond to the global character of work and training, both through working collaboratively with educational institutions offshore to build local capacity and develop new responses to emerging workforce requirements across nations and by preparing local students for new and changing employment opportunities at home and abroad.

Transnational Perspectives on Internationalization in VET

This volume addresses a global readership and community of scholars sharing their concern over the current status of internationalization in VET. In the first section of the book, the authors explore the impact of globalization, internationalization, and

neoliberal market-based policies on the implementation of technical and vocational training in the European Union, Australia, and US community colleges.

Levin et al. (2017, Chap. 2) examine the ways neoliberal market ideology impacts on policy and practices in US community colleges over two periods, 1989–1999 and 2000–2013. Drawing on a longitudinal study of community colleges, the authors identify that during the former period, institutions emphasized international education, cultural diversity, and access to further education as well as job preparation as key features of curriculum. During the latter period, institutional behaviors and actions took on a decidedly more neoliberal tendency, with greater direction by the state as financial concerns, student outcome measures, and efforts for greater accountability and legitimacy became more evident. The authors conclude community colleges in the USA reflect both national policy for a globally competitive workforce and state policies on the generation of revenue through international education. Pasura (2017, Chap. 3) develops this theme further by using the lens of social structures arising from human relations to investigate the impact of governments' neoliberal educational policy reforms which have boosted the commercialization of VET and the provision of VET for full-fee paying international students on both the perception and the work practices of private sector VET providers. The case study on the private VET sector in Australia shows that while VET policy posits an easy and ready association between the needs of capital and the development of the workforce, this association is highly contestable and problematic as it can lead to negative student learning outcomes. The chapter demonstrates that the VET sector is now far more complex, increasingly diverse, and global in its outlook than ever before, thus challenging normalized traditional approaches to teaching and learning for students in VET.

Kaleja and Egetenmeyer (2017, Chap. 4) provide an overview of internationalization policies and key drivers for internationalization in the European Union. They explore this phenomenon by comparing the situation in Germany and one other EU nation. In Chap. 5, Tran and Le (2017) investigate how well equipped teachers and trainers are to effectively cater for international students and respond to the demand of internationalization in VET. They apply positioning theory to analyze empirical data from a large-scale research project in order to conceptualize teacher professional development in international VET, as anchored in the intersections of multiple fields including internationalization, skilled migration, government policy on international students, and the current VET compliance culture. The study shows that the demands of competency-based training and the compliance culture in VET tend to marginalize teaching professional practices which are likely to address the needs of international students and the commitment to internationalization.

Finally Fisher and Saunders (2017, Chap. 6) examine the contradictory nature of government policy which both applauds internationalization of education, but at the same time impedes this activity by enforcing strict visa regulation for those wanting to work and study in the UK. Chapter 6 also notes the differential treatment by government of the VET sector and the higher education sector.

Part two of the book discusses the various ways in which VET has been adopted, adapted, or appropriated around the globe and the impact of internationalization on

the home VET system as well as the country which is importing or reforming its own VET system.

Moving to internationalization in developing nations, Rahimi and Smith (2017, Chap. 7) draw on a 2-year research project to explore what happens when knowledge developed to regulate and manage the delivery of training in one jurisdiction is exported to another quite different regulatory context. Using theories of globalization of business regulatory arrangements and knowledge management, they analyze the adaptation of Australian regulatory tools and procedures into non-Australian skill formation processes through three case studies: a Chongqing-AusAID project in China, a partnership VET project in the Middle East, and a training project on a mining site in Laos. In light of the key findings, they propose six dimensions of transfer activity under the umbrella of knowledge management – including mechanisms, drivers, key actors, purpose, context, and outcomes. Connecting with the discussion presented in Rahimi and Smith (2017, Chap. 7), Reich and Ho (2017, Chap. 8) describe the efforts of the Vietnamese education system to both adopt and *adapt* Western models of education in the reform of Vietnam's VET system. The maintenance of the Vietnamese character when adapting overseas education models challenges simplistic arguments of the "Westernization and colonization" of education in non-Western countries. While research often focuses on the technical and quantitative aspects of adopting and adapting training systems across the world, the work described in Chap. 9 by Dempsey and Tao (2017) describes the activities of an association of VET providers from Australia as they work to develop best practice in training under the Australian system in China and to incorporate the needs and specific local milieu of students. The chapter notes that Australian quality assurance mechanisms suit only the domestic education sector and that Australian VET offerings in China are ahead of Australian government regulation. It draws on unpublished research to highlight the unconventional means that Australian teachers and their Chinese counterparts undertake to adapt Australian qualifications to local needs. It concludes that the growing sophistication of the Chinese education market means that the Australian VET system will no longer be simplistically adopted or adapted. The last two chapters in this theme look at the emergence of Korea's focus on skills development and shows Korea is both a recipient of education as aid and more latterly as an education policy and practice donor. Nahm (2017, Chap. 10) looks at the rapid changes to the education system in Korea and investigates the changes that have allowed vocational training from secondary school level to become a viable alternative to university education. Chapter 11 (Barabasch et al. 2017) demonstrates the fact that Korea now assists other developing nations drawing on its own experience of borrowing best practice in VET from other nations. Both Korea and China are significant aid donors, including education reform projects.

In Part three, the authors explore other parts of the education sector and the impact of internationalization on these sectors with lessons for education and training more generally. Focusing on internationalization in senior secondary vocational education in the Netherlands and presenting recent Dutch data set against EU benchmarks, Bastiaannet (2017, Chap. 12) found that internationalization in this sector involves both so-called internationalization at home and transnational mobility.

The chapter also considers the influences of EU's internationalization practices on the Dutch senior secondary vocational education sector with regard to students' development of intercultural competency, foreign language learning, virtual mobility, outbound and inbound mobility, and the promotion of study visits and student exchange. Hagedorn and Li (2017, Chap. 13) acknowledge that English language competency represents the biggest barrier for international students to a US education. Thus, attending an intensive English program at an American community college is considered a primary pathway for many international students to boost English language skills and subsequently gain sufficient English entry score to proceed with the dream of an American postsecondary education. This chapter examines the dreams, goals, experiences, and aftermath of international students who have enrolled in US community college intensive English programs.

The book concludes by drawing the main issues addressed in individual chapters together and discusses the implications of internationalization for VET practices. As the different contributions in this collection show, there is a critical need for a consideration of VET policy and practices that acknowledge internationalization in the development of sustainable contemporary VET. We hope to contribute with this volume to a further clarification of the diversity and complexity of the overall picture of internationalization in VET. More importantly, we hope that this book contributes to further developing an emerging field of scholarship and research on internationalization of vocational education and training.

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Part I
Internationalization and Its Impact on VET

Chapter 2
The US Community College After Globalization

John S. Levin, Ariadna I. López-Damián, Marie C. Martin, and Michael J. Hoggatt

Abstract This chapter focuses upon both education and training policy and practice in US community colleges following the period of the 1980s and 1990s where the globalization process shaped and influenced these institutions. On the one hand, institutional policy and behaviors pertain to program completion (including credentialing) and student learning outcomes. On the other hand, national policy for a globally competitive workforce points to the ways in which ideology, particularly neoliberal or liberal market ideology, used the globalization process and globalizing tendencies (e.g., international labor forces, immigration, and information technology). This ideology, or at least its tenets, has insinuated itself into public education. We draw upon a longitudinal investigation of US community colleges that highlights three community colleges, examined initially in the period of 1989–1999 and subsequently in the period of 2000–2013. During the former period, these colleges emphasized international education, cultural diversity, and access to further education as well as job preparation as key features of curriculum. Their operations featured efforts of greater efficiency, the use of information and educational technology, international partnerships and projects, and shifts in organizational structures and management. During the latter period, institutional behaviors and actions took on a decidedly more neoliberal tendency, with greater direction by the state as financial concerns, particularly after 2008 (i.e., the Great Recession), student outcome measures, and efforts for greater accountability and legitimacy were evident. As a result, community colleges in the USA reflect both national policy for a globally competitive workforce, so that the US economy can prosper, and states' policies for financial constraints on public expenditures through both the rationing of higher education and the generation of revenues (e.g., international education). Thus, community colleges are both vehicles and models of state policy.

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Introduction

Community colleges in the USA have a history dating back to the nineteenth century, originating as junior colleges with a focus upon postsecondary education and training at the pre-baccalaureate degree level in academic, vocational, and adult education areas (Frye 1992; Meier 2013). Although as community colleges since the 1960s they have exhibited multiple functions and missions, they have maintained several underlying principles, such as open access, a comprehensive curriculum, and community responsiveness, as well as an aspiration to further democratize US society (Levin 2001). While the institution is market sensitive in responding to new student populations and in training for the vocations, community colleges were not demand-driven adherents to neoliberal principles of competition or performativity, or the privileging of the private sector, and certainly not inequality (Quiggin 2010), until there were signs of neoliberal practices in the later 1980s (Levin 2001). In the 2000s, however, community colleges have responded to market demands by, for example, increasing certificate programming to match employers' expectations for the workforce (Dougherty and Bakia 2000; Levin et al. 2009) and by providing English language programs to respond to international students' demands (Andrade 2006; Hagedorn and Li 2017, Chap. 13).

Our focus is upon the rise of neoliberal policies for and practices of US community colleges following this period of the 1990s. During the 1980s and 1990s, the globalization process shaped and influenced US community colleges (Levin 2001). These institutions comprise the major US postsecondary (or tertiary) education sector that provides pre-baccalaureate degree education and training for adults, although the recent addition of the baccalaureate degree in over 20 states has expanded the curricular focus of the community college (Russell 2010).

Both state and institutional policy and organizational behaviors emphasized program completion (including credentialing) and student learning outcomes, on the one hand, and state policy emphasized a globally competitive workforce and economic development, on the other hand. In the USA, given their economic orientation, community colleges are highly adaptive and responsive to resource providers, whether states, private businesses and industry, or fee payers. Education policies and practices point to the ways in which ideology, particularly neoliberal or liberal market ideology, used the globalization process and globalizing tendencies (e.g., international labor forces, immigration, and information technology). Globalization, interrupting nation-states' physical borders, has led in education to the establishment of a new territory and disturbed established local and even national values and institutional logics (Seddon et al. 2013; see Reich and Ho 2017, Chap. 8, for examples of value changes in Vietnam). Over the past two decades, through "traveling neoliberal reforms" (Seddon et al. 2013, p. 12), public higher education adopted

liberal market practices (Campbell and Pedersen 2001; Crouch 2011; Quiggin 2010), potentially altering the seminal qualities of education and training and replacing these with economic values, in the form of money and profit for private rather than for public purposes (Ball 2012). For example, the increased recruitment of international students is highly connected to liberal market practices (Levin 2005), whether students are recruited to programs that give access to universities or that provide English language training (Hagedorn and Li 2017, see Chap. 13) or career technical education, such as business. Yet community colleges maintained critical components of their mission(s), or parts of these, such as access to educational opportunities for adults, a community orientation, and a focus upon students as learners. These characteristics have over the decades since the 1960s set community colleges apart from other postsecondary institutions (Cohen et al. 2013; Meier 2013). It is the conflict and tension between neoliberalism and community college institutional characteristics that figure prominently in the development of the institution since the 1990s.

We draw upon a longitudinal investigation of US community colleges that highlights three community colleges in three separate states—California, Washington, and Hawaii—examined initially in the period of 1989–1999 and subsequently in the period of 2000–2013. These institutions during the former period emphasized, in their official articulations, international education, cultural diversity, and access to further education as well as job preparation as key features of curriculum (Levin 2001). Their operations featured efforts of greater efficiency, the use of information and educational technology, international partnerships and projects, and shifts in organizational structures and management. During the latter period, institutional behaviors and actions took on a decidedly more neoliberal tendency, with greater direction by the state as financial concerns, particularly after 2008 (i.e., the Great Recession), student outcome measures, and efforts for greater accountability and legitimacy were evident. As a result, community colleges in the USA reflect State policy aims for a globally competitive workforce so that the country and states' economies can prosper. Furthermore, states' policies and practices result in both the rationing of higher education and behaviors connected to the generation of revenues (e.g., external grant seeking and recruitment of international students). Community colleges are both vehicles and models of state policy; but they also act within a sociocultural and institutional context where institutional norms and values come into conflict or tension with state policy and practices.

To demonstrate both the policy aims of states and the results of these policies in community colleges, we undertake discourse analysis of selected state policies for higher education in three states and narrative analysis of interviews conducted at three community colleges. Documents include recent (from 2009 to 2014) state legislation, higher education system reports and strategic plans, special commission reports, and nongovernment policy reports aimed at each state's higher education system and institutions. Interviews include 31 semi-structured interviews conducted in 2013 and 2014 with faculty and administrators at three colleges in three states (California, Washington, and Hawaii) over a period of between three and five days at each of the three colleges.

From Globalization to Neoliberalism: The US Community College Under Pressure

Globalization as a process of connectivity of institutional practices nationally and internationally and a mechanism for moving national policies or parts of these from one country to another resulted, arguably, in the preeminence of an ideology known as neoliberalism. Specifically, the vehicle for the proliferation of neoliberal educational policies internationally was globalization (Seddon et al. 2013). In the USA, in the late 1980s and 1990s, federal and state policies aimed to move community colleges to global economic competitiveness and in the process to shape the mission of the community college toward economic goals (Levin 2001). There was considerable emphasis in the 1990s and the beginnings of the 2000s on globalization as multivalent, with various domains, such as cultural, political, technological, and social, as well as economic, as significant components of the globalization process. For higher education, globalization was fused with internationalization, and promises of cultural development and multiculturalism were ascendant (Levin 2001). Information technology was acclaimed as the purveyor of a globalized society where there would be universal connectivity and the assumption of greater intercultural understandings (Castells 2000). Yet for community colleges, the domains of culture, information, and politics took a back seat to the economic domain, and by the second decade of the 2000s, neoliberal values and emphases took hold.

Neoliberalism is connected to economic marketplace principles (Crouch 2011) that entail not only competition but also inequality (Quiggin 2010). Brown (2013) emphasizes marketization of higher education, where everything is for sale. Ball (2012) stresses profit, particularly as a motive for institutions to cut costs. Crouch (2011) emphasizes market principles as the standard for social and institutional judgment, so that the only important goals are profit goals. Flew (2014) views neoliberalism as a project for institutional change that would align institutions with a liberal market.

The claim is that neoliberal practices have driven public sector higher education to depend less upon government funding and rely more on an entrepreneurial pattern of behaviors that lead to the acquisition of private revenue streams, such as tuition and grant money (Ball 2012), including reliance upon international students for these revenues (Tran and Dempsey 2017, Chap. 1). Governments view colleges and universities as economic investments; private foundations and policy bodies look to higher education to satisfy ideological preferences, such as educational and training attainment to meet workforce needs of the private sector (Olssen and Peters 2005). The public, dissatisfied with higher taxation, prefers cost containment to address rising higher education tuition. National political leaders, such as President Obama, as well as Presidents Bush and Clinton (Ayers 2005), view and articulate higher education as an instrument for national productivity and global economic competitiveness (The White House 2015). Ball (2012) terms the key mechanism for judgment or assessment of higher education institutions as "performativity," that is, evaluation based upon economy, efficiency, and effectiveness.

Arguably, neoliberal initiatives, such as competition based upon performance and state disinvestment in the public sector, have become more pronounced in community colleges in the past two decades, more evident since the 2008 Great Recession (Rampell 2009), and more corrosive to the characteristics and critical mission components of the community college.

The Role of the States 2000–2013: State Policies and Their Goals for Community Colleges

Higher education policies determine the context of action of community colleges; thus, we examined the adoption of neoliberal ideas in community (and technical) colleges' policy documents in three states—California, Washington, and Hawaii. California community colleges (CCC) constitute the largest system of community colleges in the USA (California Community College Chancellor's Office 2015). CCC consist of 112 community colleges in 72 districts (Student Success Task Force 2012). In 2012, the colleges enrolled 1.4 million students (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES] 2013). Moreover, California's community college student population accounts for nearly one of every five students enrolled in a US community college (Student Success Task Force 2012).

Under the *Donahoe Act* (State of California 1960a) and *The Master Plan* (State of California 1960b), CCC were consolidated with the state's other two systems of higher education: the University of California (the state's research institutions) and the California State University (the state's comprehensive universities). One intention of legislation was to allow the CCC to enable all eligible citizens to participate in some form of postsecondary education. Over the period since the act and the plan, the mission of CCC has increased beyond access for academic and vocational education to include remedial instruction, ESL, adult noncredit, community services, and the advancement of "California's economic growth and global competitiveness through education, training, and services that contribute to continuous work force improvement" (California Department of Education 1997, Section 66010.4 (3)).

Washington's higher education system is composed of state and regional universities, a state college, community colleges, and technical colleges (Washington State 1992). In 1991, an "independent system of community and technical colleges" [CTC] for Washington was created (Washington State 1991). This system separates CTC from both the public secondary schools and the universities in the state. Originally, the CTC system included colleges that provided basic skills and literacy education, as well as occupational education, technical training, and university transfer. Since 2010, CTC in Washington were authorized to offer applied baccalaureate degrees (Washington State Board for Community and Technical Colleges [WSBCTC] 2015), a practice that started with a pilot program 5 years earlier (Glennon 2005). There are 34 community and technical colleges in the state. In the fall of 2012, they served 139, 311 students (NCES 2013).

The University of Hawaii (UH) is that state's postsecondary education system and is composed of three universities and seven regional community colleges spread across the islands of Hawaii, Maui, Oahu, and Kauai. The University of Hawaii contains both native serving and Asian American Native American Pacific Islander serving institutions. The majority of Hawaii's indigenous population attends UH community colleges (Model Indigenous-serving University Task Force [MISUTF] n.d.). In 2012, the seven community colleges enrolled 29,333 students (NCES 2013).

The Goals for Community Colleges in State Policies

Three overarching neoliberal principles or intentions are prevalent in the higher education policies of California, Washington, and Hawaii; however, these principles or intentions are manifested differently in each state. First, the policies in these states direct community (and technical) colleges toward efficiency outcomes—particularly with a focus on degree completion and university transfer. Second, the neoliberal theme of individualism appears in the policies and practices of the three colleges. However, individualism in Hawaii appears in the collective singular (i.e., the community represents one body or individual group), whereas Washington and California project more traditional notions of the singular individual (as in the sense of a person). This point is addressed later in the chapter. Finally, each state emphasizes economic and workforce development. These principles and intentions are delineated differently in each state's policies due to nuances in the structure of each state's higher education system, culture, and historical background of the community college. In spite of these differences, the states exhibit neoliberal initiatives that push community colleges toward performativity, individual responsibility, and market behaviors.

California's Community Colleges and the Discourse of "Student Success"

The passage of SB 1456, the 2012 Student Success Act, completed a process in California's community colleges initiated by then Governor Reagan in the 1960s away from an emphasis on state support toward emphasis on the individual (Geiger 2005). This movement in California community colleges (CCC) was part of a larger national discourse increasingly focused on completion, efficiency, and economic development. Each state responded to the pressures associated with this discourse by identifying institutional problems that prevented completion, efficiency, and economic development. California responded by articulating the problem as housed, not within the state or institution but rather within individual students and, to a lesser degree, individual staff and faculty.

Following the fiscal crisis, which began in December of 2007, the CCC experienced budget cuts totaling as much as $1.5 billion between fiscal years 2007–2008 and 2011–2012 (Bohn et al. 2013; Zumeta and Frankle 2007). This crisis prompted an increased emphasis on efficiency and credentialing at an unprecedented pace. As a consequence of these budget cuts, California policy makers made deliberate efforts to focus on students deemed most able to complete in an increasingly competitive economic climate. Moreover, programs designed to support vulnerable populations (e.g., students with disabilities) saw dramatic cuts to their funding allocations. In many cases, the cuts experienced in the 2009–2010 fiscal year were as high as 40 % over previous years (Contreras 2013; Farr 2010).

These funding cuts challenged the state's long outdated Master Plan (State of California 1960a). The Master Plan was designed to serve the state from 1960 to 1975, as part of a tripartite system in which all Californians would be served while the state provided institutional support (Douglass 2007). Yet the Master Plan began to show cracks as early as 1966 when Governor Reagan began to deemphasize state support for public education. This was further exacerbated by the passage of Proposition 13 (a statewide referendum) in 1978, which limited available property tax revenue for community college funding, as well as the introduction of fees to the once tuition-free community colleges in 1984 (Kurlaender and Jackson 2015). The introduction of fees was coupled with the introduction of the Board of Governors' tuition fee waiver, which further individualized state support (Kurlaender and Jackson 2015).

Yet recent funding cuts, beginning in 2008, and policies throughout the 2000s placed pressure upon the ideals of the Master Plan beyond what it could bear. These cuts came on the heels of a period, 2000–2008, which bore witness to a deliberate movement away from the diversity and access missions to one of completion and accountability on a scale previously unseen. One example of this movement came in 2004 with California's passage of Assembly Bill 1417 (State of California 2004), which established the Accountability Reporting for the Community Colleges program that required the Board of Governors of the CCC to recommend a framework for the evaluation of performance in meeting efficiencies. Building on the movement toward efficiency during the early 2000s, Shulock and Moore's (2007) *Rules of the Game* further articulated this movement by crafting the argument that access-driven policies hinder student completion and attainment. This coming just prior to the financial crisis of 2008 set the stage for state's response to this crisis, which ultimately culminated in the passage of the 2012 Student Success Act.

The Student Success Task Force developed eight recommendations from a legislative bill, SB 1456 (Student Success Task Force 2012). The first five recommendations address deficiencies in individual students, specifically highlighting students' lack of college preparedness, lack of direction upon entering, lack of progress toward degree, and lack of basic skills acquisition. Recommendation six furthers this deficit view by addressing the lack of professional development opportunities for faculty and staff. Despite the rhetoric during recent years, which focused on institutional needs, the state chose to increase efficiency by removing perceived deficits in the individual. In conjunction with state actions that remove perceived

individual deficits, there is support for high-achieving individuals. For example, students who complete education plans and make measurable progress toward completion are favored under SB 1456 in relation to those who struggle and fail to identify a program major and make adequate academic progress, arguably the students in need of the most institutional support.

The nature of SB 1456 speaks to the ideals of completion, efficiency, and individualism embedded within a neoliberal agenda. However, while this legislative act is central to the immediate future of behaviors within the CCC, it is only a means to a larger end. If the amelioration of perceived student, staff, and faculty deficits is the means, then economic and workforce development is the larger end goal. Governor Brown's 2015–2016 CCC budget proposals speak to the reason for investing in community college education (Brown 2015; Taylor 2013). The Governor asserts that there is a "high return on investment" in community colleges and lists the rationale for investment in community colleges in order to improve technical education and apprenticeship programs, as well as to increase funding for career development (Brown 2015, p. 43). As such, the "traditional professional culture of open intellectual inquiry and debate has been replaced with an institutional stress on performativity" (Olssen and Peters 2005, p. 313). Moreover, the overall discourse within CCC policy suggests that the overarching goal of community colleges, particularly in response to financial constraints, is one of economic and workforce development. Furthermore, legislative behaviors in California suggest that the largest impediments to this goal are not institutional deficits, but rather individual deficits. As such, CCCs are expected, for the foreseeable future, to be grounded firmly in values of efficiency, completion, individualism, and economic development.

Higher Education Policy in Washington: Community Colleges as Credentialing Suppliers

Current higher education policy in Washington State has its basis in the "2008 Strategic Master Plan for Higher Education" (Washington Higher Education Coordinating Board [WHECB] 2007). This "umbrella policy" determines the direction of other policy documents in the state: (a) the role of the postsecondary system is to promote the state's economic growth, as well as individuals' social mobility; (b) higher education programs will respond to labor market demands; (c) degree attainment will be promoted in, and connected to, all educational levels, that is, prekindergarten to graduate school (P-20); (d) programs will be customized, responsive to students' demands; and (e) the postsecondary system will make systematic use of indicators of quality and efficiency. For the community and technical colleges (CTC) in the state, these trends translate into a major focus on university transfer and "swirling" demands (whereby students move among institutions), as well as increases in credential and customized programs and ongoing use of assessment indicators.

The depiction of higher education as the primary tool to promote economic growth in Washington is not new. During the 1990s, higher education policy in the state tied postsecondary education explicitly to the improvement of the "economic condition of the state within a globally competitive environment" with little attention to social issues (Levin 2001, p. 103). In contrast to 1990s' policies, policies after the Master Plan exhibit more explicit interest in underrepresented populations such as women, students of color, low-SES individuals, and adults or nontraditional students. But, similar to the 1990s' policies, higher education policies from the mid-2000s to the present focus on one primary issue: train these populations to become a highly skilled workforce. Degrees (baccalaureate, master's, and doctoral) are conceived of as a source of social mobility and "the primary route out of poverty" (WHECB 2007, p. 22). Thus, preferred programs at the CTC are university transfer programs as well as programs in technical and applied fields, which increase individuals' probabilities of employment and high income.

In Washington policy documents, knowledge is depicted as a private good that produces economic benefits to students as well as economic development for the state. The role of CTC is to satisfy the demands of individuals who return to higher education for new job skills (Washington State Board for Community and Technical Colleges [WSBCTC] 2010) and to help them capitalize their newly acquired and prior technical skills and knowledge. Credits become a private good that students can obtain at various CTC, and these credits then serve students for university degrees. Programs and courses at CTC are customized to respond both to student needs (e.g., limited time) and to students' choices (e.g., interest in a productive activity). Students are seen as consumers of a product—education in the form of credits—who have the right to transport that product to different higher education institutions. Similar to consumers, students can be convinced to pay for a product (e.g., program or major) that responds to the job market and state economic needs (WHECB 2012a, b; WHECB et al. 2011). Moreover, one of the goals of CTC is to attract new types of consumers (adult learners, primarily) by depicting these colleges as a postsecondary pathway.

Community and technical colleges are thus stepping-stones in a "lifelong learning" pathway that has one final end: degree attainment. This applies to both traditional age students and adult learners. In this scheme, for example, CTC and K-12 education work in collaboration for the development of programs such as "running start" that enable high-school students to gain credits useful for a college degree (WHECB 2011b). Congruently, CTC's main role is to transfer students to universities. Additionally, CTC are expected to respond and facilitate students' "swirling"—transferring back and forth among different CTC—to ease students' transition to college. In these policies, the concept "lifelong learning" has a narrow connotation (a lifelong possibility of degree attainment, primarily for adult learners) that contrasts with the educational use of this term. This emphasis gives priority to the CTC's university transfer mission.

CTC are expected to work in line with an efficiency rationale, which requires that "production" is maintained without increasing costs (WHECB 2011a; WSBCTC 2010). The Washington State Board of Community and Technical Colleges depicts

the adoption of a "culture of evidence" for CTC leaders as necessary to ensure colleges' assessment and accountability practices, which would result in transparency, improvement of quality (Jenkins et al. 2012), and the reduction of expenditures in education (WSBCTC 2010). CTC are incentivized to improve student outcomes measured in the form of transfer rates, completion rates, and student performance in gatekeeper programs (programs that are necessary for transfer or degree completion). The Student Achievement Initiative, for example, provides funding for colleges that improve their "achievement points" or measures of both completion of credentials and achievement of intermediate milestones. Since university transfer is a top priority of the state, CTC are expected to establish and assess different paths to baccalaureate degrees (WHECB 2009). The Washington Higher Education Coordination Board defines a "successful" college as one that transfers a large number of students, allows swirling, and "avoids loss of credits" in the process (2011b). Terms such as productivity, measurable outcomes, input efficiency, responsiveness to job market demands, and students' choices refer to expectations for CTC, spelled out in state policies. CTC are perceived as convenience stores from which to obtain credits necessary for a degree of any kind and less conceived of as higher education institutions with a democratizing and access mission.

Hawaii's Higher Education Policy: Culture and Neoliberal Ideology

Hawaii's postsecondary education policy continued the trend of globalization of the 1990s (Levin 2001) through the expansion of partnerships, technology, and diversity (State Board for Career and Technical Education [SBCTE] 2014; University of Hawaii [UH] 2006). Yet the discourse of higher education policy in Hawaii has adopted a neoliberal propensity since the start of the new millennium, with a greater emphasis on revenue generation, accountability, state influence and control, entrepreneurship, competition, workforce demands, and student learning outcomes (SBCTE 2014; University of Hawai'i Innovation Council [UHIC] n.d.). The discourse embedded within Hawaii's policies utilizes an anti-deficit rhetoric to laud the state's strengths, as well as promote goals that lead to an idealized future for the state, such as economic prosperity within an ethnically diverse and socially tolerant society.

In spite of the positive tone of the policy documents, there are inherent tensions with policy. First, policy documents indicate that Hawaii's higher education system must comply with federal mandates on activities such as student financial aid (State of Hawaii Office of the Auditor [SHOTA] 2012). Although the state attempts to comply with such legislation, Hawaii lacks the necessary institutional structures for compliance (SHOTA 2012). Thus, the positive rhetoric, while appropriate culturally, may mask challenges and issues that the University of Hawaii [UH] system faces. Second, policy for community colleges instructs institutions to respond to the

state's economic demands and to promote efficiency (Levin 1999); however, university documents also emphasize "continual quality improvement" and quality of life (UH 2009, 2015)—values in direct conflict with efficiency (Levin 1999). Furthermore, the neoliberal tendencies present in the documents conflict with the Hawaiians' emphasis on family and community. Indeed, Hawaii challenges traditional notions of neoliberalism in which individualism is rationalized and lauded. Hawaii's emphasis on community, social responsibility, and *ohana* (family) questions the "individual as individual" conception and suggests a reconceptualization of the neoliberal individual as the collective singular.

Hawaiian culture places significant value on the community, and it is the mission of the University of Hawaii to develop priorities and goals based on assessment of community "needs" (UH 2006) and "well-being" (UH 2009). Tradition, sustainability, and preservation of indigenous culture are imperative to the mission of the University of Hawaii (UH 2009). According to MRC Greenwood, former President of the University of Hawaii, "[e]verything we do is, or should be, imbued with Hawaiian values and respectful of the traditions practiced here for centuries" (MISUTF n.d., p. 2). Not only is development of higher education policy in Hawaii based on economic benefits and workforce development but also policy and practices are adopted because they are *pono*—the right thing to do (MISUTF n.d.). Hawaiian education policies speak of *kuleana* (responsibility) [MISUTF n.d.]. This suggests that while neoliberal ideology has infiltrated Hawaii's higher education policies, the local culture moderates, and perhaps reshapes, those neoliberal tendencies in practice.

Hawaii's community college documents from the 1990s emphasize quality, enrollment, access through distance education, technological advancement, internationalization, partnerships, and a student-centered approach (Tsunoda 1996; UH 1996, 1999). Although the documents from the 2000s continue to emphasize excellence, access (UH 2006), enrollment, technology, globalization, and partnerships (UH 2002), they introduce new performance measures, such as degree completion by race (with a particular focus on Native Hawaiians) [UH 2012], certificates earned, disbursement of Pell grants, extramural funding, patents and licenses, funding sources, and STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) degree completions (UH 2008).

Workforce development is the preeminent theme in the policies of both the 1990s and 2000s. The documents of the 1990s accentuate meeting the needs of the local, state economy (Tsunoda 1996; UH 1996, 1999). In the 1990s, the emphasis was on partnerships and job training in tourism and labor-intensive industries such as agriculture, as well as technological fields (Tsunoda 1996; UH 1999). However, discussions of workforce development in the 2000s took on a more global tone. Hawaii's higher education policy of the 2000s outlines a vision of the University of Hawaii community colleges that seeks "to provide the trained workforce needed in the State, the region, and internationally by offering occupational, technical, and professional courses and programs which prepare students for immediate employment and career advancement" (UH 2006, p. 1). The University of Hawaii Innovation Council report recommends that the University of Hawaii advance "economic

growth and future competitiveness" in a "global marketplace" (UHIC n.d., p. 4). Workforce development continues to be central to the mission of Hawaii community colleges.

A focus on accountability is also evident in Hawaii's higher education policy documents and reports from 1989 to 2013. The documents from the 1990s emphasized accountability in the use of human and physical resources (UH 1996); whereas, the strategic plans from the 2000s focused on fiscal integrity and accountability to taxpayers, families, students, and donors in order to maximize the "value" of their investment (UH 2002).

Finally, although policies and documents of the University of Hawaii and its community colleges, in the 2000s in particular, indicate an emphasis on innovation, marketization of ideas, and revenue generation (UHIC n.d.)—neoliberal values—UH and its community colleges do not fully embody the independence and individualism of traditional neoliberalism. This may be the result of considerable influence of the state and federal governments on Hawaii community colleges and the UH system. This influence takes form in the reliance on state funding as well as federal financial aid.

The Same But Different

Higher education policies in California, Washington, and Hawaii propose goals for community (and technical) colleges that prioritize measurable outcomes. This trend is consistent not only with policy at the federal level (e.g., *Reclaiming the American Dream*, a 2012 report of the American Association of Community Colleges) and across the states (e.g., Colorado Community College System's (2014) *Strategic Plan, 2015–2025*) but also with recent scholarly literature that supports the use of objective measures to determine colleges' effectiveness in producing successful students (e.g., Goldrick-Rab 2010).

In the three states, degree completion, certificate attainment, and university transfer are used as benchmarks of goal achievement. For Washington and California, however, university transfer is a more complex process than for Hawaii, due to the division between universities and community colleges in the former and the integration of these institutions in the latter. Additionally, the focus on the population that completes a degree varies by state. In Hawaii, strategies are directed toward Native Hawaiians' educational achievement; in California, the focus is on the attainment gap between underrepresented populations and their White and Asian peers; and, in Washington, the priorities are for adult learners and low-SES populations. Although prior research touches on these general policy intents for performance (Bailey et al. 2015; Dougherty 2002), there is no research with the exception of Levin (2001) that compares these three jurisdictions or interrogates motivations for these policies.

Policies in these three states favor an individualistic view of the benefits of and responsibilities for postsecondary education, consistent with neoliberal ideology. Nevertheless, individualism has a different connotation in these states. In California,

the benefits of education and the consequences of poor performance fall on the individual. In Washington, postsecondary education is expected to provide economic benefits to individuals, but individual colleges have responsibility for achieving benchmarks and thus suffer the consequences of failure. Policy in Hawaii, in some contrast, equates the individual with the community, particularly for benefits. Finally, policies in each state emphasize the economic and workforce development mission of community colleges.

Three Colleges and the Effects of State Policies

We examine in brief the attributed effects of state policies upon three community colleges located in California, Washington, and Hawaii. These three colleges are given pseudonyms—Suburban Valley Community College, City South Community College, and Pacific Suburban Community College—identical to those names used in a longitudinal qualitative investigation spanning from 1989 to 2013 (see Levin 2001). Here we identify effects confined to the period of 2000–2013 as conveyed by a sample of 31 faculty and administrators.

For data analysis of the interviews, we relied upon a theoretical framework drawn from neoliberal theory, using coding strategies (Richards 2009). Codes included the tenets of neoliberalism, such as free market, individual benefits, competition, privatization, and government reductions in both services and financial support. As well, narrative analysis (Riessman 1993, 2002) was used to select individuals' representations of organizational behaviors. Our findings explain the ways in which college members make sense of their college's responses to policy.

Suburban Valley Community College, California

State policy has affected Suburban Valley College (SVCC) on several fronts, but two are most prominent, and these two are intertwined by the second decade of the 2000s. On the one hand, policies have increasingly moved the college from concerns about access to concerns over student performance and outcomes. On the other hand, policies have led to funding shifts in two directions, with incompatible outcomes. First, there were 2008–2012 reductions in state funding to the institution (and all California community colleges) that resulted in the rationing of instruction and student support services. Second, after 2012 there was an increase in state funding that resulted in the privileging of some activities and populations over others. As extensions of state policy, the state's funding behaviors are at their dramatic climax in the period of 2009–2013, during a period of sharp decline and then restoration. The stratifying of student populations may have reached its zenith through privileging of student groups based upon the Student Success Act of 2012. Indeed, state policy coalesces around expenditures—funding allocations for the college from the

state—and values attached to education and training. The chancellor of the community college district that oversees SVCC indicated that the message from the state government was clear.

> [T]he state told us, "Your priorities are now transfer, basic skills, and career technical education, and do not spend your scarce resources on lifelong learning, community services, those kinds of things"…[Their] intention was to pay for as little as they could…clamping down on things including how many times you can repeat a course. (District chancellor)

> Faculty interpret this message as an indication "that the community college is no longer a community college" (Social Sciences faculty member). The two—funding and the Student Success Act—are conjoined because the legislation makes it clear that funding for the college is tied to compliance with the strictures of the act. "[W]e go along with it because there's funding tied to it." (Developmental Education faculty member).

The response on campus has been mixed. One response is compliance as noted above because of the financial dependency of the college on the state. Yet, another form of compliance is passivity as noted by a department chairperson. "[A] lot of the fight is out of us. I feel like I'm on a mode where I'm going to devote as little energy and angst as possible. I'm going to do the minimum of what's asked of me in terms of the bureaucratic requirements." This department chair identifies two key changes: "a workload increase [and]…real core changes to our mission as an institution." The president of SVCC was more sanguine about financial issues, treating them as problems that can be addressed by institutional groups through planning. Indeed, during the period of considerable financial stress, the president established a college tribunal, referred to as the Institutional Planning and Budget Process, with the intent that this process determines priority areas for deleting, curtailing, or maintaining programs, units, and activities of the college. This process led to "a lot of loss" (College president), but a high level of employee participation. "There was a lot of loss and at the same time people were constantly trying to reorganize and figure out 'Ok…we have to work together. How are we going to do this?'" The president characterized this budget process as "broadly democratic, genuinely participatory." The emphasis here then was on process not outcomes. Yet others did not agree with the president on process and viewed the process as secretive and competitive. Two faculty members described the process as inquisition-like in order to justify the elimination of programs and layoff of employees. For these faculty the process led to discontentment and demoralization. "I've never seen such discontent in my many years" (Science faculty member). For one administrator, the Institutional Planning and Budget Process was an opportunity structure for jettisoning inefficient and ineffective programs. "'We've studied your program reviews for a long time and your enrollment is down, down, down, all the time and we've been dumping resources… and things haven't changed'" (College dean). Deletion of programs and course offerings and increases of class sizes are the consequence of diminished state funding and policy priorities.

City South Community College, Washington

Skills development and ultimately credentials are the cornerstones of City South Community College's (CSCC) actions, within a context of both state demands and local market conditions, including market demand in the form of students and market needs in the form of a labor force. Yet City South's focus upon meeting local market needs rests with the development of baccalaureate programs in applied areas, which are equated statewide with economic development, but viewed at City South as a mechanism to increase enrollments on the one hand and produce credentials on the other. "[M]ore kids from high school [will enroll]…for our baccalaureate degrees…Our thought was raise aspirations" (College district chancellor). These degrees will extend the vocational and career technical mission of the community college, yet push the institution away from community college identity as a 2-year institution toward the 4-year sector. Degrees would be 4 years in the areas of "manufacturing engineering technology or electrical engineering technology…appropriate BAS [Bachelor of Applied Science] degrees. University of Washington, Washington State [University] don't offer those" (Senior administrator). Thus, the baccalaureate degree both addresses skills development, at a considerably higher level than traditional vocational programs, and leads to a more market salient credential than the associate's degree (traditional 2-year community college credential).

The market orientation of City South extends to other Washington state community colleges, which also offer applied baccalaureate degrees. A second statewide effort to tie community and technical colleges to market behaviors comes in the form of new directions in funding institutions, based upon college performance. Performativity is judged statewide through outcomes performance funding whereby the state withholds $50,000 a year from each of the colleges. The regaining of the $50,000 is achieved through a statewide competition among the community colleges.

> [T]hey take 50,000 dollars per college and they put it in this pot and then that money gets allocated based on performance. And it's called a Student Achievement Initiative… [T]hey publish the data for all the colleges and…there's…competition among…colleges not to look bad. (College administrator)

Some college members are unaware of this competition; rather, they are sensitive to enrollment funding whereby the college receives funding based upon student numbers. "[T]he only performance that I've heard of is that when they decide how much money to give us they look at what we did last year for [enrollment] and if we don't hit our target then we could lose money" (Science faculty and college committee leader). A senior administrator, more familiar with the state's efforts to control expenditures, views the performance funding plan as mostly a plan and not yet an implemented action.

> [T]hey're saying, "Oh, we're going to move from an enrollment based model to a completion model," but so far they've just talked about that a lot….[O]n a six hundred million dollar budget, they put three million dollars into it…[T]he real incentive [would be if they] put…three hundred million in…before people would change their behavior. (Senior administrator)

The district chancellor for CSCC views performance funding as a combination of effort from the state government in the form of both the elected officials and the state board. "[O]ur state board is pushing more for performance funding…I think the legislature's pushing also for that." The chancellor ties this funding to student achievement, driven by the Gates Foundation and other states' approaches to funding, although a small step, performance-based funding in Washington satisfies state policy preferences as well as those of private sector influencers to align the colleges with a neoliberal environment.

Pacific Suburban Community College, Hawaii

Although the cultural values of community and Native Hawaiian traditions and ways of knowing are prevalent at Pacific Suburban Community College (PSCC), and indeed the bedrock of organizational members' rationales for their work engagement and professional identities, economic conditions and imperatives as well as performativity guide and shape college behaviors. Both administrators and faculty describe this combination of Hawaiian native culture and native populations along with performativity goals. In this, PSCC combines culturally popular and politically appropriate values and neoliberal forms of competition, including measurable outcomes.

> The Board of Regents changed the mission to say that serving native Hawaiians is an inherent part of the mission of the University of Hawaii… [We make] native Hawaiians a focus of the outcomes measure… [T]here are five measures that have dollars attached to them: Graduates, number of graduates, number of STEM graduates, number of native Hawaiian graduates, number of Pell recipients…. (Senior administrator, University of Hawaii)

> The number one goal [of the UH system's strategic plan] was more native Hawaiian students going to college, more native Hawaiian students being retained, more native Hawaiian students graduating… [W]e have a native Hawaiian garden; we have a native Hawaiian lab. There may be some of that connection happening… for them to feel that there is a place for them here… [O]ur buildings are named after native Hawaiian plants…[O]ur services… are named Hawaiian on purpose… to say to them, 'You're important to us. Our host culture is important to us.' (Business faculty member)

Indeed, there is a practice at PSCC of socializing faculty into both Hawaiian culture and pedagogy for Hawaiian native students.

> I've helped with… professional development things for faculty regarding Hawaiian values [and] pedagogy that work with local students… in training and helping faculty who didn't know the Hawaiian culture figure out how to deal with it… [T]here are strategies you can use in the classroom so that you're not singling people out, so that it's not a debate, so it's not competitive; it's more collaborative…. (History faculty member)

But socialization to cultural norms is insufficient for PSCC's organizational survival and role in the Hawaiian community college system. PSCC is compelled to acquire revenues through competitive funding grants and must maintain its legitimacy through the process of accreditation. Performativity at PSCC is in the form of

outcome measures, required by the accrediting agency, the Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges, Western Association of Schools and Colleges (ACCJC), and reinforced by University of Hawaii policy. Performativity pertains to the outcomes of the college's programs relative to the system's goals including number of graduates and also student achievement in program areas. Outcomes are tied loosely to funding.

> Strategic planning is done at the UH system level… They laid out the strategic outcomes… We're trying to get every student we can to be successful… [W]e have measureable outcomes [demonstrated through]… program review… [I]t's everything…remedial, developmental, math, reading, writing, culinary, dental, EMT, sports science, IT, liberal arts, marketing, medical assistant… [I]n this comprehensive program review… they also look at the contribution of the program to the college's strategic outcomes. (College administrator)

Even those areas, such as the liberal arts, customarily detached from outcome measures that are applied to workforce programs, are party to judgment. Thus, performance expectations and measures are uniform.

> I think the liberal arts faculty do have to come around to realizing that… the gen. ed. learning outcomes (critical thinking, communications…integrated learning)… is so that students can be… good family members, good citizens, and productive employees… or managers… There has to be a movement of liberal arts towards understanding that your curriculum's important but it's also training people. (College administrator)

Thus, tensions at PSCC can be found between market-based performance expectations and social and cultural development goals of the institution.

The Neoliberal Imperative

Although apparent in previous decades and fostered by the globalization process (Levin 2001), in the decades of the 2000s, community college actions are aimed largely at the maintenance of mission and the expansion of mission under conditions of dependency on resources and state government policy. Given that states are neoliberal in their orientations and practices (Ball 2012), community colleges are vehicles for neoliberal or market liberal policies, which flow through state actions and shape institutional behaviors.

During the 1990s, while community colleges in the USA adapted to a global economy as well as to global flows in the form of culture, information, and immigration (Appadurai 1990; Levin 2001), governments curtailed their largesse in the funding of higher education as a public good (Slaughter and Leslie 1997). This led ultimately to greater levels of resource dependence, and state governments in the USA could press their demands on public institutions for accountability and their preferences for programming, particularly upon those institutions with high levels of dependence on governments and the public purse: community colleges. Thus, the neoliberal state could establish and implement policies that community colleges were forced to enact. In some cases, these policies were not consistent with either

community college values, such as access, or with community needs, such as social and cultural development. Community colleges, then, had to endeavor to incorporate neoliberal policies into institutional missions and values and often compromise these missions and values, in order to maintain the flow of resources from the state, even if the flow had diminished during the period. Thus, the period of 1998–1999 can be characterized as one of responsiveness to economic globalization and awareness of internationalization for US community colleges (Levin 2001). The period that followed (2000–2014) ushered in more performance-based competition and measurement. Whereas the former period extended, even expanded, community college principles of access and student development (Cohen et al. 2013), the latter took the road of the economic market place and the private sector.

Community colleges in these three states—California, Washington, and Hawaii—responded more deliberately to calls and state requirements for institutional performance than in the past. These requirements for performance are consistent with those in businesses and industries. In this liberal market standard for performance, a form of competitiveness, both externally and internally, may deflect attention away from the educational purposes of higher education (Ball 2012). As community colleges become focused upon quantitative measures of student completion, on graduation rates, and on particular groups' movement in programs and onto universities and into occupations, these institutions can lose sight of their social and personal development functions and can favor those with more resources and access to higher education over the more needy, or underserved.

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Chapter 3
International Student Mobility and Its Impact on the Australian Private VET Sector

Rinos Pasura

Abstract In recent years governments have legitimated neoliberal educational policy reforms such as the internationalization and commercialization of education through mobilizing the discourses of globalization and the knowledge economy. In Australia, for instance, a raft of policy initiatives over the last two and a half decades (beginning in the early 1990s) targeted full-fee paying international students prompting a surge in international student enrolments and a burgeoning private vocational education and training (VET) sector for international students. Drawing on a study of situated realities influencing international students in private VET providers in Melbourne, Australia, this chapter analyzes, from training managers' and quality assurance auditors' perspectives, the impact of international student mobility on the private VET sector. This chapter also utilises the notion of social structure as systems of human relations amongst social positions to examine how international student mobility has led to shifts in VET manager and quality assurance auditors' perceptions and practices outside the boundaries of the education sector, particularly how private VET providers and international students are represented. In this instance by reforming the VET sector, governments change conventional characteristics through which people relate and the relationships that bind them with intended and unintended consequences. The findings suggest that whilst VET policy posits an easy and ready association between the needs of capital and the development of the workforce, this association is highly contestable and problematic as it can lead to negative student learning outcomes.

Keywords VET • International students • Globalization • Neoliberal policy • Student mobility • Labor markets • Education

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Introduction

Whilst the movement of people across artificial geopolitical boundaries is as old as mankind, the notion of international student mobility – an alternative migration pathway – is a recent phenomenon. The literature suggests that there is limited research that has explored international student mobility in VET and its impacts on the delivery of courses and how it is understood and practiced in the private VET sector today (Modood and Salt 2011; Pasura 2014a; Smith 2010; Tran and Nyland 2010). It is also argued that:

> (T)he number of students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of citizenship has sharply increased over the last decades, reflecting the expansion of tertiary education systems worldwide and the globalization of economies and societies. (OECD 2013, p. 1)

A major stimulus for this global phenomenon is the perceived skilled labour shortages and the introduction of schemes in these countries to deal with it (Modood and Salt 2011). For example, in Australia, the UK, some countries of the European Union (EU) and Canada, international student mobility has been driven by the marketization of the education sector, skilled labour shortages and immigration incentives for permanent residency and citizenship (AEI 2010a; Modood and Salt 2011; Pasura 2014a). In fact, international student mobility has been variously associated with the notions of globalization, skilled labour shortages (labour migration) and migration in general (Mazzarol and Soutar 2002; Modood and Salt 2011). Tran and Dempsey (2017, Chap. 1, p. 1) also suggest that amongst other factors, globalization, neoliberalism and changing global/national/local labor markets have been considered important factors contributing to the recent international student mobility or the internationalization of education.

This chapter examines international student mobility and its impact on the private VET sector, particularly with regard to how education market policies have influenced private VET sector institutional perceptions and practices in Australia. The chapter draws on the notion of social structure as systems of human relations amongst social positions as its theoretical framework. It utilises this notion of social structure to analyse in-depth interview data gathered during a 2010–2013 study of situated realities influencing international students' outcomes in selected private VET providers in Melbourne, Australia. These data were drawn from four training managers working for commercial for profit private VET providers (referred to as private VET providers hereafter) and five VET quality assurance auditors working on behalf of government regulatory authorities in Melbourne, Australia. The chapter uses these data to illustrate that international student mobility has led to shifts in institutional perceptions and practices in the private VET sector.

This chapter begins by advocating for the adoption of the conception of social structure – systems of human relations amongst social positions – to explain international student mobility and its impact on the private VET sector. It argues that the history and contemporary activities of individuals, international student mobility in this instance, are interrelated and interconnected with the communities' internal structure and governments' policy frameworks. This explication is followed by a

brief overview of the historical developments that led to international student mobility in the private VET sector in Australia. Next, the research approach used to gather the data used in this chapter is briefly explained. Insights, perceptions and experiences from training managers and quality assurance auditors involved with private VET providers in Melbourne, Australia, are also presented and analysed. The chapter ends with a brief reflective conclusion on the impact of international student mobility on the Australian private VET sector.

Explaining International Student Mobility: An Alternative Approach

The literature suggests that international student mobility in VET is a recent phenomenon, which has received limited exploration and academic attention albeit variously explored using orthodox emigration and economic theories (Modood and Salt 2011; Pasura 2014a; Robertson 2011; Smith 2010). Some have argued that when theorising about international student mobility, contemporary discourses have privileged migration and business economic dimensions only at the exclusion of situated global and national specific contexts, institutional-based factors and individual aspirations (Pasura 2014a; Robertson 2011; Tran and Nyland 2010). Others have also suggested that:

> (T)he nexus between international education and migration policy, … has led to international student issues and discourses shifting outside the boundaries of the education sector. (Robertson 2011, p. 2195)

Whilst these debates add to our existing knowledge about the phenomenon of international student mobility, the focuses on narrow economic-migration dimensions only have arguably left us with no cohesive contemporary theory or theories for international student mobility or mechanisms, which we can use to explore and understand its impact within the education-migration realm. It is also argued that most theoretical debates about transnational mobility are still informed by orthodox emigration and labour mobility conceptions (Portes et al. 1999).

The most widely held views about international migration in general and international student mobility in particular are constructed around the economic notions of push-pull factors (Mazzarol and Soutar 2002; Portes et al. 1999). In this instance, push factors represent economic hardships of underdeveloped nations (source countries), whilst pull factors are manifested in the economic advantages of the advanced economies of the world [host countries] (Portes and Borocz 1989; Portes et al. 1999). The literature suggests that push factors encourage outward student flows from countries (source countries) that have limited education services, whilst pull factors encourage inward student flows to countries that offer expansive education and economic services, which are supported by a myriad of economic and migration incentives (Mazzarol and Soutar 2002; Modood and Salt 2011; Portes and Borocz 1989; Portes et al. 1999; Robertson 2011).

Historically, it has been argued that economic factors (source country factors) attract international students to study in a particular country (Mazzarol and Soutar 2002), whilst the contemporary counterargument posits that this conceptualization is flawed because it unproblematically assumes that most individual members or collectivities from disadvantaged communities or poorer societies of the world would migrate to richer countries purely for economic reasons (Portes et al. 1999). Although the assumptions underpinning the push-pull factor proposition appear self-evident, push-pull factor theories are incapable of predicting the differences amongst collectivities or the differences amongst individuals within countries or regions with the propensity to migrate, whatever reasons they hold (Portes and Borocz 1989; Portes et al. 1999). In this instance, the factors that influence international students to study abroad long after the push-pull economic factors have ceased to exist cannot fully explain the continued growth in this sector, for example, international student mobility during and after the 2008–2010 global financial crisis. Hence this chapter argues that the push-pull factor theories or the economic conceptualizations of international student mobility outside the historically understood 'education as aid' model have remained largely limited. It suggests that any conceptualizations of international student mobility, which do not question the role of social structure in shaping human action, particularly the influence of global education markets and their impact, are limited and contested.

This chapter argues for alternative conceptualizations, which can be used to explain international student mobility outside the orthodoxy of economic-migration and labour theories. It advocates a critical realist's view of the world, in particular the notion that the world is a complex composite of entities, each having its own causal properties, i.e. tendencies, forces and capabilities (Archer 2000; Porpora 1989). It argues that these complex entities' causal properties, which are a function of their internal structure, form systems of meaning; 'systems of meaning… negotiated by people in the course of social interaction' (Sayer 2010, p. 14).

The systems of meaning, which people hold, it can be argued are in part manifested in, for example, what we see and describe today as international student mobility (migration) amongst other migration pathways. This view also accepts that human beings are capable of intervening in the world in a purposive way driven by socio-structural tendencies, forces and capabilities. Hence it can be argued that 'there is a dialectical causal path that leads from structure to interests to motives to action and finally back to structure' (Porpora 1989, p. 200). In this instance, there is a dialectical causal path that leads from host countries' collectivities or communities to sending countries and vice versa. This means that education-migration and labour markets' structural expectations are interconnected with international students' expectations, motives (educational and labour) and actions (mobility or migration) in both source and host countries.

If we accept that the relationships that form from human intervention in the world are not a deterministic one, in this case, it can be argued that international student mobility is inescapably shaped by the unacknowledged conditions of action (neoliberal education-migration markets), which in turn generate predictable and unpredictable consequences (Levin et al. 2017, see Chap. 2). This also means that

although individuals are able to exercise agency, they do so within the parameters that have been bequeathed to them by previous social actors (Archer 2010; Pasura 2014b). In this instance, what we know is that governments' education-migration reform policies and skilled labour shortages, amongst other factors, form the broad contextual frameworks that influence the international student mobility phenomenon or relationships that we see today amongst individuals, communities and countries. This nexus is also illustrated in Levin et al. (2017, Chap. 2). Hence it can be argued that education-migration policy frameworks and institutional structures or priorities, as subjects of research, can be used to explain international student mobility especially how it impacts the private VET sector.

The above proposition suggests that:

> …social practice is ineluctably shaped by the unacknowledged conditions of action and generates unintended consequences, which form the context of subsequent interaction. (Archer 2010, p. 226)

Hence this chapter, by drawing on the study of situated realities influencing international students' outcomes in private VET providers in Melbourne, Australia, attempts to illustrate how interconnected and intertwined the marketization of the VET sector and education-migration policy frameworks are with the impacts of international student mobility on VET practices and perceptions about private VET providers in Australia. It also demonstrates that by changing our social structure, particularly by enabling the enrolment of international students in our VET institutions in Australia and elsewhere globally, we changed the way VET is traditionally understood and practiced.

International Student Mobility in the Private VET Sector

In recent years (beginning in the late 1990s), several countries have relaxed their migration rules in the recruitment of international students to study in their tertiary education sectors and to subsequently work in their industry sectors (Modood and Salt 2011; Robertson 2011). In fact some countries have adopted significant reforms to their migration systems, especially post study visa regulations, to facilitate international student transition from study to employment (Modood and Salt 2011; OECD 2013). For example, in the Netherlands international students are allowed to work for 3 weeks after graduation, in Austria they are allowed to change to highly skilled workers with no resident labour market test, in Ireland they can remain for 6 months after graduation to find employment and in Australia there are several visa options they can choose from to include qualifying for permanent residency after completing at least two years of study (Modood and Salt 2011; OECD 2013; Pasura 2014a).

Increases in international student mobility in the OECD countries, particularly in Australia, Canada and the UK, and some countries of the EU, have been influenced by governments' education-migration reforms, which used neoliberal economic

frameworks to encourage the participation of full-fee paying international students and private VET providers (ABS 2011; Anderson 2005; Modood and Salt 2011; OECD 2013; Robertson 2011; UNESCO 2013). In Australia, this is illustrated by successive budget cuts into the government-funded Technical and Further Education (TAFE) sector, which began in earnest in the late 1990s (Anderson 2006b; Taylor et al. 1997). In the UK, in the late 1980s, a policy shift from education as aid to education as trade also influenced international student mobility (Modood and Salt 2011).

Others have also argued that international student mobility demonstrates a new generation of mobile young people eager to learn and expand their global career prospects (Pasura 2014b; Tran and Nyland 2009, 2013; UNESCO 2013; Kaleja and Egetenmeyer 2017). In this instance, international student mobility in VET is viewed as a pathway to the development of skills that can be utilized globally. This means that international students gain skills that can be used in their home or host countries, as a means to personal achievement and self-development or as a pathway to university entrance or a pathway to a successful global career (Pasura 2014a; Tran and Nyland 2009, 2013). Hence there is merit in the argument that the primary goal of most international students in studying abroad is to gain an international qualification in order to be competitive in the globalized labour markets (Kaleja and Egetenmeyer 2017, Chap. 4).

But, governments' education-migration policy changes, which influenced international student mobility, for example in Australia and the UK, set up discourses in which 'international students were seen as cash cows for educational institutions, reducing the need for state funding' (Modood and Salt 2011, pp. 133–134). For example, 'international education activity contributed $16.3 billion in export income to the Australian economy in 2010–11' (ABS 2011, p. 3), whilst in the UK by 2004–2005, it is estimated that the economic benefit was around £5.5 billion in fees and other spending (Modood and Salt 2011, p. 133).

In addition, between 2002 and 2009, international student enrolments in VET in Australia grew at above 10 % on an annual basis, graduating above 4 million students (AEI 2010b; Robertson 2011). In the UK, for example, in the academic year 2008–2009, there were 205,000 non-UK domiciled students doing full-time and part-time study (Modood and Salt 2011).

> The number of students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of citizenship increased more than threefold, from 1.3 million in 1990 to nearly 4.3 million in 2011, representing an average annual growth rate of almost 6 %. (OECD 2013, p. 1)

In the UK, Denmark, the Netherlands, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and countries of the EU, educational institutions drive this global education market in the selection, recruitment and promotion of international students (Modood and Salt 2011; OECD 2013; UNESCO 2013). In the USA and Europe, international student mobility has been going on for more than a century, whilst in Australia the participation of international students in the education sector is an extension of two political decisions: the Colombo Plan of the 1970s and the neoliberal education reform policies of the late 1990s.

> In the late 1990s, the nexus of education and migration policy began, which facilitated a fundamental shift from international students as transients/sojourners to potential residents/workers/citizens. (Robertson 2011, p. 2194)

The literature also suggests that international student mobility is aligned with the ideas of globalization and the knowledge economy, which have been used by most governments to construct strategies for legitimating the development of educational policy reforms (Lauder et al. 2006; Rizvi and Lingard 2010; Taylor et al. 1997; Wolf 2011). Governments of the world are pouring billions of dollars into education reform initiatives: on pre-schools, universities, vocational education and training, new apprenticeships and modernization of education facilities and vocational education and training and in schools in order to remain competitive in the global economic market (Anderson 2006a; Wolf 2002).

There is an unprecedented global consensus and faith in education to deliver economic success, which is driven by our views of the current rate of technological change, globalization, the economy and competition (Wolf 2002). But the debate, nature and effects of globalization are complex and contested (Avis 2012; Rizvi and Lingard 2010; Robertson 2011). Yet despite these contestations about the meaning of globalization and the differences in the ways in which countries are governed, governments have promoted the ascendency of neoliberalism and globalization in the governance of VET (Avis 2012; Rizvi and Lingard 2010).

The notions of up-skilling, wellbeing and improved standards of living continue to be unproblematically associated with the development of economic competitiveness and education reform movements (Avis 2012; Brown et al. 2011). This faith in neoliberal economic markets sees no contradictions arising from the development of the workforce to address the needs of capital with the interests and aspirations of those participating, especially those in VET and groups at the margins of society (Avis 2012; Brown et al. 2011; Pasura 2014b).

In Australia, 'the most important element of VET reforms has been the development of a competitive training market' – marketization (Anderson 2006b, p. 13). Marketization, a process 'where market forces of supply and demand are driven by the principles of competition and choice' (Anderson 2005, p. 30), has been used as a platform to sell VET products and services (courses) globally. This economic view (marketization) of the world today and its implementation in Australia, New Zealand, the UK and most countries of the world has transformed the education sector and VET providers in particular into places of trade and commerce (Anderson 2006a). In fact it can be argued that 'nearly everything in the education and schooling sector is for sale' (Mcdonald et al. 2008, p. 8).

In fact, it can be argued that the VET provider space in Australia has been redefined to offer education and training products and services subject to market forces of supply and demand, subordinating VET to business and corporate interests (Anderson 1999, 2006b; Avis 2012). Hence there is merit in the argument that VET

> …leaders and managers are being challenged to strike some balance between managing the business and managing the educational imperatives in their organizations, in a context where the operating conditions of registered training organizations are becoming more diverse with the growth of private providers…. (Harris and Simons 2012, p. 12)

But, the neoliberal belief in market forces unproblematically assumes that all people have the capacity and means to make informed choices in pursuit of self-interest, whilst the government's role is to empower these entrepreneurial subjects. This assumption raises fundamental questions about the individuals participating (international students) and possible outcomes. Can a poorly educated citizenry in a segregated non-equitable political environment make informed choices? If market choices are limited, can governments adequately steer the competitive VET market and make it fair? The above questions bring forth debates about our contemporary notions of VET, particularly its purposes, focuses and impacts in a globalized context. Whose interests are being served in this market in Australia or elsewhere globally?

The Study Approach

The data reported here are drawn from a broad PhD study and fieldwork in seven private VET providers in Melbourne, Australia. The study was conceived and designed as a holistic exploration and analysis of the situated realities influencing international students' outcomes in private VET providers, particularly the influence of the marketized model for VET on this sector. It used the mixed methods approach, which included both qualitative and quantitative methods. This approach yielded five data sets from the study sample of 194 international students, 19 VET teachers, four training managers and five quality assurance managers. However in this chapter, two data sets are used – in-depth interviews held with training managers and quality assurance auditors – in the analysis of international student mobility and its impacts on the private VET sector. These data are analyzed and reported in this chapter using thematic and interpretive approaches, respectively.

The seven participating private VET providers for international students employed four training managers included in the study, whilst the Australian Skills Quality Authority (ASQA) – the VET regulator in Australia – contracted the five quality assurance auditors interviewed. These two groups of participants were selected for their direct and broad association with private VET providers and their professional knowledge of the requirements of the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF).

Quality assurance auditors in particular are appointed by ASQA to conduct broad-based audits and assess VET providers' ongoing compliance with the AQF standards (ASQA 2013). Compliance audits are scheduled at ASQA's discretion, with the authority of an ASQA Commissioner. The auditor or auditors will discuss with the provider the most appropriate site or sites to visit in order to conduct the audit. The auditor or audit team, which may include industry specialists, compiles a report or reports about the VET provider's ongoing compliance with the VET Quality Framework (ASQA 2013).

Consistent with the code of conduct for research, all relevant data obtained through the interviews were tape recorded, transcribed and reported anonymously. Participant identity has been kept strictly confidential. Where direct reference is made to any data obtained from the participants, pseudonyms have been used. Throughout this chapter, pseudonyms used to identify training managers are XS, XP, XG and XB, whilst pseudonyms used to identify quality assurance auditors are DW, DN, DD, DC and DB, respectively. In addition, the study findings and the conclusions reported in this chapter must be read cautiously. They are necessarily tentative due to the nature and size of the study sample, particularly the problem of attribution, and the subjective nature of the interview responses of training managers and quality assurance auditors. Their views may be subject to differing interpretations and therefore should be treated as being only indicative of more general relationships.

Competitive Training Markets: Business and Policy Dynamics

In order for us to explore and explain international student mobility and its impacts on the private VET sector, a 2010–2013 study (referred to earlier), which examined training managers and quality assurance auditors' in-depth experiences in private VET provider contexts in Melbourne, Australia, is used here to offer insights into professional interpretations of policies, practices and the consequences for international students' participation in this form of VET. It is argued that because training managers occupy influential positions in private VET provider contexts, they can comment and provide rich insights into their organization's activities, priorities and directions (Anderson 2006b).

In addition, because quality assurance auditors occupy vantage positions in both government and the private VET sector in Australia, they can also offer useful insights into government policy implementation in the sector and how VET quality signals are understood (Pasura 2014a). They can therefore shed more light on contemporary VET discourses, international student mobility and its impacts on the private VET sector. Quality assurance auditors in Australia supervise what can and cannot be done (police human action in context) in the VET sector. Hence their views can be used to explain the influences of the competitive VET market and education-migration discourses (policy frameworks) and relate international student mobility and private VET practices to industry-based training packages, which in Australia describe what competent people in a particular occupation are expected to do.

For example, training packages standards in Australia and National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) in the UK in particular are sold globally to international students (markets) as quality educational products and services. These national qualifications standards reflect an assumed normative – a contemporary local VET

discourse, which is used to attract international students to these countries (host countries). In this instance, the term discourse is used here to mean a set of discursive practices, which set out:

> … the parameters of a field of study or a type of intellectual activity, and establishes a set of rules both for individuals participating in the field of activity and for the theoretical models that they create. (Kennedy 2000, p. 21)

This suggests that training packages and NVQs represent these established rules (discourses), which can be embodied in institutions; they do not stand alone; they often interlock with other discourses. For example, pedagogic discourses can intersect with political, economic and migration discourses (Devos 2003). Hence quality assurance auditors' and indeed training managers' perspectives were useful in explaining private VET contexts relative to government policy expectations and international student mobility.

Reflecting on these policy perspectives, one of the auditors in the study, auditor DW in particular, brought to our attention the nexus between business profitability and training quality – a manifestation of education as a product policy perspective. In fact, auditor DW captured the overall private VET sector sentiment or discursive normative in this sector in Melbourne, Australia, as the following comments show:

> Profit and training are actually not strange bedfellows. The whole purpose of training is to achieve the level of expertise required by the employer, which means the level of profitability. In fact most employers do not have anything to do with training unless they see an outcome that enhances profitability. (DW)

Auditor DW's views, which were repeated by all auditors in the study, reflected the assumptions that inform the Australian governments' neoliberal competitive training market (commodification) model for VET (Anderson 2006b). 'Private providers are always driven by profit. There is no philanthropy in private providers. They're set up to make a profit', argued auditor DN. 'Private VET providers are like any business; they are in the market; they sell products', repeated auditor DD.

The preceding observations and analyses made by auditors are illustrative of the consequences of the Australian government's policy shift from education as aid to education as trade, which used neoliberal economic frameworks to encourage the participation of full-fee paying international students and private VET providers (Anderson 2005; Modood and Salt 2011; OECD 2013; Robertson 2011). In fact their views (auditors' views) reflected the dominant economic view of the world today, which has been used to transform the private VET provider space into places of trade and commerce, subordinating VET to business and corporate interests (Anderson 1999, 2006b; Avis 2012). Hence there is merit in the assertion that nearly everything in the private VET sector is for sale (see Mcdonald et al. 2008).

Indeed the preceding auditors' views were not isolated. All training managers in the study repeated the above quality assurance auditors' views. Training manager XP in particular provided a useful explication of the private VET sector's focuses and the consequences of the marketization model as follows: 'Yes we are there to make money, which is what every business tries to achieve' (XP). Training manager

XP's views were further supported, with a whiff of modification, by another training manager:

> Our business model is set in such a way that whatever profits, whatever amounts we make after we break even from the courses we have on scope, we continue to improve that course. (XS)

Expressing similar sentiments, another training manager provided a nuanced view of their business' focus as follows:

> I think it's a fine line. It's a really difficult balance to maintain business profitability while maintaining quality training. But if you can't maintain business profitability you go under. (XG)

Training managers XP, XS and XG's perspectives were consistent with Mcdonald et al. (2008) and Harris and Simons' (2012) views about education markets. They argued that private VET sector leaders and managers are being challenged to strike some balance between managing the business and managing the educational imperatives in their organizations and their clients' aspirations and expectations. This suggests that private VET delivery contexts or relationships were altered; they now emphasise commercial business imperatives first and secondarily students' educational goals.

The training managers and quality assurance auditors' views expressed above also reflect policy discourses, which '…are practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak… policy discourses are not objects… they constitute them…' (Ball 2006, p. 48). In this instance, the global competitive VET markets and education-migration discourses define the material circumstances in which international students and private VET providers must act and motivate them to act in the ways they do.

Alternatively, the training managers' views above can be taken to mean that there is a perceived economic value in international student mobility (Robertson 2011). In this instance, international students are seen as valuable contributors to the economy. This means that private VET providers for international students are forced to innovate and adapt to changes in customer demands and expectations in order to remain competitive (Harris and Simons 2012; Wesley 2009). But there are also country-specific policy frameworks which in Australia place conditions for VET provider registration, especially those involved in the international student education business. These policy prescriptions, which guide private VET operations, were evident in the comments made by the same auditors about their role and purposes of quality assurance mechanisms in a competitive training market.

Quality assurance auditor DD succinctly captured this perspective as follows:

> If there were no quality assurance requirements, if there is no ASQA or Victorian Registration and Qualifications Authority (VRQA) regulatory requirements, what you will get is rogue and more rogue private VET providers because my experience with international students' private VET providers from audits is that many of them are in there for a quick buck. They do as little as possible, sometimes nothing at all. They can swindle their customers and sometimes they do. (DD as cited in Robertson 2011)

The above views, by auditor DD, are a reflection of the Australian government's policy response to private VET provider focuses, which emphasise commercial business imperatives and view international students as cash cows (Robertson 2011).

The Australian government's response to the private VET providers' commercial business emphases is also illustrated in the 2011–2012 ASQA report, which shows that approximately 10 % of all registered providers did not meet the required national standards (Pasura 2014a; ASQA 2013). For example, the VET quality assurance authority rejected one (1) in 10 applications from providers seeking to renew their registration in 2013 – a similar percentage to those rejected in 2012. In many cases, the ASQA report suggests that when assessed against the national standards, providers who had been previously registered demonstrated serious noncompliance with the fundamental standards for training and assessment.

The Australian Skills Quality Authority's 2011–2012 report can also be taken to mean that VET providers, particularly private VET providers' focuses in a competitive training market environment, can heavily tilt in favour of commercial business interests at the expense of quality educational outcomes for international students in particular. Hence government quality assurance policy frameworks are used to give confidence to consumers (international student) and to protect them from unscrupulous private VET provider business practices. This government oversight is captured in the following comments made by one of the auditors.

> The Qualifications Authority has to be the Authority. It's the one who finally say yes or no. However, and yes they do have to have a process, you still have to have proper records set up, you have got enough finance to run the college, you have to have learning resources, of course you have to have teachers that are properly experienced and qualified. (DW)

Auditor DB also expressed sentiments similar to those expressed by DW, which were critical of private VET provider motives as follows:

> Private VET providers have emerged because they have seen a business opportunity. Traditionally these private VET providers will start up with a very small international student body. Recent changes in migration regulations changed all that resulting in some organizations setting up and within a year enrolling more than a 1000 students. Do they have the know it all to manage this? …It's a business opportunity. Business opportunity is what drives this sector and the legislation is just chasing it. The regulatory requirements are part of consumer protection mechanisms. There is a need for consumer protection. (DB)

It can be argued that the preceding observations made by auditors DW and DB show that private VET learning spaces no longer reflect the traditional training characteristics and boundaries that applied for domestic students, an observation made before by other researchers in this field – Harris et al. (2006) and Tran and Nyland (2010, 2013), to name a few. Or, it can be argued that people, in the course of social interaction, negotiate systems of meaning, which over time become conventions through which individuals relate (Sayer 2010). In this instance, it seems that these private VET institutions now reflect meanings and conventions of the neoliberal economic markets. The participation of full-fee paying international students influenced new systems of relationships for private VET practices at management and

policy level. In fact the above comments show that competitive training markets have their own tendencies, forces, capabilities and motivations (see Porpora 1989).

Alternatively, the preceding quality assurance auditors and training managers' views can be taken to mean that policy mechanisms in this VET sector should not deny the profit emphases of the training organizations. Or, this is yet another example of the interpretation and reinterpretation of policy in context and the discourses that shape business and training relationships in this sector. This can also be taken to mean that mutual dependencies can exist between the training business activity, international student mobility and skills training, but commercial business imperatives will force these providers to innovate in order to maintain their client base and remain competitive in the VET market (Wesley 2009).

However, in contrast with the other auditors' views, auditor DW's earlier argument also reflected the understanding that human activity is built up in relationships between the orientations of the individual and the possibilities for action within the social context (Sayer 2010). This implies that in a competitive VET market environment, international student mobility can influence business profit motives and the host country's private VET provider practices and perspectives and vice versa. Hence the education-migration systems of relationships have a potential to produce intended and unintended consequences.

Private VET Conceptualization and Representation of International Students

It has been argued that 'international students are now located within the discourses of economic globalization [as trade goods]' (Devos 2003, p. 158). Within these discourses are multiple context specific stories or frameworks, which are used to conceptualize and represent them. In this instance, these stories about international students, which have currency at a particular place and time, intersect and reinforce through institutional VET discourses and business practices, the way VET is understood and practiced (Pasura 2014a). However, these stories also need to be read in the context of their times and place (Devos 2003).

In order to understand how international students are conceptualised and represented in these discourses, further insights were drawn from training managers and quality assurance auditors. First, training managers were asked to describe the most important characteristics they emphasized when recruiting international students into their training programmes. Second, after analysing their responses, quality assurance auditors were later asked similar questions and further requested to reflect on the influences of government policy on international student mobility and the student's study choices.

Reflecting on the questions about private VET provider emphases, all training managers emphasized business commercial imperatives first followed by the student's education-migration aspirations as the following comments show. 'We recruit

international students firstly on their ability to pay and secondly on whether they meet the minimum government student visa criteria' (XP). To clarify the 'ability to pay' perspective, training manager XP suggested, 'At least from the agent's point of view that is the student they will direct into these courses' – a student who can afford to pay tuition fees. It is also argued that:

> (I)nternational markets have become a significant focus of competitive activity and a source of income for TAFE institutes and non-TAFE registered training organizations, particularly business colleges. (Anderson 2005, p. 31)

Another training manager offered further useful categorizations that captured broad provider sentiments about international students' aspirations. There are either 'genuine or non-genuine international students in the private VET sector', training manager XS argued. To expand on the meaning of these two categories, training manager XS offered the following broad explanation: 'Genuine students focus on their study whilst non-genuine students are driven by the desire to gain Permanent Residency (PR) only' (XS, parentheses added). Training managers in the study simultaneously used business commercial emphases and education-migration categories to define their international students. Their views broadly reflected dominant and interlocking economic-migration discourses in these providers (Devos 2003), which are used to influence private VET provider enrolment criteria and other subsequent student categorizations.

Quality assurance auditors were asked, 2 months later, to give insights into private VET provider focuses when recruiting international students. Their observations were similar to those made by all training managers in the study. Auditor DC in particular captured broad sentiments expressed by all auditors as follows:

> I think international students are trying to enrol in these courses in private VET providers for permanent residency (PR) purposes. What else? It doesn't matter how you look at it. (DC)

These sentiments (DC), which were consistent with all auditors' perspectives, can be viewed as being indicative of the nexus between education and migration policies, which influenced the way training managers and quality assurance auditors relate to international students in this sector. Indeed if these relationships are widespread and persistent over time, they can be taken to mean yet another confirmation of the debates about international students' issues shifting outside the boundaries of the education sector (see Robertson 2011).

Another auditor further captured a sector-wide broad narrative or the education-migration relationships that inform international student mobility and study choices as follows:

> Yes immigration regulations influence international students' choices. Most of the private VET providers are PR visa factories. You just have to look at what happened when they closed the PR loophole. The market collapsed. (DN)

In Australia, in the 2009–2010 period when the Australian government changed skilled migration visa rules for international student graduates, international student enrolments and commencements in VET plummeted (ABS 2011), a reflection of the

education-migration nexus emphasized by all training managers and quality assurance auditors in the study.

Auditors DC and DN's perspectives in particular further illustrate the existence of established rules embodied in these institutions, rules which do not stand alone (Devos 2003). In this instance, education discourses interlock with migration discourses, whilst political and economic discourses intersect with migration discourses. These interlocking discourses were succinctly captured by one of the auditors as follows:

> Yes immigration requirements and policies are influencing international students' choices. It's the delivery of policies with a potential for employment that have students flock into these courses. It's delivered through policies. For example the enrolments in Hospitality, because they have a migration track, so yes government regulations and policies influence them. However they have plummeted after the immigration requirements changed, yes these policies influence international student choices. Quite logically I mean if I were trying to go into another country that's what I will do as well. (DD)

Indeed others have argued that international student mobility has been driven by the marketization of the education sector, skilled labour shortages and immigration incentives for permanent residency and citizenship (AEI 2010a; Modood and Salt 2011; Pasura 2014a).

It can be argued that the preceding discursive constructions show that there are institutional structural tendencies in host countries that influence international student mobility and how they are represented. Alternatively, the above views can be taken to mean that there is limited knowledge about the 'backpack' of educational characteristics international students carry (Pasura 2014a). Or, it can be argued that the dominant private VET provider commercial focuses impose limitations on the position that one can take in the debate.

Indeed the limitations imposed by the debates about international students and the Australian private VET sector in turn feed into contemporary institutional constructions about how international students are represented and how VET is understood and practiced. In this instance, the training managers and quality assurance auditors' comments make an unhelpful subtle negative connection, which implies that all 'international students' are motivated by permanent residence and immigration aspirations only and not skills training (Devos 2003; Robertson 2011; Pasura 2014b). But, what is the impact of these discursive constructions on the delivery of courses to international students in private VET providers?

Private VET Provider Delivery, Influences and Dynamics

The literature suggests that the marketization of the education sector, in particular the VET sector, has meant that private VET providers (business entities) have to maximise efficiencies whilst delivering quality training to international students (Anderson 2006a; Harris and Simons 2012; Wesley 2009). In fact, private VET providers have to vigorously market their products and deliver courses

cost-effectively to the local and international business clients in order to remain competitive. But it can also be argued that as the enrolment of international students and the participation of private VET providers increased, hastily developed courses are sometimes delivered rapidly, using limited teaching and learning resources (Anderson 2006a; Wesley 2009). Or, it can be argued that the marketization of the VET sector has led to new pedagogic challenges for the VET sector, particularly private VET institutions.

In Australia, qualifications and quality assurance frameworks, which are supposed to make quality training possible, compel private VET providers for international students to use training packages only, which are focused on local industry skills needs (Anderson 2006b). Hence in order to meet diverse local and international students' education-migration expectations and strict quality assurance compliance regulations, private VET providers have to be innovative. This means that the characteristics of an ideal training environment for international students in these learning spaces are context bound and dynamic. In this instance, training managers must maintain a fine balance between business profitability, their customers' education-migration goals and government policy requirements (Harris and Simons 2012).

But, reflections from all quality assurance auditors about VET practices and the availability of teaching and learning resources, which were aptly captured by auditor DC, showed that:

> (T)here is a serious inadequacy in the availability of teaching and learning resources, the workbooks, information books etc. There are a lot of training packages without teaching and learning resources. Most units don't have resources but someone has to create them. (DC)

Auditor DC's views suggest that in market-based models of education spaces, there is a potential for insufficient classroom-based learning materials to support training. In this instance there were inadequate learning resources to support the training packages in the private VET providers in the study. If this observation is correct, it can be taken to be indicative of suggestions made earlier in the literature, which argued that hastily developed courses are sometimes delivered rapidly to international students, using limited teaching and learning resources (see Wesley 2009).

Alternatively, the above views can be taken to mean that there are contestations and contradictions about what constitutes an ideal private VET provider teaching and learning environment for international students in global neoliberal competitive training market spaces. These contradictions were reflected in earlier comments made by auditor DD about the role of quality assurance authorities in this sector. The auditor emphasised the importance of strong government steering and customer protection mechanisms, which are meant to deliver consistency and quality training for full-fee paying international students to make training quality possible and predictable.

Auditor DC's comments above may also be a reflection of the focuses of the training packages model, which is aligned with workplace skills training and not institutional training. Indeed training packages have always been workplace

focused, but most private VET training for international students in Australia is institution based. Hence the private VET provider learning sites are always challenged to simulate workplace scenarios or on-the-job training conditions. Auditor DB captured these course delivery challenges as follows:

> In a traditional classroom setting people cannot meet any unit of competency process. …I think with training packages, there is an inherent assumption that you are in a workplace therefore if you are delivering it in a classroom how do you meet it? How do you make a simulated environment for an assessment? You almost bet your bottom dollar that they can't meet the requirements. (DB)

Whilst all training managers acknowledged that context-based learning resources (workplace learning opportunities) are important in the delivery of courses to international students, they also conceded that they were facing a lot of challenges placing international students in industry for workplace training. Training manager XP in particular provided a sector-wide view and offered the following analogy:

> If you have got 100 students studying a practical aspect of a course, you know we are not an employment agency; to try and get students in industry is too hard, it's not our role. It's not the role of our college. Technical and Further Education (government TAFE) colleges don't do it. We don't have the facilities to do it. (XP, parentheses added)

Training manager XP's views were also consistent with the broad disquiet about training packages in Australia and NVQs in the UK in general (see Smith 2002; Wolf; 2002). In Australia, it has been argued that:

> Training packages comprise rigid and inflexible sets of product specifications… imposed on RTOs regardless of the diverse markets in which they operate and the differential needs of their clients. (Anderson 2006a, p. 12)

The above characterization of training packages also demonstrates the dilemma private VET providers face in the Australian VET sector. They (private VET providers) have to deliver a rigid set of product specifications to hugely diverse student cohorts from all over the globe. In this instance, the private VET provider's ability to choose or innovate in order to meet their clients' (international student) needs is limited by the conditions imposed in the training packages model.

But the broad issue emerging from the training managers and quality assurance auditors' comments above is that there are contestations and contradictions about what constitutes an ideal teaching and learning environment for international students in private VET providers. This observation is also captured in auditor DW's comments. 'Some private VET providers have better facilities and are set up beyond what I have seen in TAFE colleges' (DW). Auditor DW's comments also supported training manager XP's argument, which suggested that it is difficult for private VET providers to offer workplace training for international students. In fact quality assurance auditor DW summarised the general context-based resourcing overview of this sector as follows:

> Of all existing colleges I have probably dealt with, most of them, just about all of them, in fact all of those I recommended were set up to do what they said they were going to do. I certainly know of colleges that didn't do what they said they were going to do but there are a good number that are doing the right thing. (DW)

Auditor DW's observations were also repeated by training manager XG in support of his employer's resources.

> I believe, to a large extent private VET providers offer a good service…99 % of the trainers at most of these providers are qualified trainers hence they offer a good service. The trainers have empathy; they do understand students' requirements. Our organization in particular has terrific facilities. (XG)

The manager's views (XG) contradicted quality assurance auditors' perspectives about the availability of training package teaching and learning resources, a further confirmation that an ideal private VET provider teaching and learning environment for international students in global neoliberal competitive training market spaces is contested.

But, all managers and auditors in the study acknowledged that workplace-based learning resources were important. In fact, auditor DW succinctly captured this perspective and said:

> I maintain that if your student can't get work experience to actually be assessed that they can actually do the work, then what I will expect is ok do it in your workshop but the process required here is that the student must do all the learning. They must have a chance to practise that learning on the actual workplace and when the time is right they must be given a scenario or a case … they must actually be able to go and work on … to find what's wrong and fix it … and say it's working properly. (DW)

Confirming the above observations, training manager XG further said:

> We know that students who're actually working in their selected vocation, in a very short time are much clearer and understanding of the requirements of that area. I believe actually working and doing a lot of work experience in their area of study will definitely increase their employability skills and their impression to the trainers. (XG)

But we all know that workplace skills training is a time-consuming activity, which in this case is limited by the international student's visa time allocation and existing further education and labour market pathways. For example, in Australia there are several student visa options international students can choose from, which are aligned with qualifying for permanent residency after completing at least two years of study. In this instance VET courses' packaging must be aligned with the international students' visa timelines and their labour-migration aspirations.

In the Australian competitive training market contexts, nominal teaching times for each unit of competency are specified in the training packages, and these are usually used to specify the length of the course and student visa timelines. But there is a misunderstanding between the purposes of the nominal hours specified in the training packages and their uses. It is argued that this nominal time specification can create easy business opportunities for profit-seeking private VET providers for international students as auditor DB observed:

> Nominal hours are a funding issue. They are about how government will fund you, if you use government funding and it's about teacher time and not student learning time. It is about how much they will pay to fund the teacher per student. RTOs don't actually do that. It is a funding guide for the government about how much they will pay a teacher per student for that unit. (DB)

These comments illustrate that there are consequences for policy interpretation and reinterpretation in context, which can influence participants to act in the way they do with intended and unintended consequences.

But the VET course delivery time problem is limited by a number of factors, which are the cost of running the programme; international students' limited student visa timeframe; commercial imperatives, i.e. profitability, sustainable throughput, regulatory standards, etc.; curriculum requirements; industry requirements; and students' prior learning experiences and capabilities. These factors are difficult to unpack in this chapter because there are no easy answers, which can address their impact on course delivery, except that they limit the extent of private VET provider resources to deliver quality training. This also means that nominal hours' specifications in course outlines influence the extent of private VET provider investment in workplace resources for practical training, internships or classroom delivery.

Conclusion

This chapter has argued that government policy reforms in the education sector using the competitive training market model influence international student mobility. It suggests that the perceived global skilled labour shortages and immigration incentives for permanent residency and citizenship in host countries are also used as incentives to attract international students to host countries. Drawing on the conception of social structure as systems of human relations amongst social positions, the chapter has demonstrated that these policy reforms have led to a realignment of institutional relationships in private VET providers. This realignment of relationships has altered the way VET has been traditionally understood and practiced. The relationships between training managers (as representatives of private VET providers) and quality assurance auditors (as official government policy supervisors) in these spaces reflect neoliberal competitive training markets characteristics, which promote commercial business imperatives and business-training relationships amongst participants.

The findings suggest that the characteristics of an ideal training environment for international students in these learning spaces changed. There are also contestations between training managers and quality assurance auditors about the adequacy of classroom- and workplace-based teaching and learning materials to support the training packages model in private VET providers. This suggests that there are contradictions about what constitutes an ideal private VET provider teaching and learning environment in competitive training market spaces, which influence the way courses are delivered. Hence training managers in these providers must now maintain a fine balance between business profitability, their customers' education-migration goals and government policy requirements (Harris and Simons 2012).

The realignment of institutional relationships in private VET providers influenced the way international students are conceptualized and represented. International students in these providers are now represented in economic and

migration terms at the exclusion of their educational aspirations and the social characteristics they carry. They are considered firstly as consumers of VET programs and services and secondarily as VET students who want to train in order to gain employment skills. This discursive construction presents a paradox, which positions international students in Australia as cash cows whilst at the same time a big source of permanent skilled immigrants (Modood and Salt 2011; Robertson 2011).

International student mobility and its impact on the Australian VET sector have been influenced by neoliberal economic policy ensembles, which in turn influence perceptions and discourses that inform the structure of the education-migration webs of relationships and practices. Hence there is merit in the argument that the debates about international student issues have shifted outside the boundaries of the education sector with a potential negative impact on international students' outcomes and long-term VET practices.

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Chapter 4
Internationalization in European Vocational Education and Training

Kathrin Kaleja and Regina Egetenmeyer

Abstract In Europe, internationalization and mobility in education are topics of growing relevance. Developments toward the internationalization of the economy are drivers for the increased focus of the European Union (EU) on internationalization and mobility. The EU defined objectives for internationalization and mobility in education (e.g., ET2020) and promotes mobility through the ERASMUS+ program. These developments affect internationalization in higher education, vocational education and training, as well as in secondary education. In this chapter, we analyze the situation of internationalization and mobility in European vocational education and training, as well as the key drivers of the strategy for internationalization and mobility in Europe. What does internationalization in vocational education and training mean in the EU context? Following this question, we explain how the EU understands internationalization and what reasons are given for promoting internationalization. This chapter contains an analysis of how the EU intends to implement internationalization in vocational education and training and of the tools used for internationalization and mobility. Furthermore, we analyze internationalization trends in vocational education and training in Germany resulting from the EU initiatives. These trends are compared to those in another European country, the Netherlands.

Keywords Mobility • Strategy of internationalization • EU developments • Mobility tools

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Internationalization in Europe

In Europe, internationalization is a topic with multiple dimensions. The economy is one of the sectors where internationalization plays an important role. Economic trends also influence the educational sector, because international companies need employees who are qualified to work in international contexts. In addition, changes in society brought on by migration and technological changes, such as Internet access and social media, continue to influence daily life. It can be expected that refugees arriving in the European Union in the second half of 2015 will push society toward more internationalization. The social and economic life of European citizens will change due to technical developments and migration, as well as communication and interaction between people with different cultural backgrounds.

The European Union emphasizes internationalization in the fields of education and training (see European Parliament and Council of the European Union 2009) and develops strategic frameworks for education and training, in which strategic priorities and aims regarding education in the European Union are stated. This framework proposes strategies that can be applied by the member states using an open method of coordination, first implemented by the Council of the European Union (2000) as part of the Lisbon goals. "Open method" means that the European Union agrees on goals or targets, but the member states are free to develop their own strategies and ways to meet the requirements of the specific situation. It provides the opportunity for each country to find its own ways of reaching the objectives in line with the so-called harmonization ban in education postulated by the 1993 European Maastricht Treaty.[1] Likewise, member states are free to adapt—or not to adapt—to the strategic frameworks. Therefore, it is possible that different member states in the European Union develop completely different strategies for reaching the same goal or that one country develops measures to promote the aims of the strategic framework while another member state doesn't. However, this process can be criticized for leading to an "informal constraint" (Schröder 2004 p. 57; in German: *zwangloser Zwang*) through political pressure.

The European Union publishes the performance of European member states toward the agreed benchmarks. These publications can lead to public pressure and can be understood as a governing instrument through "naming, blaming, shaming" (Ribhegge 2007, p. 206). One of those is the number of students engaged in mobility (study abroad) inside the vocational education and training sector:

> By 2020, an EU average of at least 6 % of 18–34 year olds with an initial vocational education and training qualification should have had an initial vocational education and training related study or training period (including work placements) abroad lasting a minimum of two weeks, or less if documented by Europass. (Council of the European Union 2011, p. 8)

Europass is an instrument to show experience, qualifications, and competences in a common format across Europe. Since 1995, the Leonardo da Vinci program (part of the EU Lifelong Learning Program) has provided funding for individual and

[1] The Maastricht Treaty is the treaty on the establishment of the European Union.

group mobility in vocational education and training within the EU. During the lifetime of this mobility program, the number of mobile vocational education and training students has increased (Brandsma and Bruin-Mosch 2006, p. 13). The program was established to provide funding for mobility and cooperation projects that contribute to the objectives of the EU. These have contributed to an increase in the number of mobility phases of students in vocational education and training. In 2007, 74,132 mobility phases of VET students were documented, compared to 85,821 mobility phases in 2010 (European Commission 2015). In 2014, the ERASMUS+ program was established, replacing the Lifelong Learning Program. Several tools were applied to promote internationalization, mobility, and international cooperation under the new ERASMUS+ program.

In the following, we will identify specific objectives in the strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training (ET2020) and analyze the idea of internationalization on which the document is based. Then we will outline different tools that are implemented in vocational education and training in the European Union and contribute to reaching the objectives specified in the strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training.

In addition, based on an analysis of two project reports on internationalization in two European countries (Germany and the Netherlands), we will identify differences and similarities between these two countries. For further analysis, we will include data from national reports on the situation in each country. The EU project "Internationalization & Mobility in the Students Curricula" (INtheMC) was funded by the Lifelong Learning Program from 2010 until 2012 and aimed to improve the quality of mobility experiences in vocational education. A group of eight partner institutions from the Netherlands, Spain, the United Kingdom, Germany, Poland, France, and Lithuania developed learning materials to implement internationalization and mobility in vocational education in each participating country. The project also produced country reports on the current situation of internationalization and mobility in vocational education in each partner country.

Following the INtheMC project, a project on internationalization in secondary education called "Trigger teachers and learners by including new skills and internationalization in the educational program for secondary education" (TRIGGER) was started in 2013. The reports of the TRIGGER project analyze the situation in the field of secondary education and will be compared to the field of vocational education (see Kaleja and Egetenmeyer 2014).

This chapter provides an introduction to the European strategy for internationalization in education and training, as stated in the conclusions on the strategic framework for European cooperation, the characteristics of internationalization, and the reasons for internationalization in the European Union. The characteristics will provide a starting point for the analysis of international and national reports to determine how member countries abide by the EU strategies and how this affects vocational education and training. The reports of two European countries will be analyzed. In addition, data and statistics of other reports provide further input for the analysis. A critical analysis of the reasons for internationalization and its broader impact supplements the analysis.

Reasons for Enhancing European Cooperation

The Council Conclusions in the strategic framework for education and training (ET2020) in general highlight the importance of internationalization for the European Union. Different strategic measures are put forward to support the internationalization process at the individual, institutional, and policy level. In the framework, the European Union explains why internationalization in education and training is important.

The reasons that the EU focuses on are market oriented as mentioned by Tran and Dempsey (2017, see Chap. 1). Economic reasons for internationalization in education and training at the macro-level are "to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world" (Council of the European Union 2009, p. 1) as well as to become "a world-leading knowledge economy" (Council of the European Union 2009, p. 2). The EU understands internationalization as a measure to enhance the competitiveness of the European economy through the exchange of knowledge between member countries. The focus is internationalization within the EU. Education here serves as a "supporting instrument" for economic developments.

The EU Framework argues that individuals also benefit from educational internationalization. It is seen as enhancing people's individual employability and adaptability (Council of the European Union 2009). Through mobility and networking, learners are expected to improve their skills and to have the opportunity to find work in other European member countries. A wider employment market enlarges the opportunities for workers. Additionally, the challenges arising from demographic change and the need to further develop skills for a changing labor market and changing social circumstances are formulated as reasons for promoting internationalization in the European Union. The ability to adapt to changes is not only seen as an economic factor but also as a possibility to adapt to social changes.

Characteristics of Internationalization in the Strategic Framework

The Council Conclusions in the strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training (ET2020) demonstrate that the European Union sees a need for international cooperation in the fields of education and training. The strategic framework highlights different aspects of internationalization: international cooperation; common instruments, tools, and approaches; cooperation and networking; transparency; and mobility.

Common Instruments, Tools, and Approaches

In the context of internationalization, the framework mentions common European *instruments* to promote quality, transparency, and mobility (European Council 2009). In addition, it promotes common reference tools and approaches, peer learning, and the exchange of good practices in the sector of education and training. Some reference frameworks already exist, for instance, the European Framework of Reference for Languages[2] or the Common Framework for Europe Competence.[3] In higher education, the Bologna Process[4] helps remove barriers to mobility by introducing common degrees such as bachelor's and master's degrees and a common European Credit Transfer System (ECTS). Under this system, students can study at any European university and earn ECTS points that will be recognized at their home university. A similar system exists for vocational education and training: the European Credit system for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET) (European Parliament and Council of the European Union 2009). The credit transfer system is supposed to make educational outcomes transferable and comparable. Although ECVET already exists, it is unsure whether a common ECVET system will be implemented.

Cooperation and Networking

The EU targeted higher education as the educational sector for internationalization by implementing a European Higher Education Area. This is also the case for the credit transfer system that was first developed for higher education and then adapted to the context of vocational education and training. The Council states that European cooperation in education and training should be implemented in a lifelong learning perspective (Council of the European Union 2009). Other sectors, including vocational education and training as well as secondary education, focus more on the development of internationalization measures in line with the strategy for 2020 in education and training. The aim is a pertinent and concrete example of European cooperation in the field of education and training, which includes networking with all relevant stakeholders. Through the ERASMUS+ program, institutions in the EU can request funding for collaborative projects with other institutions in the EU. This funding for strategic partnerships is given to partnerships of different European institutions that can demonstrate a work plan to exchange good practices and cooperate for innovation. However, this grant process is very competitive, and applicants have to show how they support European educational policies.

[2] http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/framework_en.pdf

[3] http://www.ryckevelde.be/data/files/CFEC.pdf

[4] http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/higher-education/bologna-process_en.htm

In addition to concrete networking, the strategic framework for European cooperation mentions the exchange of evidence and data within Europe from all relevant European agencies to create and promote European networks and international organizations as one of the aims toward internationalization. The German National Agency,[5] for instance, provides a report on vocational education and training each year. To promote exchanges between stakeholders, Internet platforms like Adam[6] and Eve[7] were created. These platforms are used by institutions that coordinate or participate in a project cofinanced by the European Union to disseminate their project outcomes. Interested stakeholders inside and outside of Europe can access the platform and search for projects on the topic of their interest. The platform shows the contact details of project coordinators to enable knowledge exchange. The ET2020 assists European cooperation through means such as recognition of prior learning activities, conferences and seminars, high-level forums, or expert groups (Council of the European Union 2009).

Transparency

As part of the internationalization strategy, the EU emphasizes transparency between the different education systems in the countries of Europe (Council of the European Union 2009). Enhanced transparency between the systems makes cooperation between stakeholders in the member countries easier. Additionally, learning levels in other member countries can be recognized for certificates in the home country. The ET2020 aims to promote measures to validate nonformal and informal learning, credit transfer systems, common curricula, and quality assurance in the educational systems of European countries. By these measures, common standards for the member countries can be established.

The ET2020 also promotes the exchange of data from all relevant European agencies, European networks, and international organizations, as mentioned above. The aim is to exchange knowledge between all relevant stakeholders in education and training within the European Union and to increase transparency concerning the educational system in the member countries. The exchange faces language-related barriers. Most European agencies publish their knowledge in their mother tongue, making it very difficult for nonspeakers of that language to access this information.

[5] The ERASMUS+ funding program is administrated through the Executive Audiovisual Agency; in the member countries, national agencies administrate parts of the funding program.

[6] http://www.adam-europe.eu/adam/homepageView.htm#.VH37i8k62ZA

[7] http://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/projects/

Mobility

The ET2020 states the aim to promote mobility as part of lifelong learning (Council of the European Union 2009). In particular, physical mobility between countries in the field of higher education is a strategic priority of the ET2020. In addition to mobility in higher education, benchmarks for vocational education and training and teacher mobility are expected to be extended. To promote mobility, the ET2020 aims to eliminate barriers and to expand opportunities for learning mobility within Europe and worldwide, for higher education, and for other levels of education (Council of the European Union 2009, p. 8).

The strategic framework explicitly mentions mobility, a part of internationalization, as one of the strategic objectives. In this strategic objective toward mobility, the European Union aims for an expansion of learning abroad periods for learners, teachers, and teacher trainers. It shows that mobility is seen as a crucial aspect of internationalization in the European Union and can be understood as one part of internationalization.

International Cooperation Within ERASMUS+

In the ET2020, international cooperation is considered to be an important objective. To foster and promote international cooperation between stakeholders in education, the ERASMUS+ program provides funding for mobility and international cooperation for various purposes. The aim of the program is to support mobility and international cooperation. It provides funding for activities enhancing mobility and international cooperation. The ERASMUS+ program replaced the Lifelong Learning Programme, which ended in 2014. The program provides new possibilities for mobility and cooperation (see Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung 2014, p. 437).

ERASMUS+ is one of the European Union's programs to enhance internationalization and cooperation in Europe. The program provides several options to support projects financially. Projects can be devoted to the individual mobility of students and learners (including university students or teachers) but also to cooperation. Cooperation can include exchange programs between schools or the establishment of a development project in collaboration with different partner institutions.

Institutions in vocational education and training that want to apply for funding in the ERASMUS+ program can apply for a mobility charter. The mobility charter supports institutions in developing their internationalization strategy. In addition, it is an award for an institution: The institution needs to have a track record of successful mobility projects and an internationalization strategy. Obtaining a mobility charter enables institutions to save time when applying for funding. Institutions can apply for the charter by describing their efforts in internationalization and showing at least three successfully completed mobility projects. The problem with the charter is that institutions with little or no experience in internationalization and mobility

find it more difficult to obtain the charter than institutions already active in internationalization. As a consequence, this kind of support is more likely to reach the experienced institution than the inexperienced institution.

In addition to the mobility charter, the ERASMUS+ program provides an eTwinning program. The eTwinning program is a Europe-wide network of schools of all school types, from primary education to vocational education and training and upper secondary education. It supports networking between schools and provides opportunities to work together with other schools in joint teaching projects. It can also be used to plan mobility or to search for partners. According to the website of Germany's National Agency,[8] schools from 36 countries participate in the eTwinning program as at [27.06.2015].

All the EU-funded projects mainly provide financial support to projects organized by ERASMUS partners. The internationalization tool mainly provides support for internationalization within Europe.

Common Tools and Approaches for Transparency and Mobility

Several different tools have been developed to create common approaches that contribute to transparency and mobility in vocational education and training. They include the European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET), the European Quality Assurance in Vocational Education and Training (EQAVET), or Europass.

ECVET is a European credit system for vocational education and training. It aims to enable VET students to transfer their credits to other European countries. The credit system is focused on learning outcomes. Learning is therefore more transparent and can be transferred between different European countries (e.g., Nationale Koordinierungsstelle ECVET 2015). Learners can have their competences recognized in one country and transfer them to another. This form of portability enhances mobility efforts.

EQUAVET is a tool for European Quality Assurance in Vocational Education and Training. The idea is to develop and improve quality assurance in European systems of vocational education and training in the context of the implementation of the European Quality Assurance Reference Framework. EQAVET is a community of practice. Members and national experts share experiences and build common principles, indicators, and tools for quality improvement. The Reference Framework is a framework to enable vocational education and training institutions to document, develop, monitor, evaluate, and improve the effectiveness of their quality management. The model includes four phases: planning, implementation, evaluation, and review (CEDEFOP 2009).

[8] http://www.etwinning.de/mitmachen/was-ist-etwinning.html

In addition to the quality tools, the European Qualification Framework (EQF) is focused on more transparency in education and may also lead to a kind of harmonization in European education. It is a tool to translate and compare qualifications in Europe. It consists of eight different levels that describe knowledge, competences, and skills based on learning outcomes. Each country has a National Qualification Framework, which can be compared to the EQF. For students who want to apply for an internship or studies abroad, the Europass products are tools to show competences and experience in a transparent way. The tools consist of the European Curriculum Vitae, a language pass, a mobility pass, and a diploma supplement. They provide a common structure to show competencies.

Chances of Mobility in VET

The National Agency in Germany surveyed VET students who completed a 1–24-month internship abroad (cf. European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training 2014). Researchers gathered information on the internships from students, teaching staff who supervised the internship, and the institutions that received and sent students (Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung 2012). From the perspective of staff, the purpose of the internship was to develop students' independence, self-confidence, employability, and teamwork skills (Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung 2012, p. 36). The students received a questionnaire to give their perspective on the competencies they developed through their internship. Respondents reported the development of personal skills and methodological skills, as well as improved decision-making and responsibility (Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung 2012, p. 76). The main competencies that students reported to have resulted from working abroad were reliability, persistence, and teamwork skills. They added more, but the students with internships abroad assessed their competences higher than those with internships in the home country (Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung 2012, p. 82 f.). The teaching and learning staff who supervised the internships abroad also described students' development. They said that students developed independence, self-confidence, flexibility, and teamwork skills (Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung 2012, p. 84f.).

Gisevius (2008) describes the effects of exchanges on pupils who spent a year abroad. She analyzed how a year abroad positively affects intercultural sensitivity, openness toward other cultures, knowledge about foreign cultures, foreign language skills, interaction and friendships with persons with different cultural backgrounds, and other aspects. Pupils become familiar with the situation in their host country, including teaching and learning methods, the structure of higher education in other European countries, cultural aspects, and so on. These insights can help students improve their own career prospects in other countries.

Influences of the EU Strategy on National Developments in Germany and the Netherlands

In Germany and the Netherlands, vocational education and training starts at the age of 16 (Bastiaannet and Kroese 2011; Rüffin 2011). More information on the VET system in the Netherlands can also be found in Bastiaannet (2017, Chap. 11). Germany has a dual system of vocational education and training. "VET students study in two learning environments: in companies and in vocational schools" (Rüffin 2011, p. 4). This unique system, which is not found in most other European VET systems, can stand in the way of internationalization in German VET, because mobility and international education programs require cooperation between VET schools and companies. In the Netherlands, this is not the case, because VET students are trained in VET schools for the most part. Cooperation between VET schools and companies is not coordinated in the same way as in Germany.

Both countries have worked on the development of a National Qualification Framework with reference to the European Qualification Framework. Following the National and International Reports from 2011 (Bastiaannet and Kroese 2011; Rüffin 2011; Egetenmeyer et al. 2011), the implementation of the National Qualification Frameworks was planned for 2012.

To participate in ECVET, countries are expected to develop national adaptations. In the Netherlands, "outcomes are very diverse and varied, and need more study" (Bastiaannet and Kroese 2011, p. 7). In Germany, the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) started a project called "Development of a Credit System for Vocational Education and Training" (DECVET) in Autumn 2007, focusing on the implementation "of a credit system for recording, transferring and giving credit for learning outcomes and competencies from one sub-area of vocational educational training to another" (Hippach-Schneider and Toth 2009, p. 18). The implementation of DECVET still has to be developed further (Hippach-Schneider 2009, p. 17)

There is little systematic, in-depth research on internationalization and mobility in VET in the European Union and many member states. One study called "MoVE-iT: A comparative study on mobility in IVET in 33 European countries" by Brandsma and Bruin-Mosch was conducted in 2006. It provides information on the number of VET students participating in mobility in the years 2002–2005, on how to stimulate mobility policies and programs, on the stakeholders in initial vocational education and training (IVET) transnational mobility, as well as on benefits of and obstacles to mobility. This study shows that the number of students in VET increases each year in all member countries; in Germany and the Netherlands, it has more than doubled between 2002 and 2005 (Brandsma and Bruin-Mosch 2006, p. 16).

The results of the study by Brandsma and Bruin-Mosch (2006, p. 24) show that the mobility rate in VET was below 1 % in most countries. Germany and the Netherlands have a similar low level of participation in mobility programs: In Germany, 0.4 % of VET students participated in a transnational mobility program; in the Netherlands, it was 0.5 % (Brandsma and Bruin-Mosch 2006, p. 24). According to the German Federal Institute for Vocational Training (BIBB),

participation in VET mobility programs has increased recently, with 4 % of VET students in Germany participating in a mobility program in 2014 (Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung 2014, p. 425). The EU proposes an increase in the number of mobile VET students to a minimum of 6 %. The German government goes further and aims for at least 10 % of VET students spending at least 2 weeks learning abroad.

The Leonardo da Vinci program was one of the most popular mobility programs in vocational education and training in EU countries in 2013. In that period, the program funded 20,000 vocational education and training students in 700 projects (Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung 2014, p. 435). In addition, the Leonardo da Vinci program established a certificate of mobility. Experienced institutions with a strategy toward internationalization can obtain this certificate. Since the certificate was established, 130 certificates have been granted. The certified institutions work on the internationalization of their study programs and train their staff internationally (Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung 2014, p. 436).

In 2012, the German government enacted a law for improving the recognition of vocational qualifications acquired outside Germany (Anerkennungsgesetz). In 2012, 10,989 people applied for recognition of VET qualifications earned abroad. An online tool (Anerkennungs-Finder) established in 2012 provides information on jobs that can be gained based on the recognized qualification.

Conclusions

The above outline of internationalization in the European context has shown the instruments and tools that were established in the past few years and the results so far. The situation in vocational education and training in Germany is different from that in the Netherlands. In Germany's dual system, practical knowledge and experience are gained at the workplace, whereas schools focus mainly on theoretical knowledge. This setup requires strong cooperation between schools and employers. In the Netherlands, by contrast, schools also provide practical knowledge and experience. Therefore, the possibilities and needs in terms of addressing European strategies are different. For instance, implementing VET student mobility in Germany has to involve the school, the student, and the employer, who has to release the student from work. This can be an obstacle to mobility.

There is no question that Europe needs internationalization in education. European citizens need to be able to interact in more and more internationalized contexts. This is not only true of economic and political contexts, as EU officials like to argue in their papers. European societies are becoming more and more international and internationally dependent. Major international crises, such as fiscal challenges in the Eurozone, political conflicts and wars that do not stop at Europe's borders, and the worldwide refugee situation, mean a big challenge to Europe and individual European states. This creates the need for supporting European citizens with improving their understanding of interdependencies and of each other (cf.

Egetenmeyer 2016, p. 19). One of the big European challenges is to get people on board in this international development.

Developing an understanding of interdependencies and of each other is a challenging task. But it is more challenging in VET than it is in higher education. As educational programs in VET are developed in much smaller units, organizing and including internationalization and mobility phases is more complex. Moreover, different stakeholders have to agree on this integration. Furthermore, VET programs are much more nationally specific in their design than higher education programs. Transfer and recognition instruments are much more difficult to handle in this context.

Although the various tools for internationalization and mobility provide several possibilities to conduct a mobility program in vocational schools, the resources needed to achieve the mobility aims are limited. Stakeholders in vocational education and training are required to support the mobility periods of young people. This means that vocational schools and companies are required to provide information about, assist with, and support mobility periods, which requires cooperation between schools, employers, and students. For young people, this can cause pressure, as they have to find individual ways to participate in a mobility program in cooperation with vocational schools. They need to find an agreement with their employer to be released from work for the mobility phase. If the employer is not willing to release the student from work, or if the school is not willing to release the student from school for the mobility phase, this can mean that they have to do their mobility phases during their holidays. In addition, mobility abroad causes insecurity and challenges that young people have to cope with while abroad. If they participate in individual mobility phases, they might need to learn a new language, and while abroad, they need a contact person to support them in organizing their stay. Usually this would be a representative of the host school or the organization offering the internship. This contact person needs resources to support mobility.

As the European Union's arguments for internationalization and mobility are primarily economic, the dominant outlook is that of an "all-around well-skilled internationally flexible employee." Whereas employees who may be used anywhere in Europe may seem like the perfect solution for a dynamic European employment market from a political or macro-level point of view, this can mean high pressure for individuals. It can pressure people into learning languages, being open to working in international contexts, and being mobile to move where the jobs are. This creates a picture of a European that can also lead to resignation and outright refusal of Europe and any kind of internationalization. It is a major challenge to get all people on board in this process of internationalization—and to avoid creating two classes of people: those who go abroad and those who stay at home. This involves the danger of big societal conflicts.

On a policy level, the analysis of the ET2020 shows that internationalization is focused on internationalization in Europe. The idea of the strategic aims is to boost Europe's competitiveness in the global economy. Cooperation and mobility involving countries other than the ERASMUS partner countries has only recently come into the focus of the European Union. Internationalization is still more or less

conceived as Europeanization. The tools developed to strengthen cooperation, networking, or mobility are focused on ERASMUS partner countries. Against the background of the current international situation, promoting cooperation between ERASMUS partner countries and other countries is as one important task in the context of internationalization.

Internationalization at the workplace can only be successful if it leads to a development in society that fosters the broad-based integration of internationalization in education. Mobility and internationalization in education not only serve to strengthen the economy but also, and perhaps more importantly, to build a more cohesive and tolerant society.

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Chapter 5
Teacher Professional Development Under the Impact of Internationalization in VET

Ly Thi Tran and Truc Thi Thanh Le

Abstract This chapter addresses the professional learning needs of teachers in the vocational education and training (VET) sector under the changed circumstances of internationalization and international student mobility. International education is Australia's largest service export, contributing over $16 billion to the national economy annually. Australian VET teachers are facing significant professional challenges to engage with pedagogical issues in teaching international students. However, there has been a lack of research on how teachers are equipped to effectively cater for international students and respond to the demands of internationalization in VET through professional development. Drawing on empirical research and positioning theory, this chapter analyzes the impact of the presence of international students on VET teachers' professional learning needs and practices. The findings suggest the need to systemically and explicitly support substantive professional learning with regard to approaches to engaging and teaching international students. The findings in particular show teachers' aspiration for deep and responsive capacity building and professional learning concerning three primary areas including understandings of international students' backgrounds and motives for undertaking Australian VET, currency with research on international students, and capacity to develop pedagogies responsive to this cohort. Professional learning centered on these areas is essential to foster conditions for the generation of a more truly student-centered and international student-responsive practices among teachers.

Keywords International VET • Teacher professional development • Pedagogy • International students • Professional learning

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Introduction

Internationalization has been seen as both a crucial response to the demand to develop global competency for graduates in the current globalized labor market and an outcome of the neoliberal marketization trend (also see the introductory chapter) in many Western countries. The vocational education and training (VET) sectors in Australia, Canada, the USA, and many European countries have been engaged in internationalization practices for over three decades. Internationalization of vocational education and training often includes student and staff mobility, internationalization of teaching and learning, transnational institutional partnerships and industry networks, and the involvement of aid, consultancy, and development activities in the developing regions (Tran and Dempsey 2015). However, in the Australian VET context, the recruitment of international students onshore and offshore has become a dominant dimension of internationalization. The main aim of this activity is to generate income for institutions in the context of decreased public funding for VET.

Overall international education is Australia's largest service export, contributing over $16.6 billion to the national economy annually (Hare 2015). Of the 464,787 international students enrolled in 2015 in the four major education sectors (VET, higher education, English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students and Schools), about one fourth are in VET courses (AEI 2015). The VET sector has recently emerged as an important player in international education in Australia. Australian VET teachers are facing significant professional challenges to engage with pedagogical issues in teaching international students (Nakar 2012, 2013; Pasura 2015; Tran 2013a, 2015; Tran and Nyland 2013; Tran and Soejatminah 2016). However, there has been a lacuna in scholarly research on how teachers are equipped to effectively cater for international students and respond to the demands of internationalization in VET through professional learning. Teachers of international students in Australian VET have to navigate challenging cross-cultural expectations and different educational practices (Tran 2013a, b). Yet little is known about their professional learning needs and practices. The research reported in this chapter responds to this dearth of literature by examining what teachers perceive as their professional learning needs in relation to working with international students and how their needs have been catered for by their institutions and the VET system.

This chapter is derived from a 3-year research project examining staff professional learning (PL) needs and practices in international education in Australia. It focuses mainly on teachers' PL needs within the contemporary context of international VET. The research design deployed a qualitative approach with interviews, observation of PL activities, and policy analysis as the main instruments of data collection. This paper mainly focuses on the data from semi-structured interviews with 30 participants. This research uses Harré and van Langenhove's (1999) positioning theory as a conceptual framework to interpret the interview data. Positioning theory provides powerful conceptual tools to shed light on how teachers position their own PL needs in relation to the institutional structure, policies, and other social

fields in which their profession and their work of educating international students are embedded. Drawing on positioning theory, the research found teachers' identification of PL needs related to their work of teaching international students being centered on enhancing knowledge about international students' backgrounds and motives for undertaking Australian VET, currency with research on international students, and development of pedagogies responsive to international students' language and cultural issues. The research uncovers the importance of placing these dimensions at the center of teacher professional learning. It also suggests the need to adopt a deep and responsive teacher capacity building approach to enhance the quality of teaching and learning for international students. In particular, it indicates a critical need to tailor professional learning for VET teachers in a way that is *responsive* to their changing core professional responsibility and to the emergent demands of the teaching and learning environment in which they operate.

Teacher Professional Learning in Internationalization and in VET

Although the issue of internationalization of education has attracted growing research over the past two decades, the majority of this research body is concerned with the higher education (HE) sector rather than the VET sector. Primarily motivated by neoliberal market-driven principles, Australian VET reforms since the late 1990s have led to a decrease in government funding for VET, the increasing participation of private providers, and the commercialization of VET. Historically VET was not a significant player in the international education field and had limited capacity to develop the knowledge and experience needed to prepare teachers for working with international students (TAFE Directors Australia 2011). Yet VET was the fastest growing sector in the number of international student enrolments between 2005 and 2009 and currently ranks second behind the HE sector (AEI 2015) despite the turbulence caused by the collapse of a number of "dodgy" private colleges in 2010 and changes to Australia's skilled migration policy. Remarkably, the latest figures show that currently the number of international student commencements in VET (55,898) is not much different as compared to those in HE (66,034) (AEI 2015). For many private VET institutes, their entire student body consists of international students (Tran 2013b; Tran and Pham 2015). VET teachers face an increasing demand to utilize a range of pedagogies, skills, and capacities beyond their traditional expertise and experience to address international students' different learning approaches (Tran 2013a, b).

Existing scholarly work on teacher professional learning in international higher education tends to be mainly concerned with how teachers engage in professional learning regarding the internationalization of the curriculum and the academic "Self" (Green and Whitsed 2012; Leask 2013; Sanderson 2011). Yet teacher professional learning in international VET is subject to a different sectorial context

characterized by the competency-based training system and the demand to keep updated with industry currency. In addition, the recent VET competitive funding arrangement (Productivity Commission 2011) has led to an increasingly casualized teaching workforce aiming at cost reduction for VET institutes. There is change in the nature of VET teachers' work as their professional roles have expanded and diversified (Guthrie 2010; Hawke 2008; Tran and Nguyen 2015). Research reveals that unlike HE lecturers, many VET teachers also work as international student support officers (Tran and Nguyen 2015).

There is a critical lack of empirical research on VET teacher professional learning, especially from the lens of teachers themselves (Guthrie 2010; Hawke 2008). Existing professional development in VET is mainly concerned with the provision of support for staff engagement with the relevant industry and the need for teachers to undertake formal training to acquire teaching skills. The most notable commitment from the Australian government on enhancing VET teachers' professional development is encompassed in the workforce development strategy with a total investment of $240 million (Skills Australia 2010). Within this government initiative, professional learning has been framed as a way forward to improve the VET quality and enhance VET workforce capacity. Yet this strategy proposed by Skills Australia (2010) largely focuses on the need to keep teachers updated with the developments of Australian industry.

Though research on VET teacher professional learning indicates continuing professional learning is integral to the quality of the VET teaching workforce and to the learning outcomes of students (Guthrie 2010; Harris et al. 2007; Hawke 2008; Wheelahan and Moodie 2011), there is a lack of a cohesive approach to addressing the issue of teachers' ongoing professional learning. Findings of commissioned projects researching the quality of VET teaching and VET teacher qualification also highlight the crucial role of continued professional development (Guthrie 2010; NVEAC 2011; Wheelahan 2010). The (former) Australian Workforce and Productivity Agency considers it critical "to ensure all VET teachers, in both public and private sectors, and throughout Australia, have access to quality VET professional development" (AWPA 2013, p. 13). Scholars in the field have showed support for more professional learning for VET teachers, including those involved in teaching international students. Nakar (2012) advocates for the enhancement of the opportunities for teacher qualification and practical training, especially continued professional learning about teaching international students. In a similar vein, Billett et al. (2013) comment that "the expansion and diversification of VET practitioners' roles demands high levels of continuing professional development that meet the immediate and changing requirements of contemporary VET professionals" (p. 11).

Professional learning activities can take place in various ways including formal and informal, accredited and nonaccredited, and collaborative or individual. Currently, VET teachers are required to have a Certificate IV in Training and Assessment. This formal, accredited PL requirement, however, is under scrutiny because experts in the field (e.g., Clayton 2009; Smith and Grace 2011; Wheelahan and Moodie 2011; Williams 2010) question its quality and adequacy in equipping teachers with the necessary knowledge and skills to perform their professional roles

and tasks, which have expanded and diversified greatly in recent years. Some scholars argue that while the Certificate IV is sufficient at entry level, teachers should be encouraged to participate in accredited courses at higher levels, such as the Diploma of VET, which is framed based on principles of critical pedagogy and transformative learning in order to develop and apply theoretical concepts to their teaching and management practices (Miles 2013). What is problematic for VET teachers of international students is that these qualifications normally aim at providing the learners with the fundamental knowledge base and skills to perform their teaching in general and for local students whose first language is English, rather than attempt to accommodate teachers' needs arising from their distinctive professional practices of teaching international students.

Apart from the accredited professional learning activities, VET teachers might be engaged in a wide range of formal and informal, nonaccredited PL activities. It is well documented that the single, one-off, event-based professional learning workshops are still dominant in current VET professional learning practices (Guthrie and Clayton 2010; Harris et al. 2001; Wheelahan and Moodie 2011). According to Wheelahan and Moodie (2011), the majority of PL programs in the VET sector are "event focused," rolled out "just in time" (p. 49). Even though this "expert," "technical" approach to professional learning has received criticism for its ad hoc nature and its lack of profound, long-term impact on teachers' practice, Knight et al. (2006) claim that it still "has a place, especially when it comes to bringing new ideas or practices into currency, perhaps in response to changes in national and local policies" (p. 333). Recent research on teacher professional learning points to a shift from the traditional "technical" approach which is characterized by professional learning didactically delivered by an expert in a one-off workshop to the participatory paradigm in which professional learning is reenvisioned as agentic and expansive and encourages more sustainable active participation of the part of teachers (Hardy et al. 2010; Warhurst 2008).

Positioning Theory as a Framework to Conceptualize VET Teachers' Professional Learning Needs

This research uses Harré's positioning theory to examine the professional learning needs of VET teachers and the problems confronting them under changed circumstances. Positioning theory (Harré and van Langenhove 1999) discusses how discursive practices can be unpacked in terms of positioning and repositioning as part of an ongoing process of an individual's interaction with others and the community. Individuals' intentions, expectations, and perceptions can be revealed through the ways they position themselves and other social actors with whom they interact. In particular, people are not positioned simply by what they say about themselves but also by what other people say (Jones 2006, p. 81), which is referred to as "other-positioning." Therefore, both the individuals themselves and other actors involved

in social discourse and the community in which they are engaged are crucial to understanding individual positioning. Individual positioning and the community are mutually shaped. In this research, the "community" is defined as the institution including actors within the institution and institutional structure and other background conditions which influence how VET teachers position their PL needs. In addition, an individual teacher's professional learning needs are mediated by his/her own subjectivity, personal philosophies, and individual conditions.

Within this research, positioning theory provides specific tools to analyze how teachers are positioned and are reflective on their professional learning needs and engaged in professional learning. Positioning theory stresses the importance of how people's intentional acts can be revealed through the ways they position themselves and others (Harré and van Langenhove 1999). Positioning theory thus allows for an analysis of how teachers position their professional responsibilities and professional learning in relation to the institutional structure, policies, and other social fields in which their profession is embedded.

Data were categorized using NVivo software. The key aspects of teacher PL needs on which this paper focuses were identified through a thorough process of engagement with the interview excerpts. This process enables the researchers to develop a critical interpretation of the key themes. The key themes are centered on the dispositions of different actors involved in VET teacher professional learning in terms of particular ways of viewing PL needs and nature. In analyzing the positioning of participants, the following three analytical tools from positioning theory have been used:

1. *Deliberate self-positioning* – where a person takes on a particular stance to achieve a particular goal. This category enables the analysis of teachers' stances revealed through the ways they position their PL needs.
2. *Other-positioning* – where taking a position results in positioning the other person in a correlative way. This is applied to analyze teachers' views of their own PL needs in relation to their other-positioning of different actors (e.g., program managers, directors, students) and different social practices in their field.
3. *Forced self-positioning* – where a person performs an act that arises from someone else's positioning. In this study, forced self-positioning is drawn on to analyze how participants position themselves in the ways they think are required of them by different social forces (e.g., the compliance culture, the institutional structure).

The Research

This chapter draws on a larger research project funded by the Australian Research Council. The data includes semi-structured interviews, observation, and field notes with 154 teachers, academics, and professional staff. The analysis in this chapter is concerned mainly with the interview data from 30 of teachers and staff involved in

providing professional learning for teachers in VET. The interview respondents are from a range of disciplines including cookery, tourism and hospitality management, business, finance, accounting, marketing, automotive, and language and literacy.

Interviews were conducted in 2014 and 2015 and each took between 30 and 60 min. They were digitally recorded and transcribed. The interviews were semi-structured and employed open-ended questions. The open-ended inquiry with the individual teacher constituted a process where teachers were engaged in uncovering and reflecting on their professional practices and professional learning needs as well as making connections with the contextual factors shaping their professional needs and practices. The researcher asked a key question related to a specific theme, and the teachers' responses guided the following impromptu questions. The interviews aimed to explore teachers' perceptions on their PL needs and the forms of professional learning in which they had been involved and wanted to participate. To protect the confidentiality of the participants, their names and institutes are kept anonymous.

The researchers read the interview transcripts several times and coded interview data using NVivo version 10. The analysis was inductive and aimed to identify emergent themes and patterns. These primary themes were then analyzed using positioning theory categories as discussed above. The collective stories from the teachers provide both deep insights and a rich picture of how different VET teachers perceived their professional learning needs. Overall, the analysis of teachers' positioning reveals three main areas of professional learning most needed to fulfill their core work of teaching international students. These include the need to enhance their knowledge about international students' backgrounds and motives for undertaking Australian VET, their currency with research on international students, and their capacity to develop pedagogies responsive to international students' language and cultural issues.

Understanding International Students' Backgrounds and Motivations for International Education

International students' motivations and aspirations for studying abroad could be hard and time-consuming for teachers to understand fully because these might be "hidden" and varied. However, a good knowledge of what drives individual students to cross national borders and pursue an Australian VET course is useful for teachers in adopting appropriate approaches to working with international students. The following excerpt illustrates how VET teachers self-position their professional learning needs in relation to this aspect:

> I think it's sometimes hard to extract the back story from the student. In other words, when you spoke about the motivation of students to study overseas, to understand more about their reasons for being here because they're complex and sometimes, I'm able, usually to eventually get to the point with the student but sometimes it's very hidden, the point […] so I think I sometimes spend a lot of time getting to the point. […] But I do think that there are

> international students that are studying for a myriad of reasons and if I was clearer about those reasons, it might make my work quicker […]. I find sometimes there is a mystery that surrounds these enrolments, it's quite deep. (Cate, Hospitality teacher and WIL coordinator)

In line with positioning theory, self-positioning refers to teachers taking particular stances to position their professional learning needs (Harré and van Langenhove 1999). In the extract above, Cate's positioning of the needs for PL in terms of understanding students' motivation stems from her perceptions of the complex "back story" of students' enrolments in current courses. This finding about the complexity of students' motivations for pursuing their education in Australia on which Cate based her professional learning needs resonates with Tran and Nyland (2011), who found international VET students' motivations and intentions are fluid and changeable. It also supports the criticism of stereotyping international students as only desiring permanent residency in Australia: "mere PR hunters" (Tran and Vu 2016).

Also related to the purposes of international VET students pursuing their study in Australia, Helen, a Mobility and Engagement coordinator, other-positions VET teachers' need to develop understanding of students in order to be able to hold a fair perception of them:

> I think of the international student cycle. Why they choose to come out to Australia, how, how it benefits them? How it also benefits us in Australia as well and why it's important that we have international students? Because I think some staff that aren't very familiar with working with international students have this picture in their mind that, oh they just bring the money in and they're not even serious about the course. All they want is migration. And okay that might be an added benefit to some international students but a lot of them, they're all people at the end of the day. They're all looking for a better opportunity. […] And then really genuine students are sort of caught up in it all and don't really get a fair go. (Helen, Mobility and Engagement coordinator)

International students are commonly perceived to pursue their education in Australia for migration purposes (see, e.g., Pasura 2017, Chap. 3). While this can be true for a certain proportion of the international student cohort, Helen warns against VET teachers holding that perspective. From her other-positioning of teachers' needs, professional learning activities should help raise teachers' consciousness of the reciprocal benefits of international VET education for both international students and Australia so that a fair perception and treatment of international students is ensured. This finding reinforces previous studies about the misperception of international students' motivations for international education, which are not necessarily communicated to VET teachers who directly teach international students. Professional learning activities aimed at raising teachers' awareness of this issue provide the necessary foundational knowledge for teachers' attempts to develop appropriate approaches and tailor their programs to cater for the divergent study purposes of international VET students.

Understanding students' motivations is no easy task, but it is a step that is essential for the development of suitable pedagogic approaches and materials for the teaching of this cohort. This is more critical in the VET context as training packages which prescribe the outcomes of VET courses are focused on the industry needs

rather than the students' needs. There has been a wealth of research documenting the link between motivations and academic performance and the importance of understanding students' study purposes in informing teaching, learning, and program design. Thus the positioning and other-positioning of VET teachers' professional learning needs in this regard demonstrate the importance of raising teachers' awareness of international students' complex and different motivations as well as discussing approaches to understanding their motivations in professional learning programs for teachers of international students.

Developing Pedagogical Practices Responsive to International Students' Language and Cultural Issues

There are a few professional learning needs that are positioned by VET teachers themselves and other-positioned by other VET staff members in relation to cultural and language issues. Coming from a different linguistic and academic culture, international students have been found to potentially face challenges in their academic writing due to differences in language structure and academic writing conventions. Rosemary, a VET teacher in language and literacy, self-positions her professional learning needs as to understand the differences between students' cultural background and the host culture and maintains that this should be made explicit and communicated to both students and specialist teachers, who are not familiar with international students' language competence:

> We need professional development that makes those distinctions very explicit so that anybody who's working as a language or learning adviser needs to have those kinds of differences between the cultural and academic culture that students are coming from and what they're coming into. I think we need that kind of professional development, very explicit…. (Rosemary, Language and Literacy teacher)

Some teachers in particular expressed their wish to be exposed to PL activities to enhance their cultural understandings of international students:

> We have to learn that. We've done a bit of culture but I think in my eyes is not strong enough. And we need to learn other cultures, so when we're facing the students we know with what sort of things we deal. I can touch a Chinese student or Korean woman but the Japanese if I touch him it's not a good […] There are lot of things that the teachers they need to learn and the most important thing that they need to learn more is learning the culture of that. I know there are a lot of cultures to learn but you don't have to learn the whole culture of Korea, the whole culture of China, the whole culture of India, the whole culture of Columbia, but key things, key issues about that culture is good to know. (Steven, Automotive teacher)

> And for some of the subjects that have a sociological side to them, such as systems analysis, where part of the, the subject is to understand where information comes from and how to get information, that involves human interaction, the cultural differences between Chinese and Indian and Anglo students becomes more evident, more marked in the, the way that they approach, although they come to approaching people in terms of getting information out. So the development needs of a teacher would be to understand the cultural conventions in the source countries of the students that relate to professional interactions and social interactions. (Ross, Business teacher)

Both teachers in these above excerpts position cultural awareness raising and recognition of cultural difference as being important areas of professional learning they need to engage with. Both thus demonstrate an aspiration to be more informed of cultural norms and cultural differences. Such understandings are essential to the development of culturally inclusive practices that accommodate the diversity of the international student body (Biggs 2001; Tran 2011, 2013c; Tran and Dempsey 2017). However, the two teachers link their PL need to cultural awareness education differently. The first one expects professional learning activities to equip him with some key cultural norms in countries where most of his international students come from so as to facilitate his communication with them in a culturally appropriate manner. How to interact with international students in a culturally appropriate manner has indeed been identified as one of the predominant professional challenges facing VET teachers in a multicultural classroom setting (Nakar 2013; Tran 2013b). Also touching on cultural issues, however, the teacher in the second excerpt associates his professional learning need with the content of teaching and pedagogic work that requires the teacher to develop cultural understandings of the conventions in which students from China, India, and Anglo-Saxon countries accumulate information as part of business courses.

Overall the first teacher's positioning of his professional learning need is more concerned with his development of culturally appropriate interaction with his own international students, while the professional learning need of the second one is geared more toward the professional and social interactions core to their program of study. These expectations of professional learning show teachers' attempts to enhance their professional capacity in engaging with diversity principles and learner-centered philosophies in two different aspects: the interactional as well as subject content parameters. Therefore, it is crucial for professional learning activities to address both dimensions in order to support teachers in their endeavor to adopt and develop culturally responsive teaching and learning. Furthermore, related research indicates that a persistent challenge for teachers is the development of their capacity to move beyond the rhetoric of multicultural and intercultural education theorizing, to becoming multicultural and culturally appropriate in their thinking and actions (Gay 2003). Therefore professional learning practices for teachers of international students need to equip and empower teachers with specific approaches as well as conceptual principles to enable them not only to engage in a culturally appropriate manner but importantly to enact their thinking into the practice of teaching and learning.

In addition to cultural awareness and understandings, teachers' professional learning needs in language awareness are also identified as follows:

> […] some part of the professional development that I provide for other teachers, it's mostly around language awareness, like their own language awareness how they can, not really modify their language but making things clearer. […] those suggestions that I often give is, the sort of, be more explicit about what they're teaching, why they're teaching a specific thing and making that clear to the students so they know how things are linked. […] And, and the differences, like by explaining why you're doing specific things, that might make it easier for the transition for the international students. (Lucy, Professional Learning coordinator)

While teachers' clear communication of ideas and expectations to students is part of good pedagogical practices in general, this is of particular importance if the students are from a different linguistic or cultural background. For teachers who are not familiar with teaching international students, it is important to raise their awareness of such issues because that could significantly improve the quality of teaching and learning thanks to a language barrier being knocked down.

Also related to language proficiency, Maurice points out the differences between his self-positioning and other-positioning of the need to deal with students' English competence:

> Well they [other teachers] believe that the international students haven't got high enough English levels. But I believe that they have. Because I think my job is to teach them English in the technology that we're teaching, where they think that they should already have that knowledge, right? (Maurice, Automotive teacher)

Maurice positions himself as having no need for professional learning in terms of teaching international students. He considers his international students' English competence as adequate to follow his course. However, the above extract shows his other-positioning of his colleagues as experiencing challenges dealing with students' insufficient English proficiency. This signifies the role of personal perspectives in shaping teachers' demand for professional learning.

Teaching Methods for Teaching International Students

International students have different learning characteristics and learning needs which might be unfamiliar to VET teachers. Therefore, VET teachers self-position as their professional learning needs to be trained in different approaches to teaching students. For Cathy, a cookery teacher, it is to be trained in the different ways that students approach things in class and accordingly in diversifying her approaches to delivery. Meanwhile, Ralph, a management teacher, identifies his professional learning need as being linked to how to accommodate the diversity in students' skills and backgrounds:

> Maybe different ways of *approaching things in the way you deliver your classes*. For a lot of things in cookery, in practical units you can't really be flexible but in theory sometimes perhaps you could be a bit more flexible then we are. […] So perhaps *being educated myself in other methods of approach*. […] because this—when I was at school it was like this is the way it's done, whereas this group of students they're different, they have different approaches to study and just to life in general. (Cathy, Cookery teacher)

> I think …the current training methods for teachers in this area are focused on local students. […] or consider the diversity and the differences among international students, who … would range from having basic skills to completely having post graduate degree training all coming into one class, into one class and, and that student cohort's composition is rather very complex. So that skill would enable you to teach students or actually diversity is what I think I might need to gain. (Ralph, Management teacher)

These teachers raise two important aspects of their professional learning needs that are related to accommodating international students' diverse learning approaches and education backgrounds. Importantly, Ralph identifies the distinctive characteristic of the international student cohort enrolled in VET who possess a wide range of qualifications from basic high school diploma to postgraduate degree. This poses a significant challenge to VET educators with regard to tailoring the course to accommodate students' educational backgrounds and expectations. Both teachers position these areas of skills and competencies well beyond their traditional expertise. This echoes the stream of literature which argues that one of the main challenges VET teachers currently face is the need to develop their capability to cater for the changing characteristics of the increasingly diverse student body (Guthrie 2010; Tran 2013b). In self-positioning their needs, the teachers other-position professional learning practices as mainly geared toward domestic students, who might not possess these characteristics. Professional learning practices are thus in need to take into account these aspects if they are meant to prepare and support teachers in catering for the diverse VET student body.

While it is important to develop pedagogical practices responsive to the particular learning characteristics of international students, such training is currently non-existent, as observed by Ralph:

> It, it doesn't exist. I don't know of any teaching institution which teaches the teacher to teach international students. I don't know of any. They don't even reference them. I think that is the most sad thing about this whole, this whole thing. Even when we go back and reflect, even if I reflect on your previous questions it seems to me what you are focusing on is teaching teachers to be able to teach the international students. Is there any institution that teaches people to teach international students? No, there isn't. (Ralph, Management teacher)

The finding about the lack of teacher preparation for teaching international students aligns with previous findings (e.g., Smith and Grace 2011; Wheelahan and Moodie 2011; Williams 2010). There's a contradiction: on the one hand, the recruitment of international students is high on VET agenda as a result of the decrease of public funding for VET; on the other hand, the preparation and professional learning for teachers who work directly with this student cohort is one step behind – imbalance between recruitment and investment in professional learning, which is essential for ensuring high quality of teaching and learning for international students.

Currency with Research on International Students

There is rich literature on international students in Anglophone countries, including Australia, and such literature keeps expanding. The excerpts below show teachers' self-positioning as in need of being updated with new research developments focusing on international students:

> You know, more research, much more research needs to be done to identify the nuances, you know, around that instead of just the big picture thing so Asian students learn

> differently, you've got to teach them how to write linearly. You know, I'm sure, professional development to be at my best at working with international students it would be great if I could find out more about that, you know, to learn more about, to find time to have to look into the more recent research, you know. So what is known about that now, you know, what's taken as true if you like, now, you know? (Jennifer, Language and Learning teacher/advisor)

> I have a lot of experience working with international students but I still think it's important to keep on developing that knowledge and understanding and just finding out what developments are happening in the field, what new understandings can be gained, more understanding about the attitudes that international students might be bringing. Understanding differences between what expectations might be in their home countries compared to here so we can bridge that gap a little bit and sort of try to find a middle way around that. I found the session that [a researcher] did at our conference, that kind of thing is useful to me. Where I'm being brought up to date with some current research about what's going on. And always for me it's I think for us teachers you know, we want practical strategies that we can use I think they are good as well as sort of theoretical understandings. (Linda, Language and Learning teacher/advisor)

While the findings about teachers' self-positioning of professional learning needs in terms of developing understanding and awareness of academic and cultural diversity among international students might not be surprising, teachers' self-positioning of their professional learning needs with regard to keeping current with new research about issues related to international students has not been previously documented. The literature on VET teachers' professional development and learning tends to focus on teachers being forced self-positioned to prioritize industry currency among professional learning needs (e.g., Guthrie 2010).

The analysis of the professional learning needs of the VET teachers in this study does not reveal teachers' strong aspirations for maintaining up-to-date industry knowledge. This can be interpreted in two ways. First, keeping current with industry could be taken for granted and therefore was not often mentioned. Second, interpreted in a positive way, there is a more balance among teachers' needs of maintaining vocational currency and fostering skills to improve teaching, learning, and assessment practices, as Guthrie (2010) suggests, including teaching international students. This compelling finding about teachers' self-positioning of their needs for being updated with new developments in research on international students reveals their professionalism as teachers of international students who take active roles in improving their practices.

Interestingly, as reflected in the second excerpt above, the teacher positions her professional learning need in relation to both practical strategies in teaching international students and theoretical principles underpinning those strategies. This indicates the teacher's aspiration to engage with the pedagogic work and her professional field at a deeper conceptual level, which is a positive sign for enhancing the quality of VET teaching in general and teaching international students in particular. At present, Certificate IV in Training and Assessment as a formal, accredited PL requirement for VET teachers has been criticized by VET experts for its inadequacy in equipping teachers with the necessary knowledge and skills to effectively perform their professional responsibility (e.g., Clayton 2009; Smith and Grace 2011;

Wheelahan and Moodie 2011; Williams 2010). Some scholars argue for the need for teachers to undertake accredited courses at higher levels, such as the Diploma of VET to enhance their professional capacity (Miles 2013). The finding of this research indicates that teachers expect to be involved in their professional learning with regard to enhancing their knowledge about the theoretical principles underpinning teaching strategies. They desire both formal and informal professional activities, for example, attending seminars and conferences and reading, engaging in learning on their own initiative, and participating in ongoing professional dialogue about these aspects rather than simply undertaking the Diploma of VET or other accredited qualifications. However, a coherent, systemic, and supportive institutional structure prioritizing these aspects is necessary for such meaningful professional learning to take place.

Conclusion

This chapter provides the empirical data and in-depth discussions of the professional learning needs of VET teachers with respect to the teaching of international students. The findings of the research are timely and significant in the current context of the VET system that increasingly depends on international student fees due to the significant decrease of public funding for VET institutions. It is more important given that previous research indicates that the current context is also characterized by the professional challenges facing VET teachers and the inadequacy in professional support for them to address the complex needs and unfamiliar learning characteristics of the diverse international student group they are teaching (Tran 2013b). Traditionally VET teachers' voices are "poorly represented in compliance systems" which prioritize "the need to 'adhere to compliance rules' and pass accreditation audits and, therefore, best practice took a secondary position to the needs of compliance systems" (McGavin 2013, p. 2). This research therefore responds to the need to capture the voices of VET teachers regarding a critical issue facing their professional life as well the VET system, that is, the professional learning for teachers involved in teaching the international student cohort.

Overall, the analysis of the interview data shows three primary areas of professional learning that the teachers in this research consider were most needed. These are concerned with professional learning practices designed to improve their knowledge about international students' backgrounds and motives for undertaking Australian VET, their currency with research on international students and their capacity to develop pedagogies responsive to this cohort. The teachers expect professional learning practices that enable them to engage in consciousness raising and uncovering the complex and diverse study purposes as well as cultural characteristics of the international student cohort they teach. The teacher participants identify professional learning that assists them with enacting such awareness and understandings in practice through developing appropriate pedagogical approaches and tailoring their programs to cater for international VET students particularly

important. This professional learning need of the participating Australian VET teachers aligns well with a proposed endeavor in the UK which is to "create a culturally aware and responsive learner centred program which meets the needs of international students" (Fisher and Saunders 2017, Chap. 6, p. 99). A most compelling finding of the research is teachers' aspiration to be exposed to professional learning that keeps them current with research developments in teaching international students both at practical and theoretical levels. These findings indicate that teachers show their willingness to be engaged in deep and responsive capacity building which is integral to helping them fulfill their new professional responsibility involving the teaching of a nontraditional group of students – international students. Schofield and McDonald (2004) argue that to ensure good quality teaching and learning, "a capacity-building approach that emphasizes quality, creativity, professional judgment and growth rather than simply compliance" (p. 5) is needed. A meaningful capacity building approach needs to be responsive to what teachers see as being core to their professionalism which in the context appears to involve new and emerging characteristics not traditionally listed in VET teachers' repertoire of professionalism.

The findings of this research suggest the importance to reconsider professional learning activities currently offered for VET teachers, which are predominantly concerned with the demand to meet VET policy changes and industry currency as well as system compliance issues. Therefore, the professional learning practices currently in place appear to be out of tune with what the teachers in this research see as being most needed. There is a critical need to customize professional learning and enhance capacity building for VET teachers in a way that is *responsive* to their core professional responsibility as much as we hope their teaching to be *responsive* to the international student group currently enrolled in VET.

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Chapter 6
International Students and Further Education Colleges in England: The Context, Policy Tensions, and Some Aspects of Practice

Roy Fisher and Mike Saunders

Abstract This chapter sets out the context of publicly funded further education colleges in England, outlining the position and development of these complex institutions within the broader educational structure. This is followed by discussion of some tensions and contradictions which arise from government policies partially driven by anxieties derived from debates surrounding levels of immigration together with recognition of the imperatives and opportunities arising from globalization. The benefits of the internationalization of education have been expounded whilst simultaneously enforcing visa regulations which impede the efforts of colleges to make inroads in the international student market. In particular, disparities between the treatment of the further and higher education sectors are highlighted. The paper also provides an account of practices which have emerged in a single FE college in England over a decade of working with international students following an access to HE course. The chapter indicates some of the many benefits which have been brought to FE by international students as well as the ways in which a college has developed its practices in response to their needs.

Keywords Internationalization • Further education colleges • Government policy

> International students in the UK bring diversity to the education sector, helping to provide an international dimension that benefits all students. Engagement in international education…enhances the reputation and brand recognition of UK institutions and helps project the UK's soft power. (HM Government 2013a, p. 23)

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Introduction

In recent years international students have become an increasingly important group within what are typically known as 'further education' (FE) colleges in England and in FE colleges across the UK more widely. It has been reported that in 2011–2012 international students in the UK FE paid £350 m in tuition fees, of which £30 m was generated through transnational education (TNE) provision, and that international students in FE spent in the region of £980 m on their living expenses whilst in the UK (HM Government 2013a, p. 22). In the context of FE, this income is more than significant, but to maintain a sense of proportion, it is worth noting that FE-related income from international students in the UK stands at roughly 10 % of that which is derived from international students in UK HE. It should also be stressed that most figures in relation to FE international income are estimates – accurate data on international students in UK FE are generally unavailable as '…only Government-funded learners are recorded centrally and record of their nationality is limited to those studying in Scotland. Therefore, it is not possible to say how many international FE students study in the UK'. (HM Government 2013b, p. 15). This lack of hard data is in some ways emblematic of the way in which FE as a sector has tended to be marginalized in what is the generally over-audited world of UK education, but given the data available directly to FE colleges, there is reason to believe that most, but by no means all, of the various estimates that emanate from government sources are reasonably accurate.

Publicly funded FE colleges in the UK are relatively diverse institutions which occupy the space between secondary schools and higher education, and their context-specific cultural resonances probably make it inappropriate to draw direct comparisons outside the Anglophone world. They are broadly comparable to those institutions which sit within the technical and further education (TAFE) sector in Australia and to many community colleges in the United States (see Levin et al. 2017 in Chap. 2 for a discussion of US community colleges). They are, however, distinct from the numerous and relatively small independent specialist language colleges that exist in the UK and which are not in receipt of public funding. They also differ, in both scale and in breadth or provision, from the many private training organizations which access public funding but which focus on adult employment-related skills. Within this chapter we shall outline the key characteristics of FE colleges and provide an overview of the current position in relation to the internationalization of FE in England (though the points made will generally be applicable to the rest of the UK). We shall also foreground some characteristics in relation to current policies and practices within the sector by focussing on aspects of work with international students in a particular FE college in the north of England. Before turning to this, however, it is necessary to provide a number of contextual clarifications, some of which have direct relevance in relation to the presence (and relative absence) of international students in publicly funded FE colleges in England and which will have explanatory purchase in considering the levels and types of international engagement which have been hitherto exemplified by these colleges.

Context: The Development and Scope of the Further Education and Skills System in England

Whilst the roots of British FE colleges are often to be found in nineteenth-century mechanics' institutes (Walker 2015), further education in England has been notable for its complex and often under-resourced development in the shadow of schools and HE-focussed educational policy discourses (Tomlinson 2005), and this explains the array of 'labels' which has been applied to it. Following on from the secondary (ages 11–16 years) phase of compulsory education, the broad sector in which English FE sits was formerly often referred to as 'post-compulsory education and training' (PCET). The *Education and Skills Act 2008*, however, now requires young people in England to engage with education or training until the end of the academic year when they reach the age of 18. This 'engagement' can include apprenticeships or part-time study for those who are employed or volunteering for more than 20 h per week. The terms 'learning and skills sector' (LSS), 'lifelong learning sector' (LLS), 'further education and skills system' (or sometimes 'sector'), and 'education and training sector' (ETS) have all enjoyed favour in recent years, and they tend to coexist, thereby fostering an element of confusion beyond the immediate cognoscenti. If this presents difficulties in terms of consistency for those working within or discussing the sector, it also underlines the potential miasma that faces young people making career choices including, of course, potential international students who are looking to study in England. The term 'further education' has, however, proven resilient just as the sector it represents has survived a severe buffeting in relation to its sometimes precarious position within the structure of British education and from some recent turns in government policy.

In England a wide variety of publicly funded providers offer opportunities beyond secondary schooling, including school-based 'sixth forms', sixth-form colleges, FE colleges, universities, and local authority adult education services. The term 'sixth form' is generally applied to the context where students study the General Certificate of Education Advanced Level (GCE A Level) qualifications which lead to university entrance. There are a number of specialist colleges catering for subjects such as art and design, performing arts, and land-based studies which sit within the broad category which is FE. In 2010 the first university technical colleges (UTC), which are non-advanced institutions serving 14–19 year olds, opened their doors, and 50 of these were established in 2016 with several more scheduled to open in 2017. There are other colleges which provide for learners with special needs or which cater for adult learners. In addition, private companies have been encouraged to enter the FE marketplace. During 2014–2015, FE was serving over three million students. According to the *Association of Colleges* (AoC), as at June 2015, there were 216 general FE colleges and 93 sixth-form colleges in England. There were 6 colleges in Northern Ireland, 26 in Scotland, and 15 in Wales (AoC 2015a). FE colleges vary in size with the largest having in excess of 50,000 students. The AoC (2014a) stated that in 2013–2014, FE colleges educated 41,500 students from outside the UK: 23,500 of these being attracted from the European

Union (EU) and 18,000 from non-EU countries. The 93 state-funded sixth-form colleges in England, with 170,000 domestic 16- to 18-year-olds, were in 2013–2014 reported to be educating just 601 international students dispersed over about 20 colleges with fees of up to £15,000 a year (Doughty 2015).

Typically FE colleges have strong business/industrial links arising from their focus on vocational education and training (VET) (Ainley and Bailey 1997), together with a broader curriculum offer which normally includes the humanities and social sciences, basic skills, courses for those with special educational needs, English for speakers of other languages (ESOL), and work-based learning for people following apprenticeships. Whilst FE colleges are often characterized as the vocational alternatives to sixth-form colleges, this is an oversimplification. Some FE colleges have broad and successful GCE A Level provision and have, on occasion, incorporated traditional sixth-form colleges through formal mergers. Most FE colleges also offer significant higher education provision including degree courses and those leading to professional qualifications. Fisher (2010, p. 120) suggested that:

> The local FE (or technical) college, affectionately known as 'the Tech', was generally associated with a culture of craft vocationalism. FE colleges were 'solid' civic institutions, integral to the fabric of most urban centres – they would produce the craft apprentices, the service workers (such as hairdressers and caterers), and the 'white collar' clerks and secretaries, needed by the economy…FE colleges also provided culturally improving opportunities for adults through 'night schools', with courses such as local history and modern languages. This remit was central to the promotion of social cohesion associated with the post-war consensus and efforts to both modernise British industry and engender a spirit of 'self-improvement' in society more generally.

FE colleges were statutorily removed from local education authority (LEA) control by the *Further and Higher Education* (F and HE) *Act* 1992 and have now 'enjoyed' more than two decades of freedom as 'incorporated' institutions. Foster (2005, p. 58) has characterized FE institutions as 'the neglected middle child between universities and schools' – indeed, for some time it was so usual for academics to make reference to the 'Cinderella' sector that this became something of a stylistic cliché. The New Labour government (1997–2010) made a relatively strong investment in FE (Chote et al. 2010), and this is often reflected today in impressive college buildings and learning resources. The Conservative and Liberal Democrat coalition government (2010–2015) which followed was intent on giving colleges more independence in terms of governance and, inevitably, seeking funds through competition. The politically unshackled Conservative government which was elected in May 2015 is currently pursuing an austerity-based public spending policy which has led to dire warnings regarding the future viability of FE and the quality of vocational training, with Alison Wolf pointing to a widening divergence between FE and HE funding (Wolf 2015, p. 66). It should be added that despite the current financial difficulties impacting on FE, the sector is proving remarkably responsive to the needs of the students it serves through the collective commitment of its staff and, often, some inspirational pedagogic practice (see Daley et al. 2015 for an account of this). For overviews of the development of English FE after the Second

World War, see Richardson (2007) and Simmons (2008, 2009). The direction of educational policy in the UK has pointed ever more strongly towards institutional financial independence and market competitiveness, and that has inevitably created a stronger focus by FE colleges on the benefits of internationalization. In Chap. 1, Tran and Dempsey (2017, see p. 5) point to the European Union's focus on the internationalization of VET, a factor which was, in terms of direct policy initiatives, effectively removed from the UK context following the UK's referendum of 23 June 2016, the result of which indicated by 52–48 % a wish to exit from EU membership. Kaleja and Egetenmeyer provide an analysis of the internationalization of VET in the EU in Kaleja and Egetenmeyer (2017, Chap. 4).

Globalization and FE's Turn to the International Market

The local roots of FE colleges have traditionally meant that their focus has been on serving their immediate communities, and, compared to HE, they have therefore been relatively parochial in terms of the geographical range of their recruitment. Another factor in this is that the international market for non-advanced provision in the UK has, for various historical, social, and economic factors, held little resemblance to the HE market. This underdevelopment of the international market for UK FE has been an enduring characteristic despite the global reach of English as an international language, the often strong international cultural links which are a legacy of the British Empire, and the associated ethnic diversity of British society which, it might be surmised, would prove attractive to would-be international students. Another factor is that students seeking non-advanced courses are more likely to travel internationally for 'elite' provision, such as that available in the UK private schooling market, than they are for other courses outside the higher education sector – a study by Brooks and Waters (2014) suggests that international students often constitute up to 20 % of the pupils in elite private schools in England. In other words, social class factors have played a major part in who has had the financial means and the cultural capital, to seek out and access education beyond their immediate national, or indeed regional, geographical locale – a point well made by Brooks and Waters (2011) in relation to higher education. This, however, is changing as the processes of globalization create more labour mobility, in response to the needs of business, as well as more migration in consequence of economic and political instability including those seeking asylum.

As mentioned above, more recently economic pressures on FE arising from political policies that transformed governance and finance mechanisms have led to stronger marketization with a pronounced entrepreneurial orientation, and this has included an imperative for the exploration of international markets (see Pasura 2017, p. 41 in Chap. 3). The impact of neoliberalism and globalization has led to visible symptoms of 'McDonaldization' (Ritzer 2008; Simmons 2010) in FE. The vocational basis of the FE system means that these trends have been amplified in colleges where there has been some restructuring of the teaching force and of modes of

delivery, reflecting the adoption of new learning technologies. Such processes have been documented in the works of Brookfield (2005), Apple (2006), and Avis (2009) amongst others. For a discussion of recent British developments, see Fisher and Simmons (2012) who argued that:

> The shifting culture and function of FE partly derives from the changing nature of employment and the decline of much of the UK's traditional industrial base. The stream of 'day-release' apprentices and craft technicians that characterised much of FE's intake in the decades following the end of the Second World War has now almost totally dried up; nowadays both the nature of the curriculum and the make-up of the student body is far more diverse than under the 'golden years' of LEA [local education authority] control… (p. 37)

In a report on transnational education (TNE), the British Council, the UK's body for international cultural relations, and educational opportunities state that the '… internationalization of education is at the heart…" of its work arguing that:

> The global education market is changing rapidly. The number of students choosing an overseas education continues to increase, but there are now many more destinations and modes of delivery from which to choose. The differences between educational sectors, institutions and the landscape of particular countries are increasingly blurred: countries which traditionally held a role as a source of international students have become study destinations and play host to international students; new alliances both international and national are being formed; and private and corporate sectors are increasingly active as providers. (British Council 2013, p. 3)

The inexorable logic of globalization as an economic and cultural process, however, often runs up against vestiges of English conservatism that play out in contemporary debates around migration and which, at times, expose deep-seated national anxieties. Concerns with levels of migration into Britain have been prominent in populist political discourse, and this has inevitably impacted on the position of, and policy dispositions towards, international students. These have been exacerbated by fears relating to violent extremism, radicalization, and terrorism – the government's *Prevent* strategy seeks to prevent people being drawn into terrorism, and there is specific guidance for FE colleges in this regard (HM Government 2015). A classification category known as 'Tier 4 (General)' relates to those non-European Economic Area (EEA) students wishing to remain in or enter the UK for post-16 education and this was:

> …introduced in March 2009 in order to address problems of 'bogus' colleges and students. However, there is a continuing fear that student status can be, and is, used as a 'backdoor' route to long term immigration by non-bona fide students who would not otherwise be admitted to the UK. Rules which introduced further restrictions and regulations for Tier 4 learners wishing to study in FE colleges were introduced in 2011… Department for Business, Innovation and Skills 2013, p. 3)

It was in this context that the UK's *Department for Business, Innovation, and Skills* (BIS) commissioned an evaluation of the value of Tier 4 international students to FE and the wider economy. The subsequent report (Department for Business, Innovation, and Skills 2013) indicated that two thirds of the 155 colleges which responded to its survey had Tier 4 students, though there had been a reduction in numbers and some cuts in provision following the 2011 changes referred to above.

From April 2012 institutions wishing to sponsor these students needed to be classed as a 'Highly Trusted Sponsor' by the then *UK Border Agency* (UKBA); the UKBA closed in 2013 and has been replaced by *UK Visas and Immigration* (UKVI). Highly Trusted Sponsor status was superseded by 'Tier 4 Sponsor status' on 6 April 2015. The UKVI is empowered to refuse entry to those potential students who are unable to speak English. Seventy-six percent of colleges responding to an *Association of Colleges* survey undertaken in 2014 (AoC 2014b, p. 14) reported that student visas presented the greatest challenge in their international work. The positive logic which lies behind the recruitment of international students is based on factors which range from financial motivation to loftier educational purposes (such as the benefits to teaching and learning which arise from the presence of international students) as well as an element of altruistic political internationalism. In practice this logic seems to be too often in tension with a *realpolitik* which sacrifices high principle in the face of a practical politics shaped by public concerns – the latter being simultaneously formed by and surfacing in anti-immigration rhetoric in sections of the popular press.

The *Department for Business, Innovation, and Skills* report (2013, p. 5) quoted above found that the income from Tier 4 learners was seen by FE colleges as '… highly valuable in supporting the college's financial viability…', and it was estimated that these students '…spend approximately twice the value of their tuition fees on subsistence in the local area'. The proportion of college income from Tier 4 learners' tuition fees was reported to range from 0.5 to 12 %. Far more importantly, it was reported that:

> There are numerous educational benefits reported by colleges which have Tier 4 learners including enabling them to offer courses they may not be able to otherwise through increased demand and additional student numbers; helping staff develop new teaching styles and skills to accommodate learners from different cultural backgrounds; and enriching the overall learning environment… (Department for Business, Innovation and Skills 2013, p. 5)

In addition to the benefits identified above,

> Many colleges emphasised the value that Tier 4 students have by adding diversity to more homogenous areas and increasing UK learners' awareness of other cultures which will be useful for future employment. (Department for Business, Innovation and Skills 2013, p. 5)

It was reported that colleges often integrated Tier 4 students in classes with UK students, indeed:

> …several colleges also emphasised that they felt that the presence of international students in the classroom was important to help UK learners increase the skills they need for future employment by developing skills that can be applied when working in a wider international market. These skills included being able to think about how scenarios may apply in a [sic] different countries, improving their general understanding of other cultures that they may work with in the future, and communicating effectively with individuals with English as a second language, (Department for Business, Innovation and Skills 2013, p. 29)

The comments above are very positive, though it is important to recognize that such benefits do not materialize automatically from the presence of international

students and there is a need for the development and implementation of appropriate teaching and learning strategies in FE colleges which explicitly and proactively address internationalization (Blum et al. 2010).

The delivery of transnational education by FE colleges has also received government encouragement:

> The further education sector has an established quality assurance system for teaching and learning content. The sector is now considering options for how this could be developed for provision delivered abroad, working with key partners including Ofsted, QAA and the British Council. (HM Government 2013a, p. 45)

This was exemplified when UK Export Finance (UKEF) assisted a consortium of UK further education colleges in gaining a £76 m Saudi Arabian contract to develop a vocational training college in 2013 (HM Government 2013a, p. 58).

The benefits that international students bring to FE are clearly recognized, but conflicting policy pronouncements persist. Colleges have expressed the view to the *Department for Business, Innovation, and Skills* that there was an impression that the UK did not welcome Tier 4 students and that in the longer term this might have a negative impact on both future international relations and overseas trade. This fear was exacerbated on 13 July 2015 with the announcement of changes to immigration rules, without consultation with colleges, which mean that college students will in the future not be allowed to extend their leave in the UK for any reason, thereby impeding the progress of those wishing to progress into HE following their completion of GCE A Levels or HE access courses. The maximum time limit for courses below degree level has been reduced to 2 years (from 3) provoking a strong statement from the AoC who expressed concerns that:

> By introducing these changes the Government seriously risks further restricting the UK's ability to attract international students. By blocking the natural progression from further education to university, the Government will do long term harm to the UK as an international student destination. (AoC 2015b, no page number)

Home Office progression requirements are more stringent in relation to FE courses than for those relating to HE (Home Office 2015, paras. 64–80 provides a full explanation). Rules relating to Secure English Language Test (SELT) requirements have also been recently tightened. A specific matter of concern for FE colleges was that whilst Tier 4 students in HE were permitted to be employed for up to 20 h per work during term time, the limit for those in FE was set at only 10 h. In August 2015 work rights for Tier 4 international students in FE were effectively removed by government when guidance was issued (Home Office 2015) advising Tier 4 students in FE that:

> If you are following a course at any level with a sponsor which is a publicly funded further education college, the following work is allowed:
>
> - on a work placement as part of a course, providing the work placement does not amount to more than 33 % of the course;
> - as a student union sabbatical officer for up to two years. (para. 320, p. 76).

Table 6.1 The key countries/areas where FE colleges work

Country/area	%
China	76
EU	61
Middle East and North Africa	47
Vietnam	41
Latin America	37
Saudi Arabia	29
India	27
Malaysia	24
Japan	24
South Korea	18
Kazakhstan	6
Others (Russia, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Pakistan, African countries)	27

Adapted from AoC (2014b, p. 10)

Against the background of the lack of hard data and a consequent reliance on official estimates in October 2014, the *Association of Colleges* (AoC), a membership body for FE colleges which promotes their interests, conducted a survey of the international work undertaken by member institutions which provides some broad parameters in relation to this as well as a helpful indication of the prime motivations and priorities of colleges in relation to internationalization. This survey suggested that the key focuses for colleges were student recruitment, international partnerships, overseas projects, staff and student exchanges, and TNE (AoC 2014b, p. 4). The most common response in relation to the question 'why does your college deliver international education?' was to 'develop educational opportunities for all learners' at 83 %; this was closely followed by commercial opportunities (77 % of the responding colleges) (AoC 2014b, p. 5). Ninety-two percent of the responding colleges were teaching international students in the UK with just 32 % teaching international students overseas (AoC 2014b, p. 6). With regard to the latter, the key countries/areas where colleges work were reported as in Table 6.1.

The *Department for Business, Innovation, and Skills* (2013, pp. 41–42) reported that in 2012–2013, the largest single country of origin for international students in FE was India (1076), followed by China (521) and Bangladesh (368). The most popular course type was Business Studies (1455) followed by English language (757). The number of students following international foundation programmes was as low as 63 (Department for Business, Innovation, and Skills 2013, p. 40). Inevitably, the report incorporated a warning that the data was not exact owing to incomplete enrolments, and there is a strong probability, in our view, that the report significantly understated the reality in relation to international FE student numbers. What is clear, however, is that the picture with regard to international students in English FE colleges is a highly diverse one in which institutional patterns in relation to national origins of students, types of courses undertaken, and the range of

international work in which colleges are engaged are difficult to discern and about which it is often inappropriate to generalize. It is on that basis that we offer below a vignette, which outlines some aspects of provision for international students at a further education college in the north in England.

International Students and Aspects of Teaching and Learning in FE

Further education in England is, relative to other sectors of the education system, under-researched, and the fact that international students feature far less prominently in FE than in HE has led to a dearth of FE-focussed studies. Research undertaken on the internationalization of HE, however, including studies outside England certainly carries some resonance with the experiences which have informed this section of our study. Bolsmann and Miller (2008), for example, found that within HE economic competition was the dominant rationale expressed in terms of costs and benefits, with the concepts of 'academic internationalism' and a 'developmental' discourse (originating in colonialism) also being influential. Certainly, these kinds of imperatives, but especially the economic ones, are evident in the 'official literature' relating to FE and international students which has emerged through the *Department for Business, Innovation, and Skills* and *British Council*.

The college on which this section is based is located in a university city and offers provision ranging from vocational courses to GCE A Levels, as well as some professional and HE courses (the latter in association with a number of partner universities). It is adjudged by *Ofsted*, the body which inspects and regulates educational providers in the UK, to be an 'outstanding' provider (*Ofsted's* highest category). With its roots in a former college of art and technology, the current incarnation of the college arose from the merger of a college of further and higher education and a nearby sixth-form college. This history means that the college offers a stronger range of GCE A Levels than is generally found in an FE college. It is housed on a single high-quality main campus to which it moved in 2007. The college building is based around an impressive central atrium and offers high-quality learning environments. It has more than 7,000 students of which close to 5,000 are full time. Some 150 of the latter are international students, and approximately 70 % of these are of European origin and are not considered directly by this study. Of the remainder, taking 2007/2008 as the datum point, the number of international students within the college rose until 2011/2012 when there were 25 % more, and then it fell dramatically as government policy shifted, before rising steadily until 2013/2014 when numbers were 5 % above datum. Another fall, directly attributable to government policy, has occurred in the 2015/2016 recruitment cycle. Countries of origin are indicated in Table 6.2.

The data shows that the majority of the non-EEA international students recruited by this college come from China and a significant minority from other Asian

Table 6.2 Non-European Economic Area (EEA) international student countries of origin within the college between 2011–2012 and 2014–2015

Country/area	%
China	76
Other Asian countries	14
Russia	6
Latin America	2.5
African countries	1.5

countries such as South Korea and Japan. There are some students from Russia and very few from other areas.

The scale of the college provides a relatively 'close-knit' community, and its locations, together with its mix of courses and its high reputation, are all factors that would make it attractive to the majority of international students seeking to study FE in the UK. *Office for National Statistics* (ONS) data (2011) shows the local area with a white British population of approximately 89 %, against an average in England, and Wales of 83 %. One major city in the same region returned 71 % white British. Despite a more recent increase in East European migrants settling in the area, the college is situated in what is still a relatively homogenous demographic and is therefore conscious of a need to ensure that all its students benefit from a diverse cultural experience – one which not all students will necessarily be exposed to within their local communities.

The college has been integrating students from non-EU European countries into classes within both its GCE A Level courses and 16–18 vocational education provision for its local students, with additional classes in English and other subjects being made available, for the past 10 years. The international students are taught separately only for some of the additional classes, including a module on 'British culture'. Small numbers of international students study higher education courses. There is an established access to HE Diploma course which in 2014–2015 had in excess of 220 students, more than 40 of which were international learners attracted by the prospect of entry to higher education on successful completion. The college has identified this course as an appropriate accredited route for international students and has focussed recruitment activity on this programme. The provision has high success and progression rates which compare very favourably to national averages. The rationale of the integration of international and local students is one that seeks to enrich the learning experience of all parties. International students have enhanced contact with native English speakers, accelerating the enhancement of their English language skills, and local students benefit from the opportunity to study in close proximity to learners from other cultures. The advantages of this arrangement extend to members of staff who are able to develop their teaching skills whilst taking advantage of the learning synergies that arise from the presence of a more diverse range of learners.

The access to HE Diploma is a qualification which aims to prepare adult learners for higher education within the UK. It currently consists of 60 credits, 45 of which are graded pass, merit, or distinction and 15 of which are ungraded academic skills units. The programme is available in a wide range of subjects including art and

design, business, and science. The grading system is set by the *Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education* (QAA) but is managed by the access validating agency used by the provider. International students studying this programme normally apply to UK universities through the nationally operated *Universities and Colleges Admissions Service* (UCAS), generally making informed choices based on factors including rankings in league tables with many aspiring to places in the research intensive 'Russell Group' of institutions.

The evolution and development of teaching and learning practices within the college owe a considerable debt to the processes which have been adopted in response to the internationalization of its provision, not limited to the access to HE Diploma courses, though the account that follows relates mainly to that provision. Our intention here is to indicate aspects of the approaches that have been adopted and which have been found to work well. We have eschewed the management-/business-derived concept of 'best practice' on the basis of our belief is that all educational practices are both structured by the societal and institutional contexts and, at the micro level of the classroom, contingent on the available resources, the composition of the group and the qualities and skills of the individual agents/actors involved. What works well at a given time in a given place does not necessarily transfer to another, and the complexities that arise from an intensification of cultural differences tend to amplify the need for a nuanced application of strategies and techniques. At the same time, through experience, teachers develop forms of practice-informed technique which manifest themselves in institutional and teaching team approaches and resources. The processes of professional development have been part formal (courses, conference attendance, and seminars etc.) but largely informal. By working with international students and with each other in relation to this work, a number of emergent practices developed over some ten years, and these are indicated below. Whilst we recognize that these may be seen as prosaic by those with long experience and established expertise in the field, they are nonetheless representative of what has been learned and what is currently seen as central to practice in one FE college, and, despite our caution above regarding the dangers of generalization, there is no reason to assume that they are not sometimes replicated by similar practices elsewhere in England.

The Integration of International and Local Students in Teaching Groups and the Process of Curriculum Change

International and local students have been able to work closely in teaching groups. This has allowed for processes of peer assessment and peer tutoring which have had a dramatic effect on the development of English used by international students in their assignments as well as more generally. It is also clear that, where the different perspectives and experiences of international students are being proactively and constructively engaged with within the classroom, there is a great deal of academic

and cultural benefit for the local students. International students are encouraged to bring examples from their own country into the classroom during groupwork and discussions. For example, classes have had the benefit of discussion around the differences and similarities, between the education systems in the UK and China. The importance of going beyond a Eurocentric approach to subject teaching and developing learning resources which incorporate material drawn from a range of national cultures has been recognized. In addition, international student identities are positively affirmed, and their confidence is developed when assessments encourage the utilization of materials and ideas from their own respective national cultures.

Guo and Chase (2011) have provided an account of experiences arising from a programme in the context of a Canadian university seeking to enable the integration of international postgraduate students, and, despite the different national contextual and educational level, the process described seems not very different to that which we have encountered. Course content for international students may be addressed by a range of approaches, which Guo and Chase, following Bond (2003a, b), characterize as 'add-on', 'infusion', and 'transformation'. The latter arises from critical pedagogy and demands a complex and deep-seated analysis of the specific elements of the context leading to the creation of a wholly new and 'transcendent' curriculum (Williams 2015). International provision within the college quickly moved beyond an 'add-on' approach, and most areas of the curriculum have been successfully infused with international dimensions. Teaching strategies have been informed by attention to issues of respect and trust and the sensitive and nuanced communication of 'what is important'. Guo and Chase (2011) see the neoliberal economic motive as a persistent problem, as well as a tendency for the curriculum to suffer from an 'add-on' approach. They provide an account of a programme that created a 'transnational learning space where international students felt a sense of belonging and where they felt safe to share their challenges and experiences' (p. 316). This has certainly been the aspiration in the context we describe.

A Whole-Team Approach to Language Teaching

When a team working with international students contains Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) specialist, there is a risk that other colleagues see the provision of English language teaching as being the responsibility of 'the experts'. To ensure that all staff plan explicitly for the development of academic, and English, skills in their students means that a whole-team approach must be taken to these aspects of student development. The development of language therefore needs to be given as much emphasis as the development of subject knowledge, and this is particularly the case in the early part of the course when students are likely to feel most anxious in relation to this aspect of their academic progress. One approach to this is to encourage all students to develop glossaries of technical and academic terms under the guidance and with the support of their teachers. The importance of students being clear about and confident in relation to the metalanguage used within

the course, both that relating to assessment and that relating to their subject, cannot be overemphasized. The complexities of an integrated approach to language and content teaching have been usefully outlined, in the context of Australian secondary schools, by Arkoudis (2005, 2006) and Love and Arkoudis (2006). Subject boundaries and hierarchies are often powerful, and the integration of language and content teaching involves, in addition to 'well-laid plans', sensitive negotiation.

It quickly became clear that those international students who are able to gain a well-developed understanding of the language used in the assessment and grading criteria against which they are being judged are more successful. This language is often complex, as it is in line with that used in HE, and it has been found that the students grow appreciably in confidence when technical terms are explicitly explained and discussed. It has been found that to be effective this process needs to be repeated as the students' academic skills develop. Ensuring that students have a deep understanding of the keywords used in assessment, as well as the language used in the criteria, is critical to their success. It should be emphasized that many local students have difficulty with some of these terms, and addressing this issue directly often assists them as well. To respond to this issue, the college has provided a range of sessions relating to academic skills and the language of assessment and grading, as part of the induction programme for all its international students. These cover a number of principles of assessment in the UK including academic conduct, referencing conventions, and academic writing styles. The aim is to ensure that the process of academic skills development, which is particularly central to the access to HE Diploma, starts early and is a key focus for students throughout the programme. The provision of academic tutorials throughout the academic year for all international students by a member of staff with a deep understanding of the academic requirements, regulations, and engendering ethos of the access course allows students an appropriate space in which to develop these skills.

The Critical Nature of Briefings When Setting Assignments and Tasks

Providing clarity as to the requirements of assignments has proven to be critical in allowing students to complete them successfully. Assignments which incorporate particular requirements beyond the subject matter, for example, how to structure a report, need to explain these clearly if students are to maximize their achievements and realize their full academic potential. Just as critical in enabling students to achieve high grades is explaining what a high-quality piece of work looks like, teaching them to reference correctly and to produce clear, well-supported arguments. All assessments are introduced to the students in the context of a taught session so as to enable them to better understand the requirements of the assignment, the format that is required, and the expectations of the teacher on relation to what would constitute an excellent response to the assignment. Students are, where

possible and appropriate, normally provided with exemplar work from international students and sample answers that allow them to identify for themselves the ways in which excellence can be demonstrated. The aim is to ensure that students have the knowledge to achieve the highest possible grades.

Cultural Awareness

It is clear from international student feedback that where staff have an informed understanding of the cultural differences between their students and themselves, and between the students, communication is more effective, and the students have a better classroom experience (see Tran and Le 2017, Chap. 5). Teachers encourage students to use experiences/information from their culture and heritage in assignment work. Empowering students to share their different perspectives in the classroom creates cultural synergies and places the curriculum in a broader perspective. The creation of opportunities for teachers to position themselves as learners within their classroom is particularly valuable as it allows them to deepen their cultural awareness and to be more sensitive to the needs of their students as well as more alert to the possibilities of enhancing learning (see Tran and Nguyen 2015). This requires teachers to work to gain an insight into the way in which students are coping in class as well as an understanding of their cultural mores.

In his study of support for international students in UK HE institutions, McDonald (2014) has highlighted some of the cultural differences which impede pedagogic interactions, for example, high levels of deference to tutors. McDonald argues that orientation programmes should not be 'one-way processes' addressing the needs of students only – staff also have orientation needs. Provision of cultural awareness development opportunities for staff in direct relation to the particular cultures of the students with which they are working is seen as an effective response to this issue. This development work can be presented by individuals from within the culture where there are substantial numbers of relevant students or can be made available online for those cultures where fewer individuals are represented within the learning group. The development of the cultural awareness of staff, and their willingness to 'self-position' as learners, is central to the development of cultural awareness in local and international students. As England becomes more diverse both ethnically and culturally, this also has advantages for other areas of the curriculum.

Brown (2009a) has pointed to the way in which friendship groups amongst international students can be unified by faith, in her study specifically, of Islam. Friendship is an important factor for students. Brown reports on three forms of friendship 'the host national friend, who acts as cultural informant, the co-national who acts as a reference of values from the home culture and other nationality friends who act as a general social network' (p. 57). Brown identifies the difficulty of establishing meaningful host contact and how shared faith with British Muslims could be a powerful bonding factor for some international students. In a related study, Brown (2009b) refers to a 'monoethnic ghetto' which constrained many international

students (sojourners) within conational networks. This issue is recognized by college staff in the informal observations of friendship networks amongst students. Being attuned to the acculturation and integration needs of its international students, the college provides an 'International Social Programme' with local students being encouraged to participate in the events which it incorporates, including visits to sites of local and historical interest as well as an entertainment element. In addition international students are strongly encouraged to join student societies, and the chess society in particular has proved popular with some Chinese students, whilst a few local students have joined the International Student Society. Some of the international students have also taken advantage of the opportunity to engage in societies at local universities. There is, however, much work to be done in relation to the cementation of conational friendship networks.

It must be recognized that the processes of intercultural learning can produce negative tensions. Tarry (2011), in a study of Thai students in two UK universities, describes how the encounter with, and partial adoption of, more individualistic Western attitudes impacted on family relationships, on the strength of religious beliefs, and on the diminishment of cultural skills (such as reading and writing in Thai language). This signifies a kind of homogenization which is a bi-product of globalization. The courses for international students within FE tend to be somewhat shorter than those which follow on in HE, and for that reason, the kinds of issues highlighted by Tarry are largely absent in day-to-day interactions, though staff are sensitive to the associated emotional anxieties that can be internalized by students.

Clarity of Communication

It is obvious that effective communication is the key to success in working with international students, but what constitutes effective communication is a more complex consideration and especially so in groups which contain a range of national cultures. In any context poor communication leads to a poor student experience and creates unnecessary anxiety. For example, international students were found to be very concerned as to how their final grade would be arrived at and were expending emotional energy and time worrying about that rather than their coursework. This was rectified once the method used to produce the grade was explained clearly to the students, and the process itself was made more transparent to them. The need to check that students have understood course-related information, especially at the beginning of the course, and then to reinforce this understanding means that teachers must plan to confirm that understanding of process and procedure has been learned as much as subject matter. The provision of learning materials to students electronically enables them to use translation software to check their understanding.

International students need to be clear as to the expectations that it is reasonable for them to have of staff within the college. The cultures within FE colleges are typically very different from those generally found within schools in the UK, and it

takes local students sometime to adjust to their new environment. For international students, with the additional cultural differences to cope with as well as issues relating to being in a foreign country, simple issues such as knowing how to order food in the cafeteria can pose considerable challenges. Being aware of who they can ask, and about what, allows them to become assimilated into the course and the college more rapidly.

Conclusion

Embedding the practices described above into the curriculum, learning environments, staffrooms, and social areas of the college discussed has proved important to the development of staff and student skills and crucial to the creation of an ethos where students (international and local) can flourish. These practices have evolved and are continuing to evolve as individuals and groups are subject to the impact of change. The aim remains to create a culturally aware and responsive learner-centred programme which meets the needs of international students for entry into a UK university appropriate to their individual needs and aspirations (and it must be acknowledged that these do not always match). Moreover, the provision aspires to provide the international and local students alike with a broadened and diverse curriculum. It is hoped that the relationships built on these programs foster greater understanding of other cultures in all students and promote links between them in later life. All international students at the college are taught in the UK within its premises, and this makes management of the provision and quality assurance much less problematic than might otherwise be the case. The college has not to date actively sought opportunities to sponsor the development of overseas satellites or to create online international provision. The external environment within which FE colleges are working in the UK is, of course, changing continuously, and it can be anticipated that new directions may be taken at some point in the future.

There can be no doubting that international students bring financial benefits – that is important – but by no means as valuable as the educational benefits. The advantages of integrating international and local students have been shown to be so great that this particular policy is very unlikely to change. The experience gained by teaching staff working with international students has informed the development of pedagogy across the whole of the college. Tran and Nguyen (2015) have discussed changing teacher identities through internationalization, pointing to the emergence of 'sub-identities' with this work leading to a view of teaching '…as cosmopolitan work' and seeing this as '…paralleled with the growing need to revision all students and their work as being cosmopolitan' (p. 961). Through the use of positioning theory, they argue that a teacher needs to be able to engage with the cultural other and to do this through being at once an 'intercultural learner' (p. 964) and an 'adaptive agent' (p. 968). Internationalization and the associated emergent practices in the college on which this account has focussed indicate that these transitions are evident in the practice of individual FE teachers, the development of learning

resource teams in FE, and the vision of FE college management. The June 2016 UK referendum outcome looks certain to lead to exit from the EU, and the practical management of this process is likely to have important implications for the ability of UK colleges to attract international students. The rhetoric of UK educational policy statements suggests that the immense benefits of internationalization are now well understood at government level, though the operationalization of policy has often contradicted this. It is important that these benefits are not impeded by the influence on government of a series of 'migration panics' and a continuing inability amongst policymakers to recognize the full potential of FE colleges.

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Part II
VET Transfer and Appropriation

Chapter 7
Management of Knowledge in International VET: Diversity of Practice from Laos, Kuwait, and China

Mark Rahimi and Helen Smith

Abstract This chapter draws on research conducted between 2008 and 2010 that explored what happens when knowledge developed to regulate and manage training delivered in Australia is exported to another jurisdiction with a quite different regulatory framework. The focus of investigation was on the mechanisms, strategies, and tools deployed to enable Australian VET knowledge practices to respond to the needs of systems, training institutions, and individuals in these new contexts. This process of transfer and adaptation was explored through three case studies. On the basis of the empirical data analyzed in each model, a classification of transnational activities is proposed according to six dimensions of transfer activity – mechanism, drivers, key actors, purpose, context, and outcomes. The mechanisms used in each of the case studies are analyzed according to the theories of globalization of business, regulatory arrangements and knowledge management. The chapter concludes by positioning transnational vocational education and training (VET) in the context of global developments since 2010 including UNESCO's efforts to define the role of national and international standards in a global education and training environment and the work of WorldSkills International to define global skills standards.

Keywords Australia • Training package • China • Laos • Transnational VET

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Introduction

Knowledge, in multiple forms including skill, regulation, and technical know-how, has become a most critical resource in the era of globalization (Bresman et al. 1999), flowing in a worldwide pattern as a part of the circuit of capital (Thrift 2005; Sharma 2008). Governments and VET institutions in many jurisdictions have responded in various ways to the challenge and the opportunities offered by the internationalization of VET, and aspects of such initiatives aimed at the internationalization of qualifications, curriculum design, and delivery are explored in this book (e.g., see Reich and Ho (2017) on Vietnam in Chap. 8; Barabasch et al. (2017) on Korea in Chap. 11; and Bastiaannet 2017 in Chap. 13, in relation to the Netherlands). Dempsey and Xia (2017, Chap. 9) have also provided examples of the challenges associated with importing a foreign system of vocational training into China. In recent years, Australian VET providers, through their transnational activities, have positioned themselves as players in this global circuit of knowledge and capital. They have cooperated with each other and also established partnerships with non-Australian (host country) educational providers, as well as forming links with some industries and enterprises in host countries.

Between 2003 and 2006, offshore VET programs were conducted by a broad range of Australian public and private providers[1] in different developing markets across 42 different countries (DEEWR 2008). According to DEEWR (2008), 349 courses in 2006 and 325 courses in 2005 were delivered in foreign jurisdictions by Australian public providers. In a few years, the significant growth of offshore delivery by public providers led to the delivery of 524 and 499 courses in 2012 and 2013 respectively (DET 2014). In 2006, host country teachers, rather than Australian expatriates, taught 76.8 % of the courses, while in 2013, 50.9 % of offshore VET courses were delivered by host country teachers in the country of delivery (DEEWR 2008; DET 2014).

The focus of this chapter is the way in which the primary regulatory mechanism of the Australian VET system crosses jurisdictional borders to play a role in the transfer of knowledge from the Australian VET system into a foreign jurisdiction. Classifying these transnational activities as different models, and clarifying the characteristics of each model, will assist project managers and institutions to design, identify human resource needs, and implement transnational VET projects. The following research questions are addressed by this chapter: *What different mechanisms are employed to transfer Au-VET knowledge? What different actors operate? What are the scope and the main characteristics of each model?*

[1] Data was not available for offshore activities of private providers.

Theoretical Framework

This study is framed around two linked phenomena: *globalization* and *the growth of transnational VET*. It brings a multidisciplinary approach to what might appear at first to be solely an international education study, but which in fact spills over into multiple domains: the political economy of international aid, globalization, knowledge management, and international trade. The concept of *globalization*, specifically *globalization of regulatory arrangements*, is employed to analyze the transfer of Australian VET knowledge and practice at a macro-level and to name and classify these transfers. The *transnational transfer of knowledge* in globalizing capitalism provides a frame for seeing Australian VET knowledge through a new perspective and understanding how the transfer of regulatory arrangements takes place.

Globalization is a multidimensional process of, on the one hand, *breaking down borders and de-spatializing*, and, on the other, *compacting and forming new links* (Tetzlaff 1998). This unitary process is increasing transnational movement of capital, goods, knowledge and people. The era of globalization has brought with it concomitant implications for knowledge, education, and learning. Indeed, "The cultural circuit of capital allows the knowledges of very different situations to circulate much more freely and rapidly and to have a much greater say than previously within a space which is precisely tailored to that circulation, consisting of numerous sites and specialized route ways" (Thrift 2005, p. 94).

As Bloom (2004, p. 71) notes, globalization "is increasing the importance of education." As globalizing economies and markets shift from manual to knowledge-intensive economic activities, globalization fosters new skill formation needs. Nations are now recognizing the need to reshape their educational and training systems to meet demands of industries for more complex and higher-level skills. At the same time, individuals facing the complex new conditions imposed by economic change are looking to the expanded training options offered by the new markets to improve their life chances. In this way globalization is driving system reform and changes in individual choice of job and career. This multidimensional impact on skill formation is a feature of the knowledge transfer classification proposed in this chapter.

Braithwaite and Drahos (2000, pp. 15–26) conceptualize the process of globalization of regulatory frameworks in terms of the relationship between three concepts: *principles*, *mechanisms* , and *actors*. Through their analysis of cases of globalization, they conclude that globalization of regulation always involves more than a single process or mechanism (Braithwaite and Drahos 2000, p. 13).

Along with money (international investment) and technology, knowledge, particularly in the form of organizational principles and practice, is a critical resource driving globalization (Bresman et al. 1999, p. 440). However, multiple mechanisms are needed to facilitate the exchange of information and knowledge between firms, groups, and individuals in different regulatory environments (Bartlett and Ghoshal 1997; Kostova 1999). Kostova identifies factors operating at three levels of *country*,

organization, and *individual* and develops a model which recognizes that knowledge transfers are embedded in social, organizational, and relational transactions. The differences to be transacted are identified as "institutional characteristics, organizational practices that reflect the institutional environment of their origin's country context, and finally, the problem of 'not fitting' the transnationally transferred practices with a new institutional environment" (Kostova 1999).

Using Braithwaite and Drahos' analyses and Thrift's proposition, the international growth of Australian VET is regarded in this study as a prime example of the circulation of regulatory knowledge designed for one jurisdiction to different jurisdictions. This circulation of regulatory knowledge is facilitated by government-sponsored projects, international financial and aid agency support, international company skill needs, and VET organizations' pursuit of international business. Kostova's theoretical model for the transnational transfer of organizational practices is used to throw light on the multilevel dimensions of the transfer.

Research Method

A qualitative method was adopted in this research for two reasons. First, it has not been possible to access large, standardized data sets, as much of the knowledge and understanding about the phenomena under investigation is emergent and being drawn from multiple domains of social, economic, and cultural activity. Secondly, a case study approach was essential in order to investigate *what* was being transferred and *how* the conditions of the transfer affected the implementation of Australian VET in non-Australian jurisdictions. The analytical focus of each case in this study is at the stage when the highest interaction for transfer of Australian knowledge and practice takes place. In the first case, the focus is on *project implementation*. In the second and third case studies, the focus is on *provision of training service*s. Nine interviews were conducted with project managers and educators involved in the selected projects, and annual reports, offshore project documentation, and published reports from a range of sources were also analyzed.

Regulation of the Australian VET System

The current Australian VET system is considered one of the most advanced in the world. The fact that a system can be *nationally regulated*, *industry led*, and *client focused* has been commented on by international reviewers including the OECD (DEEWR 2009). In the system, goals of national consistency and local flexibility are pursued through three related sets of rules and standards. The first is through the *Australian Qualifications Framework* (*AQF*), which classifies all recognized education and training qualifications. The second is the Standards for Registered Training Organisations, which provides "a set of nationally agreed standards to ensure quality of vocational education and training services" (DEEWR 2009). The third

regulatory device is the Australian Industry Training Package comprising sets of nationally endorsed industry skill standards and assessment guidelines "packaged" AQF qualifications.

As the Australian government explains, these sets of nationally endorsed competency standards, assessment guidelines and Australian Qualifications Framework qualifications provide a mechanism "for recognizing and assessing people's skills in a specific industry, industry sector or enterprise" (DEEWR 2009). There are currently 81 training packages (76 industry packages and 5 enterprise specific packages)[2] developed by Industry Skills Councils and endorsed by the Council of Australian Government's Industry and Skills Council. The latest available Commonwealth Government report (DEEWR 2011) claimed that the skills specifications in the 2011 total of 75 training packages covered 80 % of the skill needs, from basic to paraprofessional, of the Australian workforce.

In the Australian context, the training package works as a technology for translating information about skill standards in three stages: from myriad enterprise specific practices into regulatory standards and from these single sets of standards back into myriad education and training practices. Effective deployment of training packages as a technology of knowledge transfer requires the collaboration of stakeholders and units from inside and outside and at different levels of the VET system. The complexity embedded in these collaborations is magnified in transnational transactions. Even implementing individual components of the system such as a single training package qualification offshore is complex, because each component carries with it its regulatory relationship with other components.

The Case Studies

Three cases have been selected for an empirical analysis. The first is a 5-year China-AusAID funded project in China involving Australian and Chinese institutions piloting VET reform across five industries in Chongqing, with the aim of developing a VET model that can be replicated on a national basis in China (AusAID 2007). The second case is the Australian College of Kuwait (ACK) which is a cooperative venture between Australian TAFE[3] institutes and universities and international companies and investors to deliver Australian accredited VET programs. The third case involves the provision of training for employees of an Australian registered mining company operating in Laos. In this case the Laotian employees receive Australian certificates at AQF 3 which are delivered by an Australian training provider which employs local trainers to work alongside Australian trainers. These cases have been identified as three different models of transnational knowledge transfer as described in the following section of the chapter.

[2] http://training.gov.au/

[3] Technical and Further Education (TAFE) institutions are the government providers of VET in Australia.

Three Models of Knowledge Transfer

Model A. Government-government cooperation: Transfer of Australian VET knowledge through a reform project – Case: The Australia-China Chongqing Vocational Education and Training Project (ACCVETP)

The ACCVETP started in early 2002 as a pilot project in the municipality of Chongqing and continued until 2007. The ACCVETP aimed to develop a VET system to address changing skill needs of industries in the rapidly developing province of Chongqing, with a population of more than 32 million, and to influence skill development more widely in China (AusAid 2007). The Australian government and the government of the People's Republic of China contributed to ACCVETP, with Australia contributing AUS$20 million of the total budget of AUS$25 million (Barnaart 2007; AusAid 2007). The Chongqing project which was the subject of agreements between governments aimed to influence the structural and regulatory arrangements of the host system (as distinct from the cases in models B and C which have more instrumental economic and business goals). The Australian training package was used as an exemplar for the design of Chinese qualifications for which graduates would receive a Chinese qualification.

The project was implemented by Hassall and Associates International (HAI) in association with RMIT University (Barnaart 2007; AusAid 2007) and involved two main phases. The first phase from Feb. 2002 to Feb. 2005 included initiatives implemented at school, municipal, and national levels. The second phase, from March 2004 to August 2007, included an additional international component. Based on a "vertical slice" project design, phase two aimed to replicate the successful outcomes of phase one and work on the development of four key components (Barnaart 2007). These components and related key activities are summarized in Table 7.1.

During the ACCVETP Australian and Chinese team members used Australian Training Packages to develop more than 410 units of competency in the Chinese language and add them to the Chinese curricula. In other words, information about *Australian* industry competency needs, collected and collated by *Australian* industries, became a formal part of the Chinese training curricula, and Australian apprenticeship and on-the-job training practices were identified for adoption in the Chongqing pilot colleges.

However, in the design of curriculum and delivery of training, there was no evidence that the Australian outcome-based training system was in fact being implemented by the Chinese Chongqing training managers. And although teachers at the pilot schools in Chongqing practiced Australian competency-based assessment as part of their teaching (and, according to officials interviewed as part of this case study, were quick to develop Australian style teaching and assessment practices),[4] a

[4] The fact that the teachers adapted quickly and effectively was, according to officials interviewed, largely due to the quality of the Australian educators involved in the project and their capacity to work in a cross-cultural setting.

Table 7.1 Components and activities in Australia-China Chongqing VET project (ACCVETP)

Component	Key activities
Phase I	
School based	Three secondary VET schools and two tertiary VET colleges were selected as the pilot schools of the project. School-based planning, developing, and piloting competency-based curriculum, teaching and learning material development, professional development of school staff, and equipment procurement to assist pilot activities
Municipal	Establishment of five Industry Coordination Committees (ICCs) in the automotive, business services, electronics, hospitality and tourism, and construction industries, being modeled on Australia's Industry Skills Councils (ISCs). The Chongqing Normal University (CQNU) was chosen as to develop trainers' knowledge and skills in VET pedagogy
National	The Ministry of Education and the Central Institute of Vocational and Technical Education (CIVTE) were enabled to observe and review municipal school-based activities, to choose those outcomes that would assist China to better incorporate industry participation in VET, and to be more innovative in the design of VET policy
Phase II	
School based	Competency-based courses developed in the industry areas during phase one were expanded from 5 to 21 and now range from entry level certificate to diploma programs. A number of linkages between schools and some of key industry enterprises established
Municipal	All of the eight municipal ICCs led the development and review of new competency standards, which were approved. The VET teacher reform activities were expanded by CQNU. Twenty-five ACCVETP participants completed training for the Australian Certificate IV in training and assessment, which was delivered by a full-time teacher development adviser engaged through Holmesglen TAFE in Victoria
National	Establishment of a national ICC made up of national ministry representatives from related industries. This national ICC is working with the eight municipal ICCs, observing and reviewing the reforms they are putting in place. A draft national VET teacher competency standards and an associated quality framework were developed
International	Linking Chongqing schools to Australian Registered Training Organizations (RTOs) in each state by establishing a Sino Australia VET Network in 2005 and expansion of this network to include linkages between ISCs in Australia and Chongqing ICCs
	Swan TAFE in Western Australia was linked with the automotive tertiary pilot college, and the Illawarra TAFE Institute in New South Wales was linked with the electronics tertiary pilot college as two Sino Australia Cooperative Model TAFE colleges

Extracted and modified from Barnaart (2007)

final examination was still required after completion of the qualification in order for individuals to be recognized in the Chinese system.

Model B: Transfer of Australian VET knowledge via business partnership arrangements – Case: The Australian College of Kuwait (ACK)

The Australian College of Kuwait was sponsored by an Arab consortium, which established an investment partnership with the Boeing Company in 2004.

The college is managed by a consortium of Arab and Australian partners. The University of Tasmania, TAFE Tasmania, the Central TAFE in Western Australia, and Kangan Batman Institute of TAFE in Victoria (now Bendigo-Kangan) collaborated to deliver Australian accredited programs to Kuwaiti and international students, using Australian and local instructors. The ACK is introduced as the first private educational institution to start its operations from its purpose-built campus in Kuwait. Specialized equipment at ACK includes a ground-based Boeing 737–200 aircraft, aviation test benches and other sophisticated engineering equipment, a 57-foot boat, a state of the art marine simulator, and computer laboratories with the latest software. A broad range of short course, diploma, and degree programs in engineering and maritime programs in business, aviation, and English language are delivered at the ACK.

Both Kuwaiti and Australian teachers are employed to deliver programs at ACK. Through completion of the Certificate IV in Training and Assessment qualification (TAA04), local teachers became familiar with Australian VET regulatory frameworks and program design, delivery, and assessment practices. When they have completed the Cert IV-TAA, they undertook teaching practice in Australian training colleges for a period from a few months up to a year.

In Model B, the focus of transfer is the Australian qualification, and the agents who perform this transfer are the training managers and teachers. Neither the Australian industry organization role in determining standards nor the VET system role in endorsing standards is significant here. Unlike Model A where projects are driven by government agreements for systemic reform, in Model B the driving factors are business related and located within the operations of the training institution. The role of the Australian training package in this model is as a framework for the issuing of a nationally recognized Australian qualification. The use of the training package forms a bridge between Australian industry as the sources of technical information about skill formation and training institutions operating in a broad range of offshore contexts. "Business development" is the key promoter of the activities in this model, conducted by Australian universities and TAFE institutes. Offering Cert IV-TAA to local teachers of offshore programs can be regarded as a mechanism for developing Australian VET standards alongside local VET teaching practices.

While the training package technology was used by teaching staff as the basis for design of training programs and for delivery and assessment of training, it was not used explicitly as a source of standards relevant to local conditions. In other words, it is the Australian teaching and administration staff who are the key actors in fostering utilization of training packages, at institutional and individual levels, in the host context. Local Kuwaiti industry is not an actor in this transfer. The college is an offshore vehicle for Australian education and training

Model C: The transfer of Australian VET knowledge via outward Foreign Direct Investment – Case: The Sepon mine project by OZ Minerals in Laos

This model of transnational transfer refers to the use by Australian firms operating across national borders of the Australian VET system, as a framework for train-

Table 7.2 Training programs delivered at the Sepon mine site

Australian VET certificate programs	Other (nonaccredited) training programs
Cert. II and III in electrical trade skills and knowledge, metal TSK, building and construction, and automotive mechanical repairs	Computer skill training including MS Word, Excel, Access, Outlook, and PowerPoint
Cert. II, III, IV, Diploma in Metalliferous Mining Operations (processing)	Vehicle licenses and operating permits for heavy machinery and equipment
Certificate II in business	Unexploded explosives demolition
Certificate III in business administration	Exploration and geological surveying
Cert. III and IV in business (frontline management)	Safety training programs, including general safety, safety for forklifts, occupational H and S, risk assessment
Certificate IV in business (human resources)	English language skill training with five levels
Certificate IV in training and assessment.	Lao language skill training to improve the literacy levels of local employees

Extracted and modified from Matzdorf (2007, p. 23)

ing local workers. The case studied in this model is a mining project conducted by the Australian mining and exploration company OZ Minerals (known as Oxiana Ltd before 2008) in the Sepon district in Central Laos. OZ Minerals acquired Sepon gold and copper mines in the Lao PDR through its Laos subsidiary company, Lane Xang Minerals (LXML), in 2000. As a key strategy, OZ Minerals has opted to train and recruit local workers in its projects. The Sepon mine project is the largest foreign direct investment (FDI) project in Laos to date and has created a considerable number of employment opportunities for local workers. In 2006, a total of 3,372 full-time and casual employees worked at the Sepon mine site (Matzdorf 2007, p. 17).

With limited resources to spend on educational and industrial infrastructure, skill development programs in Laos have always been dependent on donations from overseas (Boupha 2007). The absence of a qualified and skilled Laotian workforce in mining and education prompted OZ Minerals to establish its own training operation. Table 7.2 includes a list of the training programs delivered by OZ Minerals at the Sepon mine site.

In July 2006, OZ Minerals initiated a Mining Apprenticeship Training Program for Sepon workers and signed a contract with RMIT University[5] to implement the required training for the apprenticeships under the auspice of the Australian national VET framework (Matzdorf 2007). The program provided 110 apprenticeship places to Lao workers over a 4-year period, the first program of its kind in Laos (Oxiana Limited 2006). Over the period of training delivered by RMIT University, Lao workers at Sepon received a total of 71,326 hours of technical training. In addition 2,928 h of cultural awareness training was delivered at Sepon and 1,152 h were delivered at the Golden Grove operation (Oxiana Limited 2006, p. 18).

[5] Bendigo-Kangan TAFE was also involved in the training as a subcontractor to RMIT University.

Whereas Model A involves systemic reform and Model B involves the offshore delivery of Australian qualifications to enrolled individuals, Model C involves the transfer of technical skills within a single company which is using Australian training package qualifications as a framework for company level training. In contrast to Model B, Model C has no host institute or local industry involvement. Individual Australian teachers and training managers play a major role in the transfer of knowledge by delivering training programs to non-Australian students in their own locale and at the point of practice. In this way, an Australian industry VET stakeholder and a registered training organization (RTO) are transferring Australian VET knowledge overseas via a foreign investment project.

Model C is uniquely an extension of the Australian VET system because it involves all three regulatory mechanisms in quality assurance. Trainers qualified under AQTF requirements deliver AQF qualifications, and the Australian registered training provider is audited according to AQTF standards. This has been a source of some controversy. There are Australian VET specialists and offshore project managers who find it hard to imagine how an Australian apprenticeship can be implemented in an offshore program. They are skeptical about the extent to which the outcomes of the program and the qualifications issued will be actually recognized by all aspects of the VET system: government, industry, and training providers.

A Classification of Transnational VET Activity

The key purpose of this study has been to explore and analyze transnational VET. The outcome of the study is the identification of three models that classify transnational VET according to six dimensions of activity: mechanism of transfer, drivers, key actors, purpose, context, and outcomes. This classification together with the implications for interactions between Australian and host country actors is shown in Table 7.3.

As a result of these different transactions, the form in which Australian training packages are transferred as Australian VET knowledge varies from one model to another. In the different settings, under different circumstances, this transfer saw the training package being the vehicle for:

- Transfer of regulatory and institutional knowledge for the operation of training as happened to some extent in Model A
- Transfer of knowledge and skills to individual learners (Models B and C)
- Transfer of new certification arrangements and training practices to teaching and administration staff (Model B)
- Transfer of Australian qualifications and quality standards (Models B and C)

All the studied models also involved the transfer of English language to non-English contexts. Model A includes some programs taught in English at the time of project implementation. In Model C, in the case studied here, interpreters were involved in training delivery. Programs in Model B have a stronger mechanism for

Table 7.3 A classification of transnational Australian VET activity

	Model A	Model B	Model C
Model type	International educational reform project	Transnational college-based training	Transnational company training
Model Description	Education and training policy as a vehicle for education reform	Training as a commodity being traded in a global market	Training as a tool for labor force development offshore
Mechanism for transfer of Aust. VET Knowledge	Intergovernmental project	Offshore training partnerships between Australian RTOs and local institutions in the host country	Outward foreign direct investment. No Australian host country institutional partnerships
Policy driver	Government policies in a global economic context	Transnational business strategies of investors and training providers	Host government foreign investment policies and corporate growth strategies in a global market
Funding driver	Australian aid agency and local government	Partnered institutes and (in some cases) sponsoring enterprise investment	Investing company facilitated by host country's government (i.e., removal of financial and policy impediments)
Key actors	Governments and government agencies	Australian VET providers, locally registered training institution and perhaps international companies	Australian/international company, Australian registered training provider
Purpose and context	Macro policy making	Institutional administration	Training practice
	Institutional administration	Training practice	
	Training practice		
Outcomes for students	Students may receive a host country qualification on successful completion. Receiving an Australian qualification is not the goal	Students may receive an AU nationally recognized qualification which may be recognized within Australia by job seekers	Trained workers receive an Australian nationally recognized trade qualification

(continued)

Table 7.3 (continued)

Model type	Model A International educational reform project	Model B Transnational college-based training	Model C Transnational company training
Level of interaction between Australian and local training actors	Highly political	Less political	No political intervention in training practice
	Highly institutional	Highly institutional	No local institutional involvement
	Individual engagement mediated by government policy, local institutional involvement, and enrollment as a student (*a vertical slice through the host system from policy making to local training practice*)	Individual engagement mediated by enrolment in training as a student	Individual engagement mediated by company as employer

fostering English learning at the global context as they are delivered in English, and they generally consider IELTS[6] as a prerequisite for enrollments.

The study revealed that Australian VET knowledge was being used in two different modes. The first mode involved the use of the Australian regulatory arrangements and practices to update, reform, and enrich local regulation and practice (model A). The second involved the use of the training package as a "*technology of trust*," *that is*, *an agent* which manages to hold the face value of its components (e.g., units of competency and qualifications) intact in different settings and under different training and assessment practice regimes (models B and C). Finally, the development of transnational activities according to each of these modes acts as a catalyst for the development and the expansion of the Australian VET approach to training regulation, in different forms and with different degrees of effectiveness in a global context.

[6] IELTS is a widely accepted English language test that assesses candidates' skills in four skill categories of listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The candidates will be given a score from 1 to 9 for each part of the test and the average produces an overall band score. The acceptable score bands for academic and professional organizations generally start from 6 for "competent user." The scores 7–9 refer to "good user, showing the candidate maintains an operational command of the language", "very good user, explaining the candidate has a fully operational command of the language"; and "expert user, showing the candidate has a full operational command of the language." IELTS is jointly owned by the British Council, IDP: IELTS Australia, and Cambridge English Language Assessment (British-Council 2014).

Transnational VET and Global Standards

Since this research project concluded, international VET activity has continued to increase. At the same time, there has been a growing recognition of the need for skills policies and mechanisms to enable a globally mobile labor force to access quality training and recognition in multiple regulatory jurisdictions (OECD 2011; UNESCO 2015). Both the OECD and UNESCO are currently leading projects aimed at addressing these needs.

Since 2011, the OECD has been designing and consulting on a global skills strategy, the aim of which is to support member and nonmember countries to improve VET provision. The strategy addresses responsiveness, quality and efficiency, flexibility, transferability, ease of access, and lowering costs through credit accumulation, credit transfer, and modular instruction (Towards an OECD Skills Strategy 2011, p. 3). At the same time, UNESCO has been engaged in global action to facilitate international comparison and recognition of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) qualifications. This work is an important outcome of the 3rd International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education and Training, held in Shanghai in May 2012. This Congress recommended that UNESCO explore the development of international quality assurance guidelines for the recognition of qualifications based on learning outcomes and identify a set of world reference levels (WRLs). The aim of the WRLs would be to facilitate international comparison of TVET qualifications to enable mutual recognition and support labor market mobility by offering a neutral, independent, and international reference point against which the level of learning can be compared and against which qualifications can be pegged.[7]

Implementing Global Standards: The WorldSkills Project

As international agencies move through the process of securing international policy agreements across diverse regulatory systems, a global skills organization, WorldSkills,[8] has moved into the global skills standards space through the development of specifications for all 50 skill areas represented at the biennial WorldSkills International Competition.[9] Since 1947, when the WorldSkills organization was launched in Spain to promote skills training to young people during the period of postwar reconstruction, it has grown into a global movement. The biennial international competition attracts over 1000 young people from its 73 member countries

[7] World Reference Levels of Learning Outcomes Experts Meeting 23–24 April 2015 IIEP Institute 7–9 rue Eugène-Delacroix, 75116 Paris Draft agenda

[8] https://www.worldskills.org/

[9] https://www.worldskills.org/what/competitions/worldskills-competitions/

and regions,[10] and WorldSkills is supported by major global corporations and industry associations. Competitions held by individual member countries and regions are similarly supported by global, national, and local enterprises, and WorldSkills is increasingly seen as a global resource for the promotion of excellence in skill development.

The WorldSkills Standards Specification (WSSS) for each skill has been developed in close consultation with leading industry associations and enterprises. Each specification identifies the skills, knowledge, and understanding that constitute international best practice in the work roles represented in the WorldSkills Competition.[11] In recognition of the importance of interpersonal attributes and so-called soft skills[12] to the development of expertise and conduct of the twenty-first-century work roles, the WSSS identifies broad vocational/employability skills[13] as well as specialist applications of broad skills[14] and specialist technical skills.[15]

Standards specifications and associated assessment strategies for all skill areas were implemented for the first time at the WorldSkills 2015 Competition held in Sao Paulo, Brazil. Outcomes are currently being analyzed by WorldSkills assessment advisors as part of a review and continuous improvement project through which WorldSkills aims to establish and promote a critical awareness of and capacity to work with, global vocational standards. Ongoing work on the WSSS and associated WorldSkills projects aimed at relating the standards specifications to national and international qualification frameworks and recognition and licensing systems is being followed closely by UNESCO as a possible model for the development of world reference levels.

As part of its commitment to the development of skills excellence, WorldSkills has made its standards specifications freely available[16] to education and training providers and interested individuals, for use as a reference point for growing and rewarding vocational performance, a benchmark for national and regional standards and a resource to support young people and adults working in an international context. Importantly this means that any training provider or system that chooses to use the WSSS as benchmarks for the delivery of training can also use the standards as a

[10] https://www.worldskills.org/about/members/

[11] https://www.worldskills.org/internal/competition-documentation/worldskills-standards-specification/

[12] Finnish research into the attributes and characteristics associated with vocational excellence (Nokelainen and Ruohotie 2002, 2009) and a subsequent study of competitors at the 2011 WorldSkills International Competition showed that medal winners scored higher on attributes such as perseverance, time management, self-reflection and motivation, and interpersonal and intrapersonal skills than non-medal winners (Nokelainen et al. 2012).

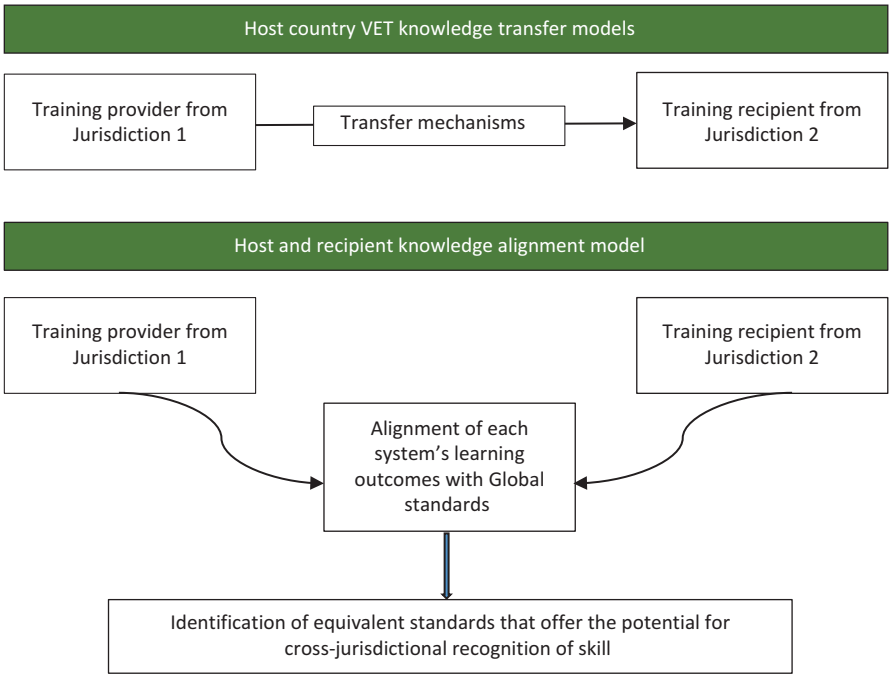
[13] Represented in each specification under the categories of Work Organization and Management and Communication and Interpersonal Skills

[14] For example, problem-solving in visual merchandizing, innovation creativity, and design in graphic design

[15] Such as fabrication and assembly in mobile robotics and using industrial controllers in mechatronics

[16] See https://www.worldskills.org/what/education-and-training/wsss/

Table 7.4 A potential post-transfer model



framework for aligning training standards. In this way the WSSS can play a role in the negotiation of international VET delivery to meet the standards of both host and recipient jurisdictions.

This leads us to propose a post-transfer model for the delivery of VET across jurisdictions. In this model the technology of trust is not bound to an individual jurisdiction, as, for example, the training package is bound to the Australian VET regulatory system. Instead the global standards constitute a multi-jurisdictional technology of trust – and a voluntary code to which participating entities subscribe. Such global standards, devised by a nongovernment organization, can act as an independent benchmark against which to align different sets of standards and identify equivalent standards that can facilitate skills recognition across national boundaries without affecting either set of national standards. In other words, rather than having to shoehorn the standards of one jurisdiction into the regulatory framework and practical conditions of another,[17] a set of general (and nonregulatory) standards can broadly reference a range of specific regulations and work practices. At the same time, the training in question can be certified against the practice standards of a global organization dedicated to the promotion of skills excellence. This model is illustrated in Table 7.4.

[17] See, for example, Chap. 9 of this volume (Dempsey and Tao 2017) concerning the challenges of adapting Australian training package qualifications in a Chinese context.

Conclusion

Reducing the dependency on curriculum that is specific to local contexts is regarded by Ziguras and Rizvi (2001) as a common approach to developing international programs in higher education. By definition, as a set of standards that are not tied to mandated instructional sequence, course content, or assessment instruments, the Australian training package does offer a strategy to reduce the dependency on curriculum. However, the training package has developed a paradoxically bilateral nature. On the one hand, its flexible foundation for the design of training qualifications encourages its globalization, fosters implementation in quite widely different contexts, frees teachers and students from the constraints of a centrally prescribed curriculum, and enables a range of delivery and assessment options to suit local needs and preferences. On the other hand, the training package has become more and more tightly tied to an Australian industrial and business context through the inclusion of workforce standards and regulations specific to Australian conditions (e.g., occupational health and safety, construction codes, licensing requirements) and through audit regimes that have come to demand forms of training institution governance, management, and training delivery that may be quite inappropriate outside Australia. This regulatory inclination to tie the training package to Australian settings and conditions is not likely to decrease in the near future.[18] Accordingly it is likely that the Australia-centric orientation of the audit regime will continue to be problematic in non-Australian settings. Further, the mode of competency-based training represented by the training package is likely to sit uneasily with nations that maintain or are adopting curriculum-based vocational systems as a tertiary education for school leavers and for workers deepening their skill base.

We suggest that it is the profit motive of global and transnational businesses (including training businesses) operating in and from Australia, and their capacity to reproduce Australian training and regulatory microsystems in their offshore premises, that will continue to be the main force fostering the transnational transfer of training packages and their regulatory framework. The value of the training package for such enterprises is also enhanced by the fact that Australian competency standards can be mapped readily to those of industries such as information technology which are driven by global/interoperable standards for design, production, and skill development and to transnational enterprise standards.

The question of the possible benefits and pitfalls of global standards – for individuals, national jurisdictions, and transnational enterprises – remains an arena for critical analysis. The hegemonic power of national standards over practices and behaviors within a jurisdiction may well pale into insignificance in the face of global standards endorsed and regulated by nations of the global north.

[18] Australian training has been quite radically deregulated over the past decade. As more private, for-profit training institutions gain national accreditation *and* access to state and commonwealth government funding, regulators are responding with ever-tighter regulatory requirements in order to address a scandalous level of corruption (ABC 2015a, b; ASQA 2016).

The impact of global standards designed and implemented by nongovernment agencies is less predictable – but likely to be less hegemonic than standards endorsed and utilized by government agencies and transnational corporations – because they are essentially voluntary codes, binding only on members and subscribers. Moreover, it will be necessary to account for WorldSkills as a not-for-profit movement promoting skills excellence and respect for those young people who choose to pursue craft rather than academically based careers. In this context global skills standards may offer a set of benchmarks with utility for individual and institutional advancement.

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Chapter 8
Adapting International Influences and Retaining 'Vietnamese Character' in VET in Vietnam

Ann Reich and Tien Thi Hanh Ho

Abstract This chapter focuses on how international VET programmes have been adopted and adapted in Vietnam, an area of limited research in Vietnam. As an illustration of this complex process, the chapter draws on data from a study of VET pedagogical practices across three sites in Central Vietnam, including a Vietnamese VET college, a foreign-funded VET college and a family workshop. The Vietnamese government has embarked on modernisation and industrialisation reform programmes to enhance its standing in ASEAN and enhance Vietnam's competitiveness in the process of international economic integration. These initiatives aim to develop a more qualified workforce by facilitating the expansion and diversification of educational training programmes suitable to local and regional human resource needs. A major contribution to this approach has not only been the international adoption but also the adaptation of international VET programmes and reforms. The chapter commences with an overview of government initiatives in VET as part of the current push for modernisation and the current provision of international VET programmes in Vietnam. It then explores a number of historical influences on VET in Vietnam (Confucian, French and Soviet), from feudal, colonial and post-colonial times, and how 'Vietnamisation' and adaptation to the 'Vietnamese character' has been preserved. An illustration is then provided of a foreign-funded college in order to highlight ongoing effects of foreign VET programmes on the Vietnamese national curriculum and the college pedagogical practices while maintaining 'the Vietnamese character'. The chapter concludes by discussing the ways VET in Vietnam has 'Vietnamised' the foreign programmes and the implications for VET internationalisation.

Keywords Vietnamese character • VET internationalisation • Vocational education and training • Vocational pedagogical practices • Vietnamese education

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Introduction

As Tran and Dempsey (2017, see Chap. 1) outline in the introductory chapter of this volume, internationalisation of vocational education and training (VET) has various foci, including student mobility across the globe and the adoption and adaptation of developed countries' VET models into developing countries. This chapter focuses on the latter aspect of internationalisation of VET, that is, how international VET programmes have been adopted and adapted in Vietnam. As an illustration of this complex process, the chapter draws on data from a study of VET pedagogical practices across three sites in Central Vietnam, including a Vietnamese VET college, a foreign-funded VET college and a family workshop.

The Vietnamese government has embarked on modernisation and industrialisation reform programmes to enhance its standing in ASEAN and enhance Vietnam's competitiveness in the process of international economic integration. The reform has focused on a knowledge economy, technology development (e.g. saving energy), globalisation and economic integration (see *Strategy for Social and Economic Development* 2011–2020, *Strategy for Vietnam's Industrialisation until 2020* (Quốc hội Việt Nam 2013; Thủ tướng chính phủ 2013)). Some key government policies and initiatives, such as the *Strategy for Education Development* 2011–2020, were released to meet these demands for high-quality human resources for the industrialisation and modernisation reforms. These initiatives have adopted a 'developmental' approach to the internationalisation of VET. In other words, it aims to develop a more qualified workforce by facilitating the expansion and diversification of educational training programmes suitable to local and regional human resource needs. A major contribution to this approach has not only been the international adoption but also the adaptation of international VET programmes and reforms (Dempsey and Tao 2017, Chap. 9 for similar process in China).

Higher education has been the main focus in the research literature on the internationalisation of education in Vietnam (London 2011; Pham 2014; Tran et al. 2014; Welch 2010). To date research on VET internationalisation in Vietnam is often included as only a small section of these research papers and not its main focus (Ho 2014; Mac et al. 2012; T. A. Nguyen 2009).

This chapter aims to address this gap in the research literature on the internationalisation of VET Vietnam. It uses the data from an empirical study of the VET pedagogical practices in the three VET sites, to explore the way Vietnam has, over many centuries, 'adopted' international VET systems and practices, but at the same time, these have always been adapted to maintain its 'Vietnamese character' – or as H. P. Tran (1998) names – a process of Vietnamisation. This concept, and H. P. Tran's (1998) analysis of the international historical influences in the Vietnamese tertiary education sector, is used in this chapter to frame the exploration of international influences and Vietnamisation processes in VET in Vietnam. The chapter commences with an overview of government initiatives in VET as part of the current push for modernisation and the current provision of international VET programmes in Vietnam. It then explores a number of historical influences on VET in Vietnam

(Confucian, French and Soviet), both from feudal, colonial and post-colonial times, and how Vietnamisation and adaptation to the 'Vietnamese character' has been preserved. An illustration is then provided of a foreign-funded college in order to highlight ongoing effects of foreign VET programmes on the Vietnamese national curriculum and the college pedagogical practices while maintaining 'the Vietnamese character'.

The chapter concludes by discussing the ways VET in Vietnam has 'Vietnamised' the foreign programmes and the implications for VET internationalisation.

The Context for Educational Reforms: Internationalisation of Education in Vietnam

Since the launch of political and economic reforms in 1986, known as *Doi Moi*, Vietnam has been transformed from one of the poorest countries in the world, with per capita income around $100, to a per capita income of over $2000 by 2014 (World Bank 2015). Vietnam has undertaken the dual process of transitioning from a centrally planned economy to a socialist-oriented market economy so as to integrate itself into a rapidly changing world. The renovation of education, a key part of the society's development, has been a major focus of governmental attention. As Professor Tran Van Nhung, a former Minister of Education and Training, stated (Phuong Lien 2013), internationalisation is essential for the required rapid change and the enhancement of Vietnamese education. Internationalisation of education is viewed as a key strategy in developing these new skills for life, work and global competition (Phuong Lien 2013) and the most effective solution for Vietnamese education development (Phuong Lien 2013). These reforms have included calls for increased foreign investment in education. Internationalisation has appeared in many local and national policies and strategies in the Vietnamese context. One example is the *National Strategy for Education Development and Strategy for Vocational Education Development in the stages of 2001–2010 and 2011–2020* which aims to train and prepare a skilled labour force for integration and modernisation (Mac et al. 2012). Among these strategic plans, internationalisation of education, especially VET, is identified as an important element in accelerating that process, particularly as Vietnam is facing the integration into ASEAN by the end of 2015.

This strategy of adopting and adapting international educational models to build a Vietnamese education system is not new and was espoused by Ho Chi Minh, the first leader of modern Vietnam. Ho Chi Minh's ideology about integration and internationalisation became the basis of the Vietnamese Communist Party's education policies adopted in 1986 – that is, 'to highly develop inside powers and explore outside powers, and to combine the people's strength with the era's strengths in a new condition' (Phan 2015, pp. 6–7). This 'lesson' was implemented in the later congresses (in 1991, 1996, 2001 and 2006). More recently, Prof. Tran Van Nhung

indicated that there should not be a concern about the loss of the 'Vietnamese identity' [bản sắc dân tộc] in the educational integration process because of the firm patriotism and strength of the 'Vietnamese character'.

This theme of adopting education models from other countries but maintaining the 'Vietnamese character' is evident in national documents of the Communist Party of Vietnam (Dang Cong San Viet Nam 2001) which offer guidance on internationalisation. They suggest that Vietnam must see the world in a state of constant change, but also must see itself as an equal force. It must stand firmly on its viewpoints and perspectives but be flexible in its international cooperation, with a mutual spirit of learning from each other (Dang Cong San Viet Nam 2001). In fact, the slogan 'Hội nhập nhưng không hoà tan' [integration without dissolution] (e.g. Anh Huyen 2014; Trần 2015) has been quoted in many documents and formal speeches in Vietnam in recent times. Integration, modernisation and industrialisation of the nation are its essence in this globalised stage; however, the 'Vietnamese character' must always be maintained. This is also reflected in the main directive of the *National Strategy for Education Development and Strategy for Vocational Education Development in 2001–2010 and 2011–2020* which aims to expand cooperative and exchange activities with other advanced education systems (Thủ tướng chính phủ 2012). This strategy focuses on enhancing the international integration in education on the basis of the preservation and enhancement of traditional values or 'Vietnamese characters' [bản sắc dân tộc].

Current Internationalisation of VET in Vietnam

Currently the internationalisation of VET activities has been widely spread across government, private and donor-supported institutions in Vietnam (similar to the approach in China as discussed in Dempsey and Tao 2017, Chap. 9). According to the Vietnam International Education Development (VIED), the Ministry of Education and Training which approves international programmes, there are currently 273 international training programmes focused mainly in higher education (VIED 2015). These programmes have different funding sources. Some are 100 % foreign government-funded programmes. Some are partly funded programmes or combined training programmes (2 years in Vietnam and 1 or 2 years in a foreign country) or self-funded programmes (private) (VIED 2015). In addition to the above registered programmes, there are many unregistered programmes that offer certificates or short courses provided by donor or nongovernment organisations.

There are also various forms of *cooperative training programmes* regulated by Government Circular (Circular No. 48/2015/ND-CP regarding international cooperation in VET training in Chapter III, Section 1 (Thủ tướng Chính phủ 2015)). These *cooperative training programmes* vary in relation to the curricula and the type of degree awarded. It includes programmes with Vietnamese or codesigned curricula for which a Vietnamese degree is awarded, programmes with foreign partner curricula in which a Vietnamese degree is awarded or programmes delivered in

Vietnam based on the foreign partner's curricula and for which a recognised foreign degree is awarded.

In the *Vietnamese National VET Report 2011*, Mac et al. (2012) indicate that VET has strongly developed many national bilateral and multilateral cooperative training programmes with over 40 foreign countries. This first report on VET in Vietnam, which was undertaken with the cooperative support of Vocational Training Research Institute, Vietnam, Federal Institute for Vocational Education and Training (BIBB) and Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ), includes useful illustrations of the development of VET international cooperation programmes (Mac et al. 2012; see Chap. 7). The report highlights that Vietnam has selected its strategic partners that are perceived to be successful in their VET provision, in order to learn from these developed countries' experiences. These include Germany, Korea, Japan, Australia and Malaysia (Tổng cục đào tạo nghề 2015). Recent cooperative VET projects include two supported by the German Government – *Sustainable economic development and VET*, which aims to develop a VET system that is demand-oriented (Mac et al. 2012) and the encouragement of a 'Green TVET' (Tổng cục đào tạo nghề 2015). Other VET programmes supported by international donors (i.e. World Bank (WB), Asian Development Bank (ADB), International Labour Organization (ILO)) have also aimed to contribute to the development of a VET system that provides a skilled labour force for the regional and international integration of Vietnam. As indicated in the research by Mac et al. (2012), financial support from these countries and donor organisations has contributed to the growth of Vietnamese VET internationalisation.

In addition to the international cooperation and partnerships at a national level, vocational institutions have actively sought their own *partnerships* with other countries. For example, VET institutions in different parts of Vietnam have developed partnerships with Singapore, the USA, Australia and Korea, particularly cooperative training programmes (i.e. either 100 % international training programmes or 70 % international training programmes/30 % Vietnamese training programmes). Through these programmes, Vietnam has increased the opportunities for students to experience an international learning environment in their homeland and gain an award from an internationally recognised degree. This international recognition offers mobility for Vietnamese students and potentially can provide Vietnamese graduates with better skills to help their future employment (Mac et al. 2012), despite the limitations of qualified staff, facilities and management (Mac et al. 2012; Vu 2015).

Aside from the international cooperative training programmes described above, internationalisation in Vietnamese VET has focused on:

1. Staff training or professional development
2. Building up National Qualification Framework (NQF), National Vocational Qualification Framework (NVQF) and standard skill sets
3. Linking enterprises with vocational training (Mac et al. 2012)

Specifically, there are noticeable increases in the cooperation in relation to staff development programmes, extending earlier exchange programmes for experts,

staff and employees to visit France, the USA and countries in the former Soviet Union or experts' visits to Vietnam to deliver VET programmes (Ho 2014). Some of these recent programmes are:

- 191 vocational teachers undertaking *Certificate IV in Teaching and Assessment* in Australia
- 103 vocational teachers achieving level 3 and level 4 certificates of vocational skills in Malaysia between 2013 and 2014
- Short courses delivered by Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ), International Labour Organization (ILO) and City and Guilds from the UK (Tổng cục đào tạo nghề 2015)

This latest wave of international influences on VET comes from a variety of Western and Asian countries such as Australia, the USA, Singapore, Japan, Korea (Barabasch et al. 2017, see Chap. 11), and some European countries, such as France, Germany and England. This has resulted in changes in management, assessment, VET teaching and general education (Ho and Reich 2014). This trend of VET internationalisation has been evident in many different historical stages of Vietnam. It has continued the international historical influences on Vietnamese education over many centuries – and their remaining legacies. These are traced in the next section.

Overview of Historical Influences on VET Internationalisation in Vietnam

As L. T. Tran et al. (2014) argue, the internationalisation in education has been closely shaped by the historical, economic and political circumstances of the nation. Vietnamese society and indeed its education have felt the deep imprint of many foreign influences. These come from over 1000 years of domination by China, over 100 years of French colonisation, 20 years of US invasion and decades of Soviet support dealing with the consequences of colonialism. Each of these historical phases has left legacies on the Vietnamese education system. Importantly, however, over the past 40 years, Vietnam has built on these legacies to set up its education system, with its own characteristics and values.

As mentioned above, there has been over 1000 years of domination by the Chinese in Vietnam, and this is evident in the strong influences of Confucianism in the VET system, particularly in relation to its pedagogical practices (Ho and Reich 2014). During Feudal times, internationalisation took the form of the introduction of Chinese education – Confucian education – which had a profound effect on Vietnamese culture (Phan 2015). Confucianism is still reflected in current VET pedagogical practices, such as in the preference for knowledge transmission to students using teacher-centred methods and rote learning, the high respect for teachers and a lack of encouragement for students to be questioning (Dang 2009; Ho and Reich 2014; Ngo 2011; T. T. H. Nguyen 2012; Welch 2010; see also Chap. 10 for Confucian influence in Korea).

The Confucian influence is also evident in the *Vietnamese Vocational Education Law* 2014 which highlights the training of students to be good 'gentlemen' apropos to other objectives relating to professional skills. Confucianism is also said to emphasise harmony, dignity and morality in both family and society (Welch 2010). These are also mentioned in the *Vocational Education Law* 2014. However, this ideology is often modified so as to fit the Vietnamese context of a socialist country (Ho and Reich 2014). Also, the low status of VET is seen as a part of the Confucian tradition, with its preference for higher education degrees and formal learning (Ho 2014; Ho and Reich 2014; Mac et al. 2012). For example, according to MOET statistics, currently there are 472 colleges and universities in Vietnam (in July 2014) including the new establishment or upgrading of 133 colleges and universities between 2007 and 2013 (Quang Cong 2014). The extensive growth of colleges and universities instead of vocational schools in Vietnamese society suggests a preference for higher degrees, disregarding the unemployment of 162,000 current university graduates. In short, although new social values have emerged in modern Vietnamese society and education, Confucian values still have a strong influence and concurrently exist with the new social values (Truong 2013).

The *French* influences on VET in Vietnam date back to the early twentieth century when the French colonial government established the formal vocational education (Vo 2012). As Dang (2009) claimed, the Vietnamese education system, particularly tertiary education, was still heavily based on French programmes and content until 1954 (when the Soviets came to Vietnam). The French introduced a modern science-oriented education in Vietnam at that time including general education with foundation knowledge (i.e. physics, chemistry, language) (Ho and Reich 2014; Vo 2012). Nowadays, Vietnamese tertiary education continues to have some similarities to France's system, including its central management (H. P. Tran 1998) and the inclusion of general education and foundational knowledge. However, as discussed above, these educational influences have been combined with the influences of, for example, Confucianism and modified by the needs of the Vietnamese society.

There is also ample evidence of the *Soviet* influences on Vietnam's VET system. As Phan (2015) claims, the Soviet Union's support in the early twentieth century for Vietnam's development offered opportunities to integrate into the world and the region and establish its socialist education system. These Soviet influences are found in the strong inclusion of general education and the emphasis on theory. For example, Ho's research confirmed (Ho and Reich 2014) that there were 805 periods of general education out of a total 2110 periods in a 3-year VET training programme at both Vietnamese government's vocational colleges and foreign-funded college. The foundation knowledge and general education influenced of the French systems has been reinforced by the Soviet emphasis on general education, although it added a focus on political education, such as Leninism or Marxism philosophy. Soviet curricula and textbooks are still evident in the delivery of Maths, Advanced Maths 1 and 2 (Ho and Reich 2014; H. P. Tran 1998), and the Soviet influences are further evident in ongoing emphasis on theory-based classes over workshops and work experience (Ho and Reich 2014; Mac et al. 2012).

Importantly, in spite of the international influences found in Vietnamese VET system, it still maintains its own 'Vietnamese character' (H. P. Tran 1998). As mentioned above, even though there has been a long history of colonisation and domination by China, France, Soviet Union and the USA, Vietnam has not been likened to these foreign cultures. It has still kept its characteristics and selectively adapted appropriate strategies from these countries to improve its VET system (Phan 2015).

Significantly, the Vietnamisation has been a process of adaptation of French and Confucian general education, with Soviet political education. For example, the moral education rooted in Confucianism, which has been inserted in general education within the national VET curriculum, also includes political education, and this combination shapes VET curricula in Vietnam today. This means that when new training programmes are adapted from Western countries, such as module curricula with competency-based training from Germany, some of the characteristics of the Western partners' educational approaches are combined with Vietnamese educational features (i.e. moral education, political education) to make up the current Vietnamised VET curricula. This results in programmes that are best fitted to Vietnam's target of a market-driven economy with a socialist orientation. This process of adoption and adaptation exemplifies Tran's concept of Vietnamisation and reflects the national policies/strategies that foreground the importance of the consideration of Vietnamese values, traditions at all points in the renovation process.

Further, the Vietnamisation of VET was also evident in pedagogical practices observed in the research undertaken in the two colleges. For example, the research found that today's teachers are combining the traditional (i.e. lecturing) and new teaching methods (i.e. group work activities) and using computer teaching aids, in both theory and practical classes. This combination of pedagogical approaches is a response to the government's requests for renovation in teaching and learning but also reflects the strong influence of Confucian culture on learning. However, the human, technical and institutional resources required for learning and teaching new curricula are rarely available.

The Vietnamese VET system has not automatically imported training programmes, or teaching methods from other countries. These programmes have been adapted and modified to best fit its needs and contexts. As mentioned above, Vietnamisation is evident in the inclusion of general education, moral education and political education in VET programmes – attempting to ensure education meets society's demands for a perfect citizen with both skills, knowledge and good characteristics and its condition as a socialist country (Ho and Reich 2014).

A Foreign-Funded VET Institute in Vietnam

This section provides a specific example of Vietnamisation by drawing on data collected from the study of a foreign-funded college. It illustrates the complex uptake of foreign ideas and processes while maintaining the 'Vietnamese character'.

The college was established initially as a vocational school under the direct management of its province, with the support of a national project funded by a Western government. This project focused on establishing the college's infrastructure, a new curriculum, teaching materials, facilities and staff training. College staff were sent to this Western country to learn the curriculum and pedagogical practices as well as being offered local training courses. In addition, Western experts were employed in the college to supervise and guide leaders, teachers and students in all aspects of the college – managing, teaching, learning and assessment.

While the Western country provided overall support for the college, a different form of curriculum was implemented. It was a competency-based or module training programme that emphasised specific subskills required by certain careers (leader's interview). Interestingly students, who were under this training programme, graduated and successfully found employment.

As one of the teachers at this college explained:

> When I was first in the foreign country training for the Module delivery, experts there said Vietnam could not apply this kind of delivery because there were many reasons preventing it from being implemented. However, a few years later, the module programmes were formally applied at vocational colleges across Vietnam. (Teacher's interviews – T1. 2013)

The curriculum was adapted to the Vietnamese context in a number of ways. Firstly, while the Western curriculum focused on subskills (e.g. lathing, welding), the Vietnamese adaption, on which the national VET curriculum is now based, covers a broad range of skills, such as mechanical engineering, enabling graduates to have increased choices in finding a job. Secondly, this Western curriculum was also zed and redesigned by modifying the focus and adding general education subjects such as physical training, law and political and moral education (teachers' interviews – T1.2013).

After the completion of the foreign-funded project, this vocational school was upgraded into a vocational college delivering the training programme of Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs (MOLISA), under the Ministry's supervision and management (college's websites – 'Introduction'). This new MOLISA curriculum was largely based on the Vietnamised curriculum from this foreign-funded college. The foreign experts returned to their country but visited once a year to check the operation of the college (teachers and leader's interviews).

The Vietnamisation in the internationalisation VET process is also apparent in the pedagogical practices, with a mixture of new teaching or integrated or problem-based methods (brought in by foreign-funded programmes), remaining alongside traditional ones (Ho 2014). This is revealed in the teachers' interviews and observations at both classrooms and workshops in this vocational college. As one teacher stated during an interview:

> Other teachers and I often use traditional teaching methods to transfer the knowledge and skills to students. If we do not give a lecture, use explanation and clarification, students are not able to do research by themselves. (Teachers' interviews – T2.2013)

Although the college teachers and the leader understood the importance and advantages of this new teaching method, it demanded substantial time for teachers to prepare activities and help students develop their creativity. So while the reforms in teaching and learning are a requirement and appear in many official documents, the teachers were only found to apply a certain level of change. As one teacher commented, 'Generally speaking, the change is not much' (teacher's interview – T1.2013).

The discussion of the college above provides a glimpse of the complex ways in which foreign-funded VET programmes are embedded in local VET practices. The new facilities, curriculum innovations and different teaching and learning approaches are embedded in the college – but the 'Vietnamese character' remained. This can be seen partly in the deliberate inclusion of general and moral education modules, but also in the 'hanging on' to traditional teaching and learning methods by teachers and students, through the legacy of previous international influences of the Confucian, French and Soviet.

Conclusion

The pressure on Vietnam to modernise to compete in the global economy has prompted national strategies to rapidly increase the skills of its labour force. As a strategy to achieve this skilled workforce, governments and institutions have developed international cooperative programmes which aim to adopt VET models from a range of Asian and Western countries. But these programmes are not effective when just 'dropped' into a different historical, social and economic context. As illustrated in the example above, these programmes are not starting with a blank slate. They are layered on thousands of years of historical influences on vocational education and training practices in Vietnam – particularly the Confucian, French and Soviet influences. In each historical stage, Vietnam has adopted parts of the latest influence, but zed it. In the example described above, the strong emphasis on general and moral education has remained and has been added onto the Western curriculum, as well as maintaining some traditional teaching and learning approaches. Importantly, this maintenance of the 'Vietnamese character' challenges simplistic arguments of the 'westernisation and colonisation' of education in non-western countries.

As the educational researcher, Professor Tran Van Nhung has stated, the Vietnamese people are taking efforts to learn from other countries' experience and more importantly, learn from their own educational history to build up the most suitable education for Vietnam in the internationalisation stage (Phuong Lien 2013). VET in Vietnam is learning from other advanced VET system and adapting its system in response to the push for VET internationalisation towards 2020. However, many challenges in the Vietnamisation of VET programmes and systems remain.

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Chapter 9
Australian VET in China: What Has Changed?

Kate Dempsey and Xia Tao

Abstract This chapter looks at the export of Australian vocational education and training to Chinese students under the Australian Quality Training Framework – the AQTF (now replaced by the National VET Regulation Standards). This practice began in the 1990s and has grown and expanded to the extent that export of Australian VET qualifications now occurs to over 45 countries around the world. The most active education providers in this export of Australian VET – especially to China – have been the public VET providers in the Australian State of Victoria. These independent public VET providers (called TAFE Institutes) offer more than 70 % of Australia's vocational training offshore. The chapter notes the initial fit between the imperative of Victorian public TAFE providers to expand their revenue sources and to supply additional funding to their home institutes by offering training in China, with the need of the government of China to provide world-class training for its rapidly growing industrial and manufacturing sectors. The requirements and drivers of both countries have shifted since the 1990s. China has matured as a market for western style VET and is now creating its own system using good practice aspects of other VET systems. The chapter highlights some of the challenges of importing a foreign system of vocational training into China. It uses the case example of Victorian public VET providers' attempts to foster mutual trust and respect via their association, Victorian TAFE International (VTI), and the best practice documents it publishes. It also comments on activities in Australia undertaken by VTI, to enhance flexibility of Australian qualifications while retaining their quality outcomes, in order to incorporate the needs and specific local milieu of students in China.

Keywords Vocational education • China • Vocational education policy • Educational partnerships • Education adaption

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Introduction

In the 1970s, the Chinese leader Deng Xiaoping's open-door policy led to industrial modernization in China, engagement with the world in terms of trade and manufacture and therefore increased need for vocational education and training in China to keep pace with industry growth. However, large-scale changes were needed to make the Chinese vocational education and training (VET) system cater effectively to the growing needs of international trade and industry. Reform of the existing VET system was needed, in particular, in making VET facilities modern and accessible across all regional areas of the Chinese nation, updating training content and teaching methodologies and ensuring graduates were skilled for the work that was required of them (Wang 2007). Traditionally links between Chinese VET schools and industry have been limited, and employers had low expectations of vocational entry-level workers (Velde 2009). In addition, in China (as in other nations), parents aspire for their child to reach university, and a VET qualification is therefore devalued (Han and Singh 2005; Shi and Tang 2009) as parents believe in the higher status and higher potential earnings of a university degree. Once a student enters the VET stream in senior high school in China, it has been extremely difficult historically to transfer to university. Influenced by over 2000 years of Confucianism, which emphasizes scholarly endeavor for the greater good, Chinese families tend to value and prefer a university degree for their single child to guarantee their success (Cao and Tran 2014). Vocational education is often seen as the province of the poor, the unsuccessful or the manual worker (Tilak 2003).

As China opened its economy to market forces, technical colleges and polytechnics were established in order to train people in the skills that are required by the labor force. One of the key initiatives of the government was to seek international co-operation with VET reform. Before co-operation could be considered with other nations, China created regulations on exactly who could operate in China and in what ways. The policy of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party, *Decision on the reform of the structure of education*, emphasized the need for scientific and technological experts, as well as intermediate and junior level technicians (Misko et al. 2002, p. 25).

Since the decade of the 1990s, many co-operative alliances have been made with vocational colleges and universities from Australia, Germany and the United States. These arrangements have introduced the German dual education system, the American Community Colleges model and the Australian competency-based learning model into China. Regulation, principally from China, but also from partner nations, continues to shape the way in which co-operation evolves. As Fisher and Saunders (2017, Chap. 6) note, governments around the world generally have a good understanding of the value of transnational education; however, policy implementation can undermine or contradict this value.

Educational reform continues in China. In 2005, the central government invested heavily in VET capacity building. From 2006 to 2010, it set up and funded 2000 VET practicum-training bases, improved facilities for 27,000 secondary VET schools and supported 100 demonstration HVTEs (higher vocational technology education). The most recent plan – China's National Plan for Medium – and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010–2020) – declares 'the destiny of our nation rests on education'. According to the Plan, China will carry out multi-level education exchanges and co-operation in a wide range of areas, improve the level of internationalization of education, cultivate a large cohort of internationalized talent which can participate in international affairs and competition with international vision and be familiar with international law and regulation (Ministry of Education, People's Republic of China, 2010).

As recently as April 2015, The Ministry of Education in China has again used policy and regulation to continue to drive change to international partnerships, by creating an online information management system for transnational education partnerships. It has also published an updated list of approved joint ventures and a registration system for joint programs and institutes below degree level, a registration and verification system for overseas qualifications and degrees and a publication system for annual reports and other relevant information from joint programs and institutes (see http://www.jsj.edu.cn).

At the same time, government-owned Australian vocational education providers, which are called Technical and Further Education (TAFE) providers, offer Australian Certificates and Diplomas in China to Chinese students, and policy shifts in Australia also influence these offerings. These courses are designed, approved and regulated purely with the Australian domestic student in mind. In addition, Australian education providers must deal with changes to Australian-based policy, regulation, training content and audit and compliance regimes, which affect their activities offshore.

This chapter analyzes the models that exist in Sino-Australian VET partnerships, focusing on case studies in Guangdong Province, and as such it builds on the research work of Rahimi and Smith (2017, Chap. 7) who have looked at similar issues regarding Sino-Australian education partnership models. It also reflects on the efforts of public VET providers from the Australian State of Victoria to develop good practice in transnational vocation education. It notes the growth and development of these relationships over 20 years and the changing needs of education partners in China. It concludes that while motivations for offering transnational education may be financial or for industry training upgrade, what really matters is how the transactions occur at the 'coalface'. It is at the practitioner level that we see true partnerships evolve and mutual respect grow so that learning may occur for both parties to an educational partnership. This finding concurs with Rahimi and Smith who note that changes and innovation can occur by key actors without the intention of governments or education systems.

Convergence of Educational Outcomes Across Borders

What is the purpose of education? This remains a question despite decades of globalized initiatives in education. The question links to much broader issues surrounding globalization and, in the case of China, its entry into global capital markets. With the current trend towards dismissing trade barriers and the merging of systems around the world, including education, views tend to be polarized around notions that this is either for the greater good or is a new form of hegemonic neo-colonialism (Steiner-Khamsi 2004, p. 4). Welch (2001) argues that dialog and mutual respect between nations and education systems are under threat by the trend for globalization in education.

While globalization is a real phenomenon, the situation regarding what is adopted and adapted in education systems by nation states around the world is not as clear-cut. Governments frequently step back from being providers of education to the local citizenry and shift to the role of controlling the boundaries around education and determining the extent to which their education system will be internationalized (Carney 2009). Governments attempt to regulate and moderate which education reforms they adopt and how they adopt them as well as using visa regimes to control the movement of organizations and students across borders (Ziguras and McBurnie 2015). Fisher and Saunders (2017, Chap. 6) note the contradictions in policy when governments applaud knowledge transfer across national boundaries, but make student movement difficult with complex visa regimes. UNESCO (2012) publishes data on school enrollments across nations and, in Australia's region, ASEAN (2013) does the same thing, promoting and monitoring progress in cross-border mobility and developing national training frameworks and a common set of competency standards across the ASEAN nations. However, it does note (almost as an aside) that as a common vocational education system becomes a reality and mobility is encouraged, so some member states may suffer skill shortages as trained workers move to where jobs are plentiful (p. 12). The Australian Government also promotes the global mobility of its own citizens (New Colombo Plan, 2013[1] and Australia Going Global 2013) due to the demands of globalization. But this characterization is 'trendy' as Steiner-Khamsi and Stopes (2006, p. 1) suggest and does not adequately inform us of the rationale, demand or the process of internationalization. To see the internationalization of education as either wholly for the good or as the destroyer of local autonomy belies its true complexity. Decisions to adopt or export education systems may be made at central or government level, but how frontline staff accommodate these transfers across national borders is of interest in this chapter.

Global bodies such as the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund and the UN tend to apply western models of education to their global templates (Marginson and Mollis 2001) and prefer globalized systems and policies, and they benchmark outcomes across countries. But it is not clear as to whether developing nations (funding recipients) whole heartedly apply westernized versions of education and

[1] http://dfat.gov.au/people-to-people/new-colombo-plan/pages/new-colombo-plan.aspx

indeed if this is a desirable outcome. Steiner-Khamsi and Stopes (2006) highlight the increasing convergence of educational outcomes across borders (as monitored by bodies such as the OECD and UNESCO) for the stated purpose of international mobility and global employment possibilities but also note in their work in Mongolia that in some cases only 'lip service' is paid to the desires of international funding bodies for the adoption of western models of education, while money is in fact used for domestic priorities and reform. Barabasch et al. (2017, Chap. 11) suggest this may have also been the case in Korea in the past.

Internationalization of education most recently has largely been linked to commercial goals and the marketization of education (Marginson 2007; Matthews and Sidhu 2005). In the past 20 years, the key imperative in the development of transnational Australian vocational education and training has been economic. This too has been China's key reason for adopting VET systems from other countries. China entered the global market very rapidly and required significant upgrading to its vocational and technical education system in order to compete globally. It undertook therefore a strategic engagement with other nations to radically improve its education. It did not deal with private sector education in the main or non-government agencies in developing its education reforms. Its aim was to modernize its industry.

The adoption and/or adaption of vocational education and training in China is best seen as a complex process of borrowing and lending or a 'both-and' approach to the strategic development of education programs (Shams and Huisman 2012 and Barabasch et al. 2017, Chap. 11). In one sense there are three levels of interaction. Firstly all transnational partnerships are made with notional compliance to Chinese and Australian national goals and policy, but secondly they are made with the desire to fulfil provider level aims. At a provider level, there are the aims of financial gain (for Australian education managers) and learning ways to modernize vocational training (Chinese policy-makers). However, there is also a third level of interaction and that is how these levels of interaction collide in practice, and this is the focus of this chapter. The chapter looks at the local level arrangements and the efforts of Australian frontline teaching staff to build a composite model, where Australian and Chinese policy and regulations are adhered to and where financial reward is gained, but where respect for the skills, experience and priorities of the Chinese partner are also promoted.

This has been a learning environment for public VET providers in Australia, and as the next section demonstrates, various models of partnering have been developed over time.

Guangdong and Australian VET Partnerships

In China the province of Guangdong has been at the forefront of VET transnational partnership developments, and most recently there have been more than ten higher vocational institutes in Guangzhou (the capital of Guangdong Province) with international co-operative programs. These include those listed in the table below.

Table 9.1 Guangdong province VET partnerships

Chinese vocational institute	Foreign partner institutes	Courses offered
Shenzhen Polytechnic Institute	Northern Sydney Institute of TAFE	International Business
	Ballarat University (now Federation University)	Finance and Securities
Lingnan Institute of Technology	Northern Melbourne Institute of Technology (now Melbourne Polytechnic)	Accounting and Financial Services and International Business
Qingyuan Polytechnic	Brisbane North Institute of TAFE (now TAFE Brisbane)	International Economics and Trade
Guuangzhou Institute of Technology	Britain NCC	International Economics and Trade
Guangdong Technical Institute of Water Resources and Electrical Engineering	Holmesglen Institute	Building Engineering Technology and Design
ZhongShan Polytechnic	Kangan Institute of TAFE (now Bendigo-Kangan)	Marketing and Tourism
Guangdong Mechanical and Electrical Polytechnic	Northern Sydney Institute of TAFE	Business Management Tourism Management
Guangzhou Civil Aviation College	Seneca College of Applied Arts and Technology, Canada	Civil Aviation
Shunde Polytechnic	Northern Sydney Institute of TAFE	Logistics and E-Commerce
Guangdong Food and Drug Vocational Institute	Box Hill Institute	Management and Administration of Drugs and Bio-pharmaceutical Technology

Source: Tao Xia and Liu Xiaodan (2012), Project code 1240135

In Australia, it is the government-owned VET institutes in the State of Victoria which have led the way in terms of developing partnerships with VET providers in China (Table 9.1).

The table shows that of the 11 foreign institutes partnering in Guangdong Province, nine of the partnership arrangements are with Australian TAFE institutes, and of these five are from the Australian State of Victoria. TAFE institutes are the public, government-owned vocational education and training institutions in Australia.

Australian public TAFE institutions deliver their offshore courses either in English (77.4 %) or in a combination of English and the local language (18.8 %). Australian TAFE institutions mainly provide teaching in classrooms (86 %) when

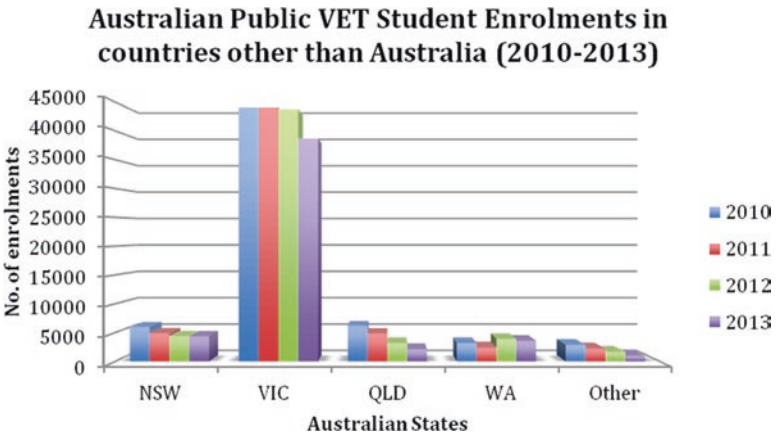

Fig. 9.1 Australian public VET provider transnational student enrollments (Source: Chart created by authors using source data from NCVER (2011, 2012, 2013, 2014) Delivery Offshore by Public Providers. National Centre for Vocational Education Research)

operating overseas from Australia. Around 50 % of offshore public VET courses are taught by local teachers in the country of delivery, and 45.1 % are taught by teachers from Australia. Of the 499 VET courses delivered offshore by public institutions, although the majority of courses (67.5 %) are of less than 12-month duration, the majority of student enrollments (65.2 %) are in VET courses with a duration of a year or more. This is because there is an element of learning English as a second language added to the beginning of most courses taught offshore. The vast majority of students in Australia's transnational VET are located in China.[2]

In most jurisdictions in Australia, the TAFE institutes are controlled centrally by the state government bureaucracy; however, in the state of Victoria, there has long been a high degree of independence and autonomy for each of the TAFE institutes. This autonomy has led to the Victorian institutes seeking entrepreneurial business development opportunities in offshore locations earlier than other states in Australia and to a more significant extent. The Victorian TAFE institutes are the market leaders in terms of partnerships with VET providers offshore. They have consistently undertaken more than 70 % of Australian transnational VET, with the latest figures (2013) showing that Victorian TAFE has a 78 % share of Australia's transnational VET operations (Fig. 9.1).

[2] Data compiled from statistics on https://internationaleducation.gov.au/research/transnationaleducationdata/pages/transnational-education-data.aspx accessed 15.9.15.

Three Models of Engagement

Recent research (Xiang and Li 2011) on the models of co-operation between the Chinese vocational institutes and universities and their foreign counterparts outlines three models of engagement. The three models can be described as (1) loose model, (2) successive model and (3) integration model.

In the first, so-called *loose model*, co-operative activities are largely built around visiting and exchange. A small number of directors and teachers may be sent to the foreign institute from China to visit and study their programs. Foreign teachers may be invited to come to China to give lectures on the Australian (or German or US) vocational education system. Occasionally students from both entities will visit each other for short summer exchange programs, with the focus on cultural experience, rather that studying a particular course. In general this model describes a flexible arrangement with limited long-term planning in place. It is usually superficial in its level of co-operation and often occurs as a precursor to more sophisticated co-operation as the parties get to know one another.

The *successive model* is the most common approach in China with universities and their foreign counterparts. However, a small number of vocational institutes such as Shenzhen Polytechnic have also launched co-operative programs based on this model. The model includes 2 plus 2 (2 years of study in the domestic Chinese university/institute and another 2 years of study in a foreign university) or 3 plus 2 (3 years of study in the domestic Chinese institute and study another 2 years in a foreign university). In the 2 plus 2 arrangement, the credits that students have achieved both in the domestic university and foreign university are equally recognized. The students who have successfully completed the co-operative program are granted degrees by both universities. Under the 3 plus 2 arrangement, the students who have finished a 3-year vocational course of study have the opportunity to go to a foreign partner university to study for another 2 years, thus gaining a university degree. This model of co-operation is popular with Chinese students, as they gain a double degree, but spend half of their time in China, where living expenses are not as high. They have time also to learn English and be better prepared for their eventual study in Australia (or elsewhere).

The third model of co-operation is the *integration model.* Many of the Guangdong vocational institutes listed above have adopted this co-operative model in dealing with Australian education institutes. In the integration model, a partnership is formed whereby courses to be taught are agreed, programs are set up and textbooks, teaching methods and teaching evaluation methods are introduced into the joint programs. In this model Australian partners send Australian teachers to China and introduce Australian teaching methods to local teachers. The Australian system of competency-based training is the mode of assessment. Chinese trainers are taught Australian training methods and are supervised by Australian-trained assessors.

Under the integration model, classes are much smaller than the usual Chinese class. The students learn English at the beginning of the program, because some

textbooks are in English and some units are taught solely by foreign teachers (with interpreters in the room as required). The programs are generally well resourced, and the students usually pay tuition fees three times higher than other local Chinese students. But the cost is still cheaper than what students pay when they study abroad, so this model is economical. The students who participate in the program can gain two diplomas at graduation, one from the Chinese institute and the other from the Australian institute.

The experience of these partnerships shows that in the main, students in China prefer to gain a recognized credential, whether this is the Chinese qualification and/or the Australian qualification. Teaching to the recognized Australian qualification causes difficulties in adapting the course to the needs of Chinese students. This is because Australian VET qualifications are nationally reviewed and recognized packages of educational material and deviation from the training package must be minimal if the student is to successfully complete the course and the credential is to be recognized in Australia.

There is considerable literature discussing the advantages and disadvantages of models of educational interaction across national borders. Several authors (Tsolidis 2001; Ninnes & Hellstén, 2005) argue that since very little accommodation is made in general to the local education milieu, education can be seen as both an economic export product and as an hegemonic device of a western colonialist model. Tsolidis argues that this is the case with Australian international education, and Hellstén agrees (2008, p. 84) that Australian international education initiatives (albeit these authors are describing higher education) offer only 'tangential implementation' of the existing pedagogy that is used for onshore students.

For international education to grow and develop, it must adopt both system-level change to allow for a diversity of approaches and also change at the level of the classroom, whereby different forms of partnership and different views of what scholarship means can be adopted by teachers. However, in vocational education and training, teaching and learning are driven by industry needs and demands. Unlike the university sector, where curriculum content may vary, VET study is approved and packaged so that outcomes are identical across Australia and based on the achievement of units of competence and industry needs rather than on curriculum which can be varied according to specific student cohort requirements. This is the model for many western VET systems (Misko 2015), but despite the global mobility of students and employees, the industry needs of VET systems are almost invariably linked to the country of origin.

The three models of adoption of the Australian VET system in China demonstrate the desire of the Chinese to adopt a better VET system, but also to adapt it to their needs and to the global future of Chinese students.

The Australian Training Packages (as Australian VET courses are named) are created in line with the needs and the standards of Australian industry and are specific to their requirements. While this close connection with industry is a positive feature of the Australian VET system, it is a principal cause of difficulty in offering

VET in China. The Australian VET system is often touted as a 'world-class system',[3] and reasons for this include its portability across jurisdictions, its strict government regulatory regime and its responsiveness to local industry needs. These are in place in order to ensure the high standards of the Australian VET system. However, VET providers are exporting VET to more than 42 countries including China, and they find the regulations that aim to maintain standards hamper its adaption in other countries. Authorities in Australia (to date) have not considered the impact of this regulatory regime on efforts to export the Australian VET system. In the following section, the efforts of specific Australian VET providers to ameliorate this problem at the level of the practitioner of international VET are described. The efforts made by these Australian education providers of VET are unique and ahead of government-mandated policy or practice.

Victorian TAFE International (VTI) and Its Best Practice Guides

While the 16 public VET institutes in the State of Victoria, Australia, which undertake international education, are independent entities, competing with each other for students to enter their courses, they also recognize the need to co-operate and share their experience of good practice as they develop relationships with partner institutions in other countries, especially in China.

The Victorian public VET providers formed their own membership association for staff working in international vocational education some 20 years ago, and in the last 7 years, this Victorian TAFE International Association has begun to develop good practice guides for all member institutes to assist them in developing positive and lasting relationships with partner providers offshore. The documents have been prepared by Kate Dempsey but are developed with input from each member institute, and they undergo several drafts as discussion is generated among members and input is gathered from all 16 association member institutes. The aim of jointly preparing these documents is (1) to ensure all programs that Victorian TAFE institutes undertake offshore are equivalent to that which students onshore learn in their courses and programs; (2) to ensure quality is maintained across all Victorian TAFE institutes, so that they may each meet or exceed Australian audit standards; and (3) to build a mutually respectful partnership with offshore VET institutions.

The VTI good practice documents form a body of work from practitioners in the delivery of international VET that is unique: it is not duplicated in any other jurisdiction in Australia. The VTI good practice guides are ahead of regulatory policy. There is no on-site audit requirement for VET courses offered in countries other

[3] Victoria's Vocational Education and Technical (VET) system is internationally recognized as one of the best in the world, most notably for its responsiveness to industry needs and its flexibility of delivery. Source: government website http://www.invest.vic.gov.au/opportunities/international-education/vocational-education-and-technical-vet accessed 20.1.16.

than Australia to date; however, the regulatory body has plans to introduce them. When audit of offshore programs does come into place, the VTI member providers will have a body of knowledge from which to demonstrate both best practice within the Australian regulatory framework and to be able to advise regulators on the need for a risk-based approach to audit for transnational programs. This risk-based approach to regulation (lessening inspectorial visits and the burden of paperwork) is the approach most often favored in other countries now (Misko 2015) and allows for flexibility to offer programs which respect the local educational milieu. The VTI program of creating good practice documents began with the report Quality Assurance in Transnational Vocational Education Programs (Dempsey 2009). The collaborative document aims to demonstrate and provide an evidence guide to the fact that VTI member institutes engage in comparable quality assurance activities for their offshore or transnational education activities as they do for their onshore programs. Australian regulatory frameworks require that no matter where an Australian VET course is undertaken, the standards must be equivalent to those offered in an Australian setting. This report later became the basis of a government guide to best practice in transnational education as Australian authorities grappled with the growing demand for Australian VET offshore.

Following that report, the VTI group undertook a review of teacher supervision and moderation of teaching programs in its offshore activities. The resulting report, Supervision and Moderation for Offshore Delivery (Dempsey 2011), describes the strict regulations of the Australian VET system and the ways in which member institutes work within the Australian regulations in an attempt to reflect the efforts made in Chinese classrooms for what Hellstén terms 'pedagogic reciprocality and mutuality' (2008, p. 85).

The report outlines the key aims of the work of VTI member institutes in China, which are to create long-lasting partnerships where each party is valued, peer review of teaching methodology, using competency standards (the Australian system) and grades (as desired by Chinese students) and coming to a mutually respectful understanding of plagiarism.

Supervision and Moderation for Offshore Delivery offers templates, forms and policies for adapting the Australian VET system to the needs of the Chinese partners including *a Peer Review* Form whereby in-country trainers have the opportunity to provide feedback on the Australian teachers or supervisors. This is done for the purpose of bringing both sets of teachers closer together and demonstrating that each has something to learn from the other. The form helps to bridge cultural gaps. In this way, the VTI reports aim to build mutual respect and long-lasting partnerships by introducing procedures at the level of the classroom and in a very practical sense.

This work was followed in 2011 by a report (Dempsey 2012) which investigated models used by the 16 Victorian TAFEs in the supervision of Chinese teachers in their programs in Guangdong and other provinces. A frustration voiced in that document is the assumption that the Australian system of training packages and competency-based training is a superior model and all trainers and assessors must have the Australian-specific teaching credential in order to teach a class.

The Australian VET teaching qualification, *Certificate IV in Training and Education*, must be taught to intending VET trainers, regardless of their previous qualifications, without recognition of their local teaching credential, in English and in full – including units specifically for the Australian environment. For example, the Certificate IV includes units such as 'Use training packages and accredited courses to meet client needs'; 'Facilitate e-learning'; 'Address adult language, literacy and numeracy skills'; and 'Participate in a quality audit'. The course is simply not designed to be used offshore, although it has been used offshore for some 20 years, with limited recognition in Australia of the complexity of its application and the cultural hegemony it creates in offshore markets.

VTI members working overseas are at the cutting edge of vocational education. They are providing an Australian qualification in a local society and economy where much of the taken-for-granted aspects of the qualification simply do not apply. VTI members prefer to emphasize peer review of all of their offshore teaching staff and a collegiate approach to the work, rather than to consider the Australian way the 'best way' and that Australian staff 'know better'. However, in order to be compliant with Australian requirements, local Chinese teachers must undertake the additional Australian teaching credential (or be supervised by a trainer with this qualification).

In an attempt to assist Australian authorities with recognition of existing teaching qualification of Chinese trainers, VTI developed the report Comparing the Chinese and Australian Vocational Teacher Training Systems (Dempsey 2012). It showed just how complex it is to map the commonalities and differences between the Chinese system of teacher training and that of Australia. As Jia et al. (2014) demonstrate, the system of teacher education in China is complex and usually involves 4 years of training for VET teachers, undertaken in a variety of training institutions. The VTI report notes that in China, 'the requirement to have the Certificate IV has made contractual arrangements with local institutes or government departments difficult' (Dempsey 2012, p. 14). Application of the Australian Certificate in Training and Education is also seen by VTI members as 'disrespectful' of the skills, experience and qualifications of Chinese teachers. For example, at Shijiazhuang University of Applied Technology, there are 700 full-time and part-time teachers, among whom there are 296 associate professors and professors; 260 teachers have PhD or master degrees; and 245 teachers have been qualified as 'dually qualified' teachers.

Until very recently, all attempts by the Victorian TAFE International Association to gain the interest of Australian authorities in the complexity of teaching VET offshore have fallen on deaf ears. International education is a small percentage of Australian VET activity. In Victoria there are around 40,000 international students onshore (2013 figures), and this is less than 7 % of Victoria's VET students, and across Australia the figure is similar (8.3 % of VET students in Australia in 2014 were international students).[4] In 2015, the Australian government piloted a

[4] https://internationaleducation.gov.au/research/International-Student-Data/Pages/InternationalStudentData2014.aspx#Pivot_Table accessed 25.08.2015.

non-accredited course for use offshore to train local trainers in the Australian system of vocational education. The course is being trialled in India in the first instance.

In 2012 VTI turned its attention to best practice in preparing Australian staff to work offshore. The resultant report Preparing Staff to Work Offshore (Dempsey 2013) highlights that there has been very little scholarly work done on the matter of cross-cultural training needs for VET teaching staff beyond the work of Schofield and Kearns in 1997. A most recent study by Mizzi and O'Brien-Klewchuk (2016) tells the same story: institutions are still offering simple material for those travelling to teach offshore which does not deal with cultural knowledge and does not promote human agency. The preparation of staff to work offshore is still very basic despite academic views, which suggest that both staff and students of varied backgrounds bring a diversity of approach to teaching (Leask 2004). The lack of training for staff working offshore also adds to the view that transnational education is undertaken primarily for economic reasons as limited time and resources are invested in preparing staff to understand and embrace the culture they are about to work in. It points to the decision to undertake international education as a management decision, and the impact of this financial decision upon teaching staff, students and those administering programs is not fully considered (Tange 2008). An anonymous survey of all 16 VET institutions in the VTI association for the Preparing Staff to Work Offshore report showed this to be the case:

- 86 % offer informal training of around 2–3 hours for staff going offshore.
- The preparation is done by in-house staff in every instance.
- It mainly involves checklists of *dos and don'ts*, discussion of critical incidents and examination of case studies.
- In 78 % of cases, the learning is not evaluated, assessed or formally credentialed.
- 64 % felt their preparation is effective (based on the fact that nothing goes wrong and staff are happy to go again).
- 86 % offer some form of debriefing of staff upon their return.

Following discussion of the survey results, VTI members spent time in 2012 discussing ways to improve the intercultural preparation models that members adopted. Section 4 of the report, Suggestions for Successful Cultural Awareness Training, has suggestions of what a successful candidate for overseas posting may require and how best to prepare that person to work in a new environment. It offers suggestions for best practice that all VTI member TAFE institutes strive to practice.

The VTI best practice guides demonstrate both the need for flexibility in training for a global market and the complexities of offering that flexibility within the existing VET policy framework. In addition, China is more sophisticated in its expectations of its foreign partners. Its government is asking the simple question: how do these foreign partnerships improve the connection between education and China's emerging industry needs?

Changing Needs in China

Whichever model Australian VET providers undertake in China, it must be noted that in each instance, the partnership is with a comparable education institution, not an industry body. While the Australian VET system has been developed in partnership with industry and business and is shaped by the emerging needs of industry, this close connection has not been enacted in China. Australian training courses have been delivered, by and large, as they would be in Australia. Attempts are made to consider local case studies and to study local examples of work-related problems, but since Chinese educational partners are often not well connected with their local industry, the courses being offered are not linked well with emerging industry needs (Tao and Chen 2011). In addition, if an Australian VET qualification is to be granted, then of course it must adhere to the structure and content of the Australian credential. Both the rigidity and the domestic focus of Australian VET qualifications and the lack of connection between Chinese educational institutions and their industries have led to change in the needs and desires of China for foreign vocational education. Chinese authorities believe that true partnership in VET means a new connection must be forged between education providers (foreign or Chinese) and Chinese industry.

Speaking at the Chinese conference on national vocational and adult education held in 2010, Yuan Guiren, Minister of the Chinese Ministry of Education, emphasized the importance of partnerships between vocational education and business enterprises. This connection, he said, is essential to the innovation of education, teaching and evaluation models, and it is a key approach to the incorporation of vocational education into the blueprint of economic and industrial development (Chinese Conference on National Vocational and Adult Education in 2010). In addition, in 2014, the Chinese President, Xi Jinping, has also noted the importance of the combination of work and learning (Wang 2014).

An article (Li 2013) published in the newspaper *Chinese Youth* interviewed students in China undertaking Australian VET qualifications, asking where the qualification might lead them. The typical response was ‘I don’t know’. The same article found that few Chinese workplaces knew or understood Australian VET qualifications. It quotes Cheng Wenhui, deputy director of Ningbo Bureau of Education, as saying (our translation):

> *The students who participate in the cooperative programs with TAFE will come back to China to work instead of working in Australia. They spend so much time learning English. Will they work abroad? They surely won’t. It is obvious that practitioners don’t fully consider the critical problems, such as whether what students learn conforms to the demands of the Chinese regional economy and whether they can be hired by local enterprises.*

China now emphasizes engagement and partnerships with foreign educational institutions or indeed foreign companies which are market leaders located in China and which indicate a willingness to work with local experts in developing courses which are relevant to the local economy. A recent example of this form of cooperation is Nanjing Technical Vocational College (in Jiangsu Province) and the

Nanjing Bosch and Siemens plant where training is mainly provided by the company with part-time support by the College. Students will go on to work at the plant.[5]

In addition, China has created its own national vocational skills competition, commencing in Tianjin in 2008 and now with 15 provinces involved in the competition. The competition has grown to involve 14 occupational categories with more than 1000 enterprises participating (Lv et al. 2014). The national vocational skills competition strengthens integration between vocational education and enterprises, provides enterprises with professional talent and encourages deeper reform of vocational institutes.

China is also beginning to develop industry groups (usually consisting of regional vocational colleges, government representatives, industry associations and regional enterprises) to offer customized training or 'to order' training for the region (Ge and Wu 2004). These changes provide evidence for the maturity of Chinese policy settings in relation to VET. There was a need for rapid improvement in China's VET system, and the easiest way to achieve this aim was to form partnerships and 'import' vocational education and training expertise. This is clearly not the case now, and so the balance has shifted in relation to the adoption of foreign VET systems.

Conclusion

In the early days of co-operation between Victorian TAFE institutes and Chinese vocational institutions, there was a close fit between the imperative of Australian education providers to grow and develop their offerings in order to supply much needed additional funding to the home institute, with the need of the Chinese government to provide world-class training for its rapidly emerging industrial and manufacturing sectors. However, this is no longer the case. Partnerships under the integration model between Australian public VET providers, especially those from Victoria, have now been in place for more than 10 years.

The initiatives described in this chapter demonstrate the desire at the level of the VET practitioner for VET partnerships to be true partnerships where both parties learn from each other. They also show the willingness of one group of Australian VET providers to improve the quality of their partnerships in China, in terms of providing dual certification, recognizing the teaching skills of Chinese partners and also in better preparing Australian staff to work offshore.

The Chinese VET market has reached a level of maturity where it is simply not acceptable to adopt the system of another country without reference to the regional and local milieu. This fact causes difficulty for Australian vocational education providers working in China, unless they only offer customized training without certification or are able to influence Australian policy to allow more flexibility in course offerings offshore. The hampering of entrepreneurship on the Australian side could

[5] http://bsh-group.com/index.php?UStdSeite&Standort=282

Table 9.2 Summary of VET activity delivered outside Australia by Australian public VET providers 2012–2013

	2012	2013	% Change
No. of Australian public VET providers engaged offshore	37	35	−5.4
No. of countries	32	31	−3.1
No. of courses offered	524	499	−4.8
No. of enrolments	56,969	49,740	−12.7
No. of students based in China	42,097	35,641	−15.3
No. of students studying Australian Award courses	42,900	35,882	−16.4

Source: Delivery of VET offshore by public providers 2009–2013

well have led to limitations with the relationships, and there has been a decline in classroom-based activities from Australian providers in more recent years. Meanwhile, the Chinese Ministry of Education is cracking down on superficial partnerships (Table 9.2).

This chapter has outlined changes over time and indicates that it is not acceptable (even in this global age) to simply adopt a foreign education system without consideration of local needs, and this could not be more true in a VET system, which succeeds or fails on its links with industry. Similarly it is also not helpful to the global careers of young people to provide a VET system, which only recognizes local industry needs. Successful integration of partnerships in VET must be a 'both-and' approach, not an either-or approach to education and training (Shams and Huisman 2012). VET reform must be 'a balance between the absorption of foreign experience and the retention of autonomy' (Han and Singh 2005, p.15).

In Australia a system designed only for domestic use has in fact been exported worldwide ahead of government policy and regulation, while Chinese government policy is now tipping the scales back in favor of integrating vocational education with its own local industry needs. This is a step forward, and Australian TAFE has a new opportunity to lend its support and advise how this might be achieved.

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Chapter 10
Korea's Vocational Education Training Sector in a Globalized World: Current Practices and Future Plans

Mihae Mary Nahm

Abstract Korea's development over the past 50 years has been remarkable. Many foreigners have ventured to the Peninsula to learn how this country has become so successful in such a short time. The love and passion for learning, supported by the Korean education system, has also attracted researchers from other countries to learn the "successful formula" to the country's stride forward in economic performance (Fouser and Koehler 2014). Koreans have a deep respect for education that is shown by the amount of money spent by the average household on educating their children through various "cram" schools (Barber 2010). This amount is a higher percentage of household income than their counterparts in many other nations. However, since these schools are fee driven, and not accessible to everyone, a growing inequality in society is fostered leading to a noticeable gap in a society that values an egalitarian ethos. The Korean Vocational Education and Training Sector has been the backbone to Korea's sustained economic development. This is serviced by a dedicated and militant-like training system that has brought about the "chaebols," a Korean word for the country's main conglomerate companies whose impact on the overall success of the country is significant. However, without proper policies to support learning and training in a globalized world, where more collaboration with stakeholders within the country and beyond is needed, Korea faces the challenge of not having skilled manpower to drive key industries forward in the twenty-first century.

Keywords Korean VET • Meister • Pathway to university • Skills match

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Introduction

Korea is a country where change has been rapid and dynamic. From the liberation of Japanese rule, which took place on August 15, 1945, followed by the Korean War, 1950–1953, Korea's postwar economic growth has been noticed by the global community and has also influenced the world economic market making Korea now the 11th largest economy in the world (Keun-Sik 2005). After the Korean War, the GDP per capita was only US$79 month (Kim 2001). Korea is currently at US$ 27,090, which made it 13th in GDP during 2014 (The World Bank 2016). Korea has not only transformed itself from a rice paddy type of economy to a manufacturing-based economy, but it is now regarded as a knowledge-based economy.

How did this country grow so successfully in such a short period? The answer appears to exist in the nation's human capital whose foundation lies in a deep culture and respect for education. There exists further a conscious desire of every citizen to aim for more learning and education. At the heart of every Korean is the dominant passion to acquire knowledge and the realization that without an education there can be no future. There is no option about studying; it is a matter of survival. Everyone must study in earnest to advance one's life in collaboration with the country's pride in its achievements. This belief comes from the deep Confucius philosophy that advocates learning as a way of life for one's success. "He who excels in study can follow an official career," and "Education breeds confidence. Confidence breeds hope. Hope breeds peace" (Kan 2015).

The disciplined work force whose culture is deeply rooted in the Confucian work ethic with stimulation policies from the government to support the economic trends of the times might possibly be a foundation stone for Korea's economic success. Vocational education and training in Korea has a long history which has undergone many changes and is continuing to update itself through various programs and innovative pathways for students who are more suited to this type of learning given their aptitudes, personality, and capabilities. The history of the VET sector is as dynamic as the economic history of Korea, and it reflects the changing attitudes of its people regarding education over the last decades. The high regard for "scholars" or "professors" over technical experts is a way of thinking among the Korean people. This has worked against developing and building up a functional and respectful system of education for the vocational education sector. Most students opted for a general education leading to a university degree rather than following an educational pathway that directed them to develop technical skills and obtaining recognized certification. The fact that certifications and qualifications have not been clearly defined by the government and promoted as such can possibly be the reason why the uptake from students to follow this track has been relatively low. However, due to the skills shortage in defined sectors of the country and having university-graduated students unable to find employment is leading the government to establish the VET sector such that students are enticed to follow the "job first, study later" strategy that is promoted to young high school students (Ryu and Moon 2015, p. 31). The Korean government established various government entities purposely to research in the

area of employment, education, skills training, and curriculum development to meet the needs of the VET sector. The VET sector has a long history in Korea where research has been plentiful although the reports are predominantly in Korean, making it difficult for non-Korean readers to access these studies. Reports and concluding papers from research institutes have provided government leaders information needed to develop policies and practices that have shaped the VET education in Korea. The writing of this chapter has been very challenging due to the scarcity of printed material available in English and even less regarding internationalization of vocational education and training on the Peninsula.

The concept of "internationalization" within the higher education sector—post-secondary education—is defined by Knight as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (Green 2015). Internationalization can be considered within the context of globalization where Knight indicates that globalization involves the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, and ideas across borders. The internationalization of higher education is one of the ways a country responds to the impact of globalization yet, at the same time respects the individuality of the nation (p. 2). If these factors are taken into consideration in regard to the VET sector, then main industries that serve as economic powerhouses for Korea, such as Hyundai Corp., Samsung, and LG, to mention a few, are in need of manpower with true global and international mindedness to successfully operate in a highly export sustained country like Korea. The challenge of training and educating new entrants into the job market with the knowledge and values that come from knowing the global market is real. The government has established clear goals regarding the higher education sector, but there are no published goals for the internationalization of the VET sector. For example, the tools to measure a university's success in internationalization have been identified by these indicators:

Indicator 1: National ranking tables
Indicator 2: Institutional ranking tables
Indicator 3: International research collaboration and research productivity
Indicator 4: Foreign students and faculty
Indicator 5: Quality of English Medium Instruction (EMI) programs (pp. 2–3)

However, there are no clear indicators that have been identified by the Korean government to measure the VET sector's internationalization. One can perhaps conclude that the government's goals for the higher education sector are the same for the VET sector, but since there is no evidence of this, only assumptions can be made. In this regard, I would like to propose that perhaps the government simply has not thought of internationalizing the VET sector with the same priority as was done for universities. Perhaps from the government's perspective, since students can choose vocational education tracks from grade ten onward, VET is not part of the higher education scheme, but rather it is under the jurisdiction of the nation's high school curriculum and system where the consideration of internationalization is not needed.

In 2007, the government mapped out the following internationalization policy strategies (Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, 2007): (1) student exchange; (2) faculty exchange; (3) inducement of foreign institutions, faculty, and students; and (4) export of Korean higher education services in response to the rising need for Korea to become more international in the higher education sector (Choi and Palmer 2013). In addition, programs that operate across borders, joint degree programs, offshore campuses, and distance learning programs are now commonplace, and international research collaboration is an expected feature of academic work (Green 2015). For a non-native English-speaking country like Korea, where the acquisition of English has been steadily growing but far from being readily available for everyone, the inability to incorporate English Medium Instruction (EMI) can be identified as a possible hindrance to becoming more internationalized. In my interactions with academics, the pressure to deliver the content of their course in English is noticeably evident by the psychological burden they express to carry out this task. In high schools across the country, English is taught as a language course but not as a medium of instruction for the delivery of the course content. The course curriculum of Meister High Schools, which is a track within the vocational education in high schools, is developed as needed by seeking out the collaboration of experts in industry to contribute to the development of the content and in some cases to the delivery of a class at school. In many cases, employees working in companies are also learning to become competent in English in the workplace; thus they are far from being confident and ready to teach in English. No evidence of research regarding the internationalization of the VET sector in Korea has been found prior to writing this chapter (Dempsey and Tran 2017, Chap. 14, p. 220). Therefore, the challenges facing the internationalization of VET programs in other countries will be discussed in comparison with Korea. For example, Tran's findings in Australian vocational education where the flow of international students in the VET programs has created new challenges and possibilities for teachers are nonexistent in Korea (Tran and Nyland 2013). Foreign students come on study exchange programs or to pursue a postgraduate degree, but the flow of students to pursue a vocational education in Korea is nonexistent. Korea's VET sector is different from other developed countries because teaching is done in Korean for Koreans only. Korea is neither ready nor equipped to deliver any of the course content in the vocational education training packages in any language other than Korean, thus limiting the internationalization of the program. Certainly the concern for becoming more globalized and fostering intercultural understanding with the region and the world is an important factor, but currently students within the vocational education training are learning by going overseas rather than having students come to the country (Tran and Dempsey 2017, Chap. 1, p. 4).

This chapter will cover a brief introduction to the Korean education system, the history of VET in the country, secondary vocational education where specialized and Meister High Schools are the main centers where vocational education training is taught, and, finally, a presentation of some successes and challenges facing VET in Korea. This chapter would not have been possible if it were not for the kind collaboration and permission from Dr. Kim Jong Woo from the Meister School Center in KRIVET (Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education and Training).

Brief Introduction to the Korean Education System

Korea's education system is a one-track system that consists of 6 years of primary or elementary school, 3 years of middle or junior school, 3 years of high school, and 3 years of junior college or 4 years of university. This is followed by graduate school for those who want to pursue further higher education (see Fig. 10.1). All students must attend classes from primary school to middle school (Chang 2013). After middle school education, students can choose different high school pathways; including a general high school which is more commonly known as the academic high school. This program lasts 3 years and in most cases is selected by the majority of Korean youths to access universities. Another option is to select a special purpose high school, which offers programs concentrating in fields such as natural sciences, foreign languages, arts, and physical education. Within this group lies "Meister High Schools" which offer programs that are directly linked to the needs of industries so their curriculum and programs are customized to meet the demand of these sectors of society. These high schools are fairly new to the Korean vocational education system, but they are successfully achieving their goals of educating graduates to nearly a 100 % employment level upon graduation (Park 2011). In addition to these two options, a third option for high school education is specialized (vocational) high schools. These schools have been traditionally the principal providers of vocational education at the secondary level. Upon completion of this program, students are given the choice to seek employment or to further their education by going onto university.

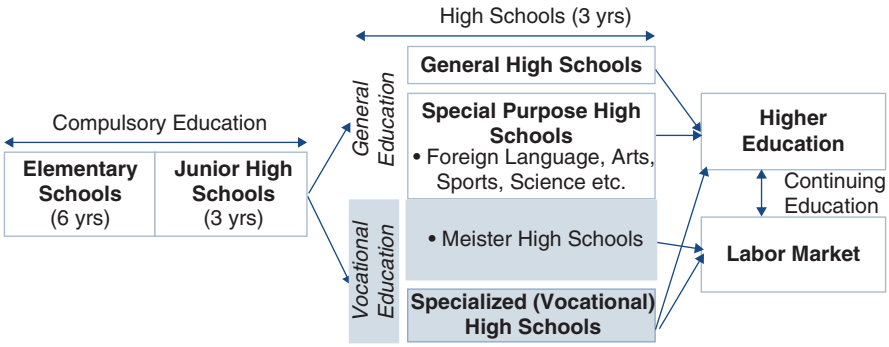

Fig. 10.1 Korean education and training system (Reproduced with the kind permission of Park D. Y. from the article published Korean policies on secondary vocational education: Efforts to overcome skills mismatch and labor shortage. *BWP, 3*, p. 31, Figure 1. Park 2011)

History of VET in Korea

Vocational education in Korea has over a 100 years of history and has contributed substantially to the country's improvement and economic growth during this period (Park and Jang 2014). Over the course of these years however, the vocational education sector has had to battle with a mindset that success is achieved only by advancing onto university. Hence, the vocational pathway becomes a second choice or a non-desired choice taken by those who have no other choice in life but to advance themselves through this track. In addition to this view, the perception that vocational training high schools were for students with low academic grades, not allowing them to access university education, was rampant. This negative image about vocational training is a deeply rooted reality that limits a number of talented, capable, and potential students to find a fulfilling career by choosing this option. In addition, the reality that graduates from these schools were paid less than college graduates even if they were in some cases better skilled did not give a positive image to opt for this educational pathway after middle school. In fact, in 2013, the advancement rate of middle school to general high school was 70.6 %, while the advancement rate of middle school to specialized high schools was 18.4 % (Park and Jang, 2014, p. 9).

Development and Changes in the VET Sector from the 1950s to the Present

The establishment of vocational education as a system began in Korea in the late nineteenth century. Under the Enforcement Decree and Enforcement Regulations of Vocational School promulgated in 1909, three categories were added to the system, namely, agricultural, industrial, and commercial schools. During the Japanese occupation of Korea, while there was some growth in the number of agricultural and industrial schools, a greater emphasis during this period was given to providing skills to students for munitions factories. Vocational education did not grow during this period in the true sense as it only served the political and economic needs of those times. Therefore, it was not until the 1960s that the government initiated and developed a vocational educational policy (Choi and Palmer 2013).

1950s

Although there was an effort to implement a policy for the expansion of vocational high schools during this period, the main reason for its failure was a lack of financial assistance. The United Nations Korea Reconstruction Agency (UNKRA) and the International Cooperation Administration under the US State Department provided educational assistance after the Korean War along with some economic aid from the

US. Aid was given in the form of investment in secondary vocational education facilities that could provide manpower training through vocational education. Pyeongtaek High School served as a pilot project, which was as a comprehensive high school where both academic and vocational training took place, but due to the disregard for the vocational courses, this school soon became an academic high school, which led to the failure of providing a good vocational training school. This move, along with the failure to find funds to support the government's 5-Year Plan on Vocational Technical Education, which included the consolidation of education for improving the quality of teachers in vocational schools, and the promotion of a greater awareness for technical education, led to a standstill in terms of the advancement of vocational education at that time (Park and Jang 2014, pp. 22–23).

1960s–1970s

From the late 1960s, Korea's economy witnessed fast growth in the manufacturing sector (Kim 2001), leading government officials to discuss policies to support and influence positively this growth for the good of the nation. In the late 1960s manufacturing industries, which included machines, steel, shipbuilding, automobiles, electronics, and chemistry, needed skilled labor to expand their growth. This was a change from the labor-intensive light industries, which relied on less educated women as the main human capital. Therefore, in order to meet the demand for skilled labor, the government made intensive investments to increase the number of vocational and technical high schools as well as seeking out students to take up the programs offered in these schools. Since the Korean economy was growing quickly in the manufacturing sector, namely, in the heavy and chemical industries, the government's reactionary policy to fill the gap of skilled labor was a timely one. The government effort to respond to the need of having a constant supply of technical manpower to bring this economic development forward was well conducted. Therefore, in the third of the 5-Year Economic Plan (1972–1976), the government invested not only in building more vocational and technical schools but also streamlined the technical education track to meet the diverse needs of the growing companies (Kim 2001). With this nurturing and supplying the workforce needed for economic growth of the country, the Korean government played a key role for the country to move forward through the vocational training programs that met the industry's needs of that time.

1980s–1990s

If the 1960s–1970s was about promoting the manufacturing sector in the heavy and chemical industries, the 1980s–1990s brought about a change where technology-intensive industries were key economic drivers. This new industry saw the need for

high-quality human labor in the area of scientific and engineering personnel in order to ensure national competitiveness (Park and Jang 2014). The development in this area led to a shift for academic or general high schools over specialized (vocational) high schools. The government implemented a policy to expand vocational high schools, namely, technical high schools by implementing a "2 + 1 system" in technical high schools. Under this system students studied at school for 2 years and practiced their trade at companies for the next year (p. 26). Unfortunately, due to the lack of preparation from both the education and industrial sector, the 1 year of "field training" turned out to be no more than an early employment route and provided students with a low level of work satisfaction because they did repetitive and simple work that did not provide a major-related skill as the students had hoped for (Choi and Palmer 2013). The Korean market was simply not ready for such a program at that time due to the lack of experience of expectations and systems in place to receive and train students. However, even if this "field training" aspect of the "2 + 1 system" did not succeed, it was an important step for building industry-academic cooperation in terms of secondary vocational education (Park and Jang 2014). On May 31, 1995, the Korean government announced an educational reform, which restructured the entire education sector. This reform incorporated a "lifelong education to which all people can be entitled." This aimed to provide an open learning society in terms of vocational education. The purpose of the reform affecting vocational education was to improve students' avoidance of vocational high schools by allowing them to study while working (p. 26).

2000s

President Kim Dae-jung who led the country from 1998 to 2003, followed by President Roh Moo-hyun (2003–2007), and later by President Lee Myung-bak (2008–2012) all focused on improving the competitiveness of vocational education at the secondary level (Park and Jang 2014, p. 43). From 2000 onward, the focus of the government was to take a "pragmatic" approach to vocational education, leading to a policy that promulgated an "Employment First-Advancement to University Later." The introduction of Meister High Schools took place at this time. The government sought out a Korean-style vocational education model needed for the social context of the country by establishing five steps. The first was to diversify the operating system of vocation education at the high school level. This meant that the central government that is in charge of the field of special industry started to support the operational system for secondary vocational education institutes which previously did not exist. Under this reform, a large increase in numbers of students benefited from these programs from nearly 200 specialized high schools. Next, the government changed some general high schools to become vocational high schools. However, due to a lack of matriculation from students opting for vocational educational institutes, these institutes were converted back to general education schools, and vocational education teachers were incorporated into these schools or were

responsible for teaching other subjects after receiving some competency training. Following this step, the government set out to establish clear criteria for defining key competencies which could be set up as a model for vocational education. The Korean government defined common competencies to be skills needed to carry out tasks independently of the type of job or position (Park and Jang 2014, pp. 29–30). Soon after, although there was an effort to reorganize "field training" for students in vocational education institutes, because of a poor labor market and poor working conditions, students were exploited in many ways leading to a failure to provide meaningful "field work" where real training for educational purposes occurred. The pragmatic approach mentioned earlier was a way to help students to find work after school by making it easier for those who graduated from specialized vocational education institutes to be working in that field upon graduation. Since industrial manpower at 2010 was in short supply in the country, this was a strategic move on the part of the government to provide jobs upon graduation to students who completed their studies in these specialized schools.

Current Policy Regarding Vocational Education

Since Park Geun-hye has been in power, from 2013 a new policy for secondary vocational education has been in effect (see Fig. 10.2). This policy aims to improve education based on National Competency Standards (NCS) where manpower with

Classification	Main contents
Promote specialized high schools affiliated with relevant authorities and industries	· Establish measures for prompting specialized high schools to cultivate manpower for industry and policy under the relevant authorities.
Expand Meister high school	· Expand Meister high schools into various sectors, including national and regional strategic industries and the preparation of FTAs.
Organize and operate educational courses based on the NCS	· Organize and operate educational courses based on the NCS needed for the workplace to improve confidence in secondary vocational education.
Provide opportunities for job training to students with talent, aptitude and the willingness to seek employment	· Expand a selection system reflecting students' talents, aptitude, and the willingness to seek employment when entering specialized high schools, expand the entrusted vocational education of general high school students who wish to find employment and diversify its fields.
Make continuous expansion of the employment of high school graduates and establish infrastructure for acquiring college/university degrees by workers	· Continuously expand performance-centered open employment, establish infrastructure for continuing education for workers, recognize work experience as a credit, and provide skilled workers with opportunities for overseas training and studying abroad.

Fig. 10.2 Park Geun-hye government policy for secondary vocational education (Reproduced *with the kind permission from Kim J. W. to use table 2–2 on p. 48 and table 2–3 on p. 49 from the publication The Present and Future of Secondary Vocational Education, Korea, Edition 1 from* Park and Jang 2014)

Implementing tasks		Main contents
Three-year plan for economic innovation (February 25, 2014)	Establish Employment first-Advancement to university later	▪ Promote employment first through a system that enables people to study while working and by improving the synergy effect of field training.
	Expand employee performance evaluation system	▪ Reform education training programs for schools and vocational institutes using the National Competency Standards (NCS). Apply the NCS to specialized high schools gradually from 2016. ▪ Reorganize the criteria for questions for national technical qualifications and qualification items from those centered on theory to those for practical and industrial settings purposes. -- Operate new qualifications based on the NCS led by the industrial community ▪ Provide a job competency evaluation model based on the NCS and create an environment where companies hire employees without reviewing their specifications through a mentor school beyond specifications.
Youth employment measures (April 15, 2014)	Education & training stage	▪ Reorganize vocational education in school: provide customized education based on the demands of businesses. ▪ Expand education involving the participation of businesses: expand opportunities to experience field training at well-organized companies, promote a situation where people study while working, etc.
	Job-searching & employment stage	▪ Enhance the support system for employment: provide a youth-friendly information service. ▪ Expand the infrastructure for study later on: introduce Advancement to university later system suitable for age. ▪ Address job mismatches : create high-quality jobs, etc.
	Continuous service & changing jobs	▪ Encourage young people to continue to work in small and medium-sized enterprises: expand rewards for long-term continuous service, raise the employment support fund and expand types of businesses for support when young people are changed to regular positions. ▪ Prevent career disconnection due to military service: expand the scale of customized military specialist.

Fig. 10.3 Promotion tasks for Geun-hye government's vocational education (Reproduced from Park and Jang 2014)

the necessary talent and skills for industries can be prepared through education students receive in secondary schools. The Park Geun-hye government presented "realization of a capacity-based society" as a policy goal where the focus will be from "knowing" which is different from "doing". Essentially the National Competency Standards will shift from "what did we learn" which is more of a discipline-based education to "what can we do" which is a more competency-based education. By promoting this policy, the government hopes to establish a more flexible vocational educational system where students can find work after graduating from secondary vocational educational institutes. The promotional effort includes providing an infrastructure where students of all ages can obtain a university or college degree if they desire by working and studying. Another promotional effort is to encourage students to continue working in small- and medium-sized companies by expanding rewards for long-term continuous service (see Fig. 10.3).

Secondary Vocational Education in Korea in the Twenty-First Century

As in the past, the government's influence to make secondary vocational education accessible and attractive for students cannot be ignored. Government policies to support the educational pathways for young Koreans wanting to pursue their dream jobs by undertaking a vocational course instead of opting to study a general high school curriculum has been publicized and made readily available. However, despite this effort, the number of students attending secondary vocational education institutes decreased to 17.6 % in 2013 in comparison to 42.5 % in 1995 (Park and Jang 2014, p. 44). The government has carried out research to find out the reasons for the lack of response to the promotional efforts. Several factors contributed to the failure and are current challenges facing secondary vocational education in Korea. These factors are as follows:

1. Since there is a lower academic level at vocational educational institutes, they are not able to attract some of the brighter students who demonstrate a keen interest both for academics and learning skills necessary for employment.
2. No clear manner exists for reflecting key competencies within the taught curriculum, and therefore, even if there is a discussion to incorporate them into the common curriculum, the lack of clearly outlined direction on how this will be carried out is a deterrent.
3. The determination of the National Competency Standards (NCS) has not been embraced by all the stakeholders especially in regard to providing students in secondary vocational institutes with some practical competencies in industrial settings. Since there is no guarantee that students will be able to work in the field they are studying, to obtain the practical experience necessary for a smooth transition from school to work, students are left unsure of their career paths (Park and Jang 2014, p. 86).

In addition to these factors, there is a lack of trained vocational education teachers because the current system for selecting vocational education teachers follows the same pathway as all high school teachers. This makes no distinction from those who will teach in academic high schools. Teacher's qualification and licenses are issued by the College of Education under the Department of Education. Vocational education institute teachers undertake the teacher training programs where they are deemed competent by passing an in-depth interview, a teaching capabilities assessment, and a written and essay test, but they are not evaluated for industry knowledge, which is an important factor when dealing with a job ready education curriculum. Teachers working in VET schools are focused on ensuring that the NCS are delivered and assessed according to established standards. Rarely do they have time to add other content to their course related to intercultural awareness improving students' capacity to interact in a globalized, knowledge-based economy (Dr. Kim Jong Woo, personal communication, January 2016). Despite the lack of time and means, teachers are aware of the need to educate students to become more culturally

sensitive regarding behavior and practices outside of Korea. However, due to their own lack of exposure and training in this area, they are unable to do so. Professional development for teachers is mostly carried out inside the country, taught in Korean by Koreans working in the specific area of specialization, thus limiting engagement with other languages and cultures (Dr. Kim Jong Woo, personal communication, January 2016).

Furthermore, it is important to understand the qualification system that exists in Korea for vocational education. There are two parts to the qualification system: the national qualifications are established and administered by the government. The private qualifications by contrast are administered by organizations not affiliated with the government (Park and Jang 2014, p. 50). Under the national qualifications, there are two categories: the national technical qualification which focuses on manufacturing, service, business management, and professional business industries and the national professional qualification where various certification trades are awarded by individual testing agencies designated by each ministry. Under this category, certifications for medical doctors, to drivers, can be found (Kim 2013). Private qualifications can be either recognized as private qualification, registered private qualification, or an intracompany qualification (Park and Jang 2014, p. 52). These qualifications pass through a certain screening process by the government and are qualifications for which there might be little demand or are specialized in themselves, such that they are not offered by the national qualifications. The Korean national qualification system is related to sectors such as life, health, and safety of people, sectors directly related to public interest such as national defense, public security, education, as well as other sectors deemed to be important by the government (p. 52). The private qualifications might develop qualifications that are for a single employer for the development of their employees. The development of the National Competency Standards (NCS) which sustain the NCS-based learning modules within the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) is in place to make it possible for students learning under this framework in a vocational educational setting to make the "Employment First, Advancement to University Later" policy possible (Park and Jang 2014, p. 163).

Regarding Specialized High Schools and Meister High Schools

From primary school until the tenth grade, all students in Korea follow the same curriculum. By choosing the vocational education track, students can be enrolled in a specialized (vocational) high school or take the Meister High School option. For the sake of nomenclature, the term "specialized high school" is the new name after being identified as a "technical high school," which originally was called "vocational high school." However, again due to the negative connotation that "vocational" has in the public's mind, the name change to "specialized high school"

seems to have worked since there has been an increase in the number of schools from 64 in 2005 to 170 in 2008 (Park and Jang 2014). It was under President Lee Myung Bak's government that the "High School Diversification 300 Project" began and a proposal called "A Policy for Promoting 50 Meister High Schools" commenced. The government set out to train high school students to be job ready upon graduation from high school, and through the Korean-style Meister High School system operating since 2008, these schools have shown positive results for the students, parents, and corporations who have hired them (Horn 2014). Media coverage and interest for this new educational pathway for Korean youth has caught the attention of the main stakeholders where entry into a Meister High School is being increasingly talked about by the public in a society where discussion about education is common practice. A more open mindedness about choosing this option in grade ten, instead of following the traditional university education before employment, breaking away from the social prejudice of obtaining a degree from an elite university, as the only option to finding a job, is slowly becoming more acceptable. The current mismatch of jobs and skilled labor can be one of the main reasons why this option is gaining more popularity (Barabasch et al. 2017, Chap. 11, p. 168). This mismatch is due to the number of overqualified university graduates for jobs as well as the availability of jobs for skilled candidates who cannot be found among the young graduates. Unlike other developed countries where university graduates have gone back to school to pursue a vocational education course in order to find a job, for the average Korean, this option is very rarely considered due to the culture which is heavily Confucian based where hierarchy and social ranking regard this move as going backward and moving toward a more inferior status. Youths prepared for white-collar jobs are not ready, nor are prepared for blue-collar jobs that abound. However, through the Meister High School program the public is responding to starting out in a more manual type of employment first, and to later progress onto more senior positions and to managerial roles, which is the privilege of university graduates.

The Meister High School is where students are nurtured to develop a career since the school is linked with specialized industrial needs of a promising field (Choi and Palmer 2013). They can be defined as "high schools tailored to the demands of the industrial sector," where they are supported in their effort to gain employment after graduation by completing a curriculum that reflects the demands of industry. With a heavy emphasis on practical classes jointly developed by schools and industry, the hands-on experience acquired at partner companies make Meister High School students employable immediately upon graduation. In addition, there are pathways leading students to study while working which will enable them to study in colleges through a special admission system making the transition smoother. This can be an incentive for students who really value and desire a university degree to develop their careers (Na 2012).

The Meister High Schools are proving to be successful because of the industry-academic cooperation to guarantee quality education. To narrow the gap between

school-based vocational education and the demands of companies, students are learning with cutting-edge training equipment that is normally not available in schools and from experts who are able to instruct them in the latest technological and industrial settings. Many innovative ways to make this cooperation a success have been carried out so that the transition from a formal vocational educational setting can incorporate new ways of teaching by having industry experts collaborate in the process of developing the curriculum, the development of textbooks, and after-school classes. All this effort has resulted in students being highly employable upon graduation. This industry-academic cooperation is a challenging one that requires the government's monitoring and intervention in order to motivate companies to participate and to collaborate in this scheme. Financial incentives to Korean companies are needed since in many cases, Korean companies are passive about developing their employees and their main focus is mainly on responding to the demands of the market rather than on developing their staff. In addition to this incentive, a central organization that can oversee and govern the process of industry-academic cooperation where a consultative body can be made available to industries, schools, and government entities is needed to ensure the smooth flow of operation of the vocational education and training in the Meister High Schools (Park and Jang 2014, p. 168).

Entry into Meister schools is competitive requiring potential students to demonstrate overall good academic performance in junior high, and in some cases, an interview is required to ascertain the right candidate for the school. Since the Meister High School model is relatively new, while there are tangible successes measured by the high percentage of students employed immediately upon graduation, there are also some challenges that need to be addressed.

Internationalization of Content in VET Curricula

The two pillars making up the skills development system of Korea are training and vocational education (Ryu and Moon 2015). Vocational education for high school students is provided by Specialized High Schools or Meister High Schools. However, there is no evidence of foreign students who have purposely come to Korea to pursue their education in these schools, unlike in Korean universities which report the breakdown of different nationalities attending their institutions, indicating an environment where students can be interacting with foreigners. Such interaction leads to a context where exposure to different cultures, language, and ways of solving problems can be acquired. In addition, universities are proud to report foreign professors teaching in their schools providing again a different view on their subject that perhaps local professors are not experienced enough to address. However, the only foreigners teaching in high schools are English language teachers whose sole purpose is to teach English. Most of these English courses are aimed at developing an English level for academic purposes and for conversation. In Chap. 13 (p. 209), Hagedorn and Li (2017) speak about English for specific purpose which

can be employed in the curriculum for better preparing students to be competent in their field. Rarely is there any inclusion of English for specific purposes that can help the vocational education student learns words related to his/her specialization. For example, a student undertaking courses to become a computer technician can benefit greatly if he/she can learn English words found in manuals, words related to computer parts and so on.

Reported in the *Korea Times* in 2014 was an article about how Korea and Switzerland had agreed to forge a close partnership in vocational education. While this program does not follow any of the indicators to measure internationalization for universities, the program of apprenticeship in Switzerland for VET students is a positive direction toward collaboration in skills training within a global context. The following information was gathered from a personal communication with the project manager in Korea who is coordinating students to participate in this apprenticeship. Since March 2015, under the Korea Institute for Advancement of Technology (KIAT), a public institute founded under Article 38 of the Industrial Technology Innovation Promotion Act and the Swiss Science and Technology of the Swiss Embassy in Korea, a program of student apprenticeship has begun. Under this program, only Meister High School graduates are eligible to matriculate into the program, which starts with the student being hired by a local Swiss corporation. After a complete year of on-the-job training in the local Swiss corporation, the student completes a 2-year study and work program in Switzerland and finishes the program by returning to Korea to continue working in the Swiss corporation they first joined or by seeking employment elsewhere or applying to universities. The Swiss VET is 4 years in length and the Korean system is 3 years long. For students who are undertaking this model, since this is a joint collaboration between the Korean VET and the Swiss Apprenticeship Model, Korean students on this track will complete the Swiss system of 4 years which provides more training and learning allowing students to be more competitive in the job market. In order for the students to go to Switzerland after one year of being employed at a Swiss corporation in Korea, they undertake language courses in addition to learning about the company and learning skills on the job. Once in Switzerland, they do a test first according to the VET standards of Switzerland, and depending on the results of this test, they are matched up with a company. Students may follow a weekly schedule of two days at school and three days on the job. While they are in Switzerland, they are on a student visa that allows them to work and earn a monthly wage, and the hiring corporation pays for all tuition fees. Meanwhile, the Korean government subsidizes their airfare to and from Korea, as well as covering their accommodation expenses. Personal expenses are from the student's own funds (Yoo Minwha, personal communication, September, 2015).

Successes and Challenges

At first glance Korea's educational system appears to be seamless for the remarkable advancement the country has achieved in such a short period. However, Koreans who place such high stakes in the education of their children know very well that while education has been the key to the country's success, reforms and innovative new methods are needed to educate the next generation to whom the country will be handed over. Many factors contribute to this growing concern for Korea's future, but one that stands out is the rapid technological advances leading organizational changes to find highly skilled workers compared to low or medium-skilled workers (OECD-KRIVET, n.d.). Due to the fact that Korea has followed a quasi-mono career pathway void of diversity to transition from one sector to another, students who pursued vocational education tracks were limited in their choice of careers making them low-skilled labor personnel where enhancing their career path was not possible. Policies should aim to promote more diverse career development paths by reforming various programs for skill formation and institutions for human capital development. By establishing an educational system that offers more career development pathways supported by job security and a lifelong learning program, where skills are developed according to the needs of the industry, the Korean government can look forward to investing resources which can result in reducing the gap that currently exists between jobs and skills. The establishment of the National Competency Standards (NCS) developing NCS-based learning modules and the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), along with the building up of a competency-centered education recognized by the society, has been a success. A challenge is to form teachers with industry experience to teach these competency-based courses. Also, another challenge is to have a smooth transition for students who desire to obtain a university qualification while working. Following the Swiss model, students can obtain up to a PhD although this route is not clear. The Swiss government focuses on trust, transparency, and efficiency in a system that has numerous flexible streams to support the aspirations of people wanting to study and work in the VET sector. Additionally, a sense of esteem for the vocational sector can become more prevalent in Korea by developing trust in all the different stakeholders (OECD-KRIVET, n.d.). Looking again at the Swiss model, the Korean government can learn from this example, which allows businesses to take the majority of responsibility for post-secondary VET, and the government simply being a facilitator (OECD-KRIVET, n.d.). The government can play more of a collaborative role with industry and education rather than adopting the stricter role it has traditionally held. Korea should focus on developing innovative learning policies to meet the challenge of eliminating the mismatch in jobs and human resources, which is a genuine concern for the future. The Meister High Schools are proving to be success stories where the students are nearly fully employed upon graduation. These students are the candidates for overseas experience such as with programs offered by the Swiss companies operating in Korea enhancing their global and international mindfulness. Some experts have suggested policies to actualize this ideal by including various

VET programs in Korean universities, more focus on human resources development for industry demand, person focused in innovation, human resources rotation, and hybrid organizations to deal with technology transfer (OECD-KRIVET, n.d.).

Conclusion

Korea's economic and social achievements can be attributed to the educational system, which reflects the Korean people's embracement of Confucianism. Marked by her history where dominion by the Japanese followed by the Korean War did not alter the Korean people's passion to live out the Confucian ideals that emphasize education and social order, today Korea is much more aware of the importance of competition and hierarchy to survive and to flourish (Beck 2010). The competitive nature of Koreans coupled with an attitude of respect for hierarchy so deeply rooted in Confucianism can bring Korea to the next level of development if they are led by policies from the government to bring vocational education training to meet the demands of industrial growth in a knowledge-based economy. The VET sector in Korea has not experienced the heavy government attention given to the higher education sector where clear policies and funding was allocated to internationalize Korean universities by identifying key measurement tools. However, efforts to standardize competency measuring tools, and developing a more flexible career path development for students pursuing vocational education in high schools, as well as providing lifelong learning programs for those who are already working in jobs where their skills are highly valued, have been undertaken by government policies. This leaves hope that sooner rather than later, the VET sector can also enjoy the benefits of internationalization. Korea's effort to follow suit of providing apprenticeship vocational schools such as those found in Germany and Switzerland is leading Korean youth to pursue a vocational education pathway with opportunities where they can develop a career that can be fulfilling by learning and developing themselves to their full potential in a style and environment most suited for them (Hwang 2015).

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Chapter 11
Policy Lender and Borrower at Once: Korea's Developments in the VET Sector and Its New Pathway to Apprenticeship

Antje Barabasch, Stefanie Petrick, and Cheonsoo Park

Abstract Korea is one of the countries that has been addressing the further development of its VET system for decades. Learning from other countries' approaches has been an important part of this process. This chapter first outlines the Korean experience with the apprenticeship model and the lessons drawn from that. Subsequently, current trends with a renewed interest in apprenticeships and how this is connected to wider regional and global developments in education and training will be elaborated. For many years, international VET cooperation followed the patterns of development cooperation: developed, industrialized countries provided aid and advice to less developed countries. As their education and training systems were seen as one determinant of that economic success, they also served as benchmarks for countries in search of solutions for their VET problems. Korea is an example of a country that has changed its role from a former "policy recipient" as a consequence of its economic success. As a new donor, Korea is active in a variety of official development assistance projects, and since 2013, the Global Institute for Transferring Skills (GIFTS) offers international services such as teacher training, consultancy and the establishment of vocational training centres. After a discussion of the latest experiences of piloting apprenticeships in the Korean context, the chapter closes with an outlook to the years to come and suggests avenues for future research.

Keywords Policy transfer • Internationalization • VET in Korea • New donors

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Introduction

Looking at contexts outside one's own region or country for ideas, concepts or policies that might prove useful for solving domestic problems is not a new phenomenon. As early as in the nineteenth century, education experts compared structures and institutions of education in other European countries and searched for ways to adapt good ideas into their own context (Gonon 2012). Likewise education has experienced external influences, both geographical and system related, and as a consequence has been evolving for a long time (Waldow 2012).

International knowledge exchange and cooperation in education has been investigated from different perspectives. The first strand consists of research from social sciences such as comparative education, political science or sociology. The common relevant theme in these investigations is what Steiner-Khamsi calls "travelling reforms" (Steiner-Khamsi 2012, p. 3). Relevant concepts include policy transfer (Cowen 2006), policy borrowing/lending in education (Steiner-Khamsi 2004, 2012), policy learning (Hall 1993) and policy attraction (Phillips 2004). These different approaches all refer to phenomena "in which knowledge about policies, administrative arrangements, institutions and ideas in one political setting (past or present) is used in the development of policies, administrative arrangements institutions and ideas in another political setting" (Dolowitz and Marsh 2000, p. 5 in Waldow 2012, p. 411). As internationalization increases also in educational policy-making, nowadays we no longer look merely at *two* political settings but the spread of educational policies across *several* countries. In this regard, concepts like policy harmonization, policy convergence or policy diffusion have been of growing importance. Regional harmonization in education means that countries adopt and implement political measures in order to meet a set of previously agreed standards. Convergence would then be the outcome of harmonization; it means that different states become more similar in certain policy areas (Jakobi 2012). Policy diffusion means that a policy is transferred to several other domains or subsystems, not only to one or merely a few. Due to their wide cooperation network and influence, international organizations (e.g. the OECD,[1] World Bank, UNESCO[2]) play an important role in the diffusion of ideas and policies in education (ibid.).

In the case of Korea, both (bilateral) policy transfer(s) and regional policy diffusion have played a role in the development of VET during the last decades. As we will show in sections two and three of this chapter, Korea looks back to a long history of VET cooperation with individual countries such as Germany, Switzerland and others (also see Chap. 10 by Nahm 2017, this volume). At the same time, policy trends of the wider international sphere such as competency-based education and training, the development of a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) or a quality assurance system in VET have influenced Korean VET as well. This far-reaching influence is mirrored in the fact that Korea aims at

[1] Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.

[2] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

developing a "competency-oriented society" (KRIVET 2015; UNESCO-UNEVOC 2014). The Korean Qualification Framework (KQF) which has been influenced by international benchmarks such as Scotland should facilitate lifelong learning and also enhance labour mobility in a more and more integrated South-East Asia (ibid, Kim 2013).

The second strand consists of research from business studies and economics. Surprisingly, although both strands have been addressing policy transfer processes and corresponding questions, there is little mutual referencing and consideration. This second strand provides insights into the connection between financial funding and policy transfer and the interdependence of these two. For years, donors[3] had been trying to improve development outcomes and the "return" on their aid by promoting certain standards for good governance and policy reforms. This was first done in the form of aid conditionality which means that aid was only provided if the recipient agreed to implement certain policy reforms (Lim 2011). Two publications one by Burnside and Dollar (1997) and one by the World Bank (1998), which stated that aid was most effective in recipient countries with favourable policy conditions (e.g. sound economic policies, low corruption, supply of qualified manpower), might have influenced donors to move towards selectivity instead of conditionality (Lim 2011). This meant that donors compared each recipient country's situation with a set of desired conditions and would only provide aid to those that meet these criteria. For both aid conditionality and aid selectivity, the policy standards were defined by the *donors* and often did not take into consideration the specific context of the recipient countries. As a consequence, reforms were often not successful and ownership was weak (ibid.).

While the official objective of using development aid for poverty reduction is a noble one, the reality has shown different parallel donor interests for a long time. Alesina and Dollar (2000) inquired about the effectiveness of development aid from a wide range of donors between the years 1970 and 1994 and concluded:

> Nordic countries target their assistance to the poorest countries, and within that appear to reward good policies and political institutions of the receiving countries. U.S. behaviour is similar to the Nordic at the margin, but has the additional feature of being allocated in favour of UN friends and Middle East allies. On the opposite extreme among major donors are France and Japan, donors which seem to care mostly about their own former colonies and UN votes, do not particularly reward good policies or institutions, and are less reactive than other donors to the income level of the recipients. (p. 19)

Looking at these parallel developments, one can say that the role of donors with regard to promoting (or preventing) policy change in recipient countries is very complex. The new millennium brought an increased awareness of the problems connected to this, and in 2005 the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness[4] was adopted.

[3] Traditionally, donors are countries who are members of the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC). The DAC was founded in 1960 and currently has 29 members. These members must fulfil certain conditions in their realization of development assistance (see OECD 2015a).

[4] The Paris Declaration lays down five principles for more effective aid (ownership, alignment, harmonization, managing for results and mutual accountability) and defines corresponding indicators (OECD 2005).

With regard to policy transfer, it is interesting because it is supposed to reduce the connection between aid and external policy interference. Instead, developing countries should rely more on their own national priorities, and more aid from donors should be untied (OECD 2005).

In the last 10 years, the international landscape for policy change in education has seen an increase in links in networks also through the emergence of new donors. These are countries that had formerly been aid recipients but have developed to such an extent that they provide financial support or policy advice to less developed countries. Korea is an example of such a new donor, which will be outlined in Sects. 11.4 and 11.5 of this chapter. So far, authors like Dreher et al. (2011) suggest that new donors do not differ much from traditional donors in their decisions on aid allocations. However, little is known so far about donor strategies among new donor countries, such as Korea or China, and further research is needed.

Policy transfer processes can go both ways. Countries can borrow policies in order to improve their practice, or they can become donors to support others in their policy learning and policy transfer and essentially in initiating change processes in their countries. The next sections will provide further information on Korea's approach to policy learning and policy transfer in the field of vocational education and training with a particular emphasis on apprenticeships. Like many other countries, Korea has in the past and more recently again developed an interest in implementing apprenticeships according to the dual approach known in Germany and Switzerland.

The New Popularity of the Apprenticeship Model

The worldwide economic crisis that started in 2008 has led many economies, including Korea, to question their current approaches to workforce training. In order to find new ideas for better matching skill needs and skill supply, Korea took a typical approach towards policy learning and policy borrowing called benchmarking, which includes the study of more successful economies and their approaches to education and training. The growing interest in Korea and worldwide in the apprenticeship model is based on the expectation that it could potentially reduce youth unemployment and provide tangible outcomes to the individual, enterprise and society. In respect to training, the dual approach within apprenticeship has intrigued scholars and policymakers over the last century, and a number of attempts were undertaken to copy and paste the model into one's own context – with little success. Scholars wrote about the reasons for this largely considered failure and came to the conclusion that copying a system one to one is almost impossible and instead process- or feature-oriented policy borrowing as well as learning from mistakes can lead to system innovation (Barabasch and Wolf 2011, 2012; Barabasch and Petrick 2012). Based on that and different economic and political interests, current global developments show that the interpretation of an apprenticeship differs widely (Smith and Kemmis 2013). The duration of an apprenticeship can vary between one and

four years. Access is widened, for example, through including adults above the age of 25 or through offering adult apprenticeships. Prerequisites for attending apprenticeships can be lowered in order to include more individuals in these programmes. In some cases private providers take over the facilitation of apprenticeships, or apprenticeships might be more school or mainly work based (Cedefop 2016). In terms of financing mechanisms, there is also a range of possibilities, such as tax levies or incentives that support the implementation of apprenticeships (Cedefop 2008, 2009, 2012). The ILO (2015) defines a so-called quality apprenticeship in the following way and in doing so sets a standard to apprenticeship development internationally:

> […] A unique form of vocational education, combining on the job work-based learning and school-based training, for specifically combined competencies and work processes. It is regulated by law and based on an oral or written employment contract with a compensatory payment and has a standard social protection scheme. A formalized assessment and a recognized certification come at the end of a clearly identified duration. (p. 2)

The key criteria for a quality apprenticeship derived from this internationally recognized definition are therefore:

- A regulatory framework/law that defines wages and contractual agreements
- Founded within a social dialogue between employers, employee organization, the state and educational institutions
- A funding scheme as a private-public partnership and cost sharing
- A clearly defined institutional framework that sets roles and responsibilities for actors

Many countries and institutions turn their interest towards countries with a dual approach within apprenticeships in order to learn more about this model (Barabasch and Wolf 2011, 2012; Barabasch and Petrick 2012; Cedefop 2016; ILO 2013). Since Germany had managed after only 1 year of economic decline to regain economic stability in comparison with many other European countries (Roos 2009), it became again a country at the centre of attention. Low youth unemployment, accompanied by a declining unemployment rate overall and a highly developed and well-performing industry, re-sparked the international attention. Its remarkable approach to training young adults, which is also well established in Switzerland, based on a strong collaborative relationship between employers, the state and unions, seems to offer a potential solution, especially in respect to coping with the high youth unemployment rate which resulted from the economic crisis. The European Alliance for Apprenticeships launched in 2013 (European Commission 2016) responds to both: the long existing admiration of a functioning training system as well as the search for measures to reduce youth unemployment. It did, however, much less address the specific outcomes that apprenticeships can provide in terms of a preparation for work that is constantly changing as much as for life more generally.

The reawakening of an interest in apprenticeship, however, goes beyond the European borders. Signs of policy borrowing and practical transfer activities can be found in Korea, the United States, China and South Africa. While the first two

countries' interest in apprenticeship has reawakened in the last few years, the two latter countries have collaborated with researchers within the field of VET over the past decade (Lakes and Barabasch 2012; Barabasch et al. 2009). The new awareness about the value of employers' engagement in training poses many questions, especially in respect to how employers can be encouraged to train. As outlined further in the following sections, Korea has taken the approach of creating reality by using existing VET funds to pay employers who offer apprenticeships.

Besides the European initiatives, there have also been international network activities, such as the Global Apprenticeship Network (GAN). The network is supported by international organizations, among them the International Labour Organization (ILO), the OECD, International Organization of Employers (IOE), the Business and Industry Advisory Committee (BIAC) and 13 leading companies. Their shared interest is the reduction of youth unemployment through the provision of new forms of workforce training, e.g. apprenticeships and the promotion of apprenticeship training so that more entrepreneurs would follow.

While interest in apprenticeships is not a new development, the amount of recent international interest and engagement has never been seen before. It is new however that international organizations are promoting apprenticeships and initiating various support measures. Among them is also the facilitation of knowledge exchange between international stakeholders, as done, for example, by Cedefop (2014, 2015).

Korean Experiences with Apprenticeship Development: Higher Education Versus VET

The start of industrialization in Korea in the 1960s also reinforced the need to develop a trained workforce for the emerging industries. Vocational training in Korea became active when government intervened and introduced the Training Standards Act in 1967 which provided subsidy to companies with training provision. In the 1970s, the law enforced training to be mandatory for companies to ensure a certain level of training. If companies were unable to provide training, they were asked to pay training sharing fees (KRIVET 2014a). At about the same time, the myth of the successful German economy was viewed as related to a high-quality training system (Drexel 2005). The advanced development of West German technology led to a worldwide admiration of the training system. This was reflected in the development of advisory teams that were contracted by the World Bank to support nations in setting up vocational training centres (Schröter 1994). The foundation for Korea's decision to invite a German advisory committee was that for a long time a governmental agreement between the two nations had existed and positive experiences were made with setting up vocational school projects in Korea (Schoenfeldt 1996). The ultimate aim of this transfer and German-Korean collaboration was the development of more skilled workers that Korea needed for its rapidly developing modern industry (Barabasch and Wolf 2010a, b).

The cooperation between the countries led to the establishment of training centres according to the German model (Vocational Training Institute – VTI), which were financed and partially run by Germany. Soon, the Korean government started to lose interest, because a new rhetoric related to the idea of knowledge workers became more prevalent (Rösch 1994) and the focus regarding workforce development changed towards higher education. This development was more in harmony with the idea of the population for socio-economic growth and equal participation in education at higher levels promising a higher social status (Barabasch and Wolf 2010a). Therefore, Korea did not extend activities in building training centres according to the German model (Greinert 2001; Haftmann 2003). Nevertheless, the cooperation had positive side effects and strengthened the diplomatic relationship between the two countries.

Rationale for a Renewed Interest in Apprenticeships: The Way Forward

With a population of almost 50 million, Korea is of middle size among its Asian neighbours. 27.2 % of the population are 25 or younger and are thus at the beginning of their work life or will enter the labour market soon (CIA 2015). The overall unemployment rate is low at 3.5 % in 2014 and also the youth unemployment rate is relatively low at approximately 9 % (CIA 2015).

The following figure provides a schematic overview of the current vocational education and training (VET) context in Korea, existing challenges and measures to address them (Fig. 11.1).

As highlighted by Nahm (2017, Chap. 10), education in general is considered highly important overall in the Korean society, and this is reflected in spending almost 8 % of the GDP on education (OECD 2014, p. 222). Being an economy with a strong industrial sector and a high international competitiveness, especially in electronics, shipbuilding, automobile industry and machine tool manufacturing, there is a high demand for well-trained staff. This demand is even more acute as Korea, like other industrialized countries, faces the demographic trend of an increasingly older population. The median age is currently already at 40.8 years and is expected to rise to 48.5 years by 2030 (CIA 2015; BiBB 2013; Kim 2013). If there are fewer people who enter the labour market, imbalances between labour market demand and supply will carry more weight. Vice versa, a longer qualification period could affect young people's family planning.

The problem in Korea is then not that there aren't enough employment opportunities for young people after they have finished their education and training. Rather, problems result from a mismatch between skill demand and supply and also in respect to quality improvements in education and training programmes (Kim 2013; BiBB 2013). Enrolment in upper secondary education is very high at 81 % (OECD average 54 %), but only 19 % of the students are enrolled in vocational education (OECD average 44 %) which indicates a strong preference for general and academic education (OECD 2014, p. 314).

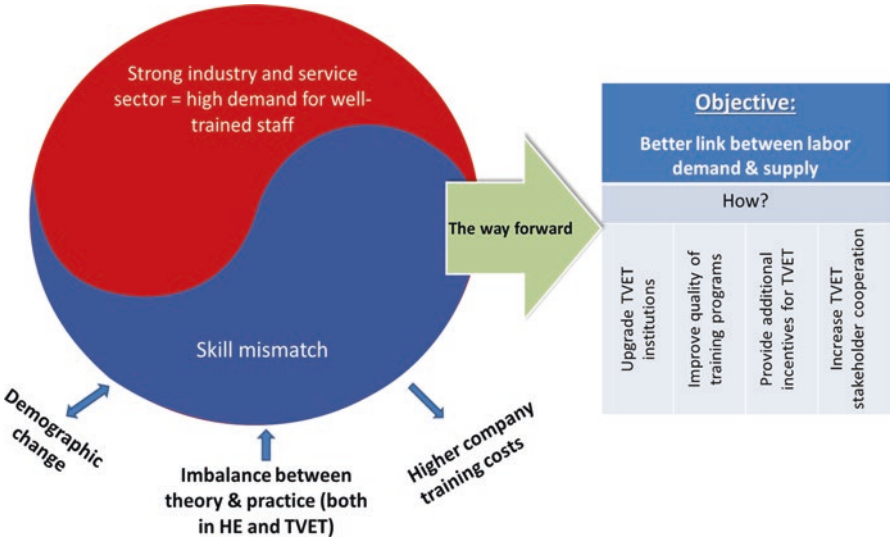


Fig. 11.1 Current VET context and challenges in South Korea

Higher education is by far the most attractive option for young people, with much pressure to achieve good results in the annual university entrance exams. A strong higher education sector is not problematic as such. However, in Korea, school-to-work transition takes longer than the OECD average, and also, there is a stronger focus on theory in academic studies (OECD 2015b). As a result, 90 % of all new employees require additional practical training when they are hired by a company (BiBB 2013). Thus, companies face higher costs for human resources development (Kim 2013). On the other hand, the VET sector in Korea continues to suffer from the preference for higher education (OECD 2015b). In addition, also in VET there is too little focus on practical technical skills and competences. Compared to other OECD countries, Korean workers have one of the lowest productivity rates (OECD 2015b). In order to improve the link between the education and training sector and the economy, the Korean government launched support initiatives on different levels. Examples of this commitment are the promotion of junior colleges and programmes on job placement, on further training opportunities and on company internships for students of specialized vocational high schools (ibid.; KRIVET 2014b).

Improving the relevance and quality of education and training in Korea is important not only for the national development but also for the wider international cooperation network. Korea is a country with a growing number of international ties that seeks to be an active partner towards enhanced regional integration. Together with the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), it forms the ASEAN-Korea Free Trade Area (AKFTA). Furthermore, together with 15 other parties, Korea is

also a member of the Regional Comprehensive Economic Partnership (RCEP).[5] The RCEP is a regional free trade agreement under the leadership of ASEAN. After its conclusion, the RCEP will be the largest integrated market in the world with approximately 3.4 billion people and a combined GDP of USD 22.7 trillion (ASEAN 2015).

A greater movement of services and skilled labour is one of the expected outcomes and benefits of this increased regional integration. For this purpose, the recognition of professional qualifications is an important instrument. Both in Korea and in ASEAN, the development of national qualification frameworks (NQF) is a crucial element of reforming and modernizing education and training systems.

For the ASEAN countries, the concept for the development of the ASEAN Qualifications Reference Framework (AQRF) was drafted in 2010 (SED-TVET 2014). Although its main purpose is to facilitate labour mobility within ASEAN, the AQRF has an outward function as well. As other countries in Asia also develop NQFs, it should be possible to compare the qualifications on the respective levels and thus create an even wider interregional space for learning and working. Currently, the AQRF is at the stage of sectoral implementation and the establishment of the AQRF Board after it was endorsed in 2014 as a voluntary guideline for all ASEAN member states (Santoso 2015). As the member states have different systems of education and training at different stages in the reform process, referencing national qualifications to the AQRF remains challenging. Therefore, a slower, voluntary approach seems to be more suitable (ibid; SED-TVET 2014).

In Korea, a new policy rhetoric focuses on the establishment of a competency-based society (KRIVET 2015; UNESCO-UNEVOC 2014) which is supposed to move beyond the concept of a knowledge society (UNESCO 2005). Two central initiatives in this regard are the development of national competency standards (NCS) and of the Korean Qualification Framework (KQF). The KQF is meant to bridge the spheres of learning and work and to better link academic and vocational qualifications. It consists of 8 qualification levels where each level is based on the NCS with the corresponding knowledge, skills and attitudes (Kim 2013). Against this background, Korea's renewed interest in apprenticeships and initiatives such as the Meister High Schools fit well into the government's latest efforts to better link labour market demand and supply. One of the key elements of apprenticeships is the combination of vocational education and training at different learning sites. The strong orientation towards the professional reality should enable the apprentices to independently solve complex problems in the workplace. For this, they need professional knowledge, technical skills and also a constructive attitude to apply them, i.e. apprentices should develop professional *competences* in their field. A stronger competency orientation promoted by the Park Geun-hye administration is thus reflected in the stronger emphasis on practice-oriented forms of VET (KRIVET 2014b).

[5] RCEP members: Australia, China, India, Japan, New Zealand, Korea, Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam.

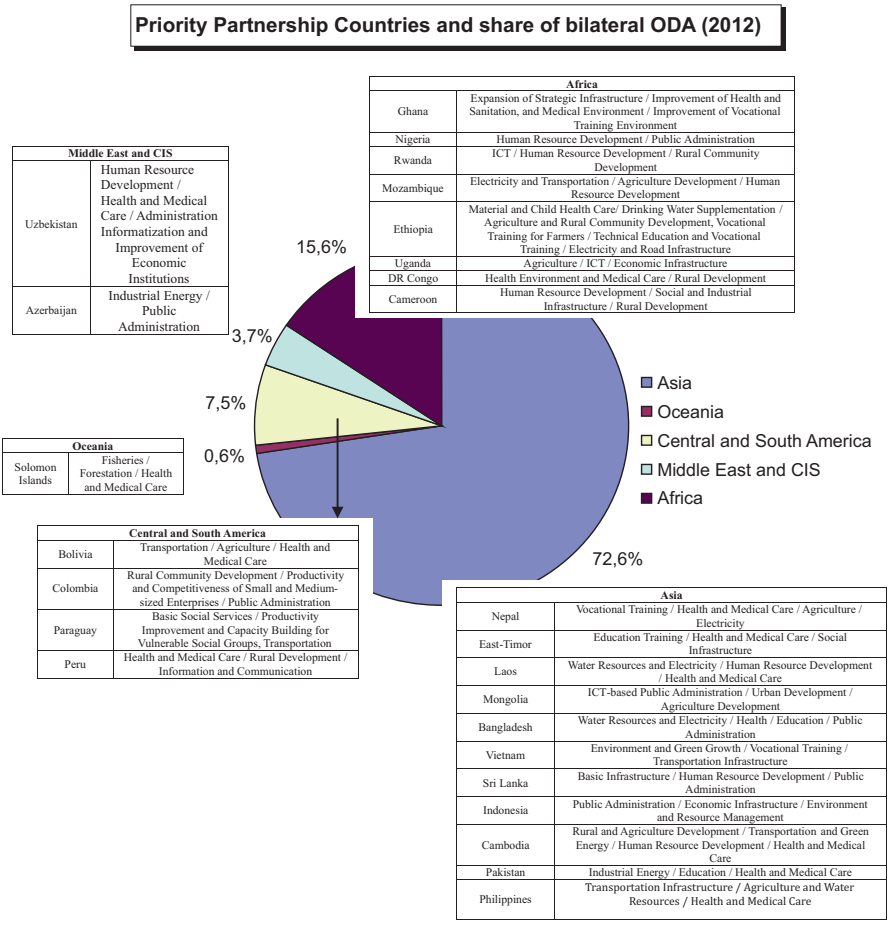
Several decades of fostering VET in Korea and its international VET cooperation have led the country to increasingly play a prominent role as an international policy multiplier and donor. In this regard, Korea has a quite unique position in the context of international development cooperation as the first former recipient of official development assistance (ODA) to join the OECD DAC (in 2010). Not only is Korea well aware of this position, but it seeks to actively market this "competitive advantage" towards its international partners. Korea strives to offer a "win-win ODA" where it offers loans, funds, know-how and infrastructure to different countries and at the same time increases economic opportunities and political visibility for itself (Committee for International Cooperation (CIDC) 2014). For that purpose, Korea represents "Hope for aid-recipient countries, a model for the global community, and national pride for the Korean people" (ibid., p. 54). In other formulations, the metaphor of Korea as a *bridge* is used, a "bridge among developed, emerging and developing countries" with a broad range of activities towards these different stakeholders (ODA Korea 2012, para. 5; GIFTS 2013a). While Korea became an official OECD donor only in 2010, its activities as a donor go back as far as the 1960s. At this time, Korea launched several smaller-scale training programmes for developing countries, and since this time, programmes in the field of VET have been an important part of the country's activities as a donor (CIDC 2014).

In order to enhance its ODA effectiveness, Korea directs the largest share of its ODA to 26 priority partner countries (CIDC 2014). The following diagram shows the regional ODA distribution and main sectors of cooperation (Fig. 11.2).

As the figure shows, VET and human resource development (HRD) are among the cooperation sectors for all partner countries except for Oceania and Central and South America (CIDC 2014). In 2012, 7.3 % of total ODA were spent on the education sector (ibid.). As this represents an important field of Korea's international development cooperation, it was necessary to establish an appropriate institutional framework. In 1982, HRD Korea[6] was established as the main HRD organization under the Ministry of Employment and Labour (MoEL). Its main fields of work are the promotion of work and of skills, the development of qualification standards, research on competency development and a broad range of support for VET institutions (e.g. on management, technical assistance, evaluation of facilities, provision of training materials, etc.) (HRD Korea 2009).

For the planning and implementation of HRD Korea's *international* activities, the Global Institute for Transferring Skills (GIFTS) was founded in 2013. Its mission is to "boost global human resources development" (GIFTS 2013b). This should be achieved by "transfer[ring] the Korean vocational training system including the establishment, operation and teaching methods to developing world countries" (GIFTS 2013c). Within GIFTS, the global cooperation department is responsible for developing bilateral and multilateral networks, fostering dialogue on VET policies and the recognition of qualifications between countries. In these activities, GIFTS takes a very confident role as a mediator that draws lessons from VET

[6] The organization's name was changed to the current "Human Resources Development Service of Korea" in 2006 (HRD Korea 2009).



Africa	
Ghana	Expansion of Strategic Infrastructure / Improvement of Health and Sanitation, and Medical Environment / Improvement of Vocational Training Environment
Nigeria	Human Resource Development / Public Administration
Rwanda	ICT / Human Resource Development / Rural Community Development
Mozambique	Electricity and Transportation / Agriculture Development / Human Resource Development
Ethiopia	Material and Child Health Care/ Drinking Water Supplementation / Agriculture and Rural Community Development, Vocational Training for Farmers / Technical Education and Vocational Training / Electricity and Road Infrastructure
Uganda	Agriculture / ICT / Economic Infrastructure
DR Congo	Health Environment and Medical Care / Rural Development
Cameroon	Human Resource Development / Social and Industrial Infrastructure / Rural Development

Middle East and CIS	
Uzbekistan	Human Resource Development / Health and Medical Care / Administration Informatization and Improvement of Economic Institutions
Azerbaijan	Industrial Energy / Public Administration

Oceania	
Solomon Islands	Fisheries / Forestation / Health and Medical Care

Central and South America	
Bolivia	Transportation / Agriculture / Health and Medical Care
Colombia	Rural Community Development / Productivity and Competitiveness of Small and Medium-sized Enterprises / Public Administration
Paraguay	Basic Social Services / Productivity Improvement and Capacity Building for Vulnerable Social Groups, Transportation
Peru	Health and Medical Care / Rural Development / Information and Communication

Asia	
Nepal	Vocational Training / Health and Medical Care / Agriculture / Electricity
East-Timor	Education Training / Health and Medical Care / Social Infrastructure
Laos	Water Resources and Electricity / Human Resource Development / Health and Medical Care
Mongolia	ICT-based Public Administration / Urban Development / Agriculture Development
Bangladesh	Water Resources and Electricity / Health / Education / Public Administration
Vietnam	Environment and Green Growth / Vocational Training / Transportation Infrastructure
Sri Lanka	Basic Infrastructure / Human Resource Development / Public Administration
Indonesia	Public Administration / Economic Infrastructure / Environment and Resource Management
Cambodia	Rural and Agriculture Development / Transportation and Green Energy / Human Resource Development / Health and Medical Care
Pakistan	Industrial Energy / Education / Health and Medical Care
Philippines	Transportation Infrastructure / Agriculture and Water Resources / Health and Medical Care

Fig. 11.2 ODA Priority Partnership Countries of Korea and focus sectors. Korea allocates 56.4 % of its bilateral ODA net disbursements to its 26 priority partner countries (CIDC 2014). The diagram shows the regional shares of this ODA amount by region. The tables show the ODA sectors. The areas of ODA engagement that are concerned with VET and/or HRD are highlighted to make them more visible and show that they are an important aspect of Korea's international activities. Statistics: OCED DAC Aid Statistics

approaches of developed countries, cooperates with other rising economies and passes them on to developing countries (GIFTS 2013a, d). Specific references are made to VET experiences from Germany, the UK and Australia as examples for international benchmarks (GIFTS 2013a). Although Korea defines poverty reduction, the improvement of human rights and sustainable development as primary objectives of its general development cooperation, international *VET* cooperation has a clearer self-interest (CIDC 2014). The main objectives of GIFTS' global cooperation are "to take a leading role in international HRD cooperation, […] to

promote the brand value of HRD Korea […] and to enhance competitiveness in international cooperation" (GIFTS 2013d). GIFTS' HRD support department is responsible for implementing specific measures for the improvement of VET in developing countries. This should be achieved by offering vocational training courses, providing consulting services, constructing training facilities and sending VET experts abroad (GIFTS 2013e, f). Training participants of GIFTS came from more than 23 countries and a variety of professional backgrounds (GIFTS 2013g).

With a clear mission to transfer the *Korean* VET approach, the implementation of training courses *in Korea* and a strong top-down approach in *Korean* ODA management, one important question is how successful and sustainable these measures can be in countries with *different* VET contexts. The political, economic, cultural, institutional and social complexity of any given VET context and the corresponding challenges of "transferring" VET systems or elements from one country to another are an "old" problem of comparative education and policy research. One aid instrument will not fit all country contexts, as the first DAC Peer Review for Korea pointed out (OECD 2012).

In its development cooperation, Korea emphasizes its experiences as a former aid-recipient country as a "proof" for its credibility as a donor. However, if development activities are carried out in a top-down, unidirectional way, this would resemble the development cooperation approaches of traditional "Western" donors that have been criticized for decades. Furthermore, Korea needs to strike a balance between its interest to position itself in the competition with other donors and more coordination and harmonization in ODA as required in the Paris Declaration.

Recent Developments: Piloting Apprenticeships

Instead of waiting for the economy to develop innovative approaches to workforce training, the government in Korea took the initiative to implement apprenticeships in order to once more try to rebalance educational provision in the country and better meet industry requirements (MOEL 2015). Korea's economy is highly dependent on the government in terms of development and management which can have positive consequences in terms of sharing a workload but also negative ones in respect to inefficiencies due to the competition between ministries (KRIVET 2014b). Under the new regulation, the industry pays a monthly fee into a common funding scheme (Employment Insurance System) for the advancement of training, and the government distributes the available resources according to their priorities, which recently has been the establishment of apprenticeships (MOEL 2015). The Korean Ministry of Employment and Labour has set up apprenticeships in 2013 and has been raising participation numbers of employers' provision of apprenticeships and apprentices with the aim of 10,000 training firms and 70,000 apprentices by 2017. However, the successful establishment or expansion of apprenticeships is a challenging task. It requires identifying key success factors for well-performing apprenticeships, careful analysis of opportunities and constraints of the national/

Table 11.1 Apprenticeship for Students (Reproduced from Kang 2015, p. 74)

Type	Target group	Concept
Apprenticeship High School	High school	Taking vocational education and apprenticeship at once
	11th and 12th year of specialized vocational high school	3 days at school and 2 days in company
Unitech	High school + college	Integrating vocational education and training in high schools and colleges
	Integral system of high school and college	
IPP (Industry Professional Practice)	University	3rd and 4th year university students join apprenticeship for a semester
	3rd and 4th year of university	

local context, and considering different options for implementing and assessing apprenticeship services. In Korea, where vocational education and training has been mostly provided by education institutions, it is challenging to introduce an apprenticeship system due to companies' lack of experience, lack of suitable infrastructure and budget constraints for providing work-based learning services.

The Korean apprenticeship system is an apprenticeship model modified to the Korean VET system and context. There are roughly two kinds of apprenticeships:

1. For new workers, four types are distinguished: (1) by main operation agent, company-led type and training centre-led type, and (2) by recognition of training results, qualification type and qualification + degree type
2. For students (Apprenticeship High School, Unitech and Industry Professional Practice (IPP)) (Table 11.1)

Government financial support is provided to companies, training centres and apprentices. Under the overall governance of the MoEL, the main stakeholders of apprenticeships are HRD Korea, Korea Polytechnics, Korean Research Institute for Vocational Education and Training (KRIVET), sector councils, training centres and companies. The majority of companies that are participating in apprenticeship provision at this stage come from the following industries: Machine, Information and Communication Technology and Services (Park et al. 2014).

Financial support is not just provided to the companies, but also to apprentices. The main approaches taken include:

Funding for programme development and infrastructure (per company)

- Programme development
- Training material development
- Training in-company trainer and HRD staff
- Operation costs
- In-company trainers' allowance
- HRD staff's allowance
- Training support fees

Support is also provided to individuals who become apprentices. This funding includes:

– Apprentice support fees
– Board and lodging fees

Through cost-benefit analysis, it is found that companies benefit economically from apprenticeships, which was reinforced by government incentives. Apprenticeships in Korea are currently provided directly by and often without a connection to schools. The training itself is often thoroughly planned as structured on-the-job training (SOJT) and has a duration of between 6 months and 4 years. Employers and apprentices have a contractual agreement that can end after the apprenticeship, although employers usually have a strong interest in keeping their trained personnel. The development of a nationally recognized certification of an apprenticeship is currently being developed (Kang 2015).

The general procedure for the implementation of apprenticeship follows various steps: (1) selecting companies, (2) developing and verifying programmes, (3) recruiting apprentices, (4) operating on-the-job (OJT) and off-the-job training (Off-JT), (5) while being regularly monitored and consulted and (6) evaluating apprentices' competencies. The whole process should ensure that NCS (National Competency Standards)-based new vocational qualifications are closely linked with apprenticeship programme development and operation procedures. In order to be admitted to train, there are two pathways possible. One would be company driven where an individual company applies at HRD Korea to become a training company. The other is training centre led and requires that companies gather and submit applications together as training partners either to HRD Korea or to SCs. It is also foreseen to critically examine progress with apprenticeship development on a regular basis. In all 24 sectors, NCS-based new vocational qualification and related apprenticeship programme development standards and assessment standards have been developed for the last 2 years along with the rapid expansion of apprenticeship to 3604 companies (participating) and 6365 apprentices (under training). Various economic and social achievements of apprenticeship have already been observed (Kang 2015).

The following graph illustrates which background the apprentices bring to the training and how they can join a programme (Fig. 11.3).

Most apprentices are not students but workers or jobseekers who had graduated from regular high schools. Around half of them (46%) had finished tertiary education, most of the others graduated from upper secondary schools (high schools). They joined the apprenticeship system by several pathways such as recommendations of teachers and company, company recruitment and recruitment by centres for employment and guidance.

The training itself follows largely a dual-system approach with 50–80% of the training taking place on the job and 20–50% off the job. Examination procedures have been developed. These include exams at school and workplace (internal examinations) and final exams at external test centres which include a theoretical and a practical evaluation of performance. With the current financial support from the

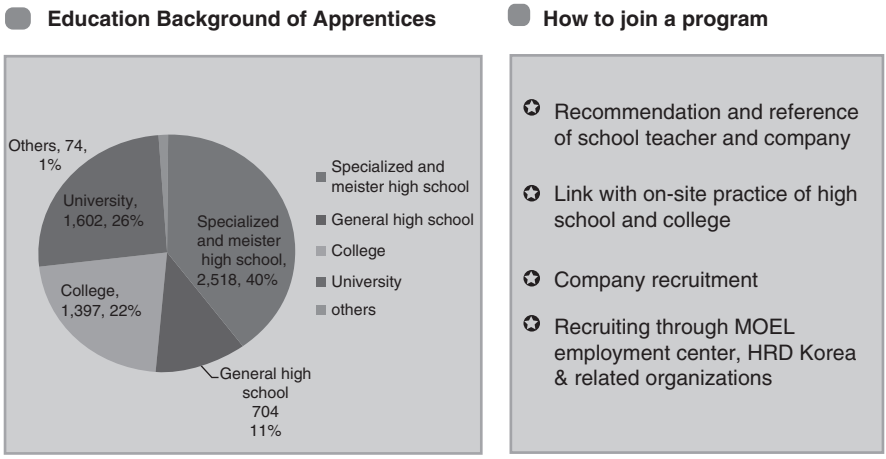


Fig. 11.3 Selection and treatment of apprentices (Reproduced from Kang 2015:81)

government, companies in Korea benefit from the first apprenticeship year onwards from their investment in training. Current projections about the cost-benefit ratio over the years predict that government and company investments from the first year pay off in the long run – a hypothesis that needs to be tested in the future. The first round of apprentices taken on by this government-funded scheme is currently in its third year.

While Korea waited for decades to experiment again with apprenticeships, its recent efforts indicate that the Korean government has decided to take a fast route in creating new facts. The ambitious plan in terms of participation numbers requires strong efforts in building a functioning system. The intensive benchmarking through inviting scholars and experts from many countries as well as sending Korean scholars and stakeholders to various countries for observation and exchange has marked the benchmarking process for policy learning. Surely, a larger proportion of Korean experts familiar with the English language, the ease to travel and availability of a large body of knowledge via Internet have eased the learning process. It all added to the strong governmental commitment and consequently to the establishment of essential governing bodies to guard the development of apprenticeships.

Current Issues and Future Outlook

When it comes to the (further) development of VET policies and strategies, Korea is currently at a critical stage that is not free of contradictions. On the domestic level, the main challenges consist of the competition between higher education and VET and a persisting lack of labour market orientation in both. As a consequence, there is pressure from both employers and graduates for a more effective and smoother transition from education/training to employment.

While Korea has only started to experiment with the introduction of an apprenticeship model again, which is considered a Korean adaptation of the German dual model, the country is increasingly globally active as a donor and policy advisor for VET towards developing countries, which brings along additional challenges. For instance, Korea was asked for help by the Mexican government to support their further apprenticeship development. While Mexico as well as Korea cooperates with German stakeholders, efforts need to be increased to include a larger number of companies in apprenticeship training. Korea, not being far ahead in its development, nevertheless has already developed a strategy to involve employers thanks to an attractive funding scheme, which is of interest to the Mexican government. Both countries seem to believe in the idea that creating facts in order to shape future realities is the only way in which inherited beliefs within the society about the value of VET could potentially be turned around. On a medium- and long-term perspective, the intriguing question from these cases remains if the strong funding in the early stages of apprenticeship programme development will lead to a more sustainable and independent VET system. This way, available training funds could be used to invest in training for those who cannot receive their training at the workplace or in an advanced VET system that offers further education at higher levels and provides educational opportunities as well as career progress for those who are more ambitious.

On a more general level, the example of Korea shows how international cooperation in VET is used as one instrument to increase political visibility. As many countries worldwide (re)discover VET as an important field of reform, Korea positions itself as a bridge between international "Western" benchmarks and the VET needs of developing countries in the South. On the one hand, this should yield political recognition by traditional donor countries. On the other hand, it should secure Korea a competitive advantage in countries with parallel international VET collaborations and multiple donors. The underlying idea is that Korea has successfully moved from being a "policy learner" to a "policy lender" as it can present its own rapid economic development as proof of expertise. However, Korea's experience as a donor and policy advisor is still short term, and the country has some domestic challenges to address. Similar to other VET policy lenders, the question is if and how Korea will manage to transfer elements of its own VET system to countries with a very different contextual background.

Another conclusion drawn from these developments might open new perspectives towards social partnership and sustainability of training. The strong interrelationship between government and industry in Korea might also suggest that management, control and partial funding of apprenticeships ensures long-term commitment by enterprises and the success of this training scheme, because it potentially leads to a more coherent approach to skills match and avoids long educational loops that cause more costs than the investment in apprenticeships. It needs to be seen how successful the current measures for promoting apprenticeships in the country will be which includes a significant shift in individuals perception about the value of VET for labour market participation and ones' career progress opportunities.

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Part III
Extending the VET Boundaries

Chapter 12
Internationalization in Senior Secondary Vocational Education in the Netherlands

Hilde Bastiaannet

Abstract The Netherlands is a country with an open economy that relies on foreign trade and is hospitable to refugees and immigrants from all over the world. It is the second highest export country in the EU; one-third of Dutch employment depends on export; of a total population of 16.8 million, 3.5 million inhabitants have at least one parent born outside the Netherlands. It is often said that every Dutch citizen has connections to "internationalization" in his or her lineage. Because of this tradition and being a member of the European Union, the Netherlands fully supports and benefits from the internal EU market, in which European citizens are free to live, work, study, and do business. The VET sector in the Netherlands embraces the tools EU is facilitating to support an open market for learners and workers; however, internationalization is not limited to the EU alone. Focusing on internationalization in senior secondary vocational education in the Netherlands and presenting recent Dutch data set against EU benchmarks, this research found that internationalization in this sector involves both so-called *internationalization* at home and *transnational* mobility. This chapter also considers the influences of EU's internationalization practices on the Dutch senior secondary vocational education sector with regard to students' development of intercultural competency, foreign language learning, virtual mobility, outbound and inbound mobility, and the promotion of study visits and student exchange.

Keywords Internationalization • The Netherlands • European Union • VET • Transnational student mobility

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Introduction

Internationalization makes us smarter, more creative, and entrepreneurial. For cross-border thinkers and doers and for teachers and students, the world is open. But, "my ambition is to challenge them to further explore the world and to seize the opportunities of internationalization". So says the Dutch Minister of Education, Culture and Science in her vision letter regarding internationalization for university, higher professional and vocational education for the next years (Bussemaker 2014, p. 1).

Attention in this chapter is focused on internationalization in senior secondary vocational education and training (VET) in the Netherlands. The multifaceted practices and models of internationalization that are in place in the Netherlands are described. The many influences from the EU on internationalization in VET will also be considered. The methodology of this chapter is desk research investigating national and international (open-source) literature.

It becomes clear upon reading the literature that there is no unequivocal definition of internationalization. The diversity in the meaning of the notion of "internationalization" is also evident in this collection; see, for instance, Fisher and Saunders (2017, Chap. 6) or Dempsey and Tao (2017, Chap. 9). Nevertheless, internationalization as a topic for research has broad interest, and possibly this is why we find so many theories, interpretations, concepts, and methods in VET.

This chapter firstly describes the contextual factors of internationalization in the Dutch senior secondary vocational education, followed by a review of the practical methods adopted. Examples of internationalization in VET in the Netherlands range from so-called internationalization at home, for example, knowledge of and respect for other cultures, to foreign language learning, virtual mobility, and transnational mobility, including study visits, student exchange, and international students studying in the Netherlands.

Education Structure in the Netherlands

A key feature of the Dutch education system is freedom of education: schools and institutions have a great degree of educational and administrative autonomy. Public and private education exist side by side in the Netherlands, and both are funded by the government. These rights are anchored in article 23 of the Dutch Constitution (Nederlandse Grondwet n.d.). Publicly funded education has a neutral foundation unrelated to any particular religious or ideological doctrine. On the other hand, in privately run institutions, the teaching and ethos may be based on religious, ideological, social, or educational principles. Another key feature is that the education system is focused on open access between different education types; there are no obstacles or dead-end trails within the education system. With a diploma of VET level 4, a person can enter tertiary education, be it higher professional education or university, and may end with a doctorate. Most secondary schools are combined

schools offering several types of secondary education in order to facilitate an easy transfer from one type of education to another.

In the Netherlands, school education is compulsory for all young people aged 5 until 18, or until they have obtained a basic qualification; thus, a person, although having reached the last year of compulsory education, will have to continue schooling until a certificate for a basic qualification is obtained (VET at – EQF or European Qualifications Framework – level 2). Children (up to the age of 4) can attend a day nursery or crèche. There are special programs for 2- to 5-year-olds at risk of educational disadvantage. At the age of 4, a child starts primary education. After 8 years of basic education, at the age of 12, there is the choice: either the child goes on to the general senior/higher secondary education (*havo*) or, pre-university education (*vwo*), which prepares for tertiary education programs, or he or she continues with preparatory VET (*vmbo*). Preparatory VET (*vmbo*) is divided into four training pathways, theoretical, mixed, practical, and basic vocational, and leads to the senior secondary vocational education and training (VET) system, called *middelbaar beroeps onderwijs* (*mbo*) in Dutch. Most students enter the VET system at the age of 16 years.

Adult education comprises adult general secondary education and adult basic education. Adult education provides a second chance to obtain a prevocational secondary education (*vmbo*), senior general secondary education (*havo*), or pre-university education (*vwo*) certificate. Adult basic education is a first step toward further training and development and teaches basic skills in the form of courses providing a broad basic education, courses aimed at fostering self-reliance, and courses in Dutch as a second language.

Higher education (HE) consists of higher vocational or professional education (*hbo*), provided at a college (*hogeschool*) or private college and science education (*wo*) at a university, both leading to a bachelor's or master's degree. Despite the difference in both HE types, there is no distinction visible in the degrees, although the distinction is recognized, e.g., there are (funded) premaster programs that facilitate the flow of a college bachelor into a university master program. The premasters also can be used for persons with a BA starting study for a master's degree after or during a working period. Since 2013, the Netherlands has also introduced the associate degree (AD) program in HE (Rijksoverheid 2013). The AD program is a 2-year study in higher vocational education with a legally recognized diploma that provides seamless access (in same study field) to the study for bachelor's degree in higher professional education or university. This new short-cycle HE degree is in line with the need of industry and business for more higher education for specific functions. The study can be undertaken full time, dual time (study at the workplace), and also as part time at a college. The aim of ADs is to assist VET level 4 students and persons with some years of work experience with increased opportunities in the labor market. Finally, there is the open university and special education for children with special educational needs.

An overview of the Dutch education system is given in Table 12.1.

The overall responsibility for the education system lies with the government. The Ministry of Education, Culture and Science has formulated statutory requirements for all non-HE education and has overall control. The government lays down the

Table 12.1 Overview of education in the Netherlands

Age	Form of education
Ages 4–12	Primary education
Ages 12–18	Secondary education, a choice
	Prevocational secondary education (*vmbo*, 4 years) with four pathways, followed by senior secondary vocational education *(mbo*, 2 to 3 or 4 years)
	Senior general secondary education (*havo*, 5 years)
	Pre-university education (*vwo*, 6 years)
Ages 18–22	Tertiary/higher education, a choice
	Associate degree (*AD*)
	Higher vocational education (*hbo*)
	Science education (university) *(wo)*

framework within which higher education institutions (higher vocational/professional education and universities) must operate, but it is the responsibility of the competent authority of each institution to expand on the government framework with regard to teaching and examination regulations. As described in Eurydice network's (2014) country report on how education is structured and organized for the Netherlands:

> The relationship between educational institutions and the government is characterized by a large measure of institutional autonomy; government merely creates the right conditions. Schools qualify virtually automatically for funding, provided they meet the quality standards and funding conditions imposed by law for the school system as a whole. Every year, all government-funded educational institutions receive block funding (*in Dutch: Lump sum*) to meet their personnel and running costs. They are free to decide how to use this money.

Additional income for an educational institution can come, for example, from municipalities, companies (sponsoring), special projects, contract activities, school's own capital investment, and so on. Often parents of pupils in primary and secondary education will be asked to voluntarily spend time on school tasks, to pay an annual extra fee, or to give a contribution. All government-funded education institutions, schools, universities, and examination bodies are monitored by a subdivision of the Ministry of Education called the Inspectorate of Education (*Onderwijsinspectie*). The Dutch Inspectorate of Education is responsible for the external assessment and review of schools and education providers. "The Inspectorate uses a system of risk-analysis to decide which schools should be inspected and which schools may be trusted to deliver good quality education" (Onderwijsinspectie n.d.). Every year inspections are carried out at a chosen number of educational institutions. If the institution is found to be at risk, supplementary ad hoc inspection visits may be undertaken. The focus is on the institution's quality assurance and the output of the education and examination at program level: educational processes, examination, student success (diplomas and/or early dropout), quality assurance, compliance with legal requirements, quality of teaching staff, and financial stability. This allows the Inspectorate to hold the institution as a whole responsible for unsatisfactory or weak quality assurance. A report is issued with

required amendments to an institution's quality assurance system or a requirement to set new objectives for future development. When the institution does not show enough improvement, the Ministry has the possibility to:

- Give financial sanctions, such as recovery or freezing of funds.
- Give an official warning.
- Withdraw the license to provide education or exams.

Independent from the quality of education, evaluation of examinations is conducted annually based on a sample of programs of each VET school in order to judge whether the examination instruments meet the national requirements. Central to this assessment is the appropriate level of examination and the reliability of the examination. The Inspectorate publishes the monitoring reports regularly as well as the report "state-of-the-art of education in the Netherlands" on its website *Onderwijsinspectie* (n.d.). All of the Inspectorate's evaluation results are public.

Secondary Vocational Education and Training (VET)

Senior secondary vocational education plays an important role in preparing Dutch young people between the ages of 16 and 20 for work in the labor market and further education; it also promotes general education and personal development. This educational sector accounts for about 60 % (500,000 out of 830,000) of students. Detailed rules with regard to vocational and adult education and training are laid down in a law WEB (1995). The Act regulates the bundling of different forms of vocational education and adult education.

The courses are named qualifications and are based on competencies and focused on learning outcomes. This means quantifying the level of competency the student *has acquired by the end of the learning process*. Competencies are the sum of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are needed for the job, in society, and/or for further study. All jobs and functions are described in occupational profiles; these profiles constitute the basis for the qualification files, in which qualifications are described. A qualification file is a lengthy dossier up to 100 pages, consisting of three parts: legal regulations, content of the study and advice for examination, and path taken for consultation and consent of various parties involved.

Centers of Expertise on VET and the labor market are the sectorally organized institutions, which have the legal task to develop and maintain the qualification structure for each labor market field on the basis of occupational profiles. They do this in close cooperation with the VET institutions and social partners (representatives from employers and trade unions) to accredit workplaces for VET students and ensure a sufficient supply of work placements. VET schools and businesses, in the same collaboration and with the same responsibility, also develop national examination profiles per qualification. The examination profile is a standard document in which agreements are laid down on what is to be examined. There were 17 centers of expertise, but by change of law (Eerste Kamer 2015), the tasks of all these centers

are now combined in one institution: *Stichting Samenwerking Beroepsonderwijs Bedrijfsleven* (SBB) as of 1 August 2015.

Learning in practice, apprenticeship or work placement is mandatory in all VET qualifications. Students can choose between two pathways:

- The theoretical or school-based pathway (*BOL*) – this means a minimum of 20–60 % of the total qualification time is spent learning in a classroom.
- The practical or on-the-job training pathway (*BBL*) – this means a minimum of 60 % of the total qualification time is spent in practice (on-the-job) placement.

Both pathways lead to the same diploma and level of qualification. It is a dual system; a system that according to Powel and Solga (2008, p. 30) while describing the German dual system: "vocational training plays a far more significant role in preparing young adults for the labour market in these countries (as well as in Denmark and the Netherlands, for example) than it does in many other European countries." They continue by stating that the combination of a theoretic education with on-the-job training provides "specific instruction far beyond what other nations consider to be upper secondary education. Such vocation-oriented systems tend to enable relatively smooth transitions into labour markets."

The Dutch educational legislation stipulates that companies offering training to students in the preparatory secondary vocational education (*vmbo*) and senior secondary vocational education and training (*mbo*) must be accredited. The SBB (formerly Centers of Expertise) performs this accrediting task, in which it is determined if the quality of the work placement is sufficient as regards safety, content, and level of the qualification.

There are four different levels of secondary vocational education and training (VET) qualifications, and the qualifications range in duration from 6 months to 3 years (Rijksoverheid n.d.a, b). Each VET level gives access to the following level. These four levels correspond directly with the four levels of the European Qualifications Framework (EQF).

To make sure that the standards of diplomas are equal nationwide and as an assurance that the diploma holder meets national labor market requirements, social partners also are involved in the examination process. To avoid (possible appearance of) entanglement of interest, there is a tendency that the schools buy "national" exams for their qualifications from examination institutions or, in collaboration with other ROCs, house their examination departments (per sector or specific labor market field) in a school-independent institution.

This overview on VET in the Netherlands would not be complete without mentioning private vocational education. This form of education can either be government funded or privately funded depending on the program that is offered. The European Commission issues regular reports on the referencing of national qualifications frameworks to the EQF per country. The Netherlands Referencing Document (EC Education 2012, p. 17) describes private education as follows:

> Private providers make a substantial contribution to the promotion of (sustainable) employability and the retention of older workers in the workplace (lifelong learning). More than 1.3 m people participate in private education. 84 % of workers and job seekers engaging in

> post-initial training do so in private education with only 16 % learning in a publicly-funded institution. 79 % of the programmes offered in private education are work-related. [..] Programmes lead to diplomas/degrees which are formally accredited by the Education Minister and private institutions have the right to conduct the examinations. Enterprises spend more than 3 billion Euros per annum on training employees. In addition, employees invested 199 million Euros on their own training in 2010.

The government's action plan *Focus op Vakmanschap 2011–2015* (focus on expertise) aims to make the ROCs and VET institutions more innovative, smaller, and better organized to provide education in the region, in short, overall quality improvement. The maximum duration of most level 4 education has been brought back from 4 to 3 years, classroom hours are increased, and the transition to HE and the quality of this level improved. "The government's aim is to keep opportunities open for mobility between different types of secondary schools (including upward mobility)" (EC Education 2014, p. 7). The underlying rationale is to make the route through VET to HE more attractive, also for those following general secondary education. The introduction of the measures started in the 2014–2015 school year.

Influences from the European Union

The Netherlands is a member state of the European Union (EU), indeed one of the founding countries. Although we still are an autonomous country, it is not possible to ignore the directives and influences coming from the EU headquarters in Brussels. Since the 1950s, numerous treaties, declarations, directives, and so on have come to us in the Netherlands. In order to keep things as simple as possible, I will give a brief historical overview of EU's genesis and only mention some of the main initiatives that have led and lead directly to vocational education and training in the Netherlands.

After World War II, moves toward European integration were seen by many as an escape from the extreme forms of nationalism that had devastated the continent. In 1951 the European Coal and Steel Community was set up when six countries (Belgium, France, West Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands) signed the Treaty of Paris. Via the European Economic Community, the European Community, and the Treaty of Maastricht, the European Union was established in 1992. It laid the foundation for further forms of cooperation on foreign and security policy, and justice and home affairs, and for the creation of economic and monetary union. It opened internal European borders and paved the way to a common European currency: the euro was introduced on the 1 January 2002. As regards vocational education, many, many declarations, communiques, frameworks, and so on came from the European Commission (EC) Education and Training to an ever-growing number of EU member states in the last decade. Many instruments came forward, designed to boost sustainable economic growth, create more and better jobs, strengthen the knowledge-based economy, and achieve greater social cohesion. Especially since the economic crisis in 2008, the economic goals of vocational

education and training as well as European integration are incorporated in all these plans, and the Commission (EC Education growth-jobs 2016) is open about its aim:

> Education and training are crucial for both economic and social progress, and aligning skills with labour market needs plays a key role in this. By the same token, under its Europe 2020 strategy to respond to the economic crisis, the EU set targets. In an increasingly globalized and knowledge-based economy, Europe is in need of a well-skilled workforce to compete in terms of productivity, quality, and innovation.

Though ministers of education of member states voluntarily give their support to all proposed EC messages for action or intervention, it can be argued that a "normative and regulative Europeanization" has been established (Powell and Solga 2008, p. 1). While the responsibility for education and training systems still lies with the member states, the EU has a key role in supporting and supplementing efforts to improve, modernize, and unify the education systems and with that directly intervene in the development of national policies of its members. In 1999 the Netherlands changed its degrees in HE and science education (master and bachelor) to better match other countries in the EU. This was followed in 2002 by a unitary framework of qualifications and competencies, a system of credit transfer system, common quality criteria, as well as improved access to lifelong learning for VET (Powell and Solga 2008, p. 2). In 2010 a vision for a modern and attractive VET was put forward, with an action plan operating until 2014. The Education and Training 2020 strategy (ET 2020) is a part of the Europe 2020 strategy, which is designed to promote growth and jobs in Europe, as well as contribute to the development of skills for the labor market. The ET 2020 describes the five key priorities to further improve VET systems set for the period 2015 to 2020:

- Lifelong learning, mobility, and work-based learning (learning in practice, apprenticeship)
- Quality and efficiency of education and training
- Equality, social cohesion, and active citizenship (access to VET for all, validation of nonformal and informal learning)
- Enhancing creativity, innovation, and entrepreneurship (key competences in all levels of VET)
- Systematic opportunities for professional development of VET teachers.

The Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP) is prominently present in all EU strategies; it is designed to enable people, at any stage of their life, to take part in stimulating learning experiences, as well as developing education and training across Europe. LLP's basic idea is that investments in education, training, and nonformal learning are crucial to give people the chance to develop themselves constantly: lifelong learning. The LLP has different grants for the various groups in education: for VET it was the Leonardo da Vinci (LdV) Programme. It subsidized transnational exchanges, study visits, projects, networking activities, and tools to enhance cooperation in the education field. The Lifelong Learning Grant Programme ran from 2007 until 2013. The ideas and funding activities of LLP continue under the new Erasmus+ Programme, and an amount of almost 15 billion euros is reserved for

activities until 2020 (Erasmusplus n.d.). The Erasmus+ Grant Programme is not subdivided but focuses on all education groups. Erasmus+ will support transnational partnerships among education, training, and youth institutions and organizations to foster cooperation and bridge the worlds of education and work.

Under the collective name Lifelong Learning Programme, many sub-projects emerged with the specific objective of facilitating transparency and mobility in education and training throughout EU (EC Education tools n.d.), for which tools have been developed, including:

- European Qualifications Framework (EQF), 2008. This is a translation tool that enables comparison between educational qualifications systems in Europe. This is considered the key instruments for improving European and international comparability of qualifications in order to encourage mobility and lifelong learning: national qualification levels can be related to the EQF, thus facilitating comparison. It is to accommodate all types and forms of qualifications (general, higher, vocational, adult education, and training), as well as those acquired through nonformal and informal learning. Subsequently, EQF and National Qualifications Frameworks (NQFs) are recognized as means "to promote understanding, transparency and trust among Member States" (Devaux et al. 2013, p. 23). The EQF has eight qualification levels, which are described through learning outcomes (knowledge, skills, and competence). Most European countries now have nominated National Qualifications Frameworks, and EQF is reportedly taken into account for education and training policy developments in many countries all over the world now (Devaux et al. 2013, p. 92).
- Recognition of prior learning (RPL) is a tool to validate work experience and a process to evaluate skills and knowledge outside the classroom for the purpose of recognizing competence. RPL links directly with validation of nonformal and informal learning. It validates knowledge and skills of an individual.
- European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET). The aim of this credit system is strengthening the quality of transnational mobility. ECVET is based on the accumulation of units or learning outcomes that can be parts of qualifications but do not have to be parts of the education and training programs at the same time as well. Units are quantified, their credit points express the relative weight of units within qualifications (not the workload), and assessed outcomes can be accumulated and transferred, and in this way, it validates the knowledge and skills of an individual student.
- EUROPASS (2004) is a passport consisting of five documents: a curriculum vitae, language passport, prior mobility record (if present), certificate

(continued)

supplement (knowledge and skills acquired in VET), and diploma supplement (knowledge of skills acquired in HE). The last three documents should be issued by education authorities.

- European quality assurance in vocational education and training (EQAVET). It is a community of practice to develop a culture of quality assurance both within national VET systems and at European level. Its framework promotes better VET by providing authorities and VET institutions with common tools to manage quality. It comprises an action pattern for quality assurance and improvement, based on the Plan Do Check Act (PDCA) cycle. It gives common quality criteria, indicative descriptors, and a coherent set of quality indicators. Quality management embraces both the teaching and learning process and organizational management of the VET institution. Monitoring activities by means of assessment and evaluation of achievements gives way to improvement proposals (Cedefop 2015a, p. 20).
- European Skills, Competences, Qualifications and Occupations (ESCO), 2010. The group is led by DG Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion. The ESCO classification identifies and categorizes skills, competences, qualifications, and occupations relevant for the EU labor market and education and training. It shows the relationships between the different concepts. ESCO has been developed in an open IT format, is available for use free of charge by everyone, and can be accessed via the ESCO portal. The key difference with EQF is "that ESCO aims to be more explicitly employability and labour market-oriented than the EQF and thus highlight the aspects of learning outcome descriptors that matter the most for employers" (Devaux et al. 2013, p. 56).

In order to ensure the successful implementation of the ET 2020 strategy, the EU set up working groups with the aim to promote mutual learning, exchange good practices, foster national reforms, develop EU-level tools, and launch platforms and networks. Progress is monitored with indicators set against benchmarks. Each year "country-specific recommendations" come out to support the development of their education and training policy (EC Country reports 2014). The EC's Eurydice network "supports and facilitates European cooperation in the field of lifelong learning by providing information on education systems and policies" (Eurydice 2014). EC's Cedefop (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training), founded in 1975, supports the development of European VET policies and contributes to their implementation. The ET 2020 strategy introduces work-based learning and apprenticeships in VET as a means to tackle youth unemployment and to facilitate transition to the labor market (Cedefop 2015b, Spotlight on VET). In 2013 the EC launched the European Alliance for Apprenticeships (EAfA) as a platform for stakeholders reforming VET systems and strengthening apprenticeship schemes in Europe.

Internationalization in VET in the Netherlands

"People who have international experience are better problem solvers and display more creativity. What's more, we found that people with this international experience are more likely to create new businesses and products and to be promoted" the Dutch Minister of Education, Bussemaker, quotes William Maddux (2013) in her vision letter internationalization to parliament (2014, p. 1). She continues with "I am convinced that Dutch education should train 'competent rebels': pioneering thinkers and doers who are able to promote change through a combination of creativity, courage and ambition." For the coming years, she will allocate extra funds to anchor internationalization more solidly in education.

EU Tools and Education in the Netherlands

The Netherlands has incorporated many of the European tools already in the Dutch education structure. In 1999 the switch to bachelor's and master's degrees in HE was made. In 2009, the higher vocational and university education system already adopted the levels 5–8 (associate degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, PhD). The EQF, the framework that covers the entire education sector and distinguishes between eight levels of qualification, was introduced, and since 2012 we have the Dutch National Qualifications Framework (NLQF). Dutch NLQF consists of all education sectors ranging from primary schooling to higher education (HE) and includes different kinds of education and training from compulsory education to courses and training offered to adults in the context of lifelong learning (EC Ploteus 2012). The Dutch National Qualifications Framework links with the European framework as shown in Table 12.2

The fact that the EQF is based on the learning outcome principle caused no problems in the Netherlands, because the Dutch structure has already used this principle for a very long time. As of 2014, the EQF level will be mentioned on all VET diplomas. In the Netherlands, the EUROPASS is fully used for both VET and HE outbound mobility.

Recognition of prior learning (RPL) is a process to evaluate skills and knowledge of an individual outside the classroom for the purpose of recognizing competence. The procedure for and the validation of (former) work experience and nonformal and informal learning has been in use since 2001 in the Netherlands.

The European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET) is still a work in progress in the Netherlands. The ECVET system is being piloted by the "National Agency" in various international projects. In addition to strengthening the quality of transnational study mobility, the Agency wants to investigate if ECVET can be used to make transition from job to job more efficient. The Agency will make an inventory, analysis, and recommendations, which results will be published on the website ecvet.nl.

Table 12.2 Netherlands qualification framework

EQF level = NLQF level	Education
Entry level	Basic education 1 (for adults)
NLQF level 1	Basic education 2 (for adults); prevocational secondary education – basic vocational pathway (*vmbo*); VET level 1
NLQF level 2	Basic education 3 (for adults); prevocational secondary education (*vmbo*); VET level 2
NLQF level 3	VET level 3
NLQF level 4	VET level 4; higher general secondary education (*havo*)
NLQF level 4+	Pre-university education (*vwo)*
NLQF level 5	Associate degree
NLQF level 6	Bachelor's degree
NLQF level 7	Master's degree
NLQF level 8	Doctorate; designer; medical specialist

Source: http://nlqf.nl/information-in-english

The introduction of the European Quality Assurance Reference Framework for VET (EQAVET) is relatively recent in the Netherlands. As monitoring and assessing of VET (and other levels of education) are already done by the Inspectorate of Education based on Dutch legislation, the National Agency for EQAVET is presently working on an action plan to investigate how the Dutch system can be referenced to the EQAVET framework and what implications could come forward from this work.

The Dutch Minister of Education thinks that the European tools EQF, ECVET, and the EQAVET and their interrelationships should be evaluated to assess their effectiveness: "The Netherlands will call for a more effective structure of the credits system for VET (ECVET). This would involve dividing qualifications into units that qualify for credits that can be exchanged between institutions (also at the European level)," as this would facilitate a validation of international experiences of VET students within the curriculum (Bussemaker 2014, p. 15). While there is, no doubt, efficiency to be gained in having common units across the EU, there is a potential loss as well. The efficiency of portability must be weighed against the loss of specific national (local or regional) industry needs and the needs and desires of students themselves. While the tenets of lifelong learning put the student at the center of the learning undertaken, common curriculum may well place EU economic goals before that of individual students or the needs of local industry.

The European Skills, Competences, Qualifications and Occupations (ESCO) classification is a work in progress as well. The EUROPASS is a fully used instrument for both VET and HE in the Netherlands.

Internationalization in the Netherlands: Internationalization at Home

The concept "internationalization in education" is enacted in different ways in different jurisdictions. The most visible way of envisaging internationalization is through the student's physical mobility, but other practices find a place under this umbrella concept. For example, internationalization of the curriculum, in addition to learning foreign languages, includes study of citizenship in a diverse society, knowledge of characteristics of and respect for other cultures, and global orientation. Several school subjects (e.g., history, geography) could be placed in an international context, thus forming "internationalization at home" (Bussemaker 2014, p. 11). An advantage is that unlike physical mobility, the internationalization in classroom education will reach all students.

Since 1986 English has been mandatory in the last two years of primary education in the Netherlands. In higher general secondary education (*havo*) and preuniversity education (*vwo)* learning, two foreign languages are mandatory. Since the school year 2012–2013, English language is compulsory in VET level 4 qualifications, regardless of whether the command of English is a prerequisite for the occupation: in some qualifications, general English is mandatory in addition to jobspecific English. There is also a more intense way of language teaching: bilingual education. In this form of education, more or less the entire curriculum is taught in a foreign language (usually English, but also German or French is possible), which is also used for general communication in the classroom, to varying degrees depending on the level of the education program. In the lower years of *havo/vwo*, at least 50 % of lessons are taught in the foreign language and in the first years of preparatory VET (*vmbo)* at least 30 %.

Over 70 primary schools offer this intensive foreign language teaching; around 122 secondary schools offer bilingual education. In the 2014–2015 school year, 12 schools will be launching a pilot project on bilingual primary education (Web gate EC 2015 para. 13.4 "Overview Netherlands"). According to De Haan (2013, p. 243) "more than 1,500 study programs are taught in English language." Compared to the average foreign language skills on proficiency level, Dutch pupils from lower secondary education do quite well: in 2011 they scored 65.7 % against a European average of 43.5 % and for two of more foreign languages, respectively, 73.6 % against EU average of 63.0 % (EC Country Reports 2013).

An example for internationalization at home is the concept of Europe as a learning environment in schools (ELOS), which intends to prepare "pupils to live, learn, and work in an international environment" by acquisition of European competences (Eurydice 2015, Ch. 2.1.1.). The schools range from preparatory vocation education (*vmbo*) to higher general secondary education (*havo*) and pre-university education (*vwo)*. There are about 140 ELOS schools in the EU, of which 40 are in the Netherlands that incorporate European or international orientation in the curriculum and focus on teaching two foreign languages to a high level, while international cooperation and exchanges with schools abroad are part of everyday practice

(Eurydice 2015). European schools, also named international (boarding) schools (originally established for the children of diplomats and expats), provide education from primary to secondary pre-university education, similar to *vwo*, leading to a European Baccalaureate. This certificate provides entry to universities and other higher education institutions in every EU member state.

eTwinning is a European initiative that is used in schools: it is a virtual community for schools in 32 European countries, meant for students and teachers in primary, secondary, and secondary vocational education. Online contacts are made (Skype, web, mail) to learn, study, or discuss the same subject together. Participation usually is bilateral: two schools, specifically two classrooms, for an agreed period of time. As it is an individual school event, no figures to indicate how widely it is used are available.

Another EU-funded initiative is the EUREGIO platform to foster cross-border cooperation in the fields of economics, education, health, culture, and also in VET. VET students, like all others, will have to be prepared for a dynamic labor market which is no longer confined to their own country. In border regions of the Netherlands with Belgium and with Germany, bilateral small-scale projects are carried out by VET institutions, for example, in respect of comparing and building curricula for qualifications and sharing and exchanging work placement places. These projects have already led to treaties and become anchored in the laws of the engaged countries, in recognition of each other's education and diplomas.

Internationalization in the Netherlands: Transnational Mobility

The EU has set an ambitious target for transnational VET student mobility: in 2020, 6 % of the total VET student population should spend at least 2 weeks abroad for studies or a work placement. Where do we stand now? De Haan tells us that "The Netherlands has been identified as one of the most active countries in the field of internationalization" (2013, p. 243). Also in the *Overview Netherlands*, the EC starts Hagedorn and Li (2017, Chap. 13) *Mobility and Internationalization* with the sentence: "There is a great deal of short-term mobility within primary and secondary education" (Web gate EC 2015 para. 13 "Overview Netherlands"). Unfortunately no regular, yearly updated key figures for outbound mobility are available in the Netherlands, neither for HE nor for VET; only those students that go abroad with funding from Erasmus+ are known; all other figures are calculated estimates based on historical developments. Nuffic (Netherlands organization for international cooperation in higher education) publishes mobility statistics for HE with the most recent figures from 2013. In HE the outbound mobility was 48,400 students, and they went more often abroad for internship than for study; many also take a gap year. In total 22 % of graduates have been in abroad during their study years

(average 4 years) for study at a university or in conjunction with the study, for instance, students of French work in France to improve their French pronunciation and to lose their Dutch accent. Inbound mobility in the same time frame amounted to almost 60,000. Inbound HE mobility figures to the Netherlands were from China 15.4 %, India 5.4 %, South Korea 3.3 %, and, surprisingly, Germany 3.0 % (Nuffic 2013, Mobiliteit in beeld).

Unfortunately no such specific figures exist for outbound mobility in VET. The only concrete figures come from the EU funding agency Erasmus+ Programme (previously named Leonardo da Vinci (LdV) Programme). The figures we have for mobility in VET are significantly lower than those for HE. In 2013 around 5000 VET students received funding from the LdV Programme to undertake a work placement abroad (minimum time funded is 2 weeks). Ms. Bussemaker, Minister of Education (2014, p. 15), suggests that a further 5000 self-funded VET students travel abroad for work placement, making the total 10,000 students or 2 % of all VET students. A possible reason for this low level of outbound mobility is given by Ms. Bussemaker in her letter to parliament (2014, p. 13): "On average, VET students are several years younger than students in higher education, and when selecting their study programmes they are far less likely to look beyond the borders of their own country and indeed of their own region." From my own work at the Center of Expertise ECABO, I know that VET students who go on international work placement usually are from level 3 and level 4 (EQF3 and EQF4) education. The student can choose an international training company out of 4000 accredited training companies all over the world, registered in the national website "*Stagemarkt*" (Verslag nr.43 2015).

The brochure "Leonardo da Vinci *in vogelvlucht, feiten en cijfers"* [facts and figures] gives us an overview from 2007 to 2013 about the students who study/work abroad with LdV funding. The most popular destinations are in order Spain, the UK, Belgium, Germany, and France. Sixty-one percent of these outbound VET students were female and 39 % male. The length of time spent abroad was 3–5 weeks (for 26 %) with 5 % going for 2 weeks, 15 % staying up to 9 weeks, 19 % for 10–15 weeks, 32 % are 16–26 weeks abroad, and 3 % have a stay abroad for more than 26 weeks; see Fig. 12.1.

The number of outbound mobility students has risen in the last decade but is still low. Inbound mobility in VET is much lower still: if we consider EU-funded stays in 2013, just 934 students came to this country for study or a short work placement period (Bussemaker 2014, p. 24). The key reason for this low number of international VET students probably is the language proficiency. In many EU countries, it is not (yet) common for VET students (and in some countries: all students) to learn a foreign language. When there is no ability to speak simple English, not to mention Dutch, finding a work placement is difficult. To study in the Netherlands, the language problem also arises, as (at least part of) the examination is carried out in the Dutch language. Most incoming students are expected to study at VET institutes in the EUREGIOs (the cross-border areas).

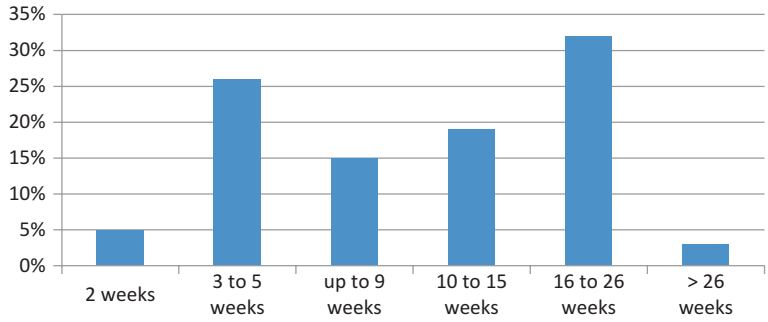

Fig. 12.1 Time spent abroad by Dutch VET students (2007–2013)

Toward 2020

How is the Netherlands going to attain the EU benchmark of 6 % of VET students participating in international mobility by 2020?

In 2013, compared to the year 2009, the percentage of international mobility students in VET almost doubled, the number for VET teachers even more than doubled (Onderwijs in Cijfers n.d.), but since then the numbers have remained static. One reason for this can be found in the economic crisis of 2008 and the following recession across Europe. In the Netherlands, considered to be one of the "rich" Northern European countries, the impact of it was budget cuts in all areas of society, retirement ages raised, taxes increased, salaries frozen, a fall in employment rates, and climbing unemployment level. In 2015 the average purchasing power per household has risen slightly but is still below the level of 2002 (CBS 2015). Also VET schools have been faced with budgetary constraints and cuts while having to adopt many changes in and addition to VET programs, qualification framework, and education system. In its *Call 2013*, the Dutch Leonardo da Vinci (LdV) Funding Programme noted no increase in numbers for international mobility or internationalization in VET schools, "because of internal problems or the shift of attention to other topics," and LdV also notes that schools have more difficulty to make or expand their policy for internationalization (Leonardo da Vinci Call 2013). Internationalization in the classroom still takes place, but no expansion has taken place.

In 2015, there is a cautious indication that the Netherlands is in recovery from this recession; it is cautious, because the expectations are that the unemployment rate will reach its pre-crisis level by 2019–2020 (Cedefop Country Reports 2015). It is cautious, also because very recently we have been faced with a new challenge: a massive influx of refugees from the Middle East.

In recent years, therefore, the focus has not been on international mobility in VET, certainly not in the Netherlands. This is also the case across the EU. In the midterm review of the Europe 2020 strategy "Smarter, greener, more inclusive?" (Eurostat 2015, p.103), indicators for internationalization in VET are not mentioned

at all. All attention is given to reducing dropout rates, increasing completion rates for tertiary or equivalent education (HE), and lifelong learning. Fortunately the Netherlands has already reached most of these Europe 2020 benchmarks in education.

Forty percent of EU countries have not incorporated some form of work-based learning (apprenticeship) in VET (Cedefop 2013 ECVET monitoring). The lack of capacity to offer learning in practice was confirmed after the founding of the European Alliance for Apprenticeships (EAfA) in 2013. EAfA's aim was to formulate EU conditions in a model for international work placements/apprenticeship. However, this goal proved to be too ambitious and had to be abandoned because "Despite this recognition, obstacles to establishing good apprenticeship programs persist. Several necessary conditions must converge, which are not always present. Also, these conditions vary considerably among Member States, making a single apprenticeship model inappropriate" (Cedefop Publications A n.d.).

A 2015 report by Cedefop, *Stronger VET for better lives*, came to an even more gloomy conclusion: more than two-thirds of the EU countries surveyed did not consider geographic VET mobility a priority, correlating this to many countries lacking mobility culture and limited financial resources (Cedefop 2015c, pp. 67–68).

Clearly the economic crisis can be blamed for a lot, but there may be another reason why progress in international mobility in VET is not made: the EU seeks too much too soon – major structural changes need time. EC.europa.eu/Eurostat will publish new advice and priorities for the years 2015 until 2020. Very likely apprenticeship, youth employment, reducing dropouts, learning foreign languages, professionalization of teaching staff, and quality in VET will stay on the EU priority list. There is still a good deal of work to be done on making all common European VET tools (EQF, quality assurance mechanisms EQAVET, lifelong guidance, ECVET) work as a seamless whole (Cedefop 2013 ECVET Monitoring 2013).

However, promotion and support of work-based learning/apprenticeship in VET also need attention. All these measures would contribute to building up the much-needed mutual trust between member states and their respective education systems.

The Dutch Minister of Education (Bussemaker 2014, p. 10) states that physical mobility should not be a goal in its own right; what should matter are learning outcomes and the knowledge and skills acquired through a period of study abroad. That is why "internationalization at home" should be intensified. However, to stimulate international mobility of VET students, she mentions several steps to be taken (Bussemaker 2014, p. 13ff):

- An evaluation of the effectiveness of the EU instruments EQF, ECVET, and EQAVET and their mutual connections.
- Dutch VET schools should use all Erasmus+ resources to maximum advantage.
- The VET sector should learn from the experiences with international mobility gained in higher education, e.g., as regards integrating international mobility into the curriculum.

- A part of a VET subsidy for an education program, named *Excellence in VET* (2014), € 4.5 million has been earmarked out of total subsidy € 25 million for internationalization as it is considered an effective tool to promote excellence in Dutch VET abroad.
- The Dutch government will seek innovative ways to encourage VET studies in the Netherlands, including finding solutions to the issue of competence in Dutch by foreign students.
- In preparation for the Dutch EU Presidency in 2016, she will aim for an agenda and commitment in support of internationalization in VET.

Conclusions

The future of internationalization and international mobility for VET is not at all bleak. It is possible that both the EU and the Netherlands will not reach the 6 % benchmark set out for international VET mobility by 2020. However, progress has been made, and as demonstrated in this chapter, many initiatives are in place.

If the available EU tools and support can be implemented and function as "a seamless whole," these will lay the foundation for progress, which previously has been expressed, somewhat simplistically as a percentage benchmark for international mobility. A solid foundation will certainly be beneficial to assist and encourage a significant number of VET students to experience international mobility in the future, and then – perhaps a little later – we may surpass goals set for 2020.

Glossary

AD	Associate degree
AOCs	Agricultural training centers
BBL	The practical or on-the-job training pathway in VET
BOL	The theoretical or school-based pathway in VET
ET 2020	Education and Training 2020 strategy EU
havo	Senior general secondary education
hbo	Higher vocational or professional education
LdV	Leonardo da Vinci Programme + subsidiary program for VET
LLP	Lifelong Learning Programme
mbo	Senior secondary vocational education
Onderwijsinspectie	Inspectorate of Education
ROCs	Regional Education Centers
vmbo	Prevocational secondary education or preparatory VET
vwo	Pre-university education
wo	Science education

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Chapter 13
English Instruction at Community Colleges: The Language Bridge to the USA

Linda Serra Hagedorn and Ran Li

Abstract An American degree is highly respected and sought from most places around the globe. Historically, the USA has recognized that international students bring diversity, new understandings, and, for public universities, increased tuition revenue. For the most part, the USA has greeted qualified international students with open arms and a hearty welcome. But for many hopeful internationals, the biggest barrier to a US education is English language competency. For good and obvious reasons, US universities have strict standards for the minimum score on the TOEFL or IELTS tests. For those students who cannot score high enough to be accepted at American universities, an option is to first attend an Intensive English Program at an American community college with the goal of rapidly increasing English language skills and subsequently scoring high enough on the TOEFL or IELTS to proceed with the dream of an American postsecondary education. This chapter explores the dreams, goals, experiences, and aftermath of international students who have enrolled in community college Intensive English Programs.

Keywords USA • Community colleges • English instruction • International students

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The Historical Record: Setting the Stage

As immigrants from diverse countries poured into the USA during the early nineteenth century in search of a better life, the need to teach the established language of the new country became evident. Although many new arrivals settled into neighborhoods inhabited with other immigrants who shared their cultural backgrounds and spoke their same languages, most felt that to become a "real American" meant to also speak English (Krug 1976). Most immigrant families desperately wanted their offspring to speak the language of the land because they believed that economic success was only possible to those who spoke English, especially without the trace of an accent (Stevens 2013). Moreover, according to the Naturalization Act passed in 1906 and signed into law by President Theodore Roosevelt, English language proficiency was required prior to becoming a naturalized citizen (The American Journal of International Law 1907).

During that time public schools had special programs to "Americanize the foreign-born" (Huntington 2004, p. 22); on the other hand, many students were mainstreamed into English-only classrooms and expected to learn the language by absorbing the daily educational curriculum.

During the early twentieth century, there were an increased number of resources for adults to learn the English language and American culture. In fact by 1921, there were more than 30 states and numerous cities, offering Americanization Programs supported by the Bureau of Naturalization Programs (Carlson 1970; Huntington 2004). These programs were designed to assimilate immigrants with as much speed as possible. Social, nonprofit, and faith-based organizations such as the YMCA, Hull House, churches and temples, and others offered programs and courses to help in the assimilation process. Private industry was also active. Recognizing the need to employ immigrants as cheap labor, the Ford Motor Company was a leader in providing free of charge English language program to its employees (The Henry Ford 2015). The controversial program, created by the Ford Sociological Department, was a part of Ford's requirement in order for immigrant workers to receive the wage of $5 a day. To qualify for the high wage, employees were subjected to home cleanliness visits, and children were monitored for school attendance along with other requirements to assure that the immigrants were living the American way (The Henry Ford 2015).

Today's immigrants or other adult speakers of other languages desiring to learn the English language have options for instruction. Some school boards offer ESL (English as a Second Language)-type instruction, typically for a small fee. There are also centers sprinkled into a few neighborhoods supported by nonprofit organizations such as the English Skills Learning Center in Salt Lake City (ESLC 2015) and faith-based ministries such as the English as a Second Language and Immigrant Ministries (ESLIM 2015) operating in Northern Virginia. The Refugee Department of the Federal Government offers limited instruction to individuals fitting the description of refugees. For example, the Bilingual Education Institute offers ESL classes in 80-hour cycles in the Houston, Texas, area (Bilingual Education Institute

2015). But the principal supplier of ESL instruction is the country's community colleges.

Terms and Acronyms

The arena of English for speakers of other languages is ripe with terms and acronyms that may be confusing to those who are not familiar with their unique distinctions. We provide Table 13.1 as a basic description of the most commonly used terms and acronyms.

Who Needs ESL Services?

According to a report from the US Census Bureau (2011), close to 61 million people in the USA aged 5 or older spoke a language other than English at home, a number that has nearly tripled in the last three decades. Among the non-English speakers, Spanish dominates as the most popular language spoken and represents more than 60 % of non-English-dominant speakers. Of the other 381 listed languages in the report, Chinese is the second most spoken language with only 4.5 %, of non-English speakers. The Census Bureau reports that about one in four speakers of other languages speaks English "not well" or "not at all." This group consisted of people with a variety of identities, including citizens, foreign students, permanent residents, immigrants, and refugees.

The demand for ESL courses is high. In fact, a study by Tucker (2006) indicated that in 2000, 21.3 million people in the USA indicated a need for ESL services. Moreover, 57.6 % of ESL providers reported long waiting lists for their services.

Community Colleges as English Language Instruction Providers

There is no clear timeline of when or how ESL programs landed in community colleges. However, the Adult Education Act (first signed in 1964, repealed and replaced by the Workforce Investment Act in 1998) and its following amendments have played an important role. The Act provides a funding source to help adults who speak a language other than English to improve proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. According to the data from Center for the Study of Community Colleges, ESL programs in community colleges were largely expanded in the 1980s and 1990s (Striplin 2000). The proportion of credit-offering ESL courses has increased rapidly since 1983. The ESL courses consisted of 30 % of the total foreign

Table 13.1 Acronyms, terms, and definitions

Acronym	Term	Definition
CELSA	Combined English Language Skills Assessment	An assessment designed for high school, college, and adult ESL students to determine appropriate English language course placement. CELSA is a product designed by the Association of Classroom Teacher Testers (ACTT)
Compass ESL	Compass® English as a Second Language Placement Test	A test used by some colleges to assess nonnative English speakers' abilities and place them in the appropriate level of ESL courses
EAP	English for Academic Purposes	A program emphasizing formal or professional writing, presenting, and reading of academic literature
ELL	English Language Learner	A general label for a speaker of another language learning the English language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language	Generally refers to programs for students who are learning English while living in a non-English speaking country. Example is Chinese students learning English while in China
ELA	English Language Acquisition	A general term to describe the process or a program designed to teach English to speakers of other languages
ESL	English as a Second Language	Generally refers to students learning to speak English while living in an English-speaking environment. Assumes the student only speaks one other language, which may not be the case
ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages	Alternate term for ESL that acknowledges that English may be the second, third, or fourth language acquired by learners
ESP	English for Specific Purposes	Special programs designed for specific audiences such as people employed in the tourism business, healthcare workers, or law enforcement
FESL	Functional English as a Second Language	A program specifically designed for individuals needing the basic skills to live and work within a community
IELTS	International English Language Testing System	A test of language skills in listening, reading, writing, and speaking. IELTS is widely accepted for admission criteria by colleges and universities throughout the USA
IEP	Intensive English Program	A formal program that focuses on the academic use of English. Typically, IEPs are designed to assist international students develop English skills for academic studies in the USA. IEPs are designed to assist students to transition to American academic life
L1	First Language	Refers to dominant language or mother tongue
L2	Second Language	Acquired language that is not dominant
LOEP	Levels of English Proficiency Test	A test specifically designed to place students in appropriate levels of English instruction. LOEP is produced by Accuplacer, a subsidiary of the College Board

(continued)

Table 13.1 (continued)

Acronym	Term	Definition
TABE	Test of Adult Basic English	A language assessment system to measure adult students' English language skills. TABE is produced through McGraw-Hill Education CTB
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language	Teacher training programs for EFL programs
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages	A general and widely used term that often includes TEFL and TESL referring to programs that teach English to non-English speakers
TESL	Teaching English as a Second Language	Generally refers to teacher training programs for teachers teaching English to speakers of other languages
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language	A very popular English proficiency test that is used by most colleges and universities to determine English capability to study at the postsecondary level

language enrollment in 1983. The number increased to 51 % in 1991 (Ignash 1994). Compared with 27 % of community colleges offering ESL courses in 1983, the percentage climbed to 55 % in 1998 (Kuo 1999).

Community colleges may offer ESL courses as noncredit or for-credit; and many offer both. Some colleges provide ESL as part of their adult basic education (ABE) programs. Typically the noncredit variety is designed for the general community of non-English-dominant adults desiring to learn the language to open doors to participation with the greater society and/or to prepare for citizenship. For example, Levin et al. (2017, Chap. 2, p. 20) mentioned that one of the missions of California community colleges is to provide access to ESL to eligible citizens. A small number of colleges offer English for Specific Purposes (ESP) programs. These programs are typically in the noncredit sector and are designed for adults with basic English skills but who may need the language specific for their current or intended job field. Sometimes these special programs are taught in partnership or through a contract with the local industries. The credit-type focuses more on academic English and is designed for those wishing to continue within the postsecondary education system. Credit courses are typically subject to the same tuition and fee costs as other academic college offerings.

The International Student Market

The influx of international college students from around the globe also provides a strong market for the ESL services of community colleges. According to the Open Doors report, the USA continues to be the top destination for postsecondary study for many prospective college students around the globe (Witherell and Clayton 2014). During the 2013–2014 academic year, the USA welcomed 886,052 students (Witherell and Clayton 2014). In fact, about 4 % of the total number of

postsecondary students studying in the USA is international students. By far, the top sending country is China, sending almost a third of all international students, but the USA also received large numbers of students from India, Malaysia, Korea, Kuwait, Brazil, and Saudi Arabia. Although virtually all international students, regardless of the country of origin, will anticipate their foreign studies with excitement and high hopes for success, many will also share deep concerns for their abilities with the English language. In fact, such concerns may be well-warranted as many researchers have documented that English proficiency is most often the greatest barrier to success for international students (Andrade 2006; Sherry et al. 2010; Yeh and Inose 2003).

The US postsecondary institutions are required by law to verify the English language capability of nonnative English-speaking international students applying for enrollment in degree programs. Students must provide evidence that they are able to succeed in speaking, writing, listening, and reading in an all-English environment in order to obtain a study visa. Institutional practices vary, but the most common tests used to establish English proficiency are:

- TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language)
- Can be paper based, computer based, or Internet based (iBT)
- IELTS (International English Language Testing System)
- Pearson Test of English (PTE)
- A cutoff score on the SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test) critical reading test

Some colleges and universities allow students flexibility in choosing which test they most prefer, while others insist on just one. Cut scores vary by institution, but most of the top Ivy League US universities, such as Harvard and Yale, require a TOEFL paper score of no less than 600 or a TOEFL Internet score (TOEFL iBT) of no less than 100, while many other universities use a 550 TOEFL paper or an 80 TOEFL iBT. Some universities do have a process for conditional admission for students with scores as low as 475 TOEFL or 53 TOEFL iBT. A few universities, such as Western Washington University and the University of South Carolina, will offer conditional undergraduate admission to students who do not meet their language proficiency score cutoffs but require students to enroll in their Intensive English Programs and meet the requirement prior to receiving full admission status and enrolling in university courses. According to the Institute of International Education (2014), 125,973 international students enrolled in intensive ESL courses in academic year 2012–2013.

Community Colleges as Postsecondary Institutions

Due to their history and missions of serving the needs of the local community, most community colleges limit active recruitment efforts to domestic students and thus enroll few international students into academic and occupational programs.

However, some community colleges have reached far beyond their service region with special efforts to welcome students from around the globe. Green River College (GRC), a community college in the state of Washington, presents an example of a college desiring and prepared to receive international students. For the winners of the 2013 NAFSA (Association of International Educators Comprehensive Campus Internationalization Award), the GRC international program webpage can be displayed in 13 languages (Green River College 2014). International students not meeting the criteria for postsecondary study can enroll in their Intensive English Program consisting of 20 h of instruction per week in grammar, writing, reading, oral English, and TOEFL preparation.

Another community college with a well-worn welcome mat for international students is Oklahoma City Community College (OCCC). Students with TOEFL paper scores as low as 460 (TOEFL iBT at 5.0 or higher) can apply for provisional admission into the college's Academic Bridge Program. Successful completion of the program allows students to be fully admitted into academic programs without retaking the TOEFL or IELTS tests (OCCC 2015).

American community colleges present a unique picture within the global expanse of postsecondary education since the term and the system of community college are not widely used in other countries. But community colleges can be a viable destination for international students seeking opportunities to study in the USA. The number of international students choosing community colleges to reduce the cost of their postsecondary study for their first 2 years of college has been increasing (Hanover Research 2010). Community colleges also have English language proficiency requirements for admission to academic programs, but they are normally lower than most 4-year universities. For comparison, most community colleges will fix the required TOEFL paper at 500 and the TOEFL iBT at 61.

In addition to being the destination of choice for a comparatively lower number of international students, community colleges frequently serve as bridges and/or provide assistance to those who cannot be successful at universities without English language instruction. In Chap. 2, Levin et al. (2017) indicated that community colleges started responding to international students' demands in the 2000s. Some community colleges offer Intensive English Programs designed to assist international students who cannot meet the English language test cutoffs at US colleges and universities. Admission to most IEP programs does not require TOEFL or IELTS scores, but students typically will take some kind of assessment to determine appropriate placement. Often these programs are designed for students to become not only more English proficient but also ultimately to transfer to research universities. As the program title suggests, intensive programs provide concentrated study designed for rapid learning of speaking, writing, listening, and reading of English.

Costs

The cost of community college ESL programs depends on the type of program. For academic ESL programs with institutional credits, the cost for tuition may be based on the institutional cost per credit hour plus the additional costs of textbooks and other teaching materials. Intensive English Programs generally have a different pricing structure to general ESL offerings. Programs may charge by clock hour, by class session, or by semester (or quarter). Some colleges charge a different amount depending on the level of study. The cost may vary from free to thousands of dollars depending on the program (Levin et al. 2017, Chap. 2, p. 18). In some cases, the noncredit variety of courses are offered free of charge, but students may have to purchase textbooks or other supplies.

Survey of Community College ESL/IEP Programs

To better understand the programs and offerings across ESL and IEP programs in community colleges, we created an original short survey for distribution to programs across the country. Rather than create a dataset for statistical analysis, the purpose of the data collection was to gather descriptive information across a broad variety of programs. Since there is no official list of ESL/IEP programs in community colleges, we began by visiting the college websites listed in the *Community College Finder* of the American Association of Community Colleges (2015) and searched for programs fitting the description of English for speakers of other languages. While we sent the survey to more than 700 colleges that appeared to have ESL and/or IEP programs, we received valid responses from 104 colleges from 37 states. The responses reflected 23 Intensive English Programs, 83 general ESL programs, and 24 "other" programs such as ESP or FESL with titles such as Bridge Programming, Functional ESL Program, English for Academic Purposes, and Transitional English. We attribute a somewhat low response rate (15 %) to the lack of a specific person listed on most college websites. In many cases we sent the survey with a cover letter to the general email address listed on the website designated for individuals with questions about the program.

Requirements for Program Entry

There was great variability in requirements for programs in both IEP and general ESL. Some colleges recorded no requirements, while others had minimum scores on tests such as TOEFL, TABE, LOEP, or Compass ESL. One program required an interview. For the most part, colleges used tests to determine if students had the skills to qualify for the lowest level of English study they provided as well as for placement within the offered levels. Almost all credit programs charged an application fee, from $25 to $100, which was nonrefundable.

Levels of Instruction

The range of number of levels for ESL both credit and noncredit spanned from one (several colleges reported one level with multiple sublevels) to nine. In text responses we learned that colleges sometimes divide levels into multiple sublevels such as low, medium, and high within larger levels typically labeled beginner, intermediate, and advanced. The most popular responses for number of levels were three or four (accounting for 45 % of the sample).

Native Languages

In response to the top three native languages spoken by students in their programs, Spanish dominated with more than half of the reporting programs listing it as the number one language spoken and two-thirds (66%) reporting it as among the top three languages. The second most popular native language was Arabic with 24 % of programs reporting it within the top three languages spoken. Chinese held third place (21 % of programs) followed by Vietnamese (13 % of programs). But there were a number of rather unanticipated top language reports. For example, several colleges reported African languages within the top three. A college in Colorado reported that Hambaric, a language from Ethiopia, was the top native language in their program. Three Midwestern colleges reported African languages within their top three; Somali was reported by one college in each of Kansas and Minnesota; and Nuer, a language spoken in the South Sudan region, was reported by a college in Nebraska. In addition to languages from Eastern and Western Europe, other languages reported among the top 3 included Gujarati, Hmong, Hebrew, Urdu, Nepali, Farsi, Albanian, and many others.

Program Size

IEP programs reported having between 10 and 500 students. ESL/ELL programs as large as 1,000 students were reported but half of all programs were 100 students or less. Noncredit offerings often have less stable attendance as students will sometimes have inconsistent attendance patterns.

Faculty

We asked programs to provide the number of full-time and adjunct faculty teaching in their IEP and ESL programs. IEP programs ranged from 1 to 33 faculty, while general ESL programs ranged from 2 to 33. Clearly, all but one program relied on

adjunct faculty for a significant level of instruction. Using a faculty head count, the average IEP program (with standard deviations s.d.) consisted of 17 % (s.d. 17) full-time faculty, while ESL programs consisted of 24 % (s.d. 27) full-time faculty. We also calculated a student-to-faculty ratio (using both full-time and adjunct faculty) which revealed low ratios. The average number of students per faculty member at IEP's was 13 (s.d. 10), and in general ESL programs, there was an average of 23 (s.d. 17) students per faculty member.

Faculty Qualifications

The qualifications to teach in the credit ESL and IEP programs were a master's degree in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or a related field. Noncredit and ESP programs required at least a bachelor's degree, but there was a greater variation in requirements. When hiring instructors, programs valued teaching experience and native English speakers (or speakers of English with native fluency).

Online Offerings

Few programs offer courses online. Only one of the responding IEP programs and ten programs reporting general ESL programs offered any online course offerings. We offer Howard Community College (HCC) in Maryland as an example of a program offering online courses. A student can register, pay, and attend HCC classes online. While online ESL may not be prevalent among community colleges, many programs do offer online supplements or resources to enhance their programs. Santa Monica College in California, a community college with a large international student enrollment, offers a rich online collection of resources that can be accessed by ESL faculty, students, and others (http://smc-esl-links.wikispaces.com/). The resource offers links to websites and language aids from around the globe.

Housing

Unlike their 4-year counterparts, fewer community colleges offer residential housing for their students. Among the programs in our sample, we found that about 17 % did have housing facilities or arrangements for ESL/IEP students. For example, in addition to maintaining more traditional student housing, Edmonds Community College in Washington also offers homestays where students can live with an American family while studying English (and other subjects). Another somewhat unusual example of a community college offering housing to ESL students is Onondaga Community College, in New York State, which is a residential campus.

Conclusions

This chapter provides an overview and description of the key roles that community colleges play in the provision of English language instruction. Although we make no claims that our survey provides a representative sample, it does provide some needed information about ESL and IEP programs across the country. With the exception of a publication by the Institute for International Education (DeAngelis 2013) that provides information only on Intensive English Programs for international students, there is no single repository that provides specific information on *all* ESL-type programs in community colleges.

The recipients of community college English language services fall into two major groups: (1) immigrants and other adults within the community desiring English language instruction and (2) international students. The English language instruction falls into three categories: (1) for credit instruction, (2) noncredit instruction, and (3) intensive English language programs. Each of these types has a different mission and focus, but their audiences can and frequently do overlap. The specific offerings, the levels of instruction, the admission criteria, and the sizes of the programs vary by college. Curriculum varies as does the price for courses or programs.

The need for community colleges to offer English language services to international students is likely to grow. Since English language ability is often the staunchest barrier to overcome for international students, utilizing the English language services of community colleges has been the answer for many students.

The International Institute of Education (Chow 2011) collected over 9,000 responses from countries in four major areas of the world to ascertain attitudes and perceptions regarding higher education study in the USA. Three-quarters of all prospective students queried reported the USA as their first choice for college and felt that the USA offered a high-quality education. The biggest obstacle to coming to the USA was the cost of education. It is clear that people around the world will continue to seek postsecondary options in the USA. Community colleges can offer a viable option to international students due to the many ESL and IEP programs offered on campus as well as the lower costs of attendance compared to 4-year universities. However, another obstacle not yet discussed is that the concept of transfer from community college to university is not universally understood. Because the community college is functionally an American invention, many people around the globe do not understand that they can attend a community college and then transfer to a university and subsequently graduate with the same degree as students who began there directly from high school.

We conclude this chapter with an emphasis on the missions of English language programs in community colleges. In response to our questionnaire's request for the mission of their centers, we offer two example responses:

> English as a Second Language (ESL) is a program of instruction designed to help adults who have limited English proficiency to achieve competence in the English language. Classes stress everyday life skills that enable the student to be a functioning member of

> society by learning English. Instruction is provided in the beginner, intermediate and advanced levels. Under the North Carolina Community College System, Isothermal Community College offers fee exempt ESL classes (Questionnaire response from Isothermal Community College, NC).
>
> The mission of the Heartland Community College Adult ESL program is to offer a safe, non-threatening environment for students to learn a new language and culture. ESL staff will strive to create a sense of community and belonging for participants of diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Using a student-centered approach, we will foster the skills the learner needs to successfully advance towards educational, vocational, civic, academic, and personal goals as they become active members of their diverse American community (Questionnaire response from Heartland Community College, IL).

The two quotes most eloquently express the missions of English language instruction in community colleges. There is variability in the programs, but there is a deep passion that serves the most diverse community of individuals wishing to succeed in the USA.

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Part IV
Conclusion

Chapter 14
Internationalization with VET Character: Key Emerging Issues

Kate Dempsey and Ly Thi Tran

Abstract This volume has highlighted the complexities of offering vocational education and training across national borders, the nature and forms of internationalization of VET in different contexts and the impacts of mobility on educational work in the distinctive context of VET. In this chapter, we summarize the key issues as addressed by the authors in this volume and we note areas for further study and research. Emerging issues include the lack of comparable, system-wide and timely data on VET systems and students; the limited research on VET systems and the apparent lower status of VET for researchers and indeed for families seeking educational opportunities; the conjunction of withdrawal of funding for higher education in developed countries with the need for rapid training of technical and vocational workers in developing nations. Finally, authors in this volume consider the hegemonic aspects of English as the preferred language of training across many countries. The chapter also highlights the need for further research on the practices, trends, tensions and innovation in international VET and on the motivations of the students who undertake it and the teachers who provide the training.

Keywords Internationalization • Vocational education and training • VET • Student mobility • Appropriation of international VET practices

Introduction

Internationalization is a significant emerging trend in the vocational education and training systems across different national contexts. Internationalization has been regarded as a crucial response to the expanding mobility of students and staff, the

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changing demand of the workplace within an increasing intercultural and globalized context, the exponent volume of international and transnational companies, and the increasing mobility of the workforce between national economies (Tran 2013; Tran and Dempsey 2015). In addition, neoliberal marketization of education, migration policies, new technologies, entrepreneurship, and emergence of offshore online international education are key factors that shape internationalization trends in VET (Deardorff et al. 2012; Tran 2013; Tran and Nyland 2013; Tran and Gomes 2017; Tran 2011). Despite the growing prominence of internationalization of vocational education and training, the internationalization of VET remains a largely under-theorized and under-researched field.

This volume is a unique contribution to the field of international education and to current debates about internationalizing the VET sector. Many chapters included in this volume address core issues related to the internationalization of VET practice, teacher professional development in international VET, localization of foreign training models in developing countries, and impact of mobility on educational work in the distinctive context of VET. The insights into these crucial aspects of internationalization in VET from a wide range of cultural perspectives presented in this book are hoped to attract dialogue about the engagement of VET institutes at the forefront of internationalization. This book challenges an essentializing perspective that considers internationalization as uniform and unproblematized. Instead, it attempts to consider the commonalities, context-specific differences, as well as tensions in internationalization policies and practices at the sectoral and institutional levels and in different domains across developed and developing countries.

The chapters in this volume have provided the reader with a diverse range of current research topics in internationalization of vocational education and training from around the world. The texts have highlighted the work of researchers in Europe, Australia, the UK, Korea, Vietnam, and the USA. The chapters have detailed and compared the key aspects of internationalizing vocational education and training between developing countries such as China, Vietnam, Laos, and the Middle East and also Western countries such as Australia, the UK, Europe, and the USA. In doing so, the volume brings together a diverse range of views and experience of vocational education and the processes of internationalization. The distinctiveness of VET systems around the world has been demonstrated and the complexity of processes involved in internationalization has been analyzed.

It is clear that internationalization of VET is a global phenomenon and is changing and maturing in its application around the world. While there has been considerable research regarding internationalization in the university sector, there is limited literature analyzing the impact of internationalization in the VET sector of education. This volume aims to address that lack by highlighting new research in the field.

Each of the chapters has focused on an aspect of the internationalization process in vocational education, whether at the individual level of teachers who try to find ways to celebrate and include cultural diversity in their teaching, education program managers who try to build offshore partnerships that are respectful and lasting, or governments which attempt to control the processes of student mobility with quality auditing systems and visa regimes. There are common themes among the chapters to bring forward in this conclusion. These themes help point the way for both practi-

cal implications and further research into the internationalization of vocational education and training.

Key Emerging Issues

The first theme to observe is that data in international VET is hard to obtain. This is the case for both developed and developing nations. Researchers in this volume used case studies to supplement, sometimes, meager or narrowly focused official statistical data. Many authors commented on the lack of data on in-country VET systems as well as statistics on student mobility and VET system adoption between countries.

Data that could be sourced was most often official statistics provided by governments detailing the numbers of students attending courses, number of VET schools and colleges, and trends in these numbers within a home country. In addition, bodies such as the ILO, World Bank, UNESCO, and the European Union collect and collate statistics of a similar nature. Many authors highlighted the fact that official statistics do not tell the true story of the lived experience of teachers operating offshore (see Chap. 5 by Tran and Le 2017) or program managers (see Chap. 9 by Dempsey and Tao 2017 and Chap. 7 by Rahimi and Smith 2017) or the experience of students in a foreign country (Chap. 2 Levin et al. 2017 and Chap. 12 by Bastiaannet (2017)).

Barabasch et al. (2017, Chap. 11) noted that these official government figures are used by education aid recipient countries to be eligible for funding and may not represent a true picture or even be used for the purposes granted. Also, while one chapter (Rahimi and Smith 2017, Chap. 7) argued that international benchmarking initiatives (such as the WorldSkills Competition) assist with implementing global standards, others fear the loss of local and regional specialties with the development of common international standards. Several chapters commented on the complexity of knowledge transfer across national boundaries.

The text has also noted that there appears to be more data and research in the higher education/university sector and that the VET sector is often a neglected research area. The VET sector is perceived by families around the world as "second class" and "devalued" (Dempsey and Tao 2017, Chap. 9) and "low status" (Chap. 8 by Reich and Ho 2017) and "low take-up" (Chap. 10 by Nahm 2017). The Confucian values of hard work, attainment of knowledge, and scholarship were noted as important features of China, Vietnam, and Korea with respect to the choices of students to strive for and attend university. Among families in Asia (and perhaps even among some education researchers), there is a privileging of scholarship over technical expertise. In addition, Fisher and Saunders (2017, Chap. 6) highlights the disparities between how the UK government treats students undertaking VET and those engaged in university study. This is similar in Australia, where international students who undertake university degree programs have post-study work rights of up to 2 years, but those attending VET programs (even if they are studying at degree level) do not.

Governments in developing nations value VET for its ability to train the technical experts needed for rapidly modernizing or expanding manufacturing and technical-based industries. Authors in this volume have demonstrated that China, Vietnam, and Korea (and indeed ASEAN more generally) have targets to meet in these areas. Building from early relationships with other countries, China, Korea, and Vietnam have all adopted VET systems from either the USA, Germany, Switzerland, or Australia. In keeping with their goals to modernize their manufacturing workforce, they had a priority to adopt and build a vocational and technical training system quickly in order to join the global economic market.

Just as these developing nations were building their economic capacity, the governments of Western nations were emphasizing the primacy of the market, the value of competition, performance-based funding, and disinvestment in public enterprise (see Chap. 2, Levin et al. 2017). Financial imperatives in the West led to rigid accountability regimes, propelled by fear of unemployment or an inability to grow economically. These neoliberal policies were advanced in education in Australia, the UK, and the USA (and other developed countries) leading to an emphasis on marketization, entrepreneurship, and self-funding of education and have transferred education to a locus of commerce.

Disinvestment in public VET and the opening of education to competition from the private sector (see Fisher and Saunders 2017, Chaps. 6; Rahimi and Smith 2017 Chap. 7; Dempsey and Tao 2017, Chap. 9) led many VET institutions to become entrepreneurial in seeking overseas markets for their expertise in VET program structure and delivery, and they began both exporting education to developing nations which were seeking to update and train their workforces and also in bringing international students to their classrooms at home.

The authors in this text now bring an advance to our knowledge base about the transfer of VET systems and expertise around the world as they discuss the impact of these market-based developments in VET.

We learn that US community colleges (Levin et al. 2017, Chap. 2), UK FE colleges (Fisher and Saunders 2017, Chap. 6), and Australian public (TAFE) providers (Dempsey and Tao 2017, Chap. 9) and private sector vocational education institutions (Rahimi and Smith 2017, Chap. 7) are ahead of policy developments in their own jurisdictions and engaging in knowledge flow across traditional borders in varied and experimental ways. Governments both in the host country and the sending country are not yet able to fully monitor or regulate these knowledge transfers. Vocational education and training has become an instrument of economic growth globally. Barabasch et al. (2017) argue in Chap. 11 that this trend may not be in the best interests of students, principally because the standards are defined by the donor country according to their culture and needs. We lose a sense of individual student agency, of the value of education for its own sake, of the true global mobility of young people today, and of the flow of knowledge both ways in any educational transaction. All education, including vocational education, must meet the needs of the student, not just the needs of the economy, and if the imported system meets only the needs of the exporting country, then the education fails at the local and regional level.

Evidence that the export/import of education is primarily concerned with training for global industry needs is taken up by Tran and Le (2017) in Chap. 5 where they argue that compliance regimes and the needs of industry take precedence over engagement with teachers. Tran and Le demonstrate the lack of genuine emphasis on professional development for teachers working in international VET programs. This is echoed by Dempsey and Tao (2017) in Chap. 9 who note that after 20 years of training offshore, still insufficient funds are allocated to training staff to work interculturally. These examples suggest that the key goal of education export is short term and financial in the main.

The matter of language hegemony is taken up in several chapters: English is the preferred language of instruction for the new millennium. This makes some countries less "attractive" to international students, and they fear missing out on the financial rewards of international education (Bastiaannet 2017, Chap. 12). It makes students whose first language is not English potentially miss opportunities for advancement, but it also allows intensive English language courses to grow to cater for the demand (Hagedorn and Li 2017, Chap. 13).

Knowledge flows across traditional national boundaries are occurring between countries, organizations, and individuals (Rahimi and Smith 2017, Chap. 7). They are often ahead of government policy, with regulation mechanisms playing "catch-up" to the rapid and entrepreneurial nature of these activities. As noted earlier, bodies including the EU, UNESCO, and others attempt to benchmark global standards, and there is an argument that this is useful as it helps nations to set their own targets based on the global ranking of countries and assists in gaining a deeper understanding of the value of national and international systems of competency. Indeed Nahm (2017, Chap. 10) tells us that competency has moved beyond VET to become a social value in Korea.

Despite having limited data in internationalized VET, we know that the exchanges are varied and maturing. Korea is the first developing nation (recipient of funding) to become a donor of funds for the development of other countries. Korea hopes to act as a "bridge" (Barabasch et al. 2017, Chap. 11) between the typical ways of introducing education regimes and a new and more creative way of doing so. Vietnam is looking closely at adopting and adapting educational systems with a view to building and consolidating the Vietnamese character of its own educational offerings. Australian education institutions are developing new partnership arrangements, which respect the growing maturity in their existing relationships. They are looking to new arrangements that will build an understanding of best practice in competency standards with an appreciation of local industry needs and local milieu. They are attempting to influence Australian regulatory authorities to take internationalization issues into account. These examples show that to view internationalization of VET as simply "Westernization" or a new form of colonization is simplistic. There is a flow of knowledge both ways and a complex dynamic, which requires further investigation in order to be better understood.

This volume points to the need for further research on the ways in which nation-states regulate the flow of information, policies, systems, and indeed people across borders. It seems that the exchange has occurred at a pace and in a volume (since

there has been financial reward to be gained) that was unexpected, and governments have been left behind the trend. Rather than engaging in building education that suits local/regional needs, governments in the main have fallen back to controlling and regulating the flow of students across borders. The impact of these regulatory trends needs to be examined for the VET system in more detail. Economic factors alone such as local unemployment or higher wages elsewhere are limited in their potential to explain the complex system of student motivation, choice, expectations, and actions. We need to know more about why people undertake VET in other countries or use other systems in their own country: does it lead to a better career; do they find work at home or in other countries; do they emigrate to the country of study; do they use VET as a stepping stone to migration or to university? The longitudinal impact of internationalization of VET on both the host country and the recipient country is unknown. Economic factors alone are limited for explaining student mobility.

Furthermore, the benefits and/or disadvantages of having global competency standards need greater research emphasis to determine how these can both adopt world best practice and also maintain local imperatives and contextual priorities. This is as true for developing nations as it is for the countries of the European Union: their needs may differ. A key feature of VET is its close connection with industry, but it also needs to provide a positive and lasting outcome for the student, not just for emerging industry needs. How this may be developed and both needs met is a topic for further debate.

If we are serious about the value of a VET education, then we need to see VET students around the world as more than consumers, fodder for industry, or people looking to migrate: they are the agents of their own future. They can influence teaching for the better by allowing more diverse examples of culture to be shared in the classroom, encouraging new approaches to suit their varied needs, and improving the ability of teachers to be clear and explicit in their explanations and communication with students. We must also invest in training and developing the trainers who undertake vocational and technical training. We need to systemically support professional learning with regard to approaches to engaging and teaching international students in the home classroom as well as overseas.

This volume has demonstrated that at the level of the practitioner, there is great interest and willingness to learn how to adapt competency-based learning pedagogies to the needs of diverse learners and make vocational education and training truly student-centered, wherever that student may be located.

This text responds to the critical lack of literature on internationalization in vocational education and training. It addresses the trends, issues, and opportunities in internationalization across different national contexts and the impact of these internationalization trends on institutions, students, staff, and educational work in VET. Based on the findings and suggestions addressed in the chapters of this volume, the following aspects of internationalization in VET are worth being further researched:

1. The motives, practices, tensions, trends, and innovation in internationalization in VET
2. The differences in internationalization practices in VET across developed and developing countries at the national policy and institutional levels
3. VET institutions' capacity and preparedness for internationalization
4. The impact of internationalization practices on students' development of global competency and employability
5. The appropriation of traditional "Western" VET models and programs in a developing country
6. The forms of transnational partnerships with foreign institutions in VET and the approaches to developing and sustaining these partnerships (Tran and Dempsey 2015)
7. Practices in building on the transnational, intellectual, cultural, and linguistic resources of international students to internationalize VET
8. Approaches and practices in mediating and navigating teaching and learning to respond to diverse learner needs and different workplace demands in VET
9. Approaches to preparing VET students for labor mobility and globalized workplaces
10. Teacher professional development in response to internationalization in VET

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