

Globalization and Higher Education: A South Korea Perspective

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to examine globalization and higher education from a perspective of South Korea. First, the paper reviews the concepts of globalization and internationalization, rationale for globalization, and relations between globalization and higher education. Second, the author describes a historical synopsis regarding internationalization and higher education in South Korea. Third, Korean government policies on internationalization in education are discussed. Fourth, the paper illustrates the institutional approaches of internationalization in Korean higher education. Finally, the barriers and challenges of globalization in Korean higher education conclude the discussion.

I. Rationale: Globalization and Higher Education

A. Concepts of Globalization and Internationalization

At the outset of the 21st century, one of the most frequently utilized terms is globalization regardless of nation, region, or race. This term is used extensively in

various sectors, including politics, economics, culture, and education. The term “globalization” has been used as the meaning of “becoming global.” It refers to “the development of increasingly integrated systems and relations beyond the nation” (Marginson and Rhoades, 2002, p. 288). The systems and relations are more than economic although they are also political, cultural, and technological (Appadurai, 1996; Held, et al., 1999). As a concept, globalization refers “both to the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole” (Robertson, 1993, p. 8). It simply connotes that “the world is rapidly being moulded into a shared social space by economic and technological forces and that developments in one region of the world can have profound consequences for the life chances of individuals or communities on the other side of the globe” (Held, et al., 1999, p. 1).

The argument regarding the globalization thesis is grounded on two major aspects: transnational and multinational¹ (Amin, 1998; Carnoy, 1993). The former depends on a nation’s economic policy, whereas the latter relies on many different countries’ economic policies (Carnoy, 1999). However, the essence of globalization is not limited to national economies and national states, but contained in a new way of thinking regarding economic and social space and time (Carnoy, 1999, p. 19). In addition, it is connected to political relations and cultural influence (Stromquist and Monkman, 2000).

Globalization is sometimes used interchangeably with internationalization, although both the definition and the difference between the two terms are unclear. According to Knight’s (1997) assertion, “[g]lobalisation can be thought of as the catalyst while internationalisation is the response, albeit a response in a proactive way” (p. 6). In addition, Levin (2001) regards internationalization as one set of behaviors

influenced by globalizing processes. These processes include not only political and economic globalization but also social and cultural, including educational globalization. Based on these assertions, globalization refers to no single or simple phenomenon, but to a world system incorporated with multi-phenomena such as political, economic, social, cultural, and technological (Dudley, 1998; Edwards and Usher, 2000; Marginson, 2002; Held, et al., 1999). On the other hand, internationalization views as a response to the impact of globalization or a set of behaviors influenced by globalization processes (Knight, 1997; Levin, 2001).

B. Rationale for Globalization

The writer attempts to discuss globalization in terms of three major domains: politico-economic, socio-cultural, and educational. Politico-economic rationale has become more important since the beginning of this century. In particular, the economic rationale is more prevalent than political one, with building an international labor market, as well as with growing information-communication technology (ICT) competitiveness. Globalization is a significant force reorganizing the world's economy through new knowledge and technology (Carnoy and Rhoten, 2002). Owing to the intensive trend of economic globalization, as de Wit and Knight (1997) point out, socio-cultural and academic rationales seem to be secondary, and these rationales are inclined more to the institutional and individual level than the national level (p. 174).

From the viewpoint of human resource development, socio-cultural and educational rationales seem to be regarded as subsidiary factors to enhance and strengthen the economic rationale. In spite of this economic or commercial-oriented

tendency, the socio-cultural rationale is of importance because a national identity and culture is considered as a core element not merely to maintaining the nation's own culture but also to living in cooperation with other nations. If a nation loses its cultural identity, globalization may be nothing but homogenization.

Finally, educational rationale is also an important domain because the globalization of higher education can provide people with an opportunity to meet international market demand and work environment. The writer specifically discusses the educational rationale of globalization in the next section.

C. Globalization and Higher Education

Globalization has been predominantly connected to higher education. As Levin (2001) points out, “with emphasis upon international competitiveness, economic globalization is viewed as moving postsecondary institutions into a business-like orientation, with its attendant behaviors of efficiency and productivity” (p. 239). Higher education institutions are closely related to the marketplace, especially in the field of techno-science. Under the worldwide proliferation of neo-liberal policies, higher education institutions play an important role not merely in a nation state and national system but also in a national marketplace (Marginson and Rhodes, 2002). Scholars who are recently interested in the former stress on changing relations between national ministries and postsecondary institutions (Gornitzka, 1999; Kogan and Hanney, 2000; Neave and van Vught, 1994; Salter and Tapper, 1994), whereas scholars who are connected to the latter have focused on universities' entrepreneurial activity and adaptation to external markets (Clark, 1998; Marginson and Considine, 2000; Slaughter

and Leslie, 1997; Sporn, 1999; Subotzky, 1999).

In recent studies related to globalization, structural adjustment, and higher education, such terms, “enterprise / entrepreneurial university,” “academic capitalism,” and “glocal agency,” have currently discussed in scholarship. With structural changes in the global economy, higher education has also required structural adjustment and reform strategies. One of the representative structural changes is to create entrepreneurial universities. In order to occupy international competitiveness in the world marketplace as well as to adjust new modes of knowledge production in a global society, several scholars argue that universities should adopt entrepreneurial structure, strategy, and culture (Clark, 1998; Levin, 2001; Marginson, 1997; Marginson and Considine, 2000; Rhoades and Smart, 1996; Slaughter and Leslie, 1997; Subotzky, 1999).

With these structural adjustment of universities, the global economy demands new national policies to promote academic capitalism. According to Slaughter and Leslie’s (1997) argument, the global economy facilitates academic capitalism in higher education, with focusing on national policies and funding patterns. On the contrary, Marginson and Rhoades (2002) point out the weaknesses of “academic capitalism” as the following:

The metaphor of academic capitalism reveals a power global trend but blinds us to the power of national traditions, agencies, and agents in shaping the work of higher education, as well as to the local agency exercised by students, faculty, non-faculty professionals, and administrators, pursuing prestige, knowledge, social critique, and social justice. (p. 287)

As described in the above, academic capitalism puts emphasis on the global and national levels, while it disregards conceptual development at the local level and also neglects interactions of global, national, and local domains.

In consideration of the weaknesses of academic capitalism, Marginson and Rhoades (2002) suggest an alternative, “a glonacal agency heuristic,²” to advance the importance of studying global phenomena (p. 288). They illustrate the merit of a glonacal agency heuristic as follows:

Our heuristic highlights the growing saliency of global agencies and relationships, including meta-national regions, in both the national and the local domains....it emphasizes the continuing fecundity of local institutions and other agents at the national and global levels...it takes us beyond nation states, national markets, and national systems and institutions of higher education to consider organizational agencies and human agency at various levels. (p. 305)

The heuristic approach presents the harmonious interactions of global, national, and local phenomena as well as reciprocal interrelationships between or among agencies or domains.

As reviewed in the above, the recent trend of higher education needs innovative or reformative structural adjustment to cope with rapid global changes. In this vein, Korea also demands restructuring or reengineering of higher education in order to reach international standards and to improve academic quality

II. Internationalization and Higher Education in South Korea

Globalization is extremely important in South Korea so as to extend international competitiveness in the world marketplace. According to the source of *The World Competitiveness Yearbook 2001* (Institutional Institute for Management Development [IMD], 2001), IMD evaluates that South Korea has a positive attitude toward globalization, but South Korea faces threats to her economy (p. 473). Although South Korea has attained the universalization of higher education, the quality of Korean higher education does not meet the needs of a competitive economy (IMD, 2001). Considering the research result of IMD, globalization in higher education is a key agenda in South Korea.

In the light of the significance of globalization in Korea, the author first of all reviews historical context and then describes governmental and institutional policies toward internationalization in order to weigh the development and condition of globalization in Korean higher education.

A . Historical Perspective

The origin of internationalization of higher education in Korea stems from the introduction of the first Western-type collegiate schools in the late Choson period (1880-1910). Until the late nineteenth century, the formal Korean elite/higher education system maintained the Chinese-type Confucian institution. According to the oldest Korean historic record, *Samguk-sagi* [The Historic Records of Three Kingdoms], the first formal institution of elite/higher education was known as *Taehak* (National

Confucian Academy) established in AD 372. After opening the National Confucian Academy, several similar national institutions of Confucian elite/higher education were established as the primary or secondary key institutions with Buddhist schools until the late fourteenth century.

From the beginning of the Choson dynasty in 1392, Confucianism was a national ethical principle or religion. Thus, Confucian education was the primary institution not only to foster civilian bureaucrats but also to enable its people to follow Confucian ethics and values. The National Confucian Academy of Choson, Seongkyunkwan that succeeded the traditions of the former National Confucian institutions, was built in 1398. During the Choson Kingdom period (1392-1910), Confucian elite/higher education was mainly regarded as an institution for training future bureaucrats who then rose to political positions after national examinations, *Kwa-keo* (Lee, 2001, p. 4). The Confucian education system was maintained until the late 19th century when the Choson Kingdom opened its doors to coercive foreign powers, and was influenced by the modern educational system from Western Christian missionaries (Lee, 2001, p. 5).

During the late 19th century (1880-1900), the rise of modern higher education, named a Western-type, occurred in the three principle phases: Confucian Choson royal government, Western Christian missionaries, and patriotic nationalists (Kim, 2000, pp. 21-24; Lee, 2001, p. 1). In particular, Christian missionary schools that were established under different Western Christian denominations and missions played important part as seeds for the development of modern higher education in Korea. Christian missionaries who served as administrators or faculty were pioneers for the internationalization of higher education in Korea. In terms of the internationalization of modern Korean higher

education, Western Christian missionary schools brought the first experience of internationalization to Korea.

During the Japanese colonial period (1910-1945), all tertiary institutes which were built by three principle bodies lost their college status and were degraded to non-degree granting schools. There was only one national-level university, Keijo Imperial University, opened by the Japanese in 1924. Korean collegiate schools under Japanese colonial rule lost the chance to plant Western models suited for Koreans' need. In the process of the internationalization of higher education, Japanese colonial authority emphasized its nationalism more than internationalism due to the Japanese imperialists' educational policy based on its imperialism.

The liberation of Korea from the Japanese in 1945 was a turning point in the history of Korean higher education. The U.S. Military government between 1945 and 1948 not only endeavored to eradicate the remnants of Japanese education, but made radical reforms to democratic education by introducing an American education system (Lee, 2000b). At that time, a number of Korean educators who studied abroad participated in radical education reforms. In addition, many collegiate schools including Christian-founded institutions became four-year, degree-granting universities. In the light of the internationalization of higher education, Korea experienced a new wave of multinationalism during this term.

After the establishment of the Republic of Korea in 1948, the new South Korean government promulgated the Education Law on December 31, 1949 (Lee, 2000b, p. 3). The Education Law included the concepts of internationalization as follows:

Development of a patriotic spirit for the preservation of national independence and enhancement of an ideal for the cause of world peace (Article 2: 2).

Succession and development of our national culture and contribution to the creation and growth of the world culture (Article 2: 3).

As stated in Article 2 of the new Education Law, Korean legislators captured the conception of internationalization.

The period between the Korean War (1950-1953) and the early 1960s was characterized as a leap in the development of internationalization of Korean higher education. In particular, the active participation of foreign agencies for the development of tertiary institutions was worthy of close attention. The major agencies were the United Nations Civil Assistance Command, Korea (UNCACK), the Korean Civil Assistance Corps (KCAC), the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the International Co-operation Administration (ICA), the Agency for International Development (AID), and the United States Operations Mission to Korea (USOM) (Kim, 2000, p. 39; Lee, 2000a, p. 53). The various aid programs provided many Korean people with opportunities to gain American academic knowledge and advanced scientific skills in foreign countries (Lee, 2000a, p. 54). For example, the contract between ICA/The University of Minnesota and Korea offered graduate study and observation to 225 Koreans from 1954 to 1962 (Adams, 1965, p. 15).

After the military coup d'état in 1961, the Korean government strongly recognized the need for educational reform to industrialize the country and to build the national identity. On December 5, 1968, the Korean government promulgated 'The Charter of National Education' as the guiding principle of Korean education.

...The love of the country and fellow countrymen together with the firm belief in democracy against communism is the way for our survival and the basis for realizing the ideals of the free world....(The Ministry of Education, 1976, p. 3)

As appeared in this section, the Korean government stressed not only the national identity and culture but also the ideals of the world.

From the 1960s to the 1980s, higher education expanded to meet the national demand for manpower in Korean society (Suhr, 1987, p. 8). With the rapid growth of Korean economy, the Korean government strengthened the education of overseas Koreans and tried to foster highly qualified manpower through overseas training and study (The Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development [MEHRD] and Korean Educational Development Institute [KEDI], 2000, p. 11). In the late 1980s, international exchange and cooperation of higher education increased expeditiously (MEHRD & KEDI, 2000, p. 148).

In the latter half of the 1990s, Asian economic crisis enormously affected Korean society and higher education. The economic crisis “was precipitated by an expected drop on the value of Asian currencies that posed serious threats to economies throughout the region” (Weidman and Park, 2000, p. 1). With the epochal trend of globalization having an effect on the severe economic crisis, the Korean government promulgated the Framework Act on Education in December 1997. In particular, Article 29 of the Education Act describes several objectives for the internationalization of education.

- (1) The State shall make efforts to conduct internationalization education and skills training for citizens to be equipped as members of the international community.
- (2) The State shall work out a policy necessary to conduct school education or social education necessary for Korean residents abroad.
- (3) The State shall work out a policy on studying abroad to promote the undertaking studies, and shall support educational and research activities for understanding the Republic of Korea outside the country and for establishing the identity of Korean culture.
- (4) The State shall work out a policy necessary for cooperating with foreign governments and international organizations.

In 1998, 130 Korean universities among 156 four-year institutions had sisterhood relationship with 2,130 foreign universities of 110 countries (Korean Council for University Education, 1999). In addition, 154,219 Korean students were studying abroad, and 6,279 foreign students studying in Korea were from 108 countries in 1999 (MEHRD & KEDI, 2000, p. 19).

B. Policies and Approaches toward Internationalization

1. Government Policies on Internationalization in Education: National and Regional Frames

With the wind of an epochal challenge, the Presidential Commission on

Educational Reform [PCER] was organized in 1994. The Reform Proposal that was submitted to the President in May 1995 stated globalization as one of the most notable changes (PCER Report, 1997). The First Reform Proposal describes globalization as holding several implications for the future direction of Korean educational system. These were as follows (Ibid., pp. 15-16):

First, to meet the challenges posed by globalization, the quality of our education should be raised to meet world standards.

Second, in order for us to keep our heritage and to live in cooperation with other ethnic groups in the era of globalization, special emphasis must be placed on strengthening and deepening our understanding of our cultural heritage.

Third, to become truly globalized citizens, we should not only keep our minds open and foster a multi-cultural perspective, but also develop cross-cultural communication skills.

Fourth, the principle of autonomy and decentralization should also be observed in education.

In the Reform Proposal, four specific tasks regarding the internationalization of universities were suggested: fostering experts in international relations, increasing the number of foreign students in Korea, supporting Korean universities in their plans to build branch campuses abroad, and emphasizing Korean cultural identity through a variety of educational programs (PCER Report, 1997, p. 33).

Koreans have experienced the impacts of global financial systems since the “Economic Crisis of 1997.” In order to cope with urgent needs for globalization, the

present government organized the Presidential Commission for New Education Committee (PCNEC) in July 1998. The PCNEC mostly adopted the policies of globalization and education established by the former government. The four policies of globalization are: education of overseas Koreans, overseas studies and training of Koreans, support for foreign students studying in Korea, and fostering experts of international relations. Under the present Kim administration, internationalization is one of core policies in current Korean higher education. The Korean government renamed the former Ministry of Education to the Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development in January 2000, in order to cope with a new knowledge-based society, and with an emerging trend of internationalization.

In particular, under the Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, the National Institute for International Education Development (NIIED) has performed not merely international education exchanges and cooperation but also education for overseas Koreans. The major functions of NIIED are: education of overseas Koreans, exchange and cooperation of international education, overseas training of teachers and university students, selection and management of government scholarship students, and support services for overseas study (<http://niied.interedu.go.kr/>).

The Korean government has also encouraged the promotion of international cooperation and education with international organizations and institutions such as United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), The World Bank, and World Trade Organization (WTO). The government has stressed education for international understanding in all

school levels, and has also promoted Korean studies in domestic and foreign countries.

The Asia-Pacific Centre [Center] of Education for International Understanding (APCEIU) was opened in Seoul, Korea in accordance with the resolution of the 30th Session of the UNESCO General Conference in 1999 (Kim, 2001, p. 5). The Center's main duty is "to promote and develop education for international understanding in the schools and civil society of the Asia-Pacific region" (Ibid., p. 3). In addition, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development [MEHRD] holds a Korea-OECD regular seminar every year and participates in a number of OECD cooperative research projects (MEHRD & KEDI, 2000, pp. 63-64). In 2000, the Korea Foundation, which was established in 1991 so as to support Korean studies overseas, "supported the initiation and expansion of Korean studies courses at 22 universities in 20 countries." (The Korea Foundation Annual Report, 2000, p. 8). In the same year, the Korean government selected 40 national scholarship students to study abroad from over 3.3 million Korean college/university students, and also invited 75 foreign students on Korean national scholarships from 40 different countries (MEHRD & KEDI, 2000, pp. 125-126).

The Korean government has constantly endeavored to promote educational policies and approaches that support internationalization, so as not to fall behind the trend of globalization. In addition, the government has promoted the internationalization of education through several major government-funded research institutions such as Korean Educational Development Institute [KEDI]³, Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education and Training [KRIVET]⁴, Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation [KICE]⁵, Korea Research Foundation [KRF]⁶, and The Korea Foundation [KF]⁷.

The main national policies of internationalization in Korean higher education are to enhance the quality of education in order to reach world standards, to focus on a nation's cultural heritage so as to harmonize other ethnic cultures, and to become more market oriented, privatized, and diversified.

2. Institutional Approaches

This section addresses the institutional approaches of internationalization in Korea. It focuses on the internationalization of academic staff and curriculum, the condition of study abroad by Korea students, and the situation of foreign students in South Korea.

The international academic exchange programs of Korean universities have rapidly expanded since the late 1980s. As mentioned in the previous section, 130 Korean universities of 156 four-year institutions had sister relationships with 2,130 foreign universities in 110 countries in 1998. The countries of universities having sister relationships were: the United States, 640 institutions; China, 326; Japan, 288; Russia, 123; Taiwan, 83; United Kingdom, 74; and other countries, 596 (MEHRD & KEDI, 2000, p. 149). Academic exchanges in Korea decline to a few developed countries and neighbor nations.

The main content of international programs concerning academic exchange are related to faculty and students, research activities, academic resources, and academic affairs. In recent years, a great number of national and private universities regardless of any region appear in the international academic activities. For instance, Kyemyeong University that is a private institution in Kyungsang province had sisterhood

relationship with 76 foreign universities of 17 countries in 2000. Between July 1999 and August 2000, the academic staff of Kyemyeong University visited approximately 50 foreign institutions 49 times in order to participate in international seminars or to interchange with faculty and academic programs (MEHRD & KEDI, 2000, pp. 152-155). Choongnam National University [CNU] in Choongcheong province sent 5 professors to 3 foreign universities, and invited 4 foreign professors from the three universities. In addition, 30 students of CNU went to 6 foreign universities of 3 countries, while 12 foreign students were invited from 7 foreign universities of 3 countries (MEHRD & KEDI, 2000, p. 168).

In terms of the internationalization of higher education, the Korean government has supported 76 billion Won to 9 Graduate Schools of International Affairs of nine domestic universities between 1996 and 2000, so as to develop expertise in international relations (MEHRD & KEDI, 2000, p. 19). In addition, in order to promote the internationalization of education, 5 universities opened a course of Education for International Understanding effective in 2000 (Chung, 2000, p. 138). Although courses in Education for International Understanding have commenced at the undergraduate or graduate level, the curricula are not yet standardized. In spite of this reality, the general purpose of these courses are to provide students with knowledge in the age of globalization, to possess a sense of appreciation and vision, and to participate in the tendency of globalism (Ibid., p. 139).

The expansion of study abroad by South Korean students clearly enhances the internationalization of Korean education. Between 1971 and 1999, Korean students who studied abroad increased approximately 20 times (7,632 to 154,219 persons). Among 154,219 Korean students including all school levels, 53,888 students studied in Canada,

42,890 in United States, 12,746 in Japan, and 9,204 in China. Only 39 of 154,219 were students on Korean national scholarships, and 186 were students invited from 16 different nations. The others were students financing their study from their own sources.

The number of foreign students who studied in South Korea, mostly universities, is much lower than the number of Korean students studying abroad. According to MEHRD & KEDI (2000), the total number of foreign students in 2000 was 6,160, only 0.18% of the total student enrollment. Of these non-Korean students, 75 students from 40 countries received Korean national scholarships (MEHRD & KEDI, 2000, p. 126). 6,160 foreign students came from 100 countries, with the largest numbers from Japan (1,692 persons), China (1,601), and Taiwan (487) (MEHRD & KEDI, 2000, p. 124).

In light of the above sources, over 70% of Korean students studying abroad went to English-speaking countries, whereas approximately 60% of foreign students studying in Korea were from Asian neighbor countries. Therefore, the interchange of students studying abroad in South Korea is out of balance nationally, regionally, and economically.

C. Barriers and Challenges

The Korean government and universities endeavor in various ways to promote the internationalization of higher education. In spite of this endeavor, several chronic factors may be barriers for academic globalization. First of all, Korean higher education is highly bureaucratic and rigidly centralized. This is because the Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development not only has uniformly controlled all higher

education institutions, but has also encouraged uniformity rather than diversity. Next, educational administrators in Korean colleges and universities still have authoritative attitudes and leadership styles that are obstacles for promoting university autonomy and diversity. Last, the closed organizational culture of Korean higher education based on personal connection and formal authoritarianism also hampers initiatives and individualism.

Furthermore, the internationalization of higher education creates a great number of threats or challenges such as commercialism, neo-colonialism, structural adjustment and educational reform, standardization and quality assurance, homogenization of national identity and culture, and information technology revolution (Carnoy, 1999; de Wit and Knight, 1997; Marginson and Rhoades, 2002; Slaughter and Leslie, 1997). Major concerns of globalization in Korean higher education are the following:

First, to cope with commercialism from international markets, Korean higher education should take account into the establishment of entrepreneurial culture in postsecondary institutions.

Second, to defend academic neo-colonialism, the Korean government and universities should support services for overseas study, and to promote policies which support foreign students. The government should provide foreign students with financial aid, and universities should offer foreign students Korean language training to support their study in Korean colleges and universities.

Third, to practice structural adjustment and educational reform, the government should design policy-driven and finance-driven reformation to stimulate international competitiveness, whereas universities should change organizational structure centering on decentralization and privatization to cope with educational globalization.

Fourth, to reach international standards and academic quality, universities should be full autonomies. In addition, universities should improve their curricula and research activities to the level of global standards. Thus, Korean scholars should endeavor to raise the quality of research to meet the standards of international economy and academy.

Fifth, to prevent the homogenization of national identity and culture, school education should emphasize Korean cultural identity and pay attention to the teaching of cultural heritage (PECR Report, 1997).

Sixth, to build a new information-communication technology [ICT] society, information technology should be a means to develop both life-long education and distance education, as well as to enhance the internationalization of higher education. In addition, resources from Korean higher education infrastructure should be dedicated to developing an information-communication technology society.

Finally, to accelerate the internationalization of higher education, universities should foster experts in international relations and affairs. All students must be educated for international understanding.

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¹ Carnoy (1999) explains that transnational means that they transcend any national space; multinational means that they have offices in many different countries but retain a very high fraction of their assets in their home-base economy (p. 18).

² Marginson and Rhoades (2002) illustrate that “glonacal” connotes global, national, and local levels; “agency” means an entity or organization that can exist at the global, national, and local level; and “a glonacal agency heuristic” presents the intersections, interactions, mutual determinations of these levels and domains (organizational agencies and the agency of collectivities) (pp. 288-89).

³ The Korean Educational Development Institute [KEDI] was established in 1972 as a government-funded educational research organization. Since 1972, “KEDI has been active on almost every education front, developing educational policies, strategies, and programs, which have assisted Korea in realizing its diverse and evolving educational goals” (KEDI, 2001, p. 4). In particular, KEDI as a core educational research institute in South Korea has closely cooperated with international organizations and educational institutions of many foreign countries. The International Cooperation Team under the Planning Bureau has played an essential role at the international front by:

[d]eveloping professional consulting and training programs which assist various countries in advancing their educational goals,
[o]rganizing collaborative research activities with international organizations and individual countries,
[h]osting international forums, seminars, and conferences, which promote the international exchange of ideas and people,
[and] [c]onducting regional studies and research in comparative education and providing information and resources on international education.
(KEDI, 2001, p. 10)

KEDI has participated in various ongoing international affairs and a number of cooperative research projects concerning education with UNESCO, UNESCO- PROAP (Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific), UNESO-ACEID (Asia-Pacific Centre of Educational Innovation for Development), UNESCO-APEID (Asia-Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development), OECD, APEC, World Bank, PCC (Pacific Circle Consortium), etc.

⁴ The Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education and Training (KRIVET) was opened in 1997 in order to support the national policy on human resources development and various other projects for human resources development as well as vocational education and training (KRIVET, 2001, p. 3). The main functions of KRIVET are: research on human resource development [HRD] for national policy making; evaluation of vocational education and training in addition to the management of the

qualification system; development of curriculum on vocational education and training as well as teaching and learning materials; and international cooperation on vocational education and training (KRIVET, 2001, pp. 4-5).

KRIVET has conducted and supported a variety of studies and activities with international organizations and institutions: conducting a joint research between Korea and Australia for developing Asia and the Pacific region, conducting a seminar for strengthening human resource development between South and North Korea, supporting the activities of APEC-HRD Working Group, holding International Conference on National Strategy for Developing Human Resources through Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET), and publishing translated materials on HRD and TVET (KRIVET, 2001, p. 9).

⁵ The Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE) was founded in 1998 as a government-funded educational research organization. The mission of KICE is to develop school curricula, textbooks, instructional materials, and educational assessments, to monitor national level of student achievements, to evaluate efficiency and effectiveness of curriculum and textbooks, and to administer and manage the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) and other national examinations (KICE, 2001, pp. 2-3).

In addition, KICE has endeavored to promote international cooperation and collaboration by participating in international research projects and seminars with a number of international organizations and institutions (Ibid., p. 3). The major international research projects in which KICE has been involved are Third International Math & Science Study-Repeat (TIMSS-R), OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), and The Second Information Technology in Education Study (SITES) (Ibid., p. 6).

⁶ The Korea Research Foundation (KRF) was built in 1981 to promote the culture of academic activities by supporting domestic research and encouraging international academic exchanges (KRF, 2001, p. 1). In order to strengthen Korea's national competitiveness as well as to support international collaborative studies and Korean studies abroad, KRF promotes international academic exchanges and joint studies with foreign institutes and scholars (KRF, 2001, pp. 10-11).

The Foundation has supported 115 visiting professors to foreign universities, and currently partners with internationally recognized institutions such as CASS, DFG, DAAD, ARC, and CNRS (ibid.). The regional distributions of Korean studies scholars are: North America (2 countries) is 26%; Asia (12 countries) 34%; and Europe (12 countries) 40% (ibid., p. 13).

⁷ The Korea Foundation (KF) was established in 1991 in order to promote an understanding of Korea throughout the world and to enhance international goodwill and friendship through the implementation of a variety of international exchange programs (KF, 2000, p. 2). The Foundation is involved in the following international programs and activities (KF, 2000, p. 3):

[T]he Korea Foundation provides support for the establishment of Korean studies professorships, Korea-related courses and Korean studies centers at prominent universities abroad.

In an effort to extend systematic support to professors, graduate students and researchers of Korean studies...The Korea Foundation also provides Korean studies scholars with support for their research and publishing efforts under its Publication Subsidy Program and Publication Grant Program.

The Korea Foundation annually organizes bilateral forums with major countries on a non-governmental level, which includes the participation of leading representatives from both countries' political, business, academic, social and cultural sectors.

The Korea Foundation supports the establishment of Korean galleries and various Korean cultural programs at world-renowned museums so that Korean art and culture more readily accessible to people around the world.

The Korea Foundation publishes periodicals, *KOREANA* and *Korea Focus*, as well as Korea-related publications in foreign languages to provide an in-depth introduction to Korean culture, history, politics, society and other fields to readers abroad.