Conference Paper

Towards Knowledge Economy: A Comparative Study of Indonesian and South Korean Internationalization of Higher Education

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Abstract

Rapid development of information and technology in this globalization era has driven the transition of world economy, from previously labor and market economy to knowledge economy. Nation-states’ global competitiveness is measured partly by the number of highly educated people within its society. By becoming “world-class”, universities are believed to play an important role to boost a country’s competitiveness level. This paper discusses the internationalization of higher education as one of important instruments in achieving the goal to create knowledge-based economy. This study identifies the internationalization initiatives of the Indonesian and South Korean governments from national level, and universities from institutional level. The objective of taking South Korea as comparison to Indonesia is because both countries are middle power and non-English speaking Asian countries, which started their internationalization in early 2000s with the same aspirations: higher education reform towards knowledge economy. The results show that both Indonesia and South Korea have a state-led internationalization, with more advance development and achievement in South Korean case. In the case of Indonesia, Indonesia still faces challenges such as the competitive regional arrangement in ASEAN; the dilemma between quantitative targets and quality assurance of internationalization initiatives such as international publication, patents, and international students; also the challenge to create more detail programs and strategies other than just financial supports from government to widen up the other aspects of internationalization efforts. However, with the internationalization agenda rising in many countries, Indonesia has the opportunity to take a lesson from other countries’ experiences, including from South Korea.

Keywords: internationalization, higher education, knowledge economy, Indonesia, South Korea
1. Introduction

Discourse on internationalization of higher education is very closely related with globalization. Globalization entails the opening up and coming together of business, trade and economic activities between nations (Maringe and Foskett, 2010: 1). It has resulted in the intensification of people’s connectivity and also development of information and technology. It has also shifted the previously labor and market economy to the knowledge-based economy. This development of knowledge power is one vigorous example of how globalization also derives a powerful transition in higher education (HE) and in the nature of universities.\[11\]

The changing nature of higher education and universities is shown on how nation-states’ global competitiveness is measured partly by the number of highly educated people within its society. By becoming “world-class” and enlisted in the global ranking, universities are believed to play an important role to boost a country’s competitiveness level. Here internationalization of higher education becomes the key instrument to achieve that goal. Internationalization is referred to the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary educations (Knight, 2004: 11). Internationalization process include various strategies and programs that could be divided into national, sectoral and institutional levels of initiatives. These range from recruitment of international students, student and staff exchange programs, development of international partnerships for teaching, development of collaborative partnerships for research, to the curriculum internationalization (Maringe in Maringe and Foskett, 2010: 28).

Developed countries in the West such as United States, United Kingdom, France, Germany, Canada and Australia, also Japan in the East Asia have been pursuing internationalization in earlier period [11]. Following the boost up of national economies and the transformation process to build knowledge economy, other Asian and Latin-American countries are also trying to pursue the same thing. One Asian countries that has seriously taken strides to internationalize its higher education is South Korea. Since early 2000s, South Korea has been actively doing the internationalization of its higher education as an effort to be an educational hub in Asia, providing highly competitive universities with world-known reputation. The other country that is making the same effort is Indonesia. As the emerging economy that play a significant role in Asia (especially in South East Asia), Indonesia through their government initiatives started to build their vision of building world-class universities within the country. However, although it was started in almost the same period, there is a gap within
the speed and the result of internationalization in Indonesia and South Korea. South Korea is considered successful in pursuing their goal of internationalization, mainly by the fast rising of global ranking position of several best universities in the country. While Indonesia is still struggling in making its aspiration into reality.

Based on the context given previously, this paper will discuss the internationalization of higher education as one of important instruments in achieving the goal to create knowledge-based economy, with comparison between Indonesian and South Korean cases. The research is going to draw and describe the similarities and differences between the internationalization efforts of the two countries. In the conclusion, by learning from the current assessment of internationalization in both countries, this paper will also try to discuss about the future challenges and opportunities of Indonesian internationalization of higher education.

2. Method and Design

This research paper uses descriptive-comparative qualitative approach, emphasizing on in-depth knowledge and on the refinement and elaboration of images which appropriate for several goals of social research [35]. Literature reviews are the main instrument conducted in this research, and internationalization as the main concept taken is sensitized and analyzed by taking two countries as case study of comparison. Indonesia and South Korea are chosen based on two main objectives.

First, the two countries are counted as middle power, and member of the G20, also recently make an informal grouping of middle power countries named MIKTA, together with Mexico, Turkey and Australia [13]. In their region, both Indonesia and South Korea are playing an important rule on economic and security balancing. Towards recent years and in the future, there are stronger relationships between Indonesia and Korea in so many aspects, ranging from economic, security, to social culture –including education cooperation–.

Second, South Korea and Indonesia are non-English speaking countries that have the same aspirations in internationalizing their higher education. South Korea began their efforts as early as 1990s period, however it was considered unsuccessful due to the financial crisis that hit Asia during 1997s. The government of South Korea under the Ministry of Education then assessed a five-year education development plan of transitioning into a knowledge-based society as one of six major policy goals. [11]. While on the other hand, Indonesia has started to realize the importance of internationalization since early 2000s, so the government compiled a Higher Education Long Term
Strategic (HELTS) 2003-2010, focusing on how to boost up the reputation of Indonesian universities. The strategies include how to increase country’s competitiveness level, autonomy and decentralization, also the good governance of institutions [41].

3. Internationalization of Higher Education: A Conceptual Approach

Internationalization of higher education has a very close relation with globalization. Altbach et al. (2009) states that internationalization is defined as the variety of policies and programs that universities and governments implement to respond to globalization. Knight (2005) mentions several elements of globalization in which implicating the internationalization of higher education. Those elements are knowledge society; information and communication technologies; market economy; trade liberalization; and changes in governance structure. These changes affect all aspects of internationalization, including the teaching process and curriculum, student and academic mobility, the cross-border delivery of education programs, international development projects, and the study of foreign languages, commercial trade, and staff development [21]. Van Damme in Taylor (2010) also identifies four key tendencies in which higher education relates with globalization: the creation of ‘new and tremendously important demands and exigencies towards universities as knowledge centers’; ‘an increase in demand for higher education worldwide’; ‘an erosion of national regulatory and policy frameworks’; and the emerging borderless higher education market (Taylor in Maringe and Foskett, 2010: 84).

Internationalization as well as globalization, does not have a singular definition. Different approach could describe internationalization differently. The evolution of the term could be traced back in the late 1980s when Arum and van de Water (1992) approached internationalization from institutional level as “the multiple activities, programs and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation” (Arum and van de Water in Knight, 2004:9). The comprehensive definition given by Knight covers both national/sector level and institutional level of internationalization. Internationalization defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education (Knight, 2004:11). Knight emphasizes in three core terms: international; intercultural and global dimensions. The sense of relations between countries or nation-states as well cultures represented by ‘international’, and as internationalization also relates to diversity of cultures that exist within countries,
communities and institutions, the term ‘intercultural’ is applied. For ‘global’ dimension, it is included to give the sense of worldwide scope. All fill each other characterizes the affluence in the sphere of internationalization.

As for the approach, Knight and de Wit (1999 in Knight, 2005) suggest six approaches to internationalization at the institutional level: activity, outcomes, and rationales, process, at home / campus bases, and abroad / cross-border. In national and structural level, approaches vary from programs, rationales, ad-hoc, policies and strategies [22]. For the rationales of internationalization, structured clusters were suggested by Knight and de Wit (1997 in Qiang, 2003), which are: political rationale; economic rationale; academic rationale and cultural-social rationale. In 2002, de Wit updated the detail of each category [22].

For the rationales of internationalization, structured clusters were suggested by Knight and de Wit (1997 in Qiang, 2003), which are: political rationale; economic rationale; academic rationale and cultural-social rationale. In 2002, de Wit updated the detail of each category [22]. Political rationale relates to issues respecting the nation-states such as foreign policy, national security, peace and mutual understanding, national identity, and regional identity. Economic rationale refers to issues like economic growth and competitiveness, labor market, financial incentives. Academic rationale comprises the objectives such as international dimension to research and teaching; extension of academic horizons; institution building; profile and status; enhancement of quality and international academic standards. Lastly, cultural-social rationale identifies issues regarding national cultural identity, intercultural understanding, citizenship development, and social and community development.

Another development arose when Knight (2004) suggest that rationales of internationalization could vary and different between national and institutional level. For national-level, some emerging important rationales are human resource development or brain power, strategic alliances, commercial trade, nation building and social-cultural development. As for institutional-level, the driving rationales in internationalization are international branding and profile, income generation, student and staff development, strategic alliances and knowledge production.

Despite all classifications, it is hard to generalize rationales of internationalization between institutions or governments. The different processes of internationalization, whether it is bottom-up or top-down approach, or combination between both, are contributing to the complexity of international dimensions of higher education. With the shifts and varieties of rationales in internationalization, it is very crucial for the stakeholder and actor of internationalization to be clear in articulating its motivations, because policies, programs, strategies and outcomes are all associated and regulated by explicit or/and implicit rationales [22].

The internationalization as process has many types of models and strategies. For model, one of the most frequently used is the model by Knight and de Wit (1995)
that see internationalization not as a linear process but a continuous cycle. This cycle attempts to identify the steps or phases in the process of integrating the international dimension into the university or college culture and system. It consists of six phases: awareness; commitment; planning; operationalization; review and reinforcement, of which an institution would step with its own phase, it also enables the possibility of two-way flow and sequence between phases. As for strategies, it also can be exerted in various ways. Foskett (2010 in Maringe and Foskett, 2010) pinpoints a model of university internationalization strategy which consists of five types of strategies. Those five types are: domestic universities; imperialist universities; internationally aware university; internationally engaged universities; and internationally focused universities. The last mentioned, the internationally focused universities, are the type of universities that have shown a transformational cultural change, with high degree of achievement in many dimensions. They are firm and capable in both internationalizations at home and internationalization abroad.

For another consideration, Shin and Kehm (2013) also examine the different strategies of building world-class university depend on the features of higher education system, the use of English as instructional language and the context of economic development and internationalization of their academics. Even though their research is not precisely mentioning internationalization strategies, it would be meaningful to mention their arguments. As they identify, internationalization is directly reflected in global ranking indicators (Shin and Kehm, 2010:8), and this internationalization is one dimension of how world-class university is classified. This research is taking a national level approach that comparing the world-class universities’ strategies based on country stratum.

According to this research, some countries are considered as objects, which classified between advanced or developing higher education systems, English-speaking or non-English speaking countries, high or low economic development, and high or low internationalization of their academics. Germany, France and Japan are included to non-English speaking, advanced higher education system, high economic but low internationalized academics’ countries. For this classification, the strategies would be capacity upgrading for research productivity with selection and concentration strategy. Korea, China and Taiwan are classified as non-English speaking, developing higher education system and high /middle economic with high/middle level of internationalized academics’ countries. For Korea and Taiwan which are higher economies, the strategies are capacity incubation of research productivity and selection and concentration strategy. As for China, other than capacity incubation, attracting foreign academics is
also one strategy to add. They then take Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong as three English-speaking countries with developing higher education system. For Malaysia which has middle economy yet highly internationalized academics, the strategies are more emphasized in attracting foreign academics with less weight in research, that is why the selection and concentration strategy of research is not applied yet. For Singapore and Hong Kong with higher economies, the strategies are also attracting research productive foreign academics to enhance their research productivities, in spite of lack application in selection and concentration of research. Here we can see, how better economic countries can allocate more funding for costly research. Level of research productivity as strategy depends on the economic development of the country.

4. Making World Class Universities: Case of Indonesia

The history of international education activity in Indonesia has started before the independence of the country, where there were Indonesian students and academics mobility to foreign universities in Netherlands during Dutch colonial era. Most of them were granted scholarships from the Dutch Kingdom due to the Ethic Politics as repayment for the pribumi (Indonesian native), showing the moral obligation from colonial government to them. After gaining independence in 1945, Indonesia’s first formal public university was declared in 1950 named Universiteit Indonesia (UI). This university now also becomes one of the leading universities in Indonesia that also has an advance level of internationalization compared to other Indonesian universities.

The Indonesian government addressed several policy changing in managing the higher education, research and technology sectors. Before 1961, higher education sector was part of the Department of Education, Teaching, and Culture, but then separated into the Department of Higher Education and Sciences (DEPARTIP) for only one year [16]. Started from 1962, the management of higher education and research were separated into two ministries. Higher education sector was again managed under the Ministry of Education, while Ministry of Research and Technology were focusing on research and technology. In 2014, under the Joko Widodo’s leadership, the Directorate General of Higher Education that previously was a part of Ministry of Education and Culture was transferred and integrated into Ministry of Research and Technology. In 2015, the Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education (Kemenristekdikti) was formally established.
After the establishment of many universities, both public and private ones, international education activities had begun to develop further. Universities were able to develop agreements abroad, also manage students and faculty members’ mobility and exchange. During mid-1970s the Indonesian government started to structuralize a formal strategic framework in management of higher education sector. The Long Term Framework of Development of Higher Education (KPPTJP) was first made in 1978, aiming to prepare universities in giving its best role to face future challenges. With the influence of globalization, the third KPPTJP was made for 1996-2005 period, identifying three significant issues: the needs for the model of universities management that can respond the change dynamics; the necessity to use quality and relevance as a basic for development programs of higher education; and the need to accommodate the equal opportunities to access education, from geographical and social aspects [36].

However, before the KTTJP 1996-2005 was completed, The Asian financial and monetary crisis in 1997 became the factor that changed the direction. With the decentralization approach of governance, the management of higher education also was changed, the Directorate General of Higher Education (DIKTI) made the KTTJP 2003-2010 with the title Higher Education Long Term Strategy (HELTS) 2003-2010. The focus of this strategy lies on three main policies, which are nation’s competitiveness; autonomy and decentralization; and organizational health. In 2003, the assessment showed that Indonesian universities were not listed in 500 best universities in the global universities ranking, indicating their low competitiveness level compared to other universities globally. Not just that, the data from Shanghai Jiao Tong University Institute of Higher Education 2003 also showed that in Asia, none of Indonesian universities were enlisted in the top 100 Asian universities (Dikti, 2003). Based on this assessment, HELTS 2003-2010 clearly mentioned the importance to maximize the role of universities to deliver a good knowledge transfer and to create innovations in building the knowledge-based economy (Dikti, 2003). HELTS 2003-2010 stated several achievement strategies to boost the role of universities in creating a knowledge-based economy and in enhancing the nation’s competitiveness. Those strategies are: universities missions’ diversification (teaching university, research university, or both); cooperation and partnership; increased accessibility; better quality of learning process; research and public service; accreditation and certification; teachers’ training; art higher education; and internationalization of academic programs.

Based on the strategic framework in HELTS 2003-2010, another government’s regulations were made to support the goal to increase the global competitiveness level of Indonesia, one of them was to build World Class Universities (WCU). Building
WCU means universities are expected to increase the quality of teaching excellence, research excellences, international reputations, international students and academics, innovations and collaborations. The target was to made Indonesian top universities enlisted in the world university ranking made by the international accreditation bodies such as Times Higher Education (THE), Quacquarelli Simonds (QS), and Shanghai Jiao Tao Ranking (SJT).

To increase international cooperation and partnership is also another step of internationalization process, so based on the Ministry of Education Regulation no. 26/2007 and Government Regulation no. 17/2010, universities are encouraged to establish the International Office/ International Cooperation Office (UB International Office, 2016). These offices in universities acted as the main engine of internationalization initiatives. Another initiative also taken by conducting seminars and socializations on internationalization of universities in many institutions. Universities made their own strategic plan in certain periods, in their way to achieve the goal of being internationally acknowledged. Several leading universities such as Universitas Indonesia (UI), Universitas Gadjah Mada (UGM), Institut Teknologi Bandung (ITB), Institut Pertanian Bogor (IPB) and Universitas Brawijaya (UB) are now opening joint degree programs with universities abroad, also opening programs for international students.

Within the period of 2009-2014, the management of Indonesian education and higher education was focusing on making several strategies, still including the enhancement of nation’s competitiveness level within it. The real targets in higher education includes the increase of international publications, researches, also intellectual property rights and patents. Entering 2015, with the new managerial of merging between Ministry of Research and Technology and Directorate General of Higher Education, one of the focus of the Strategic Plan of Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education (Kemenristekdikti) is to increase the Indonesian universities’ reputation toward World Class University (WCU). The programs are made especially for five potential universities to be enlisted in top 500 world universities using QS version, after in 2015 there are nine universities in Indonesia got into top 800 positions [16]. The Kemenristekdikti prepared four schemes of the programs, which are: 1) attending workshop and international conferences arranged by the QS World University Ranking (QS), Times Higher Education (THE), and Shanghai Jiao Tong Ranking (SJT); 2) making socialization and workshop about World University Ranking in five potential Indonesian universities to be enlisted in top 500 QS WUR; 3) collecting, evaluating, presenting the data via those five potential universities’ websites; and 4) monitoring and evaluating those potential universities.
The efforts from the Kemenristekdikti to maintain and enhance the higher education quality in Indonesia to be enlisted in the top 500 world position are taken through several strategies, one of the most significant is “special funding scheme’ [16]. This funding is based on the academic reputation achievement, especially when the universities are successful to be in top 500 world university ranking or top 200 Asian university ranking. In institutional level, following the national regulations of universities status, eleven state or public universities have changed their legal status into independent institutions named Perguruan Tinggi Negeri Berbadan Hukum (PTN-BH), means those universities are given the authorities and autonomies in governing their institutions to enhance their accountabilities and competitiveness (These eleven universities are Universitas Gadjah Mada (UGM), Universitas Indonesia (UI), Institut Teknologi Bandung (ITB), Institut Pertanian Bogor (IPB), Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia (UPI), Universitas Sumatra Utara (USU), Universitas Airlangga (UNAIR), Universitas Diponegoro (UNDIP), Universitas Hasanuddin (UNHAS), Universitas Padjadjaran (UNPAD), and Institut Teknologi Sepuluh November (ITS) [46]. These eleven PTN-BH universities are expected to be World Class University and encouraged to accelerate the improvement of management and leadership [48]. Five of them -- who are given the special funding scheme --, are the potential universities targeted to enter 500 best universities world ranking mentioned in previous paragraph.

The other efforts rely on the government level initiatives to widen up the number of international cooperation on research that resulted in higher mobility of students, lecturers and researchers, also joint research and joint degree programs. Together with this, the government-led funding varies in several types of researches, to boost the productivity of research and innovation. Research grants are given in at sixteen (16) schemes, which is expected could lead to higher number of publications and patents registered [16]. The other target is to develop the number of lecturers or faculty members with doctoral degrees, so the government manage several scholarship schemes such as Pendidikan Magister Menuju Doktor untuk Sarjana Unggul (PMMDSU) in several states universities, also Beasiswa Unggulan Dosen Indonesia (BUDI) managed by Lembaga Pengelola Dana Pendidikan (LPDP). In the end, all of these initiatives from government and universities are exercised to achieve the goal of increasing nation’s global competitiveness level.
5. Becoming the Hub: Case of South Korea

The early development of international education in South Korea is closely related to the outbound mobility of Korean students that pursuing their higher education abroad, mainly to the United States. However, in regard of building nations capacity after colonialism period, the government pursued a national policy to control this outbound mobility (Byun and Kim, 2010 in Dewi, 2014). Further stage of internationalization started to take place after the liberalization of overseas travel for ordinary citizens, which by then individual and universities were able to develop exchange program and study abroad agreements.

With the development of South Korean economy in mid-1990s and some socio-economic changes that happened during that period, the internationalization policy within the nation has changed towards a knowledge-based one. Some of the important events that contributed to the major reform including education are the participation of South Korea to the WTO in 1995, to OECD in 1996, Asian financial crisis in 1997 and changing of political power with Kim Dae Jung’s election in 1998. Creating and enhancing the competitiveness of Korea’s knowledge production has become priority of the government.

The educational reform policy of South Korean government could be assessed from Kim Young Sam (1993-1998) period where the government established the Presidential Commission on Educational Reform (PCER) and implemented two important policies that were the “Initial Plan for Opening the Higher Education Market to Foreign Countries” and the “May 31 Education Reform Plan of 1995”. Main focuses were made including to increase the number of international students in Korea. Unfortunately, due to the Asian financial crisis in 1997 the initiatives did not consider successful.

Another important development of was the policy shifting of internationalization that previously focused on out bound student’s mobility to in bound approach, with the target to create a knowledge based economy becoming one of the major policy goals during Kim Dae Jung’s era [11]. Improving quality of education and intensifying research also taken into serious account, so that the government launched several programs to support and generate productive researches. Brain Korea 21 (BK 21) was one of the research-support programs where in its first phase, over $1.2 billion investments were given within seven years to the universities (Kim and Moon, 2001:99).

Several notable developments of internationalization policies in national level could be traced during Roh Moo Hyun administration (2003-2008), where the national level educational initiative relied on the concentration, specialization and diversification of
research. Here the improvement of international competitiveness of higher education ranking, employment rates of graduate, knowledge transfers between industry and academia were designed as target to be achieved in 2010 (MOE 2005 in KEDI, 2006:17). Another phase of BK 21 project was launched in 2006, also the first phase of Study Korea Project (SKP). The SKP is aimed to recruit 50,000 international students by 2010 in Korea also to increase the percentage proportion of international students from 0.3 to 1 percent by 2010 (MEST 2007 in Wang 2012:27).

The higher education policies’ objective during Lee Myung Bak (2008-2013) period were focusing on three aspects [26]. First is to reinforce the educational capacity of higher education institution. Second is to set its core strategy to raise the autonomy and accountability of higher education institutions. Third is to raise and boost the research capacity of higher education institutions. To achieve the objective, the major policy initiatives are: 1) restructuring the higher education sector; 2) more financial investment in higher education; 3) formula grants for enhancing higher education capacity; 4) continued efforts to expand higher education autonomy; 5) expanding the admissions officer system; 6) higher education information disclosure; evaluation and accreditation; 7) nurturing world class research-oriented universities; and 8) intensive support for graduate-level research [26].

The need to enhance the competitive strength of Korean higher education has driven the national-institutional level initiatives in internationalization. Another priority is in international student recruitment at both national and institutional level. According to Byun and Kim (2010) as cited in Wang (2012), the scope of internationalization of Korean higher education is in three major implementation strategies: 1) Active Mass Recruitment; 2) Internationalization of Curricula, and 3) Internationalization of Research. This scope of major implementation strategies then delivered by several programs which relate and support each other.

The Active Mass Recruitment strategy is a respond given to overcome the dilemma of high level of outbound student mobility and declining domestic student enrollment in Korean higher education institutions. The Study Korea Project was first implemented in 2004 as a main program to recruit international students [44]. The goal was to attract 50,000 international students to Korea by 2010. In order to boost the branding and popularity of Korea as a desirable study abroad destination, the government reorganized and optimized the function of National Institute of International Education (NIIED). The NIIED acted as an executive agency under the MOE, plays a leading role in strengthening national competitiveness by developing international human resources among overseas Koreans, exchanging students under national government scholarship
As there was an unexpected soar of international students’ number in Korea around 49,270 by 2007, the government decided to set the new goal to attract up to 100,000 international students by 2012. The newest target is set up in 2012, the Study Korea Project 2020, is aiming to attract up to 200,000 international students by 2020.

Together with the SKP, the government scholarship scheme is also implemented with the brand Global Korea Scholarship (GKS). The GKS is expected to contribute not only to the cultivation and utilization of quality human resources overseas but also to the establishment of a Korea-friendly global human network down the road [44]. In 2010, the government was invested around KRW 51.5 billion to support the additional 2,100 new scholarship holders under the program [44]. “Study Korea” emerged as national brand [44], and the outstanding achievement of the SKP and GKS is mentioned to be coincidently contributed from the right timing of Korean Wave commodification during that period [42].

The second implementation strategy is the Internationalization of Curricula. For this point, the adaptation of English Medium Instruction (EMI) policy is considered to be the most rationale option, since the role and scope of English as lingua franca has expanded tremendously during the past few decades. Byun et al (2011) pin points that after the release of SKP in 2004, “EMI has since begun to assume a prominent role in Korean universities’ internationalization policies”. This is of course a challenge for the non-English speaking countries in internationalizing its higher education, but then the Korean government has taken several steps to incorporate English into the core functions of the universities: education and research (Byun et al, 2011: 435). Parallel with the enactment of SKP, the government allocated more than KRW 200 million won from 2005-2007, funding the financial support to universities offering EMI. The Korean government also linked its evaluation for project such as BK21 to the EMI proportion within all courses offered by university, to encourage the universities to offer EMI courses (Byun et al, 2011: 435). EMI policy in Korea is not just delivered in regular courses within colleges and department in universities. Before the expansive number of EMI rose in the middle of 2000s, the establishment of Graduate School of International Studies (GSIS) in 1997, where almost all courses conducted in English, was also one compelling EMI program.

The last implementation strategies are the internationalization of research. This strategy is being avoidable measurement taken to boost the level of international competitiveness in the era of knowledge-based economy. There are several government initiatives to support research productivity of Korean universities and academic units.
The BK21 project in 1999-2005 and in 2006-2012 were designed to build world-class research universities as a hub of knowledge production for the knowledge society (Shin 2009a in Shin and Jang, 2013:150). The BK21 project is also aiming to upgrade the research infrastructure and graduate-level training of higher education institutions [26]. The other similar project is the World-Class University (WCU) project launched in 2008. Under this project, financial support for universities is provided to recruit the top-notch international researchers to collaborate with Korean researchers, contributing innovation to education and research environment of Korean universities [26].

Additional to these two main projects (BK21 and WCU), the Korean government also provides support for soft disciplines research, humanities and social sciences. In 2008, the Humanity Korea project was launched, with total budget around $400 million USD given within 2008-2015 for 56 project teams (Shin and Jang, 2013: 152). In 2010, the Korean government launched the Social Science Korea project, giving $120 million USD within nine-year period (Shin and Jang 2013:152).

5.1. Towards knowledge economy: Comparison between Indonesia and South Korea

By assessing the development, policies and programs of Indonesian and South Korean internationalization of their higher education, it is appropriate address the comparison of several characteristics between both cases. Table 1 shows analysis of comparison from author, which on the general features, the similarity is on how both countries are non-English speaking countries with different level of higher education system, economic and development, also the degree of internationalized academics. Then from the initiation actors, the internationalization process in Indonesia and Korea are dominated by national-level or state-led internationalization. In Indonesia, the major policy can be seen in the national regulation Act number 12, year 2012 about Higher Education, which within the clauses about internationalization are included in the form of international cooperation, foreign language medium instruction courses, etc. Another initiative also shown in the Strategic Plan of Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education (2015-2019), mentioning the targets of making Indonesian top higher education institutions into World Class Universities. The policy, programs, also financial supports and incentives from the government and universities also showing how government plays a significant role in internationalization process in Indonesia.
For South Korea, ranging from SKP, GKS, EMI, BK21, WCU, Humanity Korea into Social Science Korea project, it is all included into the research funding national-level initiatives which mainly dominated by the financial support. However, the mission differentiation and governance reforms also should be taken into account as proactive initiatives of internationalization [40]. This state-led internationalization also articulated by Wang (2012: 23) as the rapid top-down quantitative expansion, making internationalization as a strategic political tool in international competitiveness and legitimacy. By putting target in number, desire to achieve the global ranking position and notable international reputation, the Korean government also Korean universities seemed to obsess with quantitative measurement rather than qualitative consolidation.

The next characteristic is the rationales of internationalization. In both Indonesia and South Korea, enhancing nation’s competitiveness or global competitiveness index is one similarity. The difference lies on how South Korean has economic rationale due to the financial crisis that hit Korea in 1997 (Byun and Kim, 2010). To minimize the educational trade deficit, internationalization was prioritized as the main tool. The demographic change of Korean population in general and in the freshman-age student population is also another crucial factor that has driven the government to increase the number of international students in Korea (Lee, 2013; Byun and Kim, 2010). Revenue issues were the concerned for particularly private institutions in relatively small cities in the region located outside Seoul (Byun and Kim, 2010; Kim and Choi, 2007). Economic rationale is dominant in those institutions, as their survived on tuition fees from student as primary income (Lee, 2012; Byun and Kim, 2010). As for the universities with stronger base, considered as “elite” institutions which mostly located in metropolitan region, the economic rationale is not as dominant as it is in regional private universities [19]. In Indonesia, economic rationale is not the main rationale, as the country still working on how to increase the higher education participatory level of the people, also to enhance the capacity of Indonesian higher education institutions. Surely, international branding and profiling are appeared as rationale both in Indonesia and South Korea.

Another point of comparison is the targets made by the government and universities in World Class University scheme. Indonesia seems very realistic by only targeting into top 500 world universities ranking by QS, while South Korea has a bigger ambition in achieving a higher position, top 100 worldwide. This difference is not really surprising, since the struggle between two countries are totally different. While top Korean universities already have a very good quality of higher education and enlisted into world’s top 200-500 universities, what they need to do enhance their competitive strength
Table 1: Comparison between Indonesian and South Korean Cases of Internationalization.

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<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>South Korea</th>
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<td>General Features</td>
<td>Developing higher education systems, non-English speaking country, middle economic development, low internationalization of academics.</td>
<td>Developing towards advance higher education systems, non-English speaking country, high economic development, middle towards high internationalization of academics.</td>
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<td>Level of Initiatives</td>
<td>State-led internationalization</td>
<td>State-led internationalization</td>
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<td>Rationales</td>
<td>- Enhance nation’s competitiveness in knowledge-based economy</td>
<td>- Enhance nation’s competitiveness in knowledge-based economy</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Enhance the capacity of Indonesian higher education</td>
<td>- Enhance the competitive strength of Korean higher education</td>
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<td>- International Branding and Profile</td>
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<td>- Economic rationale (Income Generate)</td>
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<td>Targets/ Focus</td>
<td>- Potential universities enlisted into top 500 QS WUR in 2019</td>
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<td>- To attract up to 200,000 international students by 2020</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scope of Strategies and Programs</td>
<td>- Internationalization of research (special research funding, international publications, patents)</td>
<td>- Active Mass Recruitment (International Students, International faculty members)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Faculty members/ Lecturers Capacity Enhancement</td>
<td>- Internationalization of Curricula (Including English Medium Instruction Courses, Inviting foreign faculty members, Joint Degree)</td>
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<td>- Outward-dominated internationalization of students and faculty members mobility (Joint Degree Programs, International Class)</td>
<td>- Internationalization of research (Joint Research, international indexing)</td>
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<td>- Inward and Outward Internationalization of students and faculty member mobility</td>
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to top universities abroad in top 100 ranking. On the other hand, Indonesia is still struggling in ensuring quality assurance and enhancing the capacity of the institutions it selves. International students and faculty body within the universities are also one point to be measured in world university ranking assessment. While some Indonesian universities also putting this international body’s recruitment into their action plan of
internationalization, it is not on the same level with the aspiration of Korean active mass recruitment, targeting 20,000 international students in 2020.

As for scope of strategies and programs, both Indonesia and South Korea shared similar patterns in internationalization of research and funding or grants. But South Korea has a more organized and diverse types of programs to achieve different targets or goals. For example, the Study Korea Project (SKP) is aimed to attract the international students. While BK21, WCU, Humanities Korea, Social Science Korea are focusing in research related programs and grants. English Medium Instructions (EMI) and the establishment of Graduate School of International Studies (GSIS) in several universities are aimed to support the goal of international students’ recruitment as well the internationalization curricula efforts. Indonesia in contrary, seems still in an early development of finding internationalization patterns. Even though the aspirations to build World Class University and knowledge-based society has addressed since early 2000s, but the actions taken so far is not showing an impressive result yet. The programs and strategies are not diverse and deep enough to achieve the goals and targets. For example, universities are expected to invite international bodies but, there is no government level policy to support this aspiration clearly.

6. Conclusion: Future Challenges and Opportunities of Indonesian Internationalization of Higher Education

This paper has discussed the comparative study of Indonesian and South Korean internationalization of higher education. Based on the descriptive-comparative analysis given previously, it is shown that both Indonesia and South Korea have a stateled internationalization, with more advance development and achievement in South Korean case. With the target in 2019 for five potential universities in Indonesia to be enlisted in the top 500 QS World University Ranking, challenges and opportunities are inevitable. The challenges could vary from: the regional arrangement such as ASEAN Community post-2015 where other ASEAN Universities also aspiring the similar targets; the dilemma between quantitative targets and quality assurance of internationalization initiatives such as international publication, patents, and international students; also the challenge to create more detail programs and strategies other than just financial supports from government to widen up the other aspects of internationalization efforts. On the other hand, opportunities are also available such as diverse partnership and collaboration with other institutions home and abroad, ranging from government institutions to business or private parties. Also, with the internationalization agenda
rising in many countries, Indonesia has the opportunity to take a lesson from other countries’ experiences. This will broaden up the perspective of internationalization efforts that could be best applied in Indonesia.

References


News and Articles


