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Published in the Russian Federation

European Journal of Contemporary Education

ISSN 2304-9650

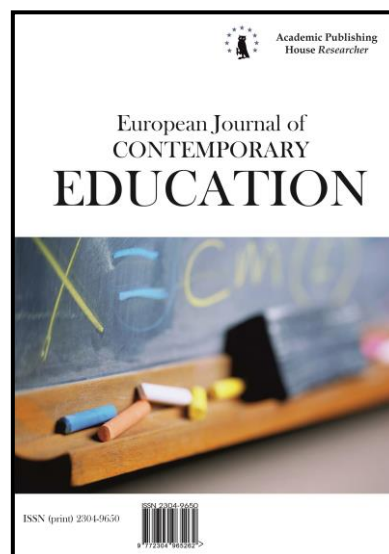
E-ISSN 2305-6746

Vol. 16, Is. 2, pp. 229-238, 2016

DOI: 10.13187/ejced.2016.16.229

[www.ejournal1.com](http://www.ejournal1.com)

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UDC 378.1 (378.31)

## Prospects for the Development and Internationalization of Higher Education in Asia

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### Abstract

This study investigates the current process of internationalization of higher education in the countries of the Asia Pacific region (APR) through the example of China, the Republic of Korea, Japan, and Russia. The article aims to familiarize the reader with the experience of internationalizing higher education in APR states against a backdrop of global trends. The authors examine the major strategies for the internationalization of education, such as taking a coordinated approach, attracting qualified manpower, focusing on deriving profit, and expanding the potential. The paper analyzes the traditions, strengths and weaknesses, and general traits and characteristics of the above states' national systems of education, as well as the major forms of international partnership and key dimensions of education internationalization in APR states. The authors show that over the last few years APR states have been increasingly active in entering into agreements in the area of education internationalization, which has facilitated the division of spheres of influence and zones of responsibility within the educational area, as well as the steering of educational approaches along a common course. The paper employs traditional methods of research, such as classification, comparative analysis, generalization, juxtaposition, and forecasting. The study suggests three possible scenarios for the future development of the process of higher education internationalization: sustainably diverse internationalization, convergence in the direction of the liberal model, and the triumph of developing economies. The paper also describes current trends in this area in APR states. The authors come to the conclusion that we are

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in for considerable changes in the international market of educational services, such as the reconsideration of spheres of influence and redistribution of key players in the market, dynamicity and heterochrony in development being among the key traits inherent to today's market of educational services.

**Keywords:** higher education, internationalization, competitiveness, student mobility, standardization, unification.

### **1. Introduction**

The development of systems of higher education in various countries around the world is increasingly characterized by a trend towards unification and standardization. The Bologna Declaration on the European Space for Higher Education, signed on June 19, 1999 by 29 countries (47 countries taking part in the process at present), marks the transition of higher education to a new international level.

The Bologna process seeks to facilitate student mobility via the removal of obstacles to free movement, enable comparing qualifications acquired at various institutions of higher learning, guarantee that these qualifications meet the present-day needs in the labor market, and ensure college graduate competitiveness.

Thanks to the internationalization of higher education, students are provided with the opportunity to go to virtually any college in any foreign country, study foreign culture and mentality, travel, and learn what it is like around the world. The internationalization of education incorporates the following forms of international partnership: individual mobility, i.e. the mobility of students and instructors for educational purposes; the mobility of curricula; putting together new international standards for academic curricula; institutional partnership; forming strategic educational alliances.

The benefits of internationalization include (Abdulkerimov et al., 2012): attaining a unity of resources; preventing the duplication and copying of research topics; identifying educational projects, boosting the accessibility of higher education, universalizing knowledge, facilitating the emergence of international quality standards, boosting the innovativeness of higher education, and expanding and bolstering international partnership.

However, despite the internationalization of higher education, there is a lot that is unique, special, interesting, and unusual that national education systems have to offer. This includes the systems of higher education of Asia's following leading states: China, Japan, the Republic of Korea, and Russia.

### **2. Materials and methods**

This study aims to analyze the general and particular in the systems of higher education of China, Japan, Korea, and Russia in the context of the internationalization of higher education taking place across the globe at the moment, expansion of international partnership, and increase in the share of the export and import of students at colleges within these countries.

Among the major strategies for the internationalization of higher education are (Vincent-Lancrin, 2010a):

- taking a coordinated approach, which implies giving sanction to the international mobility of students and instructors through grants and student exchange programs and being oriented towards smaller groups;
- attracting qualified manpower, which implies taking a more active and targeted approach to recruiting foreign students and shifting from mass enrollment of students to seeking out and inviting the most talented ones;
- being focused on deriving profit, which implies being oriented towards commercial objectives and deriving maximum profit;
- expanding the potential, which implies focusing on the support and development of academic curricula overseas and setting up foreign colleges in the territory of the receiving country; this, mainly, has to do with developing countries.

Since the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the academic mobility indicators for the US, Japan, and Korea have risen more than 2 times. We have witnessed a similar trend in respect of Europe as a whole, too (Vincent-Lancrin, 2010a, 2010b).

Note that the US is gradually losing ground to Australia, New Zealand, Great Britain, Germany, and France when it comes to receiving foreign students. Among the chief suppliers of students are China, India, the Republic of Korea, Japan, and the US. In recent years, the global market of educational services has witnessed considerable changes. Thus, for instance, Singapore was planning on having brought in 150,000 foreign students by 2015, Japan – 300,000 by 2025, and China – 500,000 by 2020.

The attractiveness of the Asian market of education is high also because we are expecting the number of people to be educated to have grown from 17 to 87 million in Asia by 2025 (Rasha, 2013). The intensity of measures for the internationalization of higher education in the Asia Pacific region depends on the educational policy of particular states.

There are three major dimensions to international education (Huang, 2007):

- state-regulated (China, Malaysia, South Korea, Russia);
- market-oriented (Hong Kong);
- transitive, i.e. subject to a shift from state-regulated to market-oriented (Japan, Taiwan).

### 3. Results and discussion

Russia. Education internationalization in Russia is mainly oriented towards the experience of US colleges and adopting the American model for higher education, which may appear as a paradox, given a pronounced anti-American sentiment we have witnessed in Russian society of late.

A subscriber to the Bologna Declaration since 2003, Russia started implementing a two-level, bachelor's/master's degree, system of higher education back in 1992. Compared with some other participants in the Bologna process, Russia is currently a lot closer to the full-scale fulfillment of the Bologna Declaration.

At present, the key objectives for Russian education in the context of the Bologna Declaration are: instituting a credit system, working out and implementing a new system of education appraisal and quality control, as well as implementing the Diploma Supplement, established for participants in the Bologna process (A comparative characterization, n. d.).

Leading Russian colleges, especially those specializing in technical disciplines, have always been recognized globally due to their traditionally high preparation level. And Russians, rightfully, have always been proud of the level of Russian education. In Russia, this area has received a significant safety margin, which allows Russian education to stay at a respectable level (Krechetnikov, 2014). The major strengths of the Russian system of education have always been the fundamental and systemic nature of instruction and the high quality of educational services. Russian education is founded on firm cultural and pedagogical national traditions and has deep historical roots (Yemelyanov, 2012).

So why are Russian colleges not ranked by foreign ratings agencies the way they should, based on their actual position in the global system of education?

There are several reasons behind this:

1) the majority of the world's top ratings for educational institutions are oriented towards the American or European education models; there are too few parameters, many of which do not work for the Russian education system as they do not reflect the specificity of Russian education, like the number of Nobel Prize and Field Medal laureates among graduates and staff or the citation rate, mainly in English-language journals (Sadovnichiy, 2013);

2) the nature of requirements set by global educational ratings being too uncustomary and novel for Russian realities; making the Russian system of education a full entrant in global ratings takes time, as there is a need to overhaul the nation's education system and worldviews and adapt them to meet relevant global requirements, align with the structure of educational curricula, etc.;

3) the language barrier; additional costs in time and money for instructors associated with writing papers in pure English, as well as the total lack of representatives of Russia on the editorial boards of the world's top journals;

4) historically, Russian universities have never really been regarded to be at the forefront of Russian science, while in the world's practice science has been mainly centered in universities; in Russia, apart from universities, there are the institutes of the Russian Academy of Sciences (RAS), with which universities engage in close partnership, but there is no particular rating indicator in

the world classification to assess activity associated with the partnership between universities and the RAS;

5) the fact that Russian universities do not have an extensive foreign student support program; the importance of preparing foreign students is only now beginning to be realized, there being an increase in quotas and funding for these purposes, but you cannot raise the number of foreign students overnight, for it takes time to create maximally favorable conditions for them and make them want to study in Russia; since the Russian language is hard to learn, there is a need to switch to providing instruction of academic disciplines in English; in addition, Russia could bring in a large number of students from the post-Soviet space and Eastern Europe, for whom learning Russian should not be a problem;

6) one of the key factors in determining the existing educational global ratings is the opinion of experts on a specific college, but there are almost no experts from Russia on expert committees, which, obviously, tells on the outcome;

7) education is an open system whose state, developmental dynamics and characteristics are largely determined by the social-economic context, especially the level of the nation's economic development and its demographic characteristics (Agranovich et al., 2009); it would be incorrect to compare the world's education systems without taking account of these factors;

8) a list of major indicators for a university's global ranking should include the level of education and the content and quality of curricula, while these parameters are not regarded as principal by leading international rankings.

In 2013, Russia's Ministry of Science and Education placed an order with the Center for Education Monitoring and Statistics for a comparative study into the Russian and global systems of education. The study included data on colleges and schools in 50 countries (Education in Russia, n.d.). It was revealed that in the world's most advanced countries to receive a basic secondary education students have to attend school for a period of 12 to 14 years, while in Russia it is mandatory to complete only 9 grades at a general education school. That said, Russia has a high share of certified specialists (ranked 10<sup>th</sup> in the world on the number of college and technical college graduates), whom it shares generously with the West. While the number of Master's and Doctorate degree holders is even greater, Russia ranking 6<sup>th</sup> in the world.

Every year the US, a key player in the world's educational market, brings in 760,000 foreign students, which translates into \$24 billion worth of revenue to the state budget. Russian students going overseas to study tend to go with (with the number of students in descending order) Germany, the US, France, Great Britain, Canada, Finland, and the Czech Republic. A trend that may alarm one is that, while Russians preferred going to the world's leading universities most of the time before, right now they tend to enroll in colleges that are *not* ranked that high globally (Agranovich et al., 2009). This could be due to the following reasons: getting a higher education in foreign colleges is oftentimes a better deal than going to a Russian college, based on the price to quality ratio; the theoretical and linguistic preparation level of Russian school graduates does not allow many to be worthy candidates for attending the world's top universities; getting an education overseas is viewed by many Russians as not just a way to receive a quality education but also a rung on the ladder to a career outside Russia.

Currently, Russia enrolls just about 5 % of all foreign students enrolled around the globe. This is comparable to figures reported for such nations as New Zealand and South Africa. Having said that, Russian higher education has huge export potential (Lobov, 2014).

China. Russia and the US are currently evincing a similar trend towards the expansion of college partnership with China.

China's system of education goes back into remote antiquity. Confucius laid down its deep spiritual principles as early as the 6<sup>th</sup> century BC. Some 3,000 disciples of Confucius passed his legacy along from generation to generation. Being educated has always been held in high regard in China. There is a multi-tier system of college admission allowing only the best members of Chinese society enroll in the nation's top educational institutions.

In February, 1993, China launched the implementation of an educational program grounded in the principles of decentralization and taking account of the needs of the labor market. The following four key principles of reforming the college system were declared: joint development, restructuring, merging, and cooperation.

Over the last decade, the volume of state support for research in China has been increasing by 20 % per annum, with the number of Chinese colleges more than doubling over the same period (Garusova, Piginshcheva, 2013). The government has been investing funds in support for the nation's 39 largest universities with a view to turning them into world-class colleges. Chinese colleges have received additional government support (about \$6 billion) and are looking for dependable college partners prepared to engage in implementing joint programs in the area of education and science.

China's entry into the WTO has given a new impetus to the development of transnational educational programs in China – primarily, joint programs run by Chinese and foreign colleges. In addition, new emphasis has been laid on the export of Chinese education as not just an instrument for expanding Chinese influence through the use of “soft power” but also a source of greater profits for Chinese colleges.

China is mainly attractive to foreigners because of the opportunity to learn foreign languages – Chinese and English. Most foreigners go to China to learn the language and, maybe, “take some commercial course in passing”. Most universities offer Chinese courses for foreigners: short-term (ranging from a week to half a year) and long-term (a year and up). After a year-long preparation period, all subjects are taught in Chinese.

Very few have the courage to go for a full-scale higher education, mostly due to the language barrier. But the barrier is quite overcomeable: a third of all foreigners who study in China do so in order to get a diploma of higher education and a postgraduate degree. Most of them are representatives of the Chinese diaspora from Asian countries. In an effort to attract Europeans and Americans, special courses are put together where a portion of subjects are taught in English.

About half of China's foreign students major in the Humanities: Chinese Language and Culture, International Economics and Trade, and Chinese Philosophy. Most of the foreign students come from the Republic of Korea (33 %), followed by Japan (9.5 %), the US (7.5 %), Vietnam (5 %), and Thailand (3.7 %). Russians account for about 3.5 %, which is around 7,000 students, including those who have completed language courses.

Based on data from China's Ministry of Education, over the last 20 years China has sent nearly 350,000 of its own citizens to over 100 countries across the globe and has received over 380,000 foreigners. Currently, there are over 1,500 universities in China, 544 of which provide instruction to foreign students in various disciplines and the Chinese language.

At the moment, there are several forms the internationalization of Chinese education has taken on: sending Chinese students and instructors overseas; bringing in foreign instructors, professors, and researchers; bringing in foreign students to China, both at their own expense and via a vast system of grants; developing joint educational programs in partnership with foreign colleges; employing the double diploma system; using modular education overseas; implementing foreign textbooks and bilingual curricula in the educational process; opening up foreign linguistic centers.

The Chinese government does its best to stimulate the inflow of foreign students to China, its foreign student government scholarship quotas expected to have doubled by the year 2020. These measures will allow Chinese colleges to acquire an international status and stimulate the development of the nation's education system.

According to China's Ministry of Education, the reason behind growing interest in studying in China is the nation's phenomenal economic growth, as well as understanding that speaking Chinese may expand considerably one's career opportunities. Increases in the number of incoming foreign students also reflect growing interest in China as Asia's historical and cultural center.

Several times a year China holds an exam testing one's knowledge of Chinese, called the Hànyǔ Shuǐpíng Kǎoshì (HSK) test (an analogue of the American TOEFL test). The exam can be taken by anyone. It checks one's communication skills, as well as one's oral and written knowledge of Chinese. By taking the exam, one can have one's linguistic level assessed, an HSK certificate being a nice asset when applying for a job.

Studying in China is cheaper than going to most foreign universities and even those in Moscow. The average price is \$2,000–3,000 per year (several times higher at elite colleges). Attending linguistic courses costs about \$300–500 per month.

Despite its lower rankings, Moscow is currently losing the price rivalry to China. One year of study at Moscow State University of Economics, Statistics, and Informatics (MESI) costs \$3,750, while the price for enrolling in the Department of Economics at Moscow State University is \$6000. To compare, it costs yearly 1.5 times less to attend Peking University, which ranks several dozen positions higher than the former (Zlobin, 2007).

There are two types of scholarships (grants) for foreign students: full and partial. Students with full scholarship are exempt from paying tuition, insurance, and registration fees and are entitled to free dorm lodging and some money to cover their pocket expenses. For undergraduates this amount is 1,400 yuan, for graduates it is 1,700 yuan, and for postgraduates it is 2,000 yuan. Newly arrived students also get 1,000 yuan (those attending one term) or 1,500 yuan (2 terms and more) as a way to help them settle down.

The “cheap implies poor quality” stereotype is becoming obsolete with respect to not just China-made consumer goods but Chinese higher education as well: diligent students are helped in China to secure a comfortable berth in life (Getting your MBA, 2006).

The introduction of the English language and textbooks in English into the Chinese educational process reflects global trends. The need to align with global standards requires getting an insight into the world’s best practices, something that is not always available in the Chinese language. Chinese colleges are actively adopting top foreign methodological solutions.

Research interest in the experience of the development and internationalization of continuing education in China is, on the one hand, associated with the fact that China’s colleges tend to copy and be oriented towards European and Western models, while, on the other, China manages to retain its national traditions in the area of education. It is this balance that has determined, in large part, China’s achievements in the area.

The Republic of Korea. Korea’s system of education comprises three stages: general secondary education, secondary special education, and higher education. General secondary education commences at the age of 6 and lasts through the first 6 grades. There is a single curriculum for all students.

This is followed by the second stage – secondary special education, which incorporates not only mandatory disciplines but lets you select specific subjects of interest to you, which gives you the opportunity to decide in advance on your future occupation. This stage has a timeframe of 2 years.

Institutions of higher learning include higher schools, colleges, and universities. The length of study at colleges is from 2 to 4 years (undergraduates). In addition, one can also pursue a Master’s degree (1.5–2 years) and a Doctorate degree (2–3 years). Your Master’s major must be the same as your Bachelor’s one. The academic year in Korea begins in March. The spring term lasts for 16 weeks and ends in June. After a break from school in July, you resume your studies during the fall term, which starts in August and lasts until January.

To enroll in a university in Korea, you have to pass a special general test, an analogue of Russia’s Unified State Exam. Private colleges have their own procedure for admitting students.

Korea’s colleges have a clear-cut hierarchy in terms of ratings, for which reason the way diplomas awarded are rated can also vary significantly. All of Korea’s citizens, just like foreigners, can receive a higher education both in Korean and in English. To receive instruction in English, all entrants must pass a unified language exam. Each college offers multi-level English courses completing which can boost significantly your chances of passing the unified language exam.

Currently, private colleges are the most popular type of institution of higher learning in Korea. To enroll in them, you will need to have a secondary education certificate and an English language certificate.

Until recently, foreigners were allowed to get only their Bachelor’s or Master’s degree in Korea. However, currently foreigners can also pursue a Doctorate degree in certain disciplines. The roster of majors available to foreigners is somewhat narrow. Among the areas that are particularly popular among foreigners in Korea, due to the high quality of education in them, are IT, programming, and Web design.

The major advantages of study in Korea is its relatively low cost (\$7,000 to \$10,000 per year, exclusive, of course, of prestigious universities and majors), the opportunity to acquire knowledge used within rewarding and promising trades, the use of cutting-edge pedagogical and information technology, and quite a high quality of education.

Classrooms in Korea are equipped with information technology, computer equipment, and free 24-hour Internet access. Lectures are conducted in the form of presentations, with instructors sending all study materials to students by email. There are a sufficient number of labs for practical classes. Foreign students can take their internships at the nation's top factories alongside local students ([Why does study in Korea facilitate successful career growth?](#))

Among the major characteristics of study at some of Korea's universities is the opportunity to do your on-the-job training at major, globally recognized Korean companies, like Hyundai, LG, and Samsung, which is quite attractive to many foreign students. In addition, Korea retains its deep cultural traditions, with which foreign students have the chance to familiarize themselves while in college. What may impress one particularly much is the synthesis of ancient culture and cutting-edge technology.

Japan. Higher education in Japan incorporates getting a Bachelor's degree (4 years), a Master's degree (2 years), and a Doctorate degree (3 years). Medical/pharmaceutical departments do not offer Bachelor's degrees. Getting a basic higher education in them takes 6 years and getting a Doctorate degree takes 4–5 years.

Japan has 3 types of university: national, public, and private. Free higher education is hardly offered anywhere. Based on data for 2011, out of 2,880,000 students at Japanese colleges just around 100 received a scholarship from the Japanese government. Scholarships are granted only to the most talented students and the least financially advantaged ones. Note that these funds are subject to repayment and do not cover all of your tuition costs (Education in Japan, n. d).

According to the QS World University Rankings, the world's top 100 universities in the 2014–2015 academic year included: Tokyo University (ranked 31<sup>st</sup>), Kyoto University (36<sup>th</sup>), Osaka University (55<sup>th</sup>), Tokyo University of Technology (68<sup>th</sup>), and Tohoku University (71<sup>st</sup>) ([Topuniversities, 2014](#)).

The academic year commences in Japan in April. Classes are held Monday through Friday, rarely on Saturdays, which varies from college to college. The academic year consists of three trimesters which are separated from each other by brief college breaks, in spring and in winter, while there is a month-long break in summer, normally in July or in August. There are also academic years divided into 2 terms with breaks in spring and in fall. The leadership of Tokyo University was going to divide, as of 2015, the academic year into 4 terms two months long each ([University of Tokyo, 2013](#)). A number of universities in Japan have plans to switch within a 4-year period to a new system of classes whereby the academic year will begin in fall (on the 1<sup>st</sup> of September). This implies an attempt to get the Japanese academic year to share a common denominator with the academic years of foreign colleges and a willingness to prepare a generation of globally oriented graduates.

Moving the beginning of the academic year to fall will facilitate a better inflow of foreign students, who are a lucrative source of revenue for Japan's colleges. Around 70 % of the world's colleges commence their academic year in September–October. Currently, the number of foreign students studying in Japan is just about 2 %, which is also due to the somewhat peculiar characteristics of the Japanese system of education. There are plans to adapt, in the near future, Japan's education system to match the requirements of the global one, which should help increase, as planned, the number of foreign students to 10 % of all students at Japanese colleges.

Education for students in Japan is their personal responsibility. At the majority of Japanese universities there are no strict rules and no attendance is taken, students allowed to come to class at any time, even when there is just 10 minutes left in the lesson. What matters the most is that the student has hands-on exposure to the material and passes through all the established types of control.

Japan's system of higher education is divided into 4 major types of educational institution ([Moryakov, 2002](#)):

1. Full-cycle universities. The basic length of study is 4 years, while at the Department of Medicine and that of Veterinary Medicine it is 6 years. On completing the basic 4-year course of study at the university, graduates can then pursue their Master's or Doctorate degree.

2. Fast-track universities. The length of study is between 2 (for nurses) and 3 years. About 60% of all students at these universities are females. One can major in foreign languages, literature, pedagogy, social welfare/protection, and economics.

3. Occupational colleges. These institutions are oriented towards those keen to receive a narrowly technical education. The length of study is no more than 3 years.

4. Technical institutes. The length of study is 5 years. These institutions provide technical and technological training and turn out engineers and researchers for areas associated with the development of innovation technology, microelectronics, etc. They also train merchant navy specialists.

Japanese colleges have a unique institution, well-known around the world, called “kenkyūsei” (“research students”): students pursuing a postgraduate degree have the opportunity to engage in research work in a specific area they have chosen for a period of 6 months to 1 academic year.

There are 3 major types of research student in Japan:

- students who are keen to achieve a scientific result within their university in addition to the basic 4-year education;
- students who continue their study at a different university via an agreement with the university where they pursued the primary course of study;
- foreign students who can be admitted to the university both to be trained for taking entrance exams and to engage in specific research – for a period of 1 term to 2 years.

At present, Japan’s 20–30 private universities and a portion of its state colleges provide foreign students with the opportunity to receive a higher education in a fast-track fashion. State and private foundations provide scholarships and other types of financial aid on terms prescribed for students pursuing a full-cycle course of study. Students who demonstrate a good command of the Japanese language are allowed to attend lectures given to Japanese students at the college. However, most of the time, to save time instruction is provided to foreign students in English. Short-term variants of study in Japan are mostly oriented towards learning Japanese, studying Japanese culture, management, and economics.

Foreign students’ tuition costs include entrance exam fees, tuition fees, and the cost of textbooks and computer equipment and range from \$5,000 to \$12,000 (depending on the college’s prestige).

Among the priority dimensions for boosting the quality of Japan’s higher education is the ‘Global 30’ plan, launched by the Japanese government in 2008. It aims to have brought in 300,000 foreign students by 2020. There are 30 of Japan’s top universities selected for this purpose (Pododimenko, 2013). The CAMPUS Asia (Collective Action for Mobility Program of University Students) program was initiated by Japan’s government, industry, and universities with a view to boosting the nation’s partnership with its closest neighbors, China and South Korea.

Japan is among the world’s most highly developed countries. It ranks 2<sup>nd</sup>–3<sup>rd</sup> globally on the volume of investment in the system of education (Education in Japan, 2014). Young Japanese people, normally, wish to go to no other than a Japanese college, and, only if they fail to get admitted to one, they start considering the possibility of pursuing a course of study at a foreign university. This is not only and not so much about patriotism as it is about the prestigiousness of Japanese universities and one’s prospects of getting a job and starting a career in the future.

Nevertheless, Japanese education is quite accessible to foreigners, thanks to Japan’s well-conducted foreign policy, which welcomes foreign students. The internationalization of education helps Japan promote its culture, foster a favorable image for its nation, and prepare young specialists who afterwards will work with Japan in the various areas of activity.

#### **4. Conclusion**

Recent years have seen many international agreements in the area of education intended to facilitate international partnership. Thus, for instance, in an effort to encourage multilateral partnership there was set up an institution known as UMAP (University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific), expected to facilitate effective international academic student mobility in the Asia Pacific region through the use of its credit transfer scheme (UCTS, UMAP Credit Transfer Scheme). In November, 2010, there was held the first conference on Pioneering ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) Higher Education Research Clusters. It was decided that the first 3 clusters would concentrate on health care and medicine and be coordinated by Singapore and Thailand; agriculture and food, with Vietnam, Thailand, and Malaysia at the core; and energy, environment, and biodiversity, with the Philippines and Indonesia acting as the research



coordinators. Thus, we will have the best research teams from different countries working to maximize the effect of scientific/pedagogical work of the entire community (Vincent-Lancrin, 2010b).

There are three future scenarios for the internationalization of higher education:

1) sustainably diverse internationalization, which implies the use of the afore-mentioned 4 strategies for internationalization while retaining the diversity of higher education systems from the standpoint of institutional autonomy, terms of admission, and funding;

2) convergence in the direction of the liberal model, which is based on the principles of trade and implies competing to bring in foreign students prepared to pay for their tuition at market prices;

3) the triumph of developing economies, which implies that taking a strategic approach to the development of human capital and knowledge will help former “developing economies” achieve proper economic growth and high competitiveness for their education systems – both in terms of quality and tuition costs.

An analysis of the area of education internationalization reveals that nations which have led the way historically in the international market of educational services tend to limit foreigners’ access to the labor market within the higher education sector and give preference to foreign specialists with a unique set of competencies. By contrast, countries aspiring to bolster their standing in the international market of educational services, including all of the nations examined in this article, do not tend to establish strict requirements for foreign candidates – they try to ease the complexities and restrictions associated with the foreigner’s employment and stay in the country.

The development of the system of higher education in Russia, China, the Republic of Korea, and Japan, as well as measures for attracting foreign students (migration policy, tuition cost and quality, security issues), could have a major impact on today’s market of international educational services.

## 5. Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge with gratitude the organizers of the following major international conferences held in 2015–2016 at Far Eastern Federal University: Cross-Border Markets of Goods and Services: Issues in Research; Continuing Pedagogical Education: Its Condition, Issues, and Prospects; History of, Issues in, and Prospects for the Development of Modern Civilization; Science and Education in the Life of Modern Society; and others. These events have aroused interest in this topic, shown its relevance, and helped gather and discuss vast material on comparative pedagogy.

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