

外国人大学教員の採用に関する国際比較研究

**Research in International Faculty Members' Recruitment in the
International and Comparative Perspectives**

(課題番号 15H05200)

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はじめに

本中間報告書は平成 27 年度から 28 年度にかけて行われた科学研究費「外国人大学教員の採用に関する国際比較研究」による研究成果をまとめたものである。

本研究は、諸外国・地域における外国人大学教員の採用にかかわる政策・現状・課題・効果を国際比較の観点から明らかにすることを通して、日本における外国人大学教員の採用に関する今後の改革方策に一定の知見を提示することを目的とする。具体的には、①欧州、オーストラリア、アジア諸国・地域における外国人大学教員の採用にかかわる政策、国や機関レベルにおける雇用条件・支援体制を分析し、複数のケーススタディを行う。②外国人大学教員の採用方法やその効果を検討することで、日本の大学における外国人教員採用の現状を明らかにしたうえで、特に進むべき方向性及び改革方策を示唆する。

1990 年代後半以降、社会や経済のグローバル化の進展に伴い、高等教育における国際的流動性が高まる中、欧米をはじめとする諸外国においては留学生数の拡大とともに、外国人教員の採用をめぐる新しい国際化戦略も開始されつつある。日本においても、文科省が平成 12 年度に「グローバル化時代に求められる高等教育のあり方について」（答申）を公表し、グローバル化の進展を受け、教員公募の対象を海外に拡大することなどにより、優秀な外国人教員の積極的採用を進めて教員構成の国際化を図る必要性が謳われた。近年、日本の多くの大学は、国際競争力向上と世界的に魅力ある大学の形成を目指し、研究力と教育力の強化を両輪に海外から外国人教員を引き付ける様々な改革の試みを進めている。

しかし、**QS World University Rankings** や **Times Higher Education** 等における欧米主要諸国の世界トップ 100 大学と比較すると、日本の大学教員に占める外国人の比率が極めて低く、日本の大学教育と研究の国際的通用性は依然として低いと言わざるを得ない。にもかかわらず、外国人教員の採用に関する研究は、一部（例えば、米澤彰純 石田賢示（2012）「日本の大学の外国人教員：その行動と意識」広島大学高等教育研究開発センター）を除いてほとんど進んでおらず、特に海外大学における外国人教員採用に関する比較研究は僅少である。日本の大学教育の国際的通用性・共通性の向上、とりわけ今後の日本の大学教員の国際化のあり方について探ろうとする研究はあまり進んでいない。

本研究では、近年の外国人教員の採用を中心とする高等教育国際化に関する理論や学説を整理しつつ、イギリス、オランダ、オーストラリア、中国、韓国、シンガポール、マレーシア、香港における外国人教員の採用に関する政策レベル・機関レベルの取組状況、その特徴及び類型に関する比較的研究を行う。本研究は、大学教育における外国人教員採用の位置づけを解明したうえで、外国人教員の採用が大学教育の国際通用性の向上、国際競争力の強化、魅力ある大学の形成といかなる関係性を有しているかを明らかにする。すな

わち、大学での外国人教員の採用戦略がいかにその国の高等教育の国際化、特に研究と教育の質向上の一部を形成し、どのようなかたちで当該国における国際的に魅力ある大学の形成に影響を与えているのか、さらに、各国・地域における外国人教員に関する個別大学の方針、雇用条件、昇進状況、支援体制等について整理した上で日本の課題を明らかにし、政策的示唆を提示する。

以上の目的を達成するため、本研究は、まず、先行研究の検討を通して高等教育国際化や大学教授職の国際化に関する理論を整理し、世界的動向をマッピングする。その上で、日本との比較の上で有効で、かつ、外国人大学教員の採用の活動が盛んに進められている国として、イギリス、オランダ、オーストラリア、中国、韓国、シンガポール、マレーシア、香港を対象に、各国・地域の外国人大学教員の採用に関する背景や政策、改革動向、国や機関レベルにおける支援制度を考察する。これらの大学の事例を取り上げ、外国人大学教員の採用の効果と課題、当該国の大学における国際的研究と教育の通用性の向上と国際的に魅力がある大学の形成との関係に焦点をあてて、日本の大学にとって参考になる点について比較研究を行う（図1参照）。

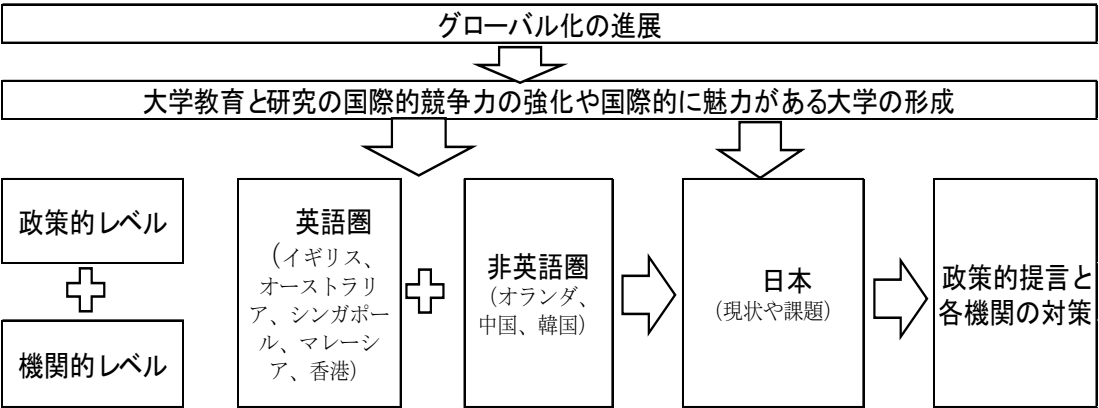


図1 分析枠組み

平成 29 年 4 月

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合計：15,730 千円

学会や国際会議での研究発表

(口頭発表)

1. Huang, F., “Landscape of Asian Academic Profession in Selected Systems”, presentation at *The 3rd Asia Pacific Higher Education Research Association Conference* on 21-22 May 2015 in New Taipei City, Taiwan.
2. Huang, F., “Competing for World-Class in Selected Asian Systems”, presentation at *The 6th Biennial Symposium: Educational Innovations in Countries around the World* on 30 June – 2nd. July 2015, Seattle Pacific University, USA.
3. 黄 福涛, “New Trends of Internationalization”, 『2015 同済高等教育国際化論壇会議』大会報告, 2015 年 10 月 20-21 日, 同済大学。
4. Huang, F., “Foreign Faculty Members in Japanese Universities: Changes and Challenges”, presentation at *The 4th Higher Education Research Association Conference on “Equity, Employment, and Mobility in Asian Higher Education”* on 27-28 May 2016 at the University of Hong Kong.
5. 黄 福涛・大 膳司, 「外国人大学教員の採用に関する国際比較研究(1) 一日中の大学教員・職員へのインタビュー調査結果を中心として」第 19 回日本高等教育学会大会, 2016 年 6 月 25 日, 追手門学院大学。
6. Huang, F., “The Internationalization of the Academy: Major findings from two international surveys”, presentation at *The First International Meeting on the Global State of Young Scientists in Africa* on 10-11 July 2016 in Mauritius.
7. Huang, F., “The International Mobility of Faculty Members: Focusing on the Recruitment of International Faculty Members in Japan and China”, presentation at *The 17th International Conference on Education Research* on 13, October 2016 in Seoul National University, Korea.
8. 黄 福涛, “International Mobility of Faculty Members: Changes and Trends” 『2016 同済高等教育国際化論壇会議』大会報告, 2016 年 10 月 19-20 日, 同済大学。
9. 黄 福涛, 「日本高等教育国際化-変化と挑戦-」『大学国際化発展論壇』「峨嵋 2016」大会報告, 2016 年 11 月 30 日, 西南交通大学。
10. Huang, F., “An Analysis of International Faculty Members in Japanese Universities”, presentation at *International Symposium on Transnationalization of Higher Education in East Asia: Student/Faculty Mobility, Talent Competition and University Governance* on 31, March 2017 at Lingnan University, Hong Kong.

記事や研究論文

1. Huang, F., (2017). “Internationalisation lifts the Dutch HE brand globally”, *University World News*, 27 February.
2. Huang, F., “Are Chinese PhDs becoming like US doctorates?”, *University World News*, 21 March.
3. Huang, F., (2007). “International Academics in the Netherlands: Changes, characteristics and implication”, *Higher Education Forum Vol. 14*, Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University, pp. 79- 95.

国際ワークショップ

International Workshop

TITLE:

Foreign Academics Recruitment and Integration in the International and Comparative Perspectives

DATES:

- Monday, June 27, 2016

LOCATION:

- Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University

All speakers will talk for 20 minutes and leave 10 minutes for discussion

WORKSHOP PROGRAM

9:00am

Welcome and Introductions

Futao HUANG, Hiroshima University, Japan

Workshop Proceedings: Chair: Tsukasa Daizen, Hiroshima University, Japan

9:05am

Paper 1: Akira ARIMOTO, Hyogo University, Japan

“A Tentative Study on the Recruitment of Foreign Academics in Japanese Academia”

9:35am

Paper 2: Jung Cheol SHIN, Seoul National University, Korea

“Acculturation of Foreign Degree Holders in Korean Universities”

10:05am **Paper 3:** Chang Da WAN, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia
 “International Academics in Malaysia: Recruitment and Integration”

10:35am *Tea break*

10:45am **Paper 4:** Shuangye CHEN, Chinese University of Hong Kong, China
 “Foreign Academics in Hong Kong: Strategies and Realities”

11:15am **Paper 5:** Akiyoshi YONEZAWA, Tohoku University, Japan
 “Foreign University Faculties in Japan: A Quantitative Survey”

11:45am Plan of Interviews in Singapore: Taiji HOTTA, Hiroshima University, Japan

12:00pm **LUNCH BREAK**

Workshop Proceedings: Chair: Akiyoshi YONEZAWA, Tohoku University, Japan

1:30pm **Paper 6:** Kazuhiro SUGIMOTO, Tohoku University, Japan
 “Recruitment of International Academics at Tohoku University: Policy and New Challenges”

2:00pm **Paper 7:** Min LI, Shinsyu University, Japan
 “The role expectations of international academics in Japan: A case study of a national university in local regions”

2:30pm **Paper 8:** Tsukasa DAIZEN, Hiroshima University, Japan
 “History and present condition of the recruitment of international academics in Japan: Macro and micro analysis”

3:00pm **Paper 9:** Futao HUANG, Hiroshima University, Japan
 “Foreign Academics Recruitment and Integration in China: National Strategies and Institutional Practice”

3:30pm *Tea break*

Workshop Proceedings: Chair: Futao HUANG, Hiroshima University, Japan

3:45pm **Discussions on Questionnaire and Future Research Plan**

4:45pm Adjourn

5:30pm **GROUP DINNER**

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1. A Tentative Study on the Recruitment of Foreign Academics in Japanese Academia

Akira Arimoto

In general, university has had a characteristic of international orientation as shown in a phenomenon of mobility in both academics and students in some 900-year history of university from its establishment in the medieval age until today. However, distinction between the domestic universities and the foreign universities have started since the 19th century when the modern university was institutionalized in the individual country. As a result distinction between the domestic academics and the foreign academics who are born in the foreign countries has been developed gradually since then.

In the case of Japan, mentality of paying attention to the universities in the advanced countries has affected strongly in the academic culture in Tokyo University established in 1877 and *Teikoku Daigaku* (Imperial University) established in 1886 to the extent that they imported a lot of academics from the Western advanced countries such as the U.K. Germany, France, and the U.S. The weight of foreign academics who were usually invited by the national government, which were called as “Oyatoi gaikokujin”, was high due to their prestige and expertise in the fields of academic discipline. In this sense, it might be said that internationalization had been promoted mostly at this stage of Meiji Era in more than a century of Japanese higher education history.

However, almost all posts of academics in the universities were occupied by the domestic academics since a trend was occurred gradually with the fact that returnees were recruited into the academic posts. This trend has been lasted constantly until today when the share of foreign academics occupying the academic posts is as few as more or less than 5%. However, in the age of globalization as today, every university is necessarily expected to transform from the internationally closed structure to opened structure as much as possible.

In this context, this paper intends to testify positively university’s possibility to globalization as a case study.

I . Framework of research

1. Openness and closeness structure of university

Figure 1 Openness and closeness structure of university: International comparison

History of university	Middle Age University →Modern University	Modern University →Present day University	Present day University →Future University
International trend	Universalization	Universalization	Globalization
Japanese trend	×	Internationalization →National isolation	Groping for globalization→ ?

Figure 1 “Openness and closeness structure of university: International comparison” intends to make a comparison of globalization between the international trend and the Japanese trend on the basis of an overview on university’s history in the world. According to this international comparative perspective, an international trend

proclaimed universalization of universities in both the middle age and early-modern age. In these ages, nothing was given at all to the trend of universalization in Japan, since there were no universities comparable to those in the West.

International trend proclaimed universalization in the ages of modern and present-day university, while the Japanese universities proclaimed internationalization for the first stage of their institutionalization because it attempted to catch up with the university models developed in the advanced countries but for the second stage the Japanese universities plunged into the state of closing doors to the foreigners, or the state of national isolation.

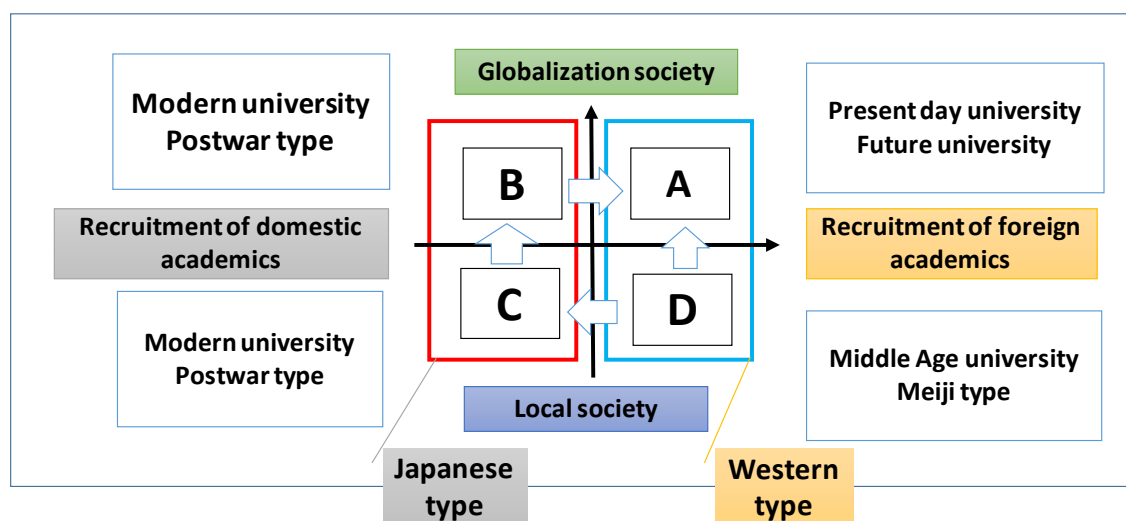
In the transformation age from the present day university to the future university, international trend is pursuing globalization so that the Japanese universities are reaching at last at the state of groping for globalization. However, in the 21st century, it is not predictable how much extent the Japanese universities will realize globalization, although they have just started their movement in that direction.

As described previously, an international trend of university is suggesting that a lot of universities in the World have developed usually in attempt to send their own academics and students to the centers of learning in the world (Ben-David,1977; Shin, Toutkoushian and Teichler, 2011 ; Ishikawa, 2016; Arimoto, 1996, 2016).

2. An International comparison of the recruitment of foreign academics

Figure 2 “An International comparison of the recruitment of foreign academics: Japanese type and Western type” intends to compare a historical transformation of the recruitment of foreign academics between Japan and the West. It intends to place a vertical axis indicating the transformation from local society to globalization society and a horizontal axis indicating the transformation from the recruitment of domestic academics to that of foreign academics, making cross these two axes.

**Figure 2 International comparison of recruitment of foreign academics:
Japanese type and West type**



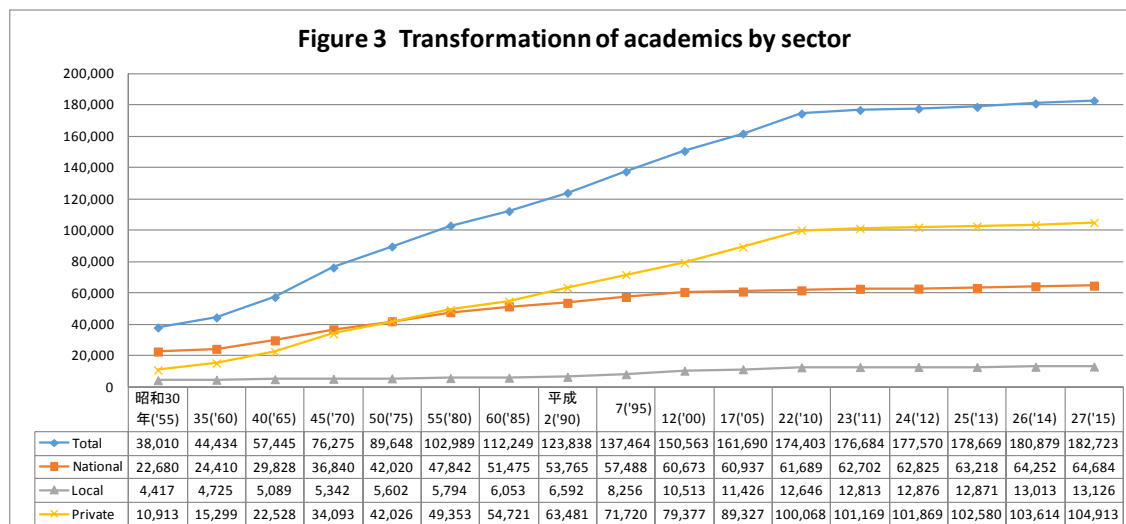
In general, the western type has formed an openness society by institutionalizing the recruit of foreign academics from the local society of the Middle Age University to the globalization society of the present-day university and future university.

On the other hand, Japan recruited actively the foreign academics at the early stage of modern university in Meiji era, forming a closeness society in the postwar time by recruiting the domestic academics instead of the foreign academics mainly in the universities and colleges. Accordingly, the western type transformed from type D to type A, while the Japanese type transformed from type D to type C. The latter is now groping for type A by way of type B.

As we will see later, globalization was still slowing proceeding 25 years ago around 1990 when the climate of universities was still in the state of type B after type C staying in the local society. The foreign academics recruited in the Japanese universities at that time had an impression of closeness to the students and academics. One survey conducted in 1955 described an opinion of such foreign academics toward students and academics. Their impressions to the students are as follows: they have no opinion 62 (44.3%); they have no identity 55 (39.3%); they control themselves well 55 (39.3%); they do not study 44 (31.4%); they have no aim 39 (27.9%) (Jo, 1995, p.95).

Their impressions to the academics are as follows: they control themselves well 63(48.8%); they have strong selfness 49 (38.0%); they are kind 49 (38.0%); they are calm 26 (20.0%); they have no identity (17.8%); they are passive 14 (10.9%) (Ibid.). These opinions have perhaps changed in the past 25 years in the process of globalization, or transformation from closeness to openness society, in which foreign academics increased their numbers in the recruitment in the Japanese universities.

As a result, the world universities are observable from both perspectives of the openness society and closeness society. The former is involved in an active exchange with the centers of learning in the World by sending the academics and students, making mutual interaction between them in terms



of knowledge and the best brains of academics and students (Ben-David. 1977). It forms a climate seeking a community of universalism and commonness on the basis of values such as universalism, cosmopolitanism, and achievement. On the contrary, the closeness society's climate seeking particularism, heterogeneity, insider-ism, academic inbreeding on the basis of values such as particularism, localism, and ascription (Merton, 1973; Shinbori, 1965, 1984; Arimoto, 1981, 2015).

3. Full time of academics by the types of position in Japan

(1) Sector

As **Table 1** (Full-time teachers by type of position) and **Figure 3** (Transformation of academics by sector) show, the number of academics increased 4.8 times in 60 years from 38,010 in 1955 to 182,723 in 2015. As for the sectors, the share of national sector decreased from 59.7% (22,680) to 35.4% (64,684), that of local sector decreased from 11.6% (4,417) to 7.2% (13,126), and that of private sector increased from 28.7% (10,913) to 57.4% (104,913). In these years, the national sector decreased to one sixth, while the

Table 2 Composition of male and female academics by position

Position	Total	Male	Female	Female(%)
	182,723	140,290	42,433	23
President	745	669	76	10
Vice President	1,232	1,118	114	9
Professor	69,325	58,960	10,365	15
Asso. Professor	43,185	33,118	10,067	23
Lecturer	21,142	14,459	6,683	32
Assist. Professor	41,275	29,430	11,845	29
Research Assist.	5,819	2,536	3,283	56

Source: MEXT (2015)

private sector increased two times. This fact testifies the private sector's dominant role in the massification stage of higher education development in Japan.

(2) Gender

Among these statistics, the female academics increased 4.5 times from 5.2% (1,979) in 1955 to 23.2% (42,433) in 2015.

Table 2 shows the composition of male and female academics by position in 2015. Percentage of female in each position is as follows: president, 10%; vice president, 9%; professor, 15%; associate professor, 23%; lecturer, 32%; assistant professor, 29%; research assistant, 56%. Percentage is lower in the higher position such as president, vice president, and professor, while it is higher in the lower position such as research assistant, assistant professor, and lecturer. There is a kind of law in a sense that it is working as lower percentage in the higher position and higher percentage in the lower position.

4. Trend of the recruitment of foreign academics

Table 1 Full-time Teachers by Type of Position						
大 学 <Universities>						
区 分	計	う ち 女	国 立	公 立	私 立	女の割合 (%)
	Total	Female	National	Local	Private	Percentage of female
昭和30年('55)	38,010	1,979	22,680	4,417	10,913	5.2
35('60)	44,434	2,693	24,410	4,725	15,299	6.1
40('65)	57,445	4,233	29,828	5,089	22,528	7.4
45('70)	76,275	6,454	36,840	5,342	34,093	8.5
50('75)	89,648	7,535	42,020	5,602	42,026	8.4
55('80)	102,989	8,630	47,842	5,794	49,353	8.4
60('85)	112,249	9,582	51,475	6,053	54,721	8.5
平成 2('90)	123,838	11,399	53,765	6,592	63,481	9.2
7('95)	137,464	14,752	57,488	8,256	71,720	10.7
12('00)	150,563	20,314	60,673	10,513	79,377	13.5
17('05)	161,690	26,950	60,937	11,426	89,327	16.7
22('10)	174,403	35,054	61,689	12,646	100,068	20.1
23('11)	176,684	36,424	62,702	12,813	101,169	20.6
24('12)	177,570	37,720	62,825	12,876	101,869	21.2
25('13)	178,669	39,030	63,218	12,871	102,580	21.8
26('14)	180,879	40,744	64,252	13,013	103,614	22.5
27('15)	182,723	42,433	64,684	13,126	104,913	23.2
学 長 President	745	76	86	85	574	10.2
副学長 Vice-president	1,232	114	405	108	719	9.3
教 授 Professor	69,325	10,365	21,826	4,383	43,116	15.0
准教授 Associate professor	43,185	10,067	18,233	3,734	21,218	23.3
講 師 Lecturer	21,142	6,683	5,055	1,707	14,380	31.6
助 教 Assistant professor	41,275	11,845	18,423	2,726	20,126	28.7
助 手 Assistant	5,819	3,283	656	383	4,780	56.4
(再掲) (recounted)						
大学院担当者 Graduate school teacher	105,264	16,894	53,353	8,151	43,760	16.0
外国人教員 Non-Japanese nationals	7,735	2,151	2,574	514	4,647	27.8
(別掲)						
兼務者 Part-time	196,623	58,498	39,986	14,735	141,902	29.8
うち外国人教員 of which non-Japanese nationals	13,021	4,644	2,276	866	9,879	35.7

Source: MEXT (2015)

The academics of the non-Japanese nationals increased 3.2 times from 2,415 in 1991 to 7,735 in 2015. They occupied 4.2% in all the academic staff (182, 723) in 2015, while they occupied 1.9% (2,415) in all the academic staff (126, 445) in 1991. They increased 2.2 times in these 24 years.

The female academics of the non-Japanese nationals (2,151) occupied 1.2% in all the academic staff in 2015, while they (497) occupied 0.4% in all the academic staff (126, 445) in 1991. They occupied 27.8% in all the foreign academics (7,735) in 2015, while they occupied 52.2% in all the foreign academics (2,415) in 1991. The female academics decreased 1.9 times in these years. It is interesting why the female foreign academics decreased despite the Japanese female academics was gradually increasing.

By the way, the researchers of the non-Japanese nationals have increased gradually. The total numbers of accepted researchers (37,351) in 2014 were 1.2 times of the total numbers (31,391) in 2004.

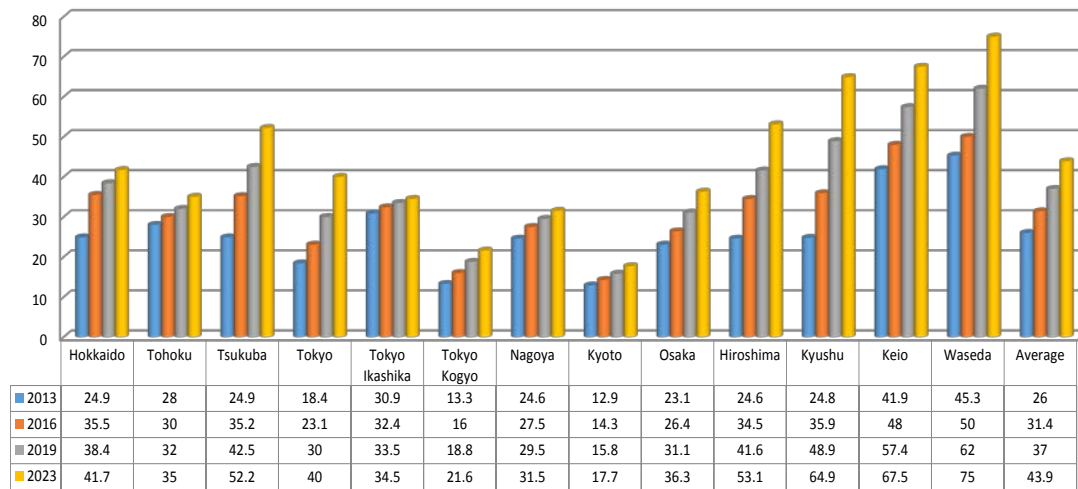
III. Case study of top 13 universities

1. Full time academics of the non-Japanese nationals and the domestic academics who are degree holders of the foreign universities

Figure 4 compares [Share of the academics of the non-Japanese nationals (foreign academics) and the domestic academics who obtain degrees in the foreign countries] by top 13 universities (Hokkaido= Hokkaido University; Tohoku= Tohoku University; Tsukuba= University of Tsukuba; Tokyo= University of Tokyo; Tokyo Ikashika= Tokyo Medical and Dental University; Tokyo Kogyo= Tokyo Institute of Technology; Nagoya= Nagoya University; Kyoto= Kyoto University; Osaka= Osaka University; Hiroshima= Hiroshima University; Kyushu= Kyushu University; Keio= Keio University; Waseda= Waseda University). Top 13 universities were selected by JSPS (Japan Society for Promotion of Science) as the leading institutions in order to promote globalization to the extent that they will be nominated in the best 100 universities in the World University Ranking. In the context of promoting globalization, recruiting the full time academics of the non-Japanese nationals is indispensable (Arimoto, 2015).

The data of 2013 (H25) displays the factual figures, while the data of other three years (2016, 2019, 2013) reveal the fictional figures in the future calculated by every university on the basis of their own ideas. These fictional percentages will be demonstrated clearly as true or false in the future by the factual figures. Currently, the figure is as it were a pancake drawn on picture.

Figure 4 Share of foreign academics and domestic academics who obtain degrees in foreign countries



Source: Top 13 universities (2013)

We can point out the following several remarks on the basis of the given figure.

(1)The figure does not show a strict category of the foreign academics occupied in all the academic staff. Namely, it contains the domestic academics other than the foreign academics, because it contains the domestic academics obtaining degrees in the foreign universities. It is interesting in this survey that a concept of globalization emphasizes generously not only the foreign academics obtaining the degrees in the foreign universities but also the domestic academics still obtaining the degrees in the foreign universities. In other words, both categories are used together as an indicator of globalization.

Every university is likely to increase the average percentage in 10 years from now on as shown in the fact that it increases 17.9% in ten years from 26.0% in 2013 to 43.9% in 2023.

(2)There are considerable gaps between the university with high percentage and the university with low percentage in terms of the foreign academics in all the academics, because the highest percentage (45.3%) is recognized in Waseda and the lowest percentage (12.9%) is in Kyoto. The percentage is high in Keio, Tokyo Ikashika, and Tsukuba following to Waseda, while the percentage is low in Tokyo Kogyo and Tokyo according to Kyoto.

(3)The highest increase is seen in Kyushu with 40.1% up from 24.8% to 64.9% in ten years, followed by Waseda with 29.7% up from 43.5% to 75.0%. On the other hand, the lowest increase is seen in Kyoto with 4.8% up from 12.9% to 17.7%.

2. Foreign academics

A consideration of the average percentage increase related to a category of the foreign academics is apparently different from a consideration of the average percentage increase related to a category of

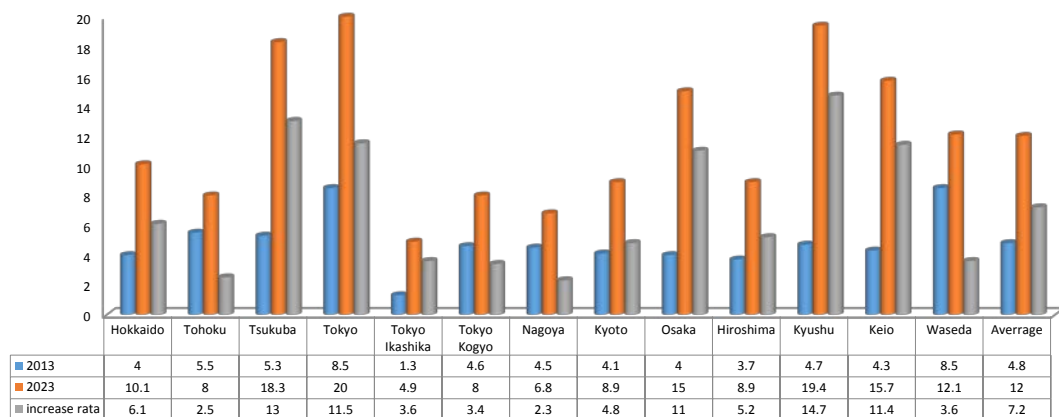
those obtaining degrees in the foreign universities.

- (1) As **Figure 5** (Percentage share of the foreign academics in 2013 and 2023 by the top 13) shows, among the average percentage (4.8%) of the foreign academics in all the academics in 2013, Tokyo and Waseda (8.5% each) are recognized as the highest percentage, followed by Tohoku (5.5%), Tsukuba (5.3%). On the contrary, Tokyo Ikashika (1.3%) is recognized at the lowest, followed by Hiroshima (3.7%), Hokkaido and Osaka (4.0% each), and Kyoto (4.1%).
- (2) The average percentage (7.2%) of the foreign academics in all the academics in 2023 reveals 2.4% increase rate in 10 years from 2013 to 2023. It means the annual increase rate of 0.2%, which is smaller than the annual increase rate (1.8%) in ten years in the case of figure including the additional domestic academics obtaining degrees in foreign countries mentioned previously.

In this context, it is clear that the substantial numbers of the foreign academics are still small absolutely so that it is likely to be difficult to increase these numbers in short time in the future, particularly in ten years interval.

- (3) In these circumstances, the increase rate is more than 10% in the five universities such as Kyushu (14.7%), Tsukuba (13.0%), Tokyo (11.5%), Keio (11.4%), and Osaka (11.0%). On the other hand, the increase rate is less than 5% in the five universities such as Nagoya (2.3%),

Figure 5 Percentage share of foreign academics in 2013 and 2023 by top 13 (%)



Source: Top 13 universities

Tohoku (2.5%), Tokyo Kogyo (3.4%), and Tokyo Ikashika and Waseda (3.6% each).

- (4) Among these trends, a good possibility of chance in the future seems to locate differently in the individual institution. For example, Tokyo and Waseda, which show the same rate of 8.5% in 2013, are the noticeable institutions, because the former increase to as many as 20% while the latter increase to only 12% in ten years from henceforth. There are differences of as many as two times between them. There must be a sufficient reason why the differences will occur in two institutions.

In addition to this, Kyushu is also noticeable, because it increases rapidly to as many as 19% with increase percentage of 14.7% from as small as 4.7%, which is almost equivalent to the

average percentage of all institutions (4.8%). The same kind of increase rate is recognized in another two institutions such as Keio increasing up to 16% and Osaka increasing up to 15%.

Concluding remarks:

The top 13 universities standing at the top of research universities in Japan are expected by Japanese society, especially MEXT, to become the top runners in the world as representing of the Japanese higher education institutions. In this context, we can get the interesting results by observing these institutions in their reality and ideal.

1. As far as the data is concerned, an indicator of globalization seems to be generous more than strict. In the indicator of globalization, which is gathered on the basis of outcome indicators related to MEXT's guideline such as [the share of the foreigners and the degree holders of foreign countries], the Japanese domestic academics obtaining degrees in the foreign universities are included in the category of globalization in addition to the foreign academics.
Probably, the Japanese domestic academics obtaining degrees in the foreign universities will be increased easily compared to the foreign academics. Accordingly, it is predictable that a recruitment of the foreign academics into the Japanese universities has been difficult thus far and such recruitment custom will not be changed easily in short time of ten years in the future.
2. According to the generous indicator [Share of academics of the non-Japanese nationals (foreign academics) and the domestic academics who obtain degrees in the foreign countries], globalization will be promoted by the top 13 universities with an annual increase rate of 1.8% in ten years interval from 2013 to 2023. However, a great deal of gap is observable between the universities in terms of high and low increase rates. Therefore, globalization is affected strongly by the characteristics proper to the individual university. Within ten years in the future, the highest increase rate is perhaps realized by Kyushu (from 24.8% to 64.9%), while the lowest increase rate is realized by Kyoto (from 12.9% to 17.7%) according to their own design.
3. The strict indicator of globalization reveals the low increase rate due to our paying attention to only foreign academics on the condition that our not paying attention to the domestic academics obtaining degrees in the foreign countries. The share of foreign academics in all the academics in the top 13 universities increase by 2.4% in ten years, because it is 7.2% in 2023, while the share was 4.8% in 2013. The generous indicator shows 1.8% annual increase rate, while the strict indicator shows only 0.24% annual increase rate.
4. In these circumstances, there is difference among the institutions to a considerable degree. The increase rate is more than 10% in the five universities such as Kyushu (14.7%), Tsukuba (13.0%), Tokyo (11.5%), Keio (11.4%), and Osaka (11.0%). On the other hand, the increase rate

is less than 5% in the five universities such as Nagoya (2.3%), Tohoku (2.5%), Tokyo Kogyo (3.4%), and Tokyo Ikashika and Waseda (3.6%).

5. Related to the above remark 4, a case study is needed with a focus on the universities giving much differences with regard to the increase rate. For example, a set of Tokyo and Waseda is one of such cases to be analyzed. There must be a reasonable reason why this difference will occur in two institutions. In addition, a set of Kyushu, Keio, and Osaka, which increases the globalization rate rapidly in ten years, is another one of such cases to be analyzed.

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2. History and Present Condition of the Recruitment of International Academics in Japan: Macro and Micro Analysis

Tsukasa DAIZEN

In Japan, the employment of international academics is promoted. There are three reasons to promote to employ them.

Firstly, because the Japanese universities are attempting to become the top 100th place university and recruit the excellent student from all over the world, they are trying to employ the international excellent academics.

Secondly, because the global economy is spreading in Japan and university is requested to grow up the Japanese students to be a global human resources, the university employ the international academics who are expected to teach the Japanese students in foreign language.

Thirdly, because university in Japan need to accept the overseas students for covering the empty of fixed numbers of student, university will employ the international academics who can open the class in English.

In the following, “The policy of acceptance of the foreign academics in Japan”, “The actual situation of acceptance of the foreign academics in Japan” and “The employment situation of foreign academics in the university with a high employment ratio of foreign academics” will be discussed.

1. The policy of acceptance of the foreign academics in Japan

Since the Meiji era, there was the system to recruit a foreigner as a teacher or a lecturer, but a foreigner was not able to take the full-time professor position in the public university.

"The Special Measures Law about the Recruitment of the Foreigner Academics in the National or Public University (The Law about the Recruitment of the Foreigner Academics)" was established as legislation introduced by a Diet member in September, 1982, for the purpose of planning the progress of education and research in the university, and contributing to the promotion of the international exchange.

Subsequently, in response to the Prime Minister Fukuda's address on his administrative policies made in January 2008, a new “Plan for 300,000 Exchange Students” is to be established and implemented, aiming to reach this goal by 2020. The recruitment of the foreign academics was suggested as one of the measures to accept many foreign students.

Aiming at the achievement of “Plan for 300,000 Exchange Students”, “Global 30” was carried out for training the high talented person who could play an active part globally in the environment that worked together in competition with a foreign student by carrying out the action for the globalization

of the university. In 13 universities adopted to global 30, 300 courses that can acquire a degree only by a class by English are established, and many foreign academics are employed.

Following this “Global 30”, to support universities that have top world-level education and research programs with an aim to bolster the international competitiveness of Japanese higher education and foster people capable of aggressively challenging global issues and playing active roles on the global stage, “University operations such as Super Global activities” such as “Go Global Japan Project”(from 2012 to 2016) or “Top Global University Project” (from 2014 to 2023) was developed from 2012. The adoption of the foreign academics is an important measure to achieve an aim of both projects.

In "Growth Strategy the second speech" that was carried out in Japanese academe on May 17, 2013, Prime Minister Abe made a speech of "In 8 national universities, we replace around 1,500 faculties with excellent researchers during the next three years. In this way the number of foreign academics doubles". These contents supported “Top Global University Project”.

2. The actual situation of acceptance of the foreign academics in Japan

The employment of the foreign academics in the Japanese university has been performed by a private university until the 1970s. After "The Special Measures Law about the Appointment of the Foreigner Academics in the National or Public University" was promulgated in 1982, the number of the employers of the foreign academics gradually increases in the public university.

Table 1 and Fig 1 is the ratio of foreign academics in Japan from 1955 to 2015.

After 1955, the foreign teacher ratio is a tendency to increase. When the ratio came to show a slight stagnation, the ratio increase again by the development of the globalization policies such as "An international exchange in education, research and culture" (report) of 1974, "The Low of Recruitment of the Foreign academics" of 1982 and “Plan for 300,000 Exchange Students” of 2008. The ratio of the Foreign Academics of 1982 when the Law about the Recruitment of the Foreigner Academics was established was approximately 1.2%. The ratio of the Foreign Academics of the private university was 1.7%.

The ratio of the foreign academics of the private university of 1955 when the oldest statistics document was confirmed was 2.6%. The ratio decreased slightly until 1982 when the Law about the Recruitment of the Foreigner Academics was established. Particularly the ration of the foreign professor is dramatically decreased.(from 4.6% to 1.4%).

After 1982 when the Law about the Recruitment of the Foreigner Academics was established, the ratio of the Foreign Academics of National university increased (0.7% in 1982, 1.5% in 1992, 2.6% in 2002, 3.2% in 2012, 4.0% in 2015).

The ratio of foreign academics in 2015 is 4.2%. The ratio of National univ. is 4.0%, Local univ. is

3.9% and Private univ. is 4.4%. The ratio of male foreign academics is 4.0% and female is 5.1%. The ration of female foreign academics is slightly high. The ratio of foreign academics by job rank is President 0.7%, Vice president 1.5%, Professor 3.3%, Associate professor 5.1%, Lecturer 8.1%, Assistant 3.2%. The job rank becomes higher; the ratio of foreign academic becomes lower.

Table 2 and Fig 2 is the number of the foreign academics from 1955 to 2015 by the provider. The number of the foreign teachers of the private university was slight increase after the World War II. The numbers increased acceleratingly since "The Low of Recruitment of the Foreign academics" of 1982 was established.

The number of the foreign academics of the national university decreased slightly for ten years from the late 1990s. During the years, the foreign academics were employed at private university.

The numbers increased since "The Low of Recruitment of the Foreign academics" of 1982 was established.

Table 1. The ratio of foreign academics in Japan from 1955 to 2015

	Academics	Foreign academics	The ratio of Foreign academics		Academics	Foreign academics	The ratio of Foreign academics
	(a)	(b)	(b)/(a)		(a)	(b)	(b)/(a)
1955	38,010	360	0.9%	1986	113,877	1,516	1.3%
1956	39,289	368	0.9%	1987	115,863	1,649	1.4%
1957	40,444	384	0.9%	1988	118,513	1,806	1.5%
1958	41,481	396	1.0%	1989	121,140	1,960	1.6%
1959	42,775	413	1.0%	1990	123,838	2,183	1.8%
1960	44,434	416	0.9%	1991	126,445	2,415	1.9%
1961	45,471	436	1.0%	1992	129,024	2,685	2.1%
1962	47,850	462	1.0%	1993	131,833	3,092	2.3%
1963	50,911	542	1.1%	1994	134,849	3,554	2.6%
1964	54,408	603	1.1%	1995	137,464	3,858	2.8%
1965	57,445	641	1.1%	1996	139,608	4,152	3.0%
1966	62,642	662	1.1%	1997	141,782	4,424	3.1%
1967	66,738	718	1.1%	1998	144,310	4,612	3.2%
1968	71,786	717	1.0%	1999	147,579	4,776	3.2%
1969	74,706	722	1.0%	2000	150,563	5,038	3.3%
1970	76,275	739	1.0%	2001	152,572	5,206	3.4%
1971	78,848	695	0.9%	2002	155,050	5,286	3.4%
1972	80,959	698	0.9%	2003	156,155	5,403	3.5%
1973	83,838	705	0.8%	2004	158,770	5,430	3.4%
1974	86,576	713	0.8%	2005	161,690	5,652	3.5%
1975	89,648	770	0.9%	2006	164,473	5,735	3.5%
1976	92,929	847	0.9%	2007	167,636	5,763	3.4%
1977	95,470	875	0.9%	2008	169,914	5,875	3.5%
1978	98,173	918	0.9%	2009	172,039	5,931	3.4%
1979	100,735	940	0.9%	2010	174,403	6,292	3.6%
1980	102,989	1,127	1.1%	2011	176,684	6,603	3.7%
1981	105,117	1,180	1.1%	2012	177,570	6,835	3.8%
1982	107,422	1,255	1.2%	2013	178,669	7,075	4.0%
1983	109,139	1,285	1.2%	2014	180,879	7,290	4.0%
1984	110,662	1,376	1.2%	2015	182,723	7,735	4.2%
1985	112,249	1,436	1.3%				

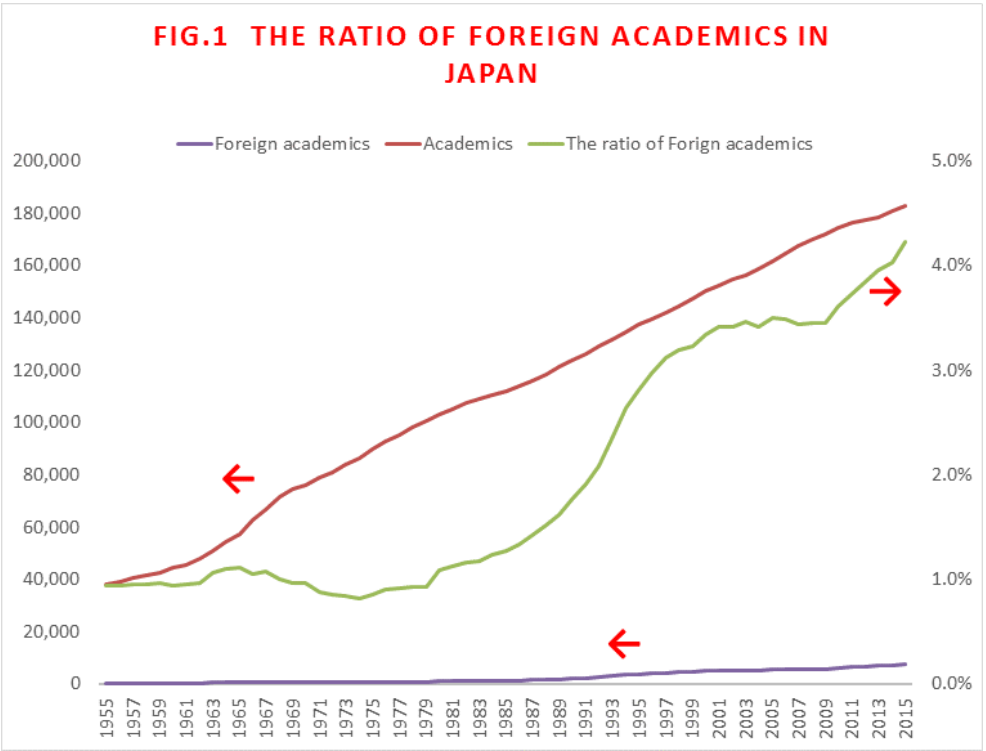


Table 2 The number of the foreign academics from 1955 to 2015

	Total	National	Local	Private	Ratio of National	Ratio of Local	Ratio of Private
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(b)/(a)	(c)/(a)	(d)/(a)
1955	360	72	9	279	20.0%	2.5%	77.5%
1956	368	69	10	289	18.8%	2.7%	78.5%
1957	384	67	8	309	17.4%	2.1%	80.5%
1958	396	64	7	325	16.2%	1.8%	82.1%
1959	413	58	9	346	14.0%	2.2%	83.8%
1960	416	68	9	339	16.3%	2.2%	81.5%
1961	436	61	10	365	14.0%	2.3%	83.7%
1962	462	56	12	394	12.1%	2.6%	85.3%
1963	542	70	10	462	12.9%	1.8%	85.2%
1964	603	88	12	503	14.6%	2.0%	83.4%
1965	641	91	12	538	14.2%	1.9%	83.9%
1966	662	95	14	553	14.4%	2.1%	83.5%
1967	718	102	15	601	14.2%	2.1%	83.7%
1968	717	102	13	602	14.2%	1.8%	84.0%
1969	722	96	17	609	13.3%	2.4%	84.3%
1970	739	99	18	622	13.4%	2.4%	84.2%
1971	695	96	17	582	13.8%	2.4%	83.7%
1972	698	112	18	568	16.0%	2.6%	81.4%
1973	705	127	18	560	18.0%	2.6%	79.4%
1974	713	129	19	565	18.1%	2.7%	79.2%
1975	770	161	20	589	20.9%	2.6%	76.5%
1976	847	196	18	633	23.1%	2.1%	74.7%
1977	875	202	19	654	23.1%	2.2%	74.7%
1978	918	207	22	689	22.5%	2.4%	75.1%
1979	940	227	22	691	24.1%	2.3%	73.5%
1980	1,127	294	22	811	26.1%	2.0%	72.0%
1981	1,180	301	27	852	25.5%	2.3%	72.2%
1982	1,255	334	24	897	26.6%	1.9%	71.5%
1983	1,285	326	32	927	25.4%	2.5%	72.1%
1984	1,376	372	34	970	27.0%	2.5%	70.5%
1985	1,436	385	32	1,019	26.8%	2.2%	71.0%
1986	1516	420	44	1052	27.7%	2.9%	69.4%
1987	1649	455	46	1148	27.6%	2.8%	69.6%
1988	1806	503	42	1261	27.9%	2.3%	69.8%
1989	1960	542	49	1369	27.7%	2.5%	69.8%
1990	2183	605	56	1522	27.7%	2.6%	69.7%
1991	2415	725	71	1619	30.0%	2.9%	67.0%
1992	2685	819	86	1780	30.5%	3.2%	66.3%
1993	3092	990	173	1929	32.0%	5.6%	62.4%
1994	3554	1184	226	2144	33.3%	6.4%	60.3%
1995	3858	1312	242	2304	34.0%	6.3%	59.7%
1996	4152	1438	253	2461	34.6%	6.1%	59.3%
1997	4424	1561	269	2594	35.3%	6.1%	58.6%
1998	4612	1600	285	2727	34.7%	6.2%	59.1%
1999	4776	1622	298	2856	34.0%	6.2%	59.8%
2000	5038	1632	352	3054	32.4%	7.0%	60.6%
2001	5206	1647	367	3192	31.6%	7.0%	61.3%
2002	5286	1610	345	3331	30.5%	6.5%	63.0%
2003	5403	1606	331	3466	29.7%	6.1%	64.1%
2004	5,430	1,474	347	3,609	27.1%	6.4%	66.5%
2005	5,652	1,545	375	3,732	27.3%	6.6%	66.0%
2006	5,735	1,503	381	3,851	26.2%	6.6%	67.1%
2007	5,763	1,579	378	3,806	27.4%	6.6%	66.0%
2008	5,875	1,551	386	3,938	26.4%	6.6%	67.0%
2009	5,931	1,638	436	3,857	27.6%	7.4%	65.0%
2010	6,292	1,770	462	4,060	28.1%	7.3%	64.5%
2011	6,603	1,932	448	4,223	29.3%	6.8%	64.0%
2012	6,835	1,997	485	4,353	29.2%	7.1%	63.7%
2013	7,075	2,147	492	4,436	30.3%	7.0%	62.7%
2014	7,290	2,329	496	4,465	31.9%	6.8%	61.2%
2015	7,735	2,574	514	4,647	33.3%	6.6%	60.1%

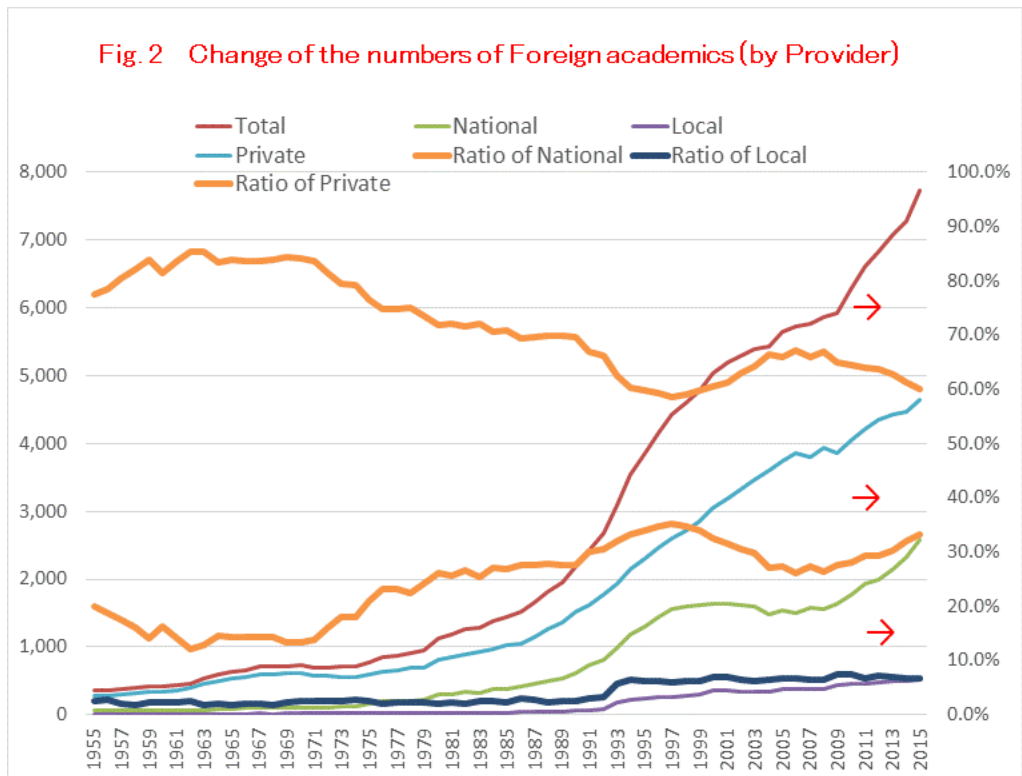
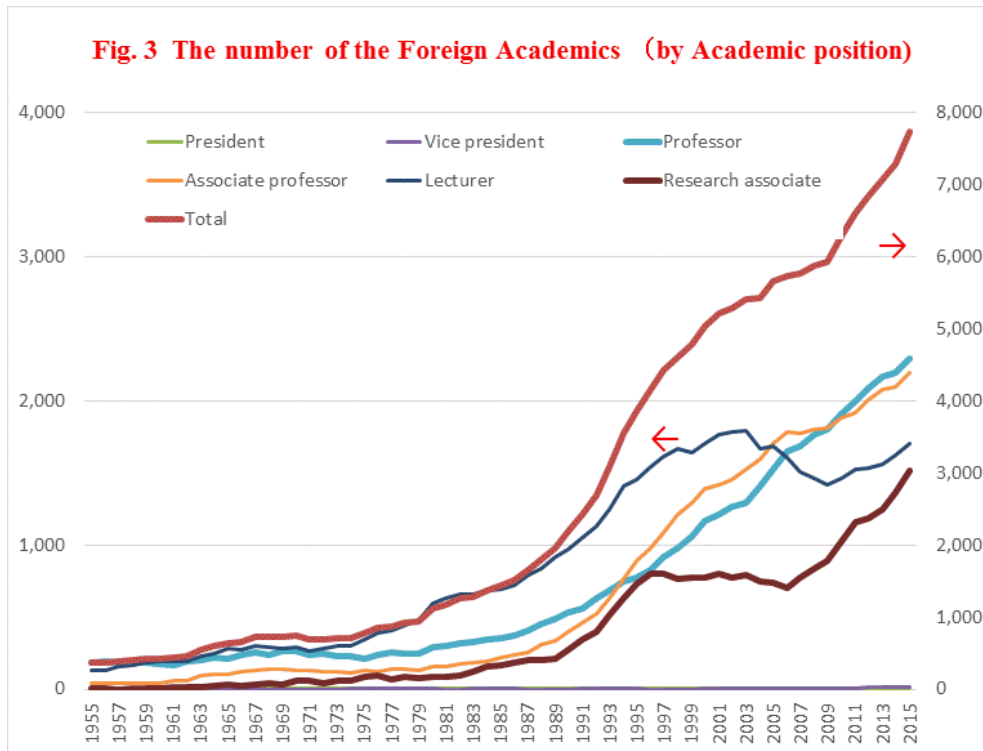


Table 3 and Fig 3 is the number of the foreign academics from 1955 to 2015 by the academic position.

Table 3 The number of the foreign academics from 1955 to 2015 by the academic position

	Total	President	Vice president	Professor	Associate professor	Lecturer	Research associate		Total	President	Vice president	Professor	Associate professor	Lecturer	Research associate
1955	360	4	0	185	37	126	8	1986	1,516	2	2	371	234	722	185
1956	368	3	0	190	38	134	3	1987	1,649	2	0	404	254	788	201
1957	384	2	0	187	37	158	0	1988	1,806	2	0	450	310	838	206
1958	396	4	0	185	39	167	1	1989	1,960	2	0	489	340	919	210
1959	413	2	0	185	40	182	4	1990	2,183	2	0	534	401	969	277
1960	416	3	0	175	40	189	9	1991	2,415	3	1	557	460	1,050	344
1961	436	4	0	167	62	191	12	1992	2,685	2	1	631	520	1,135	396
1962	462	4	0	191	58	197	12	1993	3,092	2	3	687	633	1,249	518
1963	542	3	0	201	92	228	18	1994	3,554	3	2	745	767	1,404	633
1964	603	4	0	222	107	244	26	1995	3,858	3	2	775	893	1,453	732
1965	641	5	0	213	107	283	33	1996	4,152	4	0	828	979	1,541	800
1966	662	5	0	235	120	276	26	1997	4,424	3	0	918	1,090	1,611	802
1967	718	3	0	252	128	304	31	1998	4,612	3	0	975	1,208	1,663	763
1968	717	2	0	242	143	293	37	1999	4,776	4	0	1,060	1,293	1,644	775
1969	722	3	0	267	140	279	33	2000	5,038	5	2	1,169	1,386	1,706	770
1970	739	2	0	260	129	289	59	2001	5,206	6	2	1,212	1,420	1,768	798
1971	695	3	0	242	132	261	57	2002	5,286	5	1	1,266	1,457	1,781	776
1972	698	2	0	248	119	284	45	2003	5,403	5	2	1,293	1,524	1,791	788
1973	705	2	0	231	120	297	55	2004	5,430	6	2	1,405	1,600	1,671	746
1974	713	4	1	233	114	304	57	2005	5,652	6	3	1,523	1,701	1,682	737
1975	770	4	1	210	128	345	82	2006	5,735	4	4	1,648	1,780	1,601	698
1976	847	3	1	240	121	388	94	2007	5,763	6	4	1,689	1,777	1,509	778
1977	875	2	1	253	138	409	72	2008	5,875	6	3	1,769	1,798	1,464	835
1978	918	4	1	244	137	443	89	2009	5,931	5	8	1,798	1,814	1,418	888
1979	940	2	1	246	134	478	79	2010	6,292	5	6	1,912	1,884	1,458	1,027
1980	1,127	5	1	287	155	591	88	2011	6,603	3	8	1,996	1,916	1,526	1,154
1981	1,180	3	0	304	157	631	85	2012	6,835	4	14	2,091	2,006	1,533	1,187
1982	1,255	2	0	322	173	661	97	2013	7,075	6	17	2,167	2,077	1,559	1,249
1983	1,285	2	1	324	182	657	119	2014	7,290	6	16	2,191	2,094	1,623	1,360
1984	1,376	2	1	341	196	683	153	2015	7,735	5	18	2,297	2,191	1,705	1,519
1985	1,436	2	1	351	223	690	169								



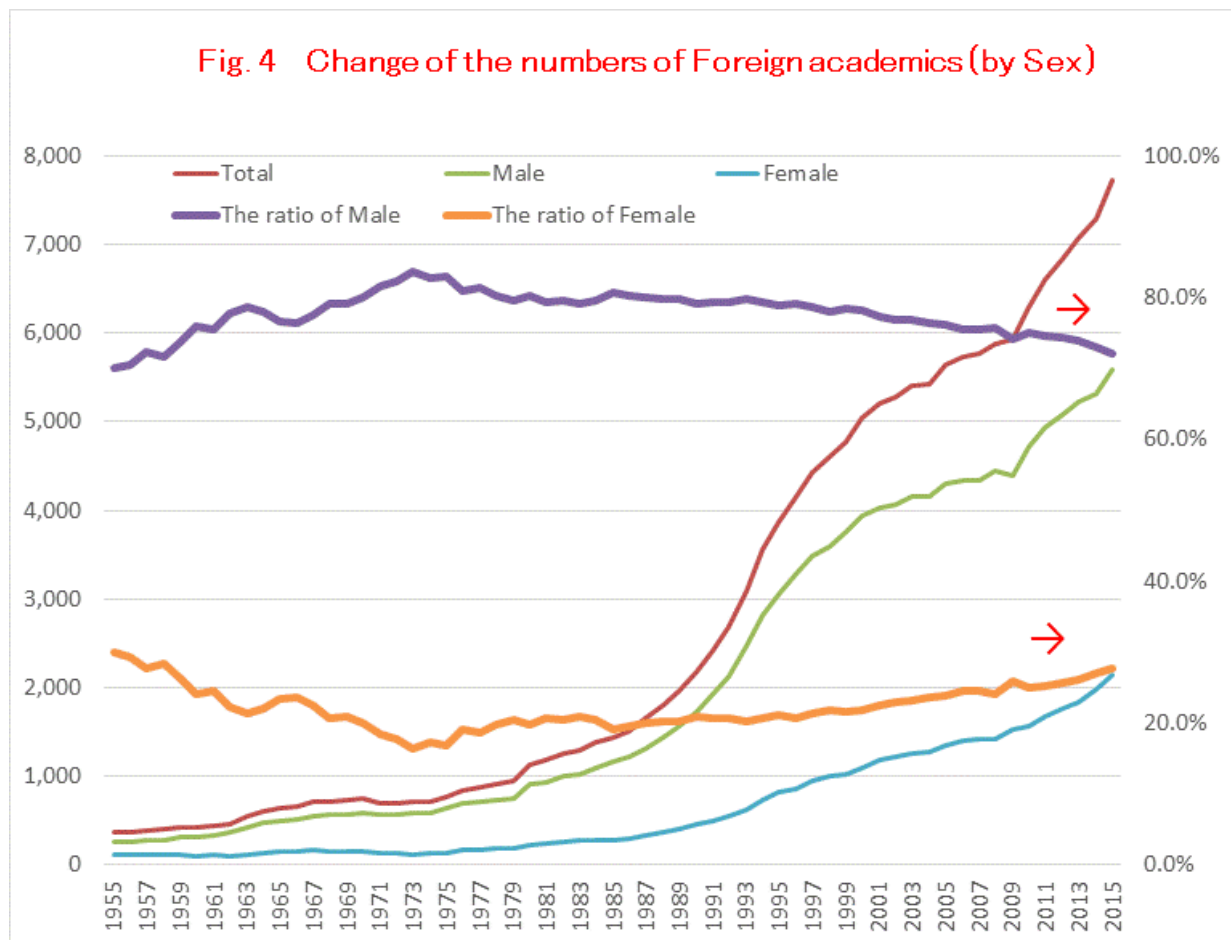
The most foreign academics is lecturer position until the 1990s. The most foreign academics is the professor or associate professor position now.

Table 4 or Fig 4 is the number of the foreign academics from 1955 to 2015 by sex.

There are more men than women. The changes of the sex constitution ratio are as follows. The foreign academics of the man spreads to 83.7% in 1973 and the foreign academics of the woman increase to 27.8% in 2015.

Table 4 The number of the foreign academics from 1955 to 2015 by sex.

	Total	Male	Female	The ratio of male	The ratio of Female
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(b) / (a)	(c) / (a)
1955	360	252	108	70.0%	30.0%
1956	368	260	108	70.7%	29.3%
1957	384	278	106	72.4%	27.6%
1958	396	284	112	71.7%	28.3%
1959	413	304	109	73.6%	26.4%
1960	416	316	100	76.0%	24.0%
1961	436	329	107	75.5%	24.5%
1962	462	359	103	77.7%	22.3%
1963	542	426	116	78.6%	21.4%
1964	603	470	133	77.9%	22.1%
1965	641	491	150	76.6%	23.4%
1966	662	506	156	76.4%	23.6%
1967	718	557	161	77.6%	22.4%
1968	717	568	149	79.2%	20.8%
1969	722	571	151	79.1%	20.9%
1970	739	592	147	80.1%	19.9%
1971	695	567	128	81.6%	18.4%
1972	698	574	124	82.2%	17.8%
1973	705	590	115	83.7%	16.3%
1974	713	590	123	82.7%	17.3%
1975	770	640	130	83.1%	16.9%
1976	847	686	161	81.0%	19.0%
1977	875	712	163	81.4%	18.6%
1978	918	737	181	80.3%	19.7%
1979	940	748	192	79.6%	20.4%
1980	1,127	905	222	80.3%	19.7%
1981	1,180	936	244	79.3%	20.7%
1982	1,255	999	256	79.6%	20.4%
1983	1,285	1,017	268	79.1%	20.9%
1984	1,376	1,096	280	79.7%	20.3%
1985	1,436	1,161	275	80.8%	19.2%
1986	1,516	1,218	298	80.3%	19.7%
1987	1,649	1,319	330	80.0%	20.0%
1988	1,806	1,441	365	79.8%	20.2%
1989	1,960	1,565	395	79.8%	20.2%
1990	2,183	1,728	455	79.2%	20.8%
1991	2,415	1,918	497	79.4%	20.6%
1992	2,685	2,131	554	79.4%	20.6%
1993	3,092	2,465	627	79.7%	20.3%
1994	3,554	2,818	736	79.3%	20.7%
1995	3,858	3,046	812	79.0%	21.0%
1996	4,152	3,290	862	79.2%	20.8%
1997	4,424	3,483	941	78.7%	21.3%
1998	4,612	3,602	1,010	78.1%	21.9%
1999	4,776	3,749	1,027	78.5%	21.5%
2000	5,038	3,943	1,095	78.3%	21.7%
2001	5,206	4,031	1,175	77.4%	22.6%
2002	5,286	4,070	1,216	77.0%	23.0%
2003	5,403	4,149	1,254	76.8%	23.2%
2004	5,430	4,149	1,281	76.4%	23.6%
2005	5,652	4,305	1,347	76.2%	23.8%
2006	5,735	4,333	1,402	75.6%	24.4%
2007	5,763	4,346	1,417	75.4%	24.6%
2008	5,875	4,455	1,420	75.8%	24.2%
2009	5,931	4,400	1,531	74.2%	25.8%
2010	6,292	4,722	1,570	75.0%	25.0%
2011	6,603	4,932	1,671	74.7%	25.3%
2012	6,835	5,078	1,757	74.3%	25.7%
2013	7,075	5,233	1,842	74.0%	26.0%
2014	7,290	5,316	1,974	72.9%	27.1%
2015	7,735	5,584	2,151	72.2%	27.8%



3. The employment situation of foreign academics in the university with a high employment ratio of foreign academics

As a result of having confirmed the foreign teacher ratio according to the university (table 1), the university where the foreign teacher ratio was higher than 30% in place, 2014 was "Miyazaki International University" (58.1%), "Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University" (50.9%), "Kanda University of International Studies" (49.8%), "Akita International University" (45.9%), "Kansai Gaidai University" (41.0%), "University of Aizu" (40.0%), "International Christian University" (33.8%).

We can classify these universities in three categories.

One is a university comprised in one department of the international liberal arts like "Miyazaki International University", "Akita International University" and "International Christian University". The second is the university which set the globalized department like "Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University" and "University of Aizu".

The third is a university constructed in a department of language studies like "Kanda University

of International Studies" and "Kansai Gaidai University".

3.1 Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU)

Idea and Process of the Establishment

APU was established for the commemoration of the centennial of the foundation of Ritsumeikan Gakuen in Beppu-shi, Oita in April, 2000.

APU is the first full-scale international university in Japan which have will to achieve the international contribution appropriate for the coming new times as a Japanese university and to open up a new stage for the globalization of the Japanese university and which was established in a concept to make up half of students in foreign students and employ half of faculty supporting the education of the student in foreign academics.

Interview to Foreign academics

We interviewed two foreign academics (X and Y).

X (She) acquired a doctorate in Tokyo Institute of Technology. After graduation, she has a possibility to work as PD at the university in Sydney or work in APU. She decided to work in the APU in consideration of their children's education and life. Her children have been adapted in Japan because he was born and raised in Japan. So, her child goes to a local elementary school. In order to send their children to the International School in Fukuoka city, some faculty moved to Fukuoka city and were commuting to APU in Beppu city over a period of 2 hours.

Professor Y, was born in Georgia, USA, and acquired a doctorate in Hiroshima University. Because his wife is Japanese and his child was already born in Japan, he decides to stay and work in Japan.

3.2 University of Aizu (UA)

Idea and Process of the Establishment

The advisory committee for preparation of the University of Aizu that was established in 1991, claims to actively recruit foreign academics and to recruit faculties by the international offerings, based on the following ideas: "The University of Aizu, in the field of computer science, aims at the university with the largest scale and the latest education and research contents in Japan. To that end, it is necessary to promote the faculties who has excellent research results and have the charm to attract students and to establish the meritocratic faculty organization. "

Thus, it could hire about 60% foreign faculty members at the time of its establishment. Are you hiring foreign faculty members about 40% currently?

Interview to Foreign academics

We interviewed with one Chinese academics.

After acquired doctorate in Tokyo Medical and Dental University, he took a job in the Japanese company and afterwards he moved to University of Aizu. Presently, he is enjoying Japanese culture and leading the research activities of the university as the director of the Information Science and Technology Research Center.

"In the case of employing the faculties, we need to employ them only on the basis of their professional activity achievements, regardless of whether that person is Japanese or not." was his opinion.

According to the study by Ishida & Yonezawa (2012, 17-18 pages) on the theme of "Entry route and motivation to the Academic Market Places in Japan", the foreign teacher or researcher who live in Japan came to Japan from accumulated a certain amount of career after be educated in the country of origin or the country other than Japan or accumulated a certain amount career after finishing the undergraduate or graduate program in Japan. The study found that the former course was a main route of humanities, social sciences or language majored researcher and the latter course was a main route of natural sciences majored researcher.

Table 5 Ratio of Foreign academics in Japanese University

	FY2014	FY2010	FY2006	FY2002	FY2000
Miyazaki International College	58.1	83.9	81.8	80.5	80.5
Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University	50.9	44.0	44.7	45.0	Established in 2000
Kanda University of International Studies	49.8	52.4	44.0	43.7	37.8
Akita International University	45.9	53.7	61.9	Established in 2004	
Kansai Gaidai University	41.0	40.3	41.1	31.7	32.3
University of Aizu	40.0	36.7	38.9	44.0	51.7
International Christian University	33.8	36.8	29.7	30.9	26.9
Nagoya University of Foreign Studies	28.7	31.1	31.3	26.8	32.4
Osaka University of Economic and Law	28.0	34.2	25.9	25.3	19.1
Okinawa Christian University	27.8	21.1	27.8	Established in 2004	
Osaka Jogakuin University	27.6	21.6	26.1	Established in 2004	
Nagoya University of Commerce & Business	26.3	26.3	38.8	30.9	33.0
Kyoto University of Foreign Studies	26.0	22.8	23.7	21.4	24.5
Musashino Gakuin University	25.0	17.9			
Ohka Gakuen University	22.2	19.5			
Nagasaki University of Foreign Studies	21.4	20.6	25.8	24.0	Established in 2001
Suzuka University	21.4				
Keiwa College	21.2	15.6	23.7	20.0	18.4
Asia University	21.1	20.4	18.0	17.0	14.9
Fukuoka Women's University	20.8				
Nagasaki Wesleyan University	18.8	20.7	19.4	16.1	Established in 2002
Nanzan University	18.6	17.9	16.8	18.2	18.5

Summary

In order to respond to the World University Rankings and the globalization of economy, Japanese University are promoting internationalization by hiring prominent foreign researchers to increase the numbers of research results or hiring foreign faculty members in order to internationalize the Japanese students.

In the university which emphasize the internationalization of university education, there is fill the nearly half of university teachers in the foreign academics. Although the foreign faculty members are employed through international public offering, in terms of their continuing the work at universities in Japan, adaptation problems to Japan of not only foreign academics but also their families are left. In the future, to hire a lot of foreign academics, it is important to support the foreign faculties and their family members by national and local government, private companies and university.

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3. Foreign Faculty in a Research Focused University in Korea: Cultural and Environmental Barriers

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Abstract

There are three major groups in the training and their socio-cultural backgrounds of academics teaching in a Korean university. About 61 percent of them are Koreans with domestic doctoral degrees, 30 percent are Koreans with foreign degrees, and about 9 percent are foreign academics with foreign degrees. All three categories of academics experience a socialization process after they are hired for an academic position. This study focuses on how foreign academics influence their new university and some barriers that they experience when they are adjusting to the new academic and socio-cultural environments. More specifically, this study discusses how foreign academics bring changes that attract foreign students, their research productivity, and their influences on the changes of academic culture. In addition, this study discusses major barriers that foreign scholars confront in the case university.

1. Introduction

Hiring internationally mobile academics became a key factor for building a world-class university in contemporary higher education. As a result, global head hunting became a major university activity with the growing competition between universities (Salmi, 2009). Mobile academics used to be a part of the Anglo-American universities (e.g., US, UK, Australia), but it became a serious business in many other non-English speaking countries. Attracting talented academics from abroad is a popular policy in East-Asian countries where central governments are deeply involved in world-class university projects (Shin & Kehm, 2013). This paper focuses on institutional responses to the government's policy initiatives to attract competitive foreign academics and mobile academics experiences in different cultural and academic environments in a research focused Korean university.

The Korean government launched internationalization projects in the mid-1990s when the government initiated the 5.31 Education Reform in 1995 as a response to economic globalization. Since then, international students have rapidly grown from 3,954 in 2000 to 91,333 in 2015 (Ministry of Education, 2016). In addition, Korean academics are actively involved in international journal publication where their growth is impressive. Further, the government launched Brain Korea 21 project, the world-class university project, and a series of research projects corresponding to academic disciplines (e.g., Humanity Korea, Social Science Korea) (Shin & Jang, 2013). Finally, the Government launched an ambitious project in 2008 to support national universities hiring international scholars as full time regular professors (Shin, 2012). The Korean government pays the

costs of hiring international scholars including salary, pension, and health insurance. Since this has been in place, research focused Korean universities have actively hired international scholars and private universities have also got involved at their own expense.

There are few studies on internationally mobile academics outside of the Anglo-American contexts. The recent growth of academic mobility within Europe and between Commonwealth countries is highly related to neo-liberalism in these countries (Kim, 2009). Academics move from one country to another looking for better work environments including better salary. However, their mobility is basically based on similar social and cultural contexts and most previous studies have been conducted by the scholars in these Anglo-American and European countries. On the other hand, academic mobility in East Asian countries that actively attract globally competitive scholars has relatively less investigated. Faculty mobility between similar social systems, e.g., from the UK to Hong Kong, or Singapore is more normal, but movement to totally different societies like Korea, Japan, or Taiwan is very uncommon (e.g., Whitsed & Volet 2011; Kim, 2016).

Most academic discourse borrows conceptual frames from the studies done in Anglo-American or European contexts. However, moving into different social systems in term of language and culture brings many other issues to consider, such as education for children and the spouse's social life (Gress & Llon, 2009). Mobile academics suffer from cultural, legal, language, and social barriers in adjusting to different social contexts. The failure results in host universities failing to retain their competitive international scholars. This happens even in the top Korean universities like Seoul National University which was ranked 34th by the QS in 2017. This paper discusses these environmental and socio-cultural barriers that internationally mobile academics are experiencing in one non-English speaking country, namely Korea.

2. Growth of Foreign Academics in Korea

This section briefly overviews the growth of foreign faculty as a result of the Korean government's policy initiatives, and specifically the growth of foreign faculty at the case university.

2.1. Policy Initiatives to Attract Foreign Academics

Few Korean universities had foreign academics as a tenure track faculty because most of them were hired as temporaries and contract-based, teaching in foreign language training programs (Kim 2005). Their unstable status also related to Civil Servant Act regulations requiring faculty hold civil servant status and that foreigners not be a civil servant. Under these constraints, public universities were not allowed to hire regular tenure track faculty members until 2000 when the Korean government revised Educational Personnel Act was revised (however, private universities could hire their faculty without legal regulation). Nevertheless, private universities rarely hired foreigners as regular tenure track faculty. In most cases their main job was teaching and they did not participate in

administration either.

In 1994 the Korean governance launched the Brain Pool Project to attract foreign researchers to Korean universities. Korean governance has been strengthened to attract competitive researchers from abroad to enhance technological development. One of pioneering policy tools was the Brain Pool Project which started in 1994 (The Korean Foundation of Science and Technology Societies, 2016). The Brain Pool project was designed to attract Korean scientists and engineers abroad to return to stay in Korea for six months to one year. The project supports short term visits by paying research funds, moving costs, airline, and living costs for researchers who are working abroad. Since 1994 1,798 scientists and engineers have been invited to conduct their research in a university, as well as in public or private research institutes.

Of these, 909 researchers have worked in a higher education institution, 776 in a public research institute or non-for profit research institutes, and 113 in a private research institute. Half are from a Western country (938 researchers are from North America or Europe) and the rest from Asian countries (820 researchers), with the rest from other continents (40 researchers). One benefit of the project is the networking between domestic and foreign researchers as well as the transfer of advanced knowledge and technologies through these networks. This project contributed to the attracting of talented foreign faculty to Korean universities and research institutes because some of the invited researchers decided to stay in Korea to continue their research.

However, fundamental changes occurred after the economic crisis of 1997 which was the catalyst to transform Korean society into a more globalized one. The Korean government's policy response was to push the universities to focus on research relevant to high tech industries in the knowledge society. At the same line, the government developed a series of projects to incubate the research capability of Korean academics. The policy initiatives are the Brain Korea 21 Project launched in 1999, World-class University Project in 2007, Social Science Korea Project in 2010, and Humanity Korea Project in 2011 (Shin & Jang, 2013). Although these projects do not directly support the hiring of foreign faculty (except the World-class University project), Korean universities began to emphasize research productivity as a major criterion to entry into the projects. With these changes, Korean universities began to emphasize hiring research productive academics from abroad as well as domestically.

In addition, the Korean government pushed national universities to hire foreign faculty in order to attract foreign students and to lead global research. As a policy tool, the Korean Government assigned a special quota to national universities for hiring foreign researchers as faculty through providing additional budget for this. The special quota project assigned about 151 foreign faculty to national universities (MOE, 2007). Although the policy was designed for all the national universities, only research focused universities acted on the policy initiative because there was a belief that research productive foreign faculty would not be very interested in universities with a low

reputation.

The case university hired about 100 foreign faculty members under the new government initiatives.

<Table 1> Growth of Foreign Faculty and Foreign Students in Korea

Year	Foreign Faculty	Foreign Students				
		Total	BA and under	Master	Doctoral	Non-degree seeking
2000	1,313	3,954	3,954	2,103	1,381	470
2005	2,131	22,526	15,577	9,835	4,023	1,719
2010	4,957	83,842	60,000	43,709	12,480	3,811
2015	5,961	91,332	55,739	32,972	16,441	6,326

Sources: KEDI, Korean Educational Statistics Service (accessed on Jan. 16, 2017)

3. Foreign Academics in the Case University

The case university benefitted the most by the policy to boost the hiring of foreign faculty. The case university worked closely with the Korean government to implement the policy and at the same time, tried to increase foreign faculty through its plan for hiring foreign faculty in 2008 (SNU, 2008). In addition, individual academic units such as academic department or faculty also considered whether to hire foreign faculty to increase their faculty quota. It is difficult for the case university to increase its faculty quota and also their student quota because the increase of faculty and student quota was tightly controlled by the government. However, individual departments also wondered how to work with foreign faculty members, who are supposed to do teaching and research and actively participate in decision making processes as regular faculty.

As a result, not all departments were aggressive in hiring foreign faculty. At the beginning in 2008, there was not enough time to post job openings on international job searching websites, so individual faculty members personally contacted potential foreign faculty members through their networks. However, this was not very successful because the case university was not ready to hire foreign faculty. For example, the case university rarely prepared formal documents in English for their overseas applicants. In addition, personnel processes were quite different from those of many foreign countries, especially western countries. At the case university, the faculty salary was competitive, but the university could not provide foreign faculty with information about the annual salary because of the particular salary scheme they would be hired under (the salary is based on the salary scheme for civil servants). As a result, foreign faculty were reluctant to apply for the positions.

The case university has incrementally increased the number of foreign faculty members by about 20 annually in the period 2009 to 2013 (SNU, 2015). The total foreign faculty members are

now more than 100 which is about 5% of the total regular faculty members in the case university. Among the 107 foreign faculty members in 2016, 78 members were male and were equally distributed by gender

<Table 2> Growth of Foreign Faculty and Foreign Students in the Case University

Year	Foreign faculty	Foreign students			
		Total	BA	Master	Doctoral
2000	-	271	46	154	71
2005	8	983	491	338	154
2008	11	1,188	534	461	193
2010	64	1,761	358	830	573
2015	104	1,334	250	697	387

Sources: SNU Fact Book (2000 - 2015)

across disciplines (arts and humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, and medicine) except for engineering where only one faculty members was female while 16 were male. Most of the foreign faculty members are distributed similarly across the five academic fields, e.g., arts and humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, engineering, and medicine areas. In addition, most of them are from the USA (55 faculty members) and UK and Europe (31 faculty members) followed by Japan and Asia (10 faculty members), and other continents (11 faculty members). The nationalities of the foreign academics differ across disciplines. UK and European academics are relatively over-represented in the arts and humanities while they are under-represented in the engineering fields. The regional distributions also represent the relative strength of each continent in terms of their academic research—engineering in the USA and humanities and social sciences in Europe.

However, regardless of their nationality a percentage of foreign faculty are originally Korean-born or Korean-related even though they hold foreign citizenship or foreign residency. About 44 % of the foreign faculty (47 faculty members) have a Korean last name. The statistics imply about half of the foreign faculty have some relationship with Korea in their family. Many of them might speak Korean and some of them were educated in Korea. In addition, some foreigners have a Korean spouse or partner, which has influenced them to apply for their positions in Korea (however, it is not easy to count the number of these faculty members). These two groups of foreign faculty might differ from these who did not have any personal and family relationships with other Koreans. These two groups might be more familiar with the Korean culture. In that regard, they are different from the ‘pure’ foreign faculty members.

Foreign Faculty Members’ Influences on the Case University

Hiring foreign faculty members enables the case university to adopt global standards. Changes occurred in personnel administration, governance and the culture of each academic unit. Although the policy for hiring foreign faculty was designed to respond to globalization by delivering classes in English and enhancing research productivity through hiring competitive foreign faculty, the real changes were in the changes to the culture of each academic unit.

4. Attracting foreign students/delivering courses in English

The number of foreign students increased between 2008 and 2010 both before and after the policy change of 2009 (the year of hiring foreign faculty is 2009 though the case university started the hiring process in 2008). This rapid increase may be because of the reputation of the case university in the global rankings as well as the increased numbers of courses delivered in English. The number of foreign students, especially from English speaking countries, has rapidly increased in line with the increase in the hiring of foreign faculty. One interesting finding is that the percentage of graduate students has rapidly increased while undergraduate students have declined during last 15 years. The increase in graduate student intake was noticeable after the policy adopted in 2009 (see details in Table 2). These findings imply that the increased numbers of foreign faculty has contributed to the growth of foreign graduate students at the case university. Arguably, the mutual growth suggests that both international students and foreign faculty members are mutually reinforcing each other.

The influence of English speaking countries is particularly noticeable. For example, students from the USA grew eight times, 28 times from Canada, eight times from New Zealand, etc. Certainly classes in English contribute to the rapid growth of the foreign students. In a study at the case university, Lim (2014) found that they are attracted by scholarship opportunities, and economic development as well as the research in their own fields. However, they are less satisfied with their study abroad experience (average score is 3.37 by 1-5 scale). Actually, the case university was not the first choice for many foreign students (43.5%). They express more satisfaction with academic achievement (3.67 by 1-5 scale) than with campus life (3.37 by 1-5 scale).

These relatively low levels of satisfaction might be related to factors such as the quality of graduate programs, the learning environments, and or their prospects after graduation. Clearly the case university is not a particularly attractive institution for foreign students. Policy makers are reminded that while having foreign faculty and delivering classes in English are necessary criteria for attracting talented foreign students, they do not of themselves guarantee satisfaction. The case university needs to pay more attention to improving the levels of satisfaction of foreign students in relation to campus life including dormitories and food, taking different religions and cultural backgrounds of the students into account, providing counseling for academic and their personal issues, financial aid, etc.

5. Academic productivity

The policy initiative was designed to enhance research productivity thorough attracting foreign researchers as faculty. In addition, the policy assumed the invited foreign faculty members would work closely with their graduate students who would in turn improve their research skills through this collaboration. However, most newly hired foreign faculty members are not established faculty members because the salary offered is insufficient to hire established researchers. Most of them are early career scholars who are seeking a career in a rising research university or they are returnees from abroad. This means that it may be unrealistic to expect a high level of research productivity from newly hired foreign faculty.

The research productivity of the foreign faculty is similar to that of other Korean academics as shown in Table 3. Foreign faculty are not more highly productive when compared with their Korean colleagues in similar academic fields. As the table shows, the foreign faculty members published a similar number of papers in international journals as their Korean colleagues between 2013 through 2015. The findings are not surprising as foreign faculty are struggling to adjust to a different socio-cultural and academic environment. The research environment, especially when collaborating with Korean graduate students, is also challenging. The policy of hiring foreign faculty needs to be better aligned with the level of support they need to be research productive.

<Table 3> Research productivity of foreign faculty and Korean faculty (2013-2015)

Fields	Foreign Faculty			Korean Faculty		
	# of Faculty	SCI publication	KCI publication	# of Faculty	SCI publication	KCI publication
Arts & Humanities	5	0.60	1.40	13	0.08	2.46
Social Sciences	5	2.20	3.40	35	2.49	1.86
Natural Sciences	12	9.92	1.17	37	11.08	1.16
Engineering	7	10.14	1.86	103	12.04	2.34

Notes:

- (1) research productivity data is based on available data from their home pages
- (2) the Korean faculty members are selected from the same rank in the academic unit (department) of the foreign faculty members

This finding is also related to the motivation of foreign faculty to remain at the case university. While the case university might not be a first choice for the highly competitive foreign academics compared to the ‘highly paying English speaking’ systems such as in Hong Kong or Singapore, their

Korean colleagues are very research productive as shown by an international comparative study where Korean academics are in the most research productive systems in the world (Teichler et al., 2014). What is more, the case university is ranked in the top 100 in many global rankings, so that their Korean colleagues are very competitive in their research publications. Considering their poor research environments in their home countries, it is not easy for foreign academics to publish more papers than their Korean colleagues in the case university.

6. Academic culture

The academic culture of the case university has most critical influence on the hiring foreign faculty. In Korea academic culture is generally closed and based on seniority (Kim, 2005; Shin 2014). This seniority based culture in the case university is also supported by the high inbreeding rates which run at about 89% (Shin et al., 2016). This rate is related to the competitiveness of the university where the most talented students study at the university because it is a 'state building' and 'flagship' university in Korea. This enables the case university to maintain its reputation and leadership over time; on the other hand, it is an impediment to becoming a globally competitive university because the case university is not flexible enough to embrace the needed level of diversity. It is hoped that the hiring of foreign faculty will change the academic culture from a 'seniority based' culture to a more merit-based one.

The case university was opening its door to faculty members who were not 'inbred' following the government policy enacted when the Korean government revised its *Educational Officials Act* of 2005 (article 11-2) and mandated that 30% of newly hired faculty at the national university be non-inbred candidates. Despite this mandate, it has limited effects on the academic culture although it has effected some changes in the cultural diversity of the university. Seniority-based culture is shared by most faculty members regardless of whether they are inbred or not (Shin et al., 2016). Foreign faculty are quite different from the Korean faculty. In the seniority based culture, junior academics tend to follow the senior academics' decisions whether they agree with them or not; on the other hand, the foreign academics, especially from Western societies, rarely operate like this. It would be reasonable to expect therefore that when a department hires foreign academics the decision making would be based on rationality instead of seniority.

In reality, three hypotheses are possible. One is that the seniority based academic culture is incrementally changing. According to this view, most decision making that is of no interest to foreign academics is made in the traditional way—namely, based on seniority based. The second is that decision making in general has changed, and is rational and/or based on merit. This suggests that the hiring of foreign faculty has produced dramatic changes in the academic culture. However, this scenario is not a realistic view because academia is very conservative compared with other organizations. The third approach is to take the view that despite hiring foreign faculty the academic

culture will not change until the foreign faculty are in a more politically powerful position. Of these three scenarios, my observation is that the first scenario is the rule in most departments, not the other two.

7. Barriers to Foreign Academics

This section discusses how the foreign academics adjust to their new socio-cultural and academic environments and the adjustment issues they encounter. For this study, the author analyzed the 2013 official report ‘Proposed Policies and Procedures for International Faculty’ from the Office of International Faculty Liaison at the case university. The author also interviewed three foreign faculty members who were very involved in the report development process.

7.1. Isolation in an Academic Community

Terri Kim (2005) articulated the cultural barriers that foreign academics are experiencing in Korea using a concept of ‘positional’ identity. Kim showed that the Korean academic community excludes foreign academics by within their own department and/or their university. The conceptual arguments were supported by anecdotal evidence and further developed by Stephanie Kim (2016) who highlighted how foreign academics in a prestigious private university are systematically isolated from decision making processes by top management. Although the two studies highlight academic culture and governance practices, both suggest that foreign academics in Korean universities suffer from discrimination as well as having to overcome cultural barriers.

The isolation not only affects foreign academics. Some studies (e.g., Lee & Kim, 2010) found that returnees from study abroad also experience cultural barriers and experience isolation when they are settling into a Korean university. These feelings of isolation might be related to academic networks in Korea which have been described as academic networks (*hakmak*) (e.g., Shin et al., 2016). The *hakmak* is a social network that individuals are affiliated with based on their undergraduate colleges. In Korean society, undergraduate rather than graduate education is the critical factor in forming academic networks. The isolation that foreign academics feel may be similar to that experienced by Korean academics when they are excluded from the existing academic networks (Shin et al., 2016). Foreign academics likely feel this isolation even more acutely because of the different socio-cultural and academic environments.

The report prepared by the team of foreign academics in the case university did not highlight isolation of foreign academics as a significant factor; rather the report focused on the environmental and administrative factors. The internal perspectives by the foreign academics provided practical recommendations for the university administration. Kim (2005) and Kim (2016) show how these cultural barriers are ‘positional’ to foreign academics. The following discussion is based on the analysis of the report and follow-up interviews with the core foreign faculty who were actively

involved in the project.

7.2. Environmental/Administrative Barriers

Foreign faculty members' major complaint is housing because it is so expensive in Seoul. Although the case university provides rental apartments for foreign faculty at a reasonable price, it is only for seven years after which they must find off-campus housing themselves. Recently, the case university has arranged loans for foreign faculty, but the rental prices are too expensive for most foreigners. Once the housing issue is solved, then next big issue is education of their children because there is no elementary or secondary school near to the case university that teaches in English. These two issues are not easily resolved by the foreign faculty.

There are some additional administrative issues particularly in relation to personnel issues. Faculty hiring, promotion and tenure processes are based on Korean legal requirements but few foreign faculty members are familiar with these. Nor do they have personal relationships with the committee members participating in evaluation process, whereas their Korean colleagues general do. This makes foreign faculty members feel isolated from the personnel processes. The evaluation for promotion and tenure depends on factors such as number of publications and citations in sciences and engineering, so a close relationship with committee members is not so relevant other than in the humanities and social sciences where the committee evaluates the holistic quality of research rather than numbers of publications and citations.

7.3. Teaching and research activities

The foreign faculty do teaching, research, and administration as a regular faculty member but in a very limited way. For example, having a graduate student are critical to their rapid acculturation, but many Korean students are reluctant to work with foreign faculty because of language barriers. Thus, most foreign faculty members have foreign graduate students rather than Korean students. As a result, foreign faculty teach foreign students and Korean faculty teach Korean students, and foreign faculty therefore have a very limited impact on Korean students. This suggests that the positive effects of foreign faculty are very limited, although the case university has a growing number of foreign faculty.

Teaching load is also identified as a barrier for the foreign faculty. The case university assigns courses based on "first come first served" and it usually results in seniority based course assignments. This in turn leads to miscommunications over class assignments between domestic and foreign faculty members. This becomes a serious issue when a department hires a senior foreign faculty if the academics believes that senior faculty should have priority in class assignments. In most cases, junior tends to yield to the senior through personal negotiation based on the closeness between the two faculty members. If foreign faculty do not understand how the culture affects the class

assignments, there will be miscommunication between foreign and Korean faculty.

Foreign academics also struggle with their research. One reason is the limited funding opportunities for foreign academics. Research funding by funding agencies mostly targets Korean academics; foreign academics are not well informed about the opportunities because most funding openings are given in Korean only. This is a serious issue for foreign academics in sciences and engineering where funding is a critical factor for their research. Although some colleges such as the college of engineering and college of natural sciences in the case university provide about \$100,000 of research funding for newly hired faculty members, the opportunity is not the same in other fields because the funding support is a college level policy, not a university wide policy.

8. Governance and participation in administration

The case university encouraged the foreign faculty members to organize the International Faculty Liaison to let their concerns be heard. In general, faculty members have some influence on the appointment of the college deans and the University president which enables their views to be heard. But their limited fluency in Korean and their level of understanding about the academic culture at the case university limits their influence.

Most of the job-critical information is provided in Korean although the case university tries to minimize the information gap by providing some core documents in English. It is not easy for Korean faculty to discuss issues in English because most decision making is not contexts free which means that it is not easy to convey all the information in English. This is different in the countries such as in Hong Kong and Singapore where the official language is English. There may be a similar problem in the non-English speaking countries such as Japan and China. The situation differs slightly between Korea, Japan, and China. Foreign faculty members often decide to learn Japanese or Chinese when they are hired teach at a Japanese or Chinese university but few actively learn Korean because Korean is not such a popular language.

Another major barrier is the seniority-based rather than merit-based academic culture of the case university. In addition, many critical decisions are made “under the table” and formal decisions are often made outside of official meetings and foreign academic who speak Korean fluent are often not involved in the internal decision making processes (Shin, 2012). This situation also applies to foreign faculty who were born in Korea (such as Korean Americans) because they are lack familiarity with the academic culture of the case university.

Foreign academics have little involvement in governance and administration although the case university tries to get their input. Foreign academics are often invited to serve as a committee members on international committees at department, college, or university level but their participation is very limited, especially in issues related to research and teaching. Compared to foreign academics, most Koreans complain about their heavy administrative loads (Shin et al., 2015)

and are reluctant to take on administrative work because they prefer research.

9. Conclusion

The case university is a leading research university in Korea which aggressively hired over 100 foreign faculty members in the two years from 2010. However, the case university was not prepared to deal with the academic and cultural issues that surfaced after hiring foreign faculty. Some foreign faculty left the case university after only a few years. The policy also contributed to an increase in the number of foreign graduate students, expanded international networks, and changed the administrative culture. Academic culture, which is conservative and based on seniority, is changing with the influence from abroad. At the same time, foreign faculty are getting more and more involved in governance and are also getting accustomed to the university culture.

The increased number of foreign faculty does not mean that international academic mobility brings internationalization and intercultural understanding as Kim (2010) argued. The changes are partial and also internationalization and intercultural understanding are only happening in part. One scenario is that hiring international faculty brings change only in relation to the instructional language. This might be the case in the natural sciences and engineering where the emphasis is on producing cutting edge knowledge. Encouraging foreign faculty members to be more active in education requires more preparation on the part of the case university because hiring foreign faculty is more than merely providing courses in English or publishing papers in international journals. Producing synergy through foreign faculty depends on how much energy and resources the case university devotes to foreign faculty.

In concluding this discussion, I note that the issues discussed may not be generalizable to other universities, especially private universities. The case university viewed the foreign faculty as regular faculty members, and their Korean colleagues sought to get along with the foreign faculty because they are on a tenure track and may stay until they retire. This is what the case university institutionalized for their foreign faculty members in its personnel systems. However, in a private university each university has specific goals such as delivering classes in English and attracting foreign students for their resource generation purposes. Consequently many private universities tend to be strategic in hiring foreign faculty and may not continue their employment. Thus the findings and discussions based on the case university might not be applicable to other Korean universities if their goals for hiring foreign faculty members differ.

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4. International Academics in Malaysian Public Universities: Recruitment, Integration and Retention

Chang Da Wan & Morshidi Sirat

Malaysia aspires to have a quality higher education system with global prominence. The Malaysia Education Blueprint (Higher Education) 2015-2025 (MEBHE) outlines clearly that global prominence is one of the shifts to transform the Malaysian higher education system into one that is relevant, referred and respected globally (Ministry of Education, 2015). In addition, MEBHE also states the aspiration for Malaysia to have a quality higher education system through attracting talents in the form of inspiring educators, accomplished researchers, entrepreneurial personalities and transformational thought leaders (MOE, 2015). Thus, the strategies proposed in MEBHE underlined the need of attracting, developing and retaining top talent, and importantly, the search for talents will have to go beyond the local and national boundaries. In this respect, Malaysian universities are encouraged to attract top talent from broader professional, business and international communities, including top international academics.

Yet, this aspiration has predated the MEBHE. In the National Higher Education Strategic Plan 2007-2020 (NHESP), which is the precursor of the MEBHE, this national strategic document on higher education in Malaysia has also identified intensifying internationalisation as one of its seven thrusts. A key aspect of this thrust was to increase the numbers of international academics in Malaysian public universities, specifically the research universities. Before NHESP was launched in 2007, public universities were also allowed to recruit international academics up to only five percent. The goal of NHESP was to achieve 15 percent of international academics across public universities by 2020 to signify the extent of internationalisation in Malaysia's higher education system (Ministry of Higher Education, 2007).

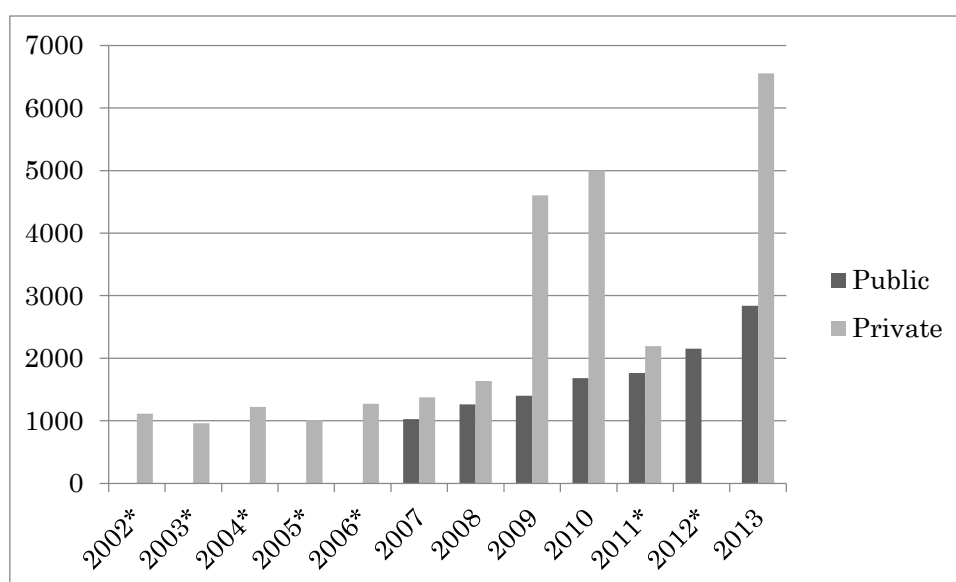
International Academics in Malaysia

International academics refer to non-Malaysian citizens employed full-time in Malaysian universities. Specifically in public universities, international academics are hired on contract arrangements between one to three years as non-Malaysian citizens cannot be employed as permanent staff in public universities due to the fact that these institutions are federal statutory bodies. In 2013, there were 9,393 international academics in the Malaysian higher education system (see Figure 1) (MOE, 2014). There has been significant increment from mere 2,403 in 2007. However, the growth of international academics in Malaysia has mainly been driven by the increment within the private higher education institutions (HEIs). There has been a six-fold growth in the number of international academics in the private sector of higher education in Malaysia between 2002 and 2013. The most

recent breakdown by the four types of private HEIs expectedly indicated that foreign branch campuses were made up of 45 percent of international academics, universities and university colleges each have 27 percent, and colleges have 25 percent.

Across the twenty public universities, although the proportion of international academics has remained small at approximately 8.5 percent of the population of academics, there has been an almost three-fold increase over between 2007 and 2013. From 1,027 international academics in 2007, the number increased to 2,838 in 2013. Yet, the most significant increment took place between 2008 and 2009 where the number of international academics in public universities increased from 1,634 to 4,605. However, half of the international academics in public universities are employed in five research universities, and the International Islamic University of Malaysia and *Universiti Teknologi MARA* collectively made up another quarter of these academics.

Figure 1: International Academics in Malaysian Higher Education System



Note (*): (i) Data for public institutions is not available between 2002 and 2006

(ii) Data for private in 2011 is based on 87.69% of institutions

(iii) Data for private institutions is not available in 2012

Source: MOE, n.d.; 2008; 2010; 2012; 2014

The significant increase of international academics, especially between 2008 and 2009 can be seen as the result of systematic initiatives undertaken by the first phase of the action plan of the NHESP. The strategic plan launched in 2007 outlined the need for Malaysian universities to compete in global university rankings as a way to enhance the prominence of Malaysian higher education in becoming a global higher education hub. Hence, research universities have been pressured to

increase publication targets, as citation and research outputs have been regarded as weaknesses to be overcome. Furthermore, Malaysian universities have also been urged to embark on the internationalisation agenda, and a policy was designed to allow public universities to have more than 10 percent of international academics as their academic staffs.

Apart from the increase in number of international academics in Malaysian universities whereby to a large extent has been driven by national initiatives of the NHESP and MEBHE, internationalisation of higher education as a global trend also contributed to this development. The internationalisation or globalisation in the form of movement of persons, which in this case the academics, has been recognised as one of the four modes of free trade in education under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) (Tilak, 2011). Although the NHESP launched in 2007 mentioned about limiting international academics to a certain percentage especially in public universities, this limitation or barrier in the context of internationalisation and cross-border trade in higher education, has not been articulated in the latest MEBHE.

However, while the most recent published official statistics indicated an increase of international academics in Malaysia, the gap of three years between 2013 and 2016 with many significant developments, such as the reduced of funding and changes in administrative policies in public universities, as well as the volatility of economic situation in Malaysia, have changed the landscape of higher education in Malaysia and the proportion of international academics. In the absence of the most up-to-date statistics, we hypothesised that the numbers of international academics have decreased. It is within such a context that this paper examines the recruitment, integration and retention of international academics in Malaysian public universities.

Three Case Studies

This paper focuses solely on international academics in three of the five public research universities, whereby these universities are considered case studies. The primary method employed was semi-structured interviews, where the interviews were carried out between March and April 2016.

In each of the institutions chosen, administrators involved in recruitment, integration and retention of international academics were interviewed. In addition, thirteen international academics from a variety of disciplines including medicine, engineering, sciences, social sciences, business, and languages participated in this study. Among the thirteen participants, four are professors, two associate professors, six senior lecturers and one language teacher. Five of the thirteen participants are female, and they are nationals of Bangladesh, Indonesia, Iraq, Japan, France, United Kingdom, the Philippines, the Netherlands, Guatemala, Yemen, Germany, Iran and Myanmar. The detailed breakdown of international academics by nationalities, disciplines, age groups, gender, and status within the three case studies is provided in the Appendix to enable a clearer understanding of the population of international academics institutionally.

Yet, a point to note that the sampling of academics was not intended for statistical representation, but instead, the selection was influenced by the principle of selecting contrasting cases, which in this case are the participants, to allow for maximum diversity of views and potentially to increase the robustness of the findings (Schofield, 2002). Hence, the selection of participants was intended to be as diverse as possible in terms of nationalities, geographical regions, gender, seniority and disciplines.

Interviews were conducted in English and carried out by an interviewer and a note taker. Interviews were digitally recorded with the written consent of the participants. Interview notes were reconciled with the recordings as well as by both the interviewer and note taker. Thematic content analysis was used to identify themes that emerged from the interviews.

Roles and Expectations

International academics play an important role to enhance internationalisation of higher education. The recruitment of these expatriates has many profound benefits to the development of a higher education system, especially towards the internationalisation agenda. The significant proportion of international academics is not only about numbers. Importantly, the presence of these academics has been found to bring tangible and intangible benefits. For instance, it has been found that in the case of higher education in the United States, foreign-born and foreign-educated academics are significantly more productive than their local colleagues (Kim, Wolf-Wendel & Twombly, 2011). The presence of international academics in a higher education system contributes to the internationalisation agenda. The presence of international academics has been a key indicator to reflect the extent to which a university of higher education is internationalised. Indicators such as the percentage of international students and staffs are used to tabulate the internationalisation component of various global university rankings.

More importantly, international academics can play a significant role on 'internationalisation-at-home'. While it has been advocated that student mobility can enhance the education and learning of students through a broader worldview, internationalisation-at-home provides opportunities for students who have not gone abroad to experience intercultural learning and international experiences (Beelen & Jones, 2015; Teekens, 2013). Internationalisation-at-home may include having global elements in curriculum and teaching, but the presence of international academics certainly strengthen the intercultural and international elements in learning. For instance, for a Malaysian social science student to learn about the socio-economic of Latin America, the physical presence of an international academic from the region and the close engagement may transform the learning from a mere knowledge gain to a real-life interaction.

Similarly, the concept of 'wandering scholars' beyond national boundaries has been long-established feature in higher education dating back to the days of ancient and medieval

universities. Notable ancient and medieval centres of learning such as Taxila, Nalanda, Pushpagiri, Fes, Cairo, Baghdad, Athens, Bologna, Paris, Oxford and Cambridge had attracted scholars from countries and regions to congregate for academic discourse (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Collini, 2011; Kim, 2009; Wan, Morshidi & Dzulkifli, 2015). The interactions of scholars from diverse nationalities, background and cultures had been a great impetus in shaping ancient and medieval universities or centre of higher learning as a truly global centre of knowledge.

Typology of International Academics

While international academics bring tangible and intangible benefits to the development of higher education, the roles and expectations on international academics across the three case studies can be summarised into three types.

Type 1 – international academics are recruited to enhance academic programme, especially for professional programmes such as medicine, dentistry and engineering. These academics typically are specialists and consultants in the medical field or *ingenieurs* in engineering. For accreditation purposes as well as possible shortage of these professionals, specialists or consultants in Malaysia, universities have to resort to recruiting international academics. Many who were recruited may not have high citations or commendable publications, but they have reputable clinical or professional experience.

Type 2a – international academics are recruited for the purpose of global university rankings. These academics are well-established and renowned scholars and researchers, and the purpose university recruits them is to enhance the reputation of the institution. For instance, they could be academics of the calibre of a Nobel Laureate and Field Medallist, or someone of relatively similar statute. These academics are typically recruited with attractive salary packages alongside a huge funding to setup laboratories for research.

Type 2b – international academics are also recruited mainly for the purpose of global university rankings. However, these academics are expected to contribute predominantly through research and publication. This group of academics are relatively junior in the hierarchy of their institution and department, but are highly productive in terms of the number of publications. In short, these are individuals employed to churn out academic publications to boost the rankings.

Type 3 – international academics are recruited based on needs. They are typically academics recruited to fill up a specific position or area of expertise. This group of academics is also commonly taken into account as part of the succession plan within a department or institute. Due to the lack of expertise, these academics are expected to also play a part in developing the next generation of local academics, on top of their existing tasks of teaching and conducting research on the particular area of knowledge. In some instances, international academics that are categorised in this group were former postgraduate students in the same department or institution, and they either continue or return

to assume an academic position. There is also tendency that this type of international academics was international students who have completed their doctorates in Malaysia and were recruited by their supervisors, heads of department or deans.

Motivation of Coming to Malaysia

Although there are types of international academics in Malaysia, there are three major reasons why these international academics chose to come to these three Malaysian research universities. The first relates to the religious, cultural and geographical proximity. For international academics who are Muslims, Malaysia is an attractive destination to pursue their career and relocate their families as Islam is the official religion of the country. Apart from religious consideration, many of the international academics from neighbouring countries have also been motivated to come to Malaysia due to cultural and geographical proximity. For instance, to the two participants from Indonesia and Philippines, the main reason of choosing Malaysia over some other Western and developed countries relates to the fact that it is relatively easy and within a short distance they can return to their home countries as well as some commonalities between Malaysia and Indonesia that greatly helped to make them felt much at home.

Second, the Malaysian connection has also been an important motivation for some of the international academics in deciding to work in Malaysian universities. From the thirteen participants in this study, five are married to a Malaysian and another five have studied in a Malaysian universities. In addition, another participant has conducted the fieldwork for her doctoral research in Malaysia and developed some forms of networking with local academics. Interestingly, two of the longest serving international academics in this study have no prior connection to Malaysian universities and joined the universities more than two decades ago coincidentally through their fellow countrymen in Malaysia. Hence, the Malaysian connection, either through study or marriage or to a lesser extent networking, has been a major factor these international academics come to Malaysia.

Third, although Malaysia may not be an attractive destination to pursue an academic career as compared to developed higher education systems such as the US, UK, Europe or even some other Asian countries like Japan, yet comparatively to the home countries of some of these international academics, Malaysia remains a viable and attractive option. For example, international academics from Iraq and Myanmar have found Malaysia to be an attractive destination to work and relocate their family. In addition to higher monetary value salary than their home countries, the relative political, economic and security stability has been an added point in their consideration to relocate their family and bring up their children in Malaysia.

Issues and Challenges

However, regardless of the benefits that international academics may bring to the development of

universities and higher education in Malaysia, as well as the motivation for them to come to Malaysia, there are also issues and challenges concerning the recruitment, integration and retention of these academics into the local context.

Institutional Constraints – First and foremost, it is important to note that international academics can only be recruited in public universities as contract staffs. Owing to the immigration regulation, a non-citizen can only be given a contract of not more than three years. However, to complicate the situation further, in the Financial Instruction No. 1/2015 issued by the Ministry of Education, all staff employed on a contractual basis has to be paid through the financial vote for professional services (vote 29000). This is a relatively new arrangement, as previously all salary and emolument was allocated into the financial vote for salary and emolument (vote 21000). Previously, universities made internal arrangement to employ international academics by utilising vacant positions that are identified for Malaysians who are under the academic training scheme. The implications of this new financial arrangement is that the financial vote 29000 has a limit in terms of the amount for allocation, and therefore, this has restrained public universities from employing more contractual staffs – mostly Malaysian academics beyond their compulsory retirement age and international academics. In addition, the fact that from the announcement of the Budget for 2016 has seen total funding for public universities reduced by 15 percent, and the Budget was further recalibrated at the beginning of the year (Astro Awani, 2016; Sharma, 2015). The budget for 2017 has also seen another round of budget cut where the operating expenditure for public universities decreased for the second consecutive year by another 19 percent (Malay Mail, 2016). Due to this administrative change and compounded by the financial constraints faced by public universities, the recruitment and retention of international academics has become much more challenging.

From the thirteen participants, two had been informed at the time of this study that their contracts will not be renewed. Another six participants whose contract will be ending in the next six to twelve months at the time of this study, have not received any indication whether their contracts will be renewed or terminated. For those whose contract will not be renewed or have yet to be informed, they have been considering of moving to the private higher education institutions in Malaysia. Hence, at the very least, the Malaysian higher education system as whole and the receiving private institutions may still enjoy the benefit and expertise of these international academics, but not the public universities which have recruited them in the first place.

Wider Policy Constraints – As a result of the contractual arrangements due to the immigration and public service regulations, there is a perceived lack of job security for international academics whereby they are always at the mercy of administrators in their departments and institutions for contract renewal. The decision making process for contract renewal is not entirely transparent to the participants. Furthermore, the contractual arrangements have also seen their benefits becoming less

attractive. For instance, while the academic, his or her spouse and children received full medical coverage within the public healthcare system like other Malaysian academics, this benefit has now been reduced to only the academic. The medical benefit of spouse and children has been withdrawn. The increased sense of lacking in job security has also been compounded by the fact that previously, at the end of a contract the academic was entitled to a gratuity as well as flight tickets for the entire family to return to his or her home country. However, in one of the three universities, the gratuity has been limited to only the first contract, and the home visits for family has been discontinued. Even for academics who have become permanent residence (PR) in Malaysia, their employment arrangement as a contract staff remain. Among the thirteen participants, one is in the process of applying for citizenship, another is a PR, and another person is in the process of applying for a PR. Yet, in general, the lack of job security has been one of the common concerns and sources of frustration among international academics in Malaysia resulting from a rigid policy constraint of only allowing citizens to be employed permanently in public universities.

Institutional Strategies – The recruitment, integration and retention of international academics is heavily dependable on individuals, and there is a perceived lack of institutional strategies to do so or to even coordinate these efforts. The individuals involved typically include university leaders, deans, heads of departments or even colleagues of these international academics. There is a lack of direction and strategies by universities to recruit, integrate and retain these academics systematically. There is also no advertisement for vacancy for international academics, and the existing academics were either ‘head-hunted’, recommended by an insider or studied previously in the department/institution. In the past, vacancies in public universities were widely circulated, but because interests tend to be confined to certain geographical areas, many public universities saw fit to recruit directly based on other recruitment channel and methods which are more cost effective. Hence, the recruitment process is predominantly bottom up from the individual academics, department, school or faculty. In other words, the three case studies have not advertised globally to recruit the very best scholars and researchers, as spelt out by the aspiration of the MEBHE. Recruitment is still highly dependable on connections and networks with existing people within the university.

Besides lacking in terms of institutional strategy for recruitment, there is also a lack of support rendered to international academics by the institution. Although the university provides some forms of relocation support such as temporary housing for the first month and visa application, other forms of support for the individual to begin as an academic staff is left to the department, school or faculty. New international academics are not mandated to attend any orientation courses unlike the local academics. As most of the international academics are not proficient in *Bahasa Melayu* (the national and official language in public universities), it has been left to their own initiatives to seek support to

learn the language and in communicating officially within the university. In most cases, international academics have to rely heavily on their colleagues to integrate themselves into the university, and some continue to rely on Google Translate to keep track of official communication from the university.

Apart from the language barrier where official communication across the three universities is *Bahasa Melayu*, one of the three universities also has a policy that all academic programmes are to use the national language. The other two universities do not enforce this policy as strict as the former, especially in science, engineering and professional programmes. As a result, international academics in the university that strictly enforced the language policy are predominantly employed in research institutes and their primary responsibility is to conduct research with minimal or even without teaching responsibility altogether. In this university, there are 52 international academics, whereby 22 of them are concentrated in eight research institutes and 30 others dispersed across 11 schools. Interestingly, out of the 30, nine are teaching in the medical school and five in engineering school, where a significant part of the academic programmes are taught in English.

The lack of promotion opportunities has been one of the major challenges to retain international academics. To begin with, international academics cannot be promoted while they are serving a contract. Promotion can only take place during the contract renewal process. Furthermore, as universities had adopted a point system to determine the eligibility to apply for promotion, this system has also deterred some international academics, as unlike Malaysian academics, the formers are only allowed to be considered for promotion towards the end of their contracts. Furthermore, for senior professor positions, a professor has to be invited for promotion, and there was also an instance whereby a non-Malaysian professor has to wait for seven years before being invited for promotion despite the fact that he was one of the most outstanding academics in the university.

Economic Constraints – The economic situation and the strength of the Malaysian Ringgit against foreign currencies can be a challenge in retaining international academics. On the one hand, austerity measures in reducing the funding of public universities have forced the institutions to readjust the packages for international academics. These adjustments include abolishing the end of contract gratuity and other non-monetary benefits. Hence, the remuneration package for international academics as a whole has become less attractive. On the other hand, the depreciation of the Malaysian Ringgit has also reduced the value of the remuneration package. Between September 2014 and 2015, the Malaysian Ringgit depreciated by 26 percent against the US Dollar, 17 percent against the Euro and almost 20 percent against the Japanese Yen (Astro Awani, 2015). In other words, international academics experienced a drastic pay cut comparatively to the currency of their home countries.

Thus, international academics that are less affected by the depreciation of the remuneration

package are either, those from countries economically weaker than Malaysia, or they are married to Malaysians and will remain in the country due to family commitments. Among the thirteen international academics who participated in this study, five are married to Malaysians and the remaining are either from countries in difficult circumstances or in the region of Southeast Asia. It is suffice to summarise that although economic consideration has not been the major consideration for the existing international academics in public universities, but this consideration remains a major challenge for Malaysian universities to be able to recruit the best talents globally. Crucially, as one of the tracking measures for the Shift on Talents in MEBHE was the number of international staffs recruited, the economic circumstances will continue to pose significant challenges not only to the recruitment but also to the retention of international academics in public universities.

Talent Development and Retention – Apart from the challenges pertaining to promotion and the lack of job security, international academics in public universities have not been considered for academic leadership and administrative positions, at least in the three case studies. The only leadership and administrative position that international academics may assume in public universities is programme chairperson or head of a research cluster. There are no international academics in the university board, senior leadership positions such as the Vice Chancellor or its Deputies, or even holding the office of Deans or its Deputies or Heads of Department. The lack of participation of international academics in academic leadership and administrative positions can be attributed to the fact that those in these positions are required and expected to be highly proficient in *Bahasa Melayu* as the official language.

However, the MEBHE clearly states that as a way to shift towards having a quality higher education for Malaysia, there is a need to unleash the talents among the academics. One of the tracking measures, therefore, is to take into account the number of top international talent in senior leadership, university board member and department head roles within public universities. The rationale of this measure is to facilitate local capacity building. Yet, clearly, there is a mismatched between the ideal and reality in terms of unleashing the potentials of talents among the international academics. Not only has the language policy been a barrier in tapping on to the expertise of the international academics to provide institutional leadership, the language policy at times can also underlined a sense of being differentiated or discriminated among some of these international academics.

Conclusion and Policy Recommendations

The understanding of international academics and their recruitment, integration and retention is crucial at this juncture in the higher education development of Malaysia. On the one hand, this group of academics is a valuable resource for Malaysian universities and they remain important to the

present and future development of higher education. International academics are also talents in Malaysian universities, not to compete with the locals, but crucially to complement in transforming these institutions to become more internationalised and achieve global prominence. However, on the other hand, the current economic situation and recent administrative changes in public service have posed much more challenges to the recruitment, integration and retention of international academics. Although Malaysia is keen to attract global talents to Malaysian public universities and these talents have displayed an equal keenness to pursue their academic careers in this country, not very much can be said about how these challenges can be affected through actions. In other words, policies and actions need serious alignment.

While some of these challenges may not be within the reach of universities or the State to tackle, there remain plausible strategies that can be considered by the Malaysian higher education system and its public universities in moving forward in terms of recruitment, integration and retention of international academics. The first proposed strategy is to minimise the recruitment of Type 2a and Type 2b academics. Instead, priority should be given to Type 1 and Type 3 academics, taking into account the future scenario and potential needs for Malaysian universities. The recruitment of Type 1 and Type 3 academics should not be limited to only having them in the universities, strategies and institutional support must also be put in place to integrate and retain these international academics as to allow them to unleash their full potentials and to impact the existing and next generation of local academics. The priority of Type 1 and Type 3, over Type 2a and Type 2b, also suggests a much more cost-effective option in view of the current economic and financial situation.

Without a doubt, *Bahasa Melayu* is the national language and should remain as the official medium of communication in public universities. However, as a way to fully utilise the expertise as well as integrate international academics into Malaysian universities, the second strategy involves a two-prong approach. First, comprehensive support provided for international academics to at least bring them to a basic level of proficiency in *Bahasa Melayu*. Second, allow the possibility of bilingual use of *Bahasa Melayu* and English in official communication within the universities or at least within the faculties.

Although reform to immigration and public service policies may not be within the purview of the Ministry of Higher Education and universities, the third strategy involves drastic reforms to the immigration and civil service regulations as these developments nationally are fundamental for Malaysian universities to truly reach out and bring in the very best talents beyond the national boundaries of Malaysia. Interesting to note, more than 40 percent of academics in Australian universities are not born in Australia (Bradley, Noonan, Nugent & Scales, 2008; Saltmarsh & Swirski, 2010), the number of international academics in British and American universities have also increased significantly in the recent two decades (Pherali, 2012), and in the two oldest universities in Singapore, three quarters of the early career academics on tenure track are international (Holden,

2014).

Thus, for Malaysian universities to become globally prominent, recruiting, integrating and retaining international academics who can contribute to the development of our universities are paramount. This group of academics must not be differentiated but to be integrated. It is also crucial that Malaysian universities are seen to only want international academics when times are good and abandon them when times become more challenging. Recruiting, integrating and retaining talented international academics, specifically the Type 3 into Malaysian public universities must continue regardless of situation and become a part of our organisational culture.

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Appendix

A1: Gender of International Academics

Gender	University 1	University 2	University 3
Male	238	39	77
Female	84	13	24

A2: Age Group of International Academics

Gender	University 1	University 2	University 3
< 30	5	0	2
30-39	123	13	24
40-49	96	24	33
50-59	63	10	41
60-69	28	4	
70 ≥	7	1	1

A3: Academic Position of International Academics

Academic Position	University 1	University 2	University 3
Post-doctoral Fellow/Visiting Lecturer	32	0	12
Language Teacher	46	3	5
Lecturer	11	0	2
Senior Lecturer (Research Fellow)	140	18	46
Associate Professor (Senior Research Fellow)	61	19	28
Professor (Principal Research Fellow)	32	12	8

A4: Discipline of International Academics

Discipline	University 1	University 2	University 3
Accounting, Business, Economics & Management	9	2	4
Engineering and	36	9	11

Architecture			
Medical Sciences, Pharmacy, Dentistry & Health Sciences	75	14	52
Science, Technology & Mathematics	70	14	17
Social Sciences, Education & Humanities	74	13	17
Unknown/Cross-disciplinary	58	0	0

Note: The faculties, institutes and schools have been reorganised by the authors to enable comparability and avoid identification that may jeopardise anonymity of institutions and participants.

A5: Nationality of International Academics

Nationality	University 1	University 2	University 3
Algeria	3	0	0
Australia	3	0	0
Bangladesh	31	17	10
Belgium	1	0	1
Brazil	1	0	0
Bulgaria	1	0	0
Canada	1	0	0
China	11	0	2
Colombia	1	0	0
Comoros	0	0	1
Cuba	0	0	2
Ecuador	1	0	0
Egypt	2	0	2
France	2	1	0
Germany	6	0	2
Ghana	0	1	0
Guatemala	1	0	0
Hungary	0	0	1
India	53	2	22
Indonesia	14	13	11

Iran	42	2	5
Iraq	15	1	12
Italy	2	0	0
Ivory Coast	1	0	0
Japan	37	2	4
Jordan	3	1	0
Kyrgyzstan	1	0	0
Libya	1	0	0
Morocco	1	0	0
Myanmar	7	3	6
Netherlands	1	0	0
New Zealand	1	0	0
Nigeria	4	0	1
Pakistan	9	1	6
Palestine	0	0	1
Philippines	5	0	0
Russia	1	0	0
Singapore	5	0	0
South Korea	6	1	1
Sri Lanka	2	1	0
Sudan	2	1	0
Sweden	1	0	0
Syria	1	0	1
Taiwan	1	0	0
Thailand	4	2	2
Tunisia	1	0	0
Ukraine	0	0	1
United Kingdom	15	0	2
United States Of America	8	2	4
Vietnam	2	0	0
Yemen	11	0	1
Zimbabwe	0	1	0

5. Non-foreign Foreign Academics in Hong Kong: Realities and Strategies

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Abstract

Higher education system in Hong Kong is quite unique in its small size, global competitiveness, excellence as well as high level of internationalization. This chapter aims to reveal strategies and realities of how foreign academics are hired and integrated in one case university in Hong Kong. Base on the in-depth interview data from two senior administrators and five academics in various career stages and disciplines, the preliminary findings has shown foreign academics in the case university have been satisfied with their job and the institution, despite various reasons underlying their choices. There is no stated difference between local and non-local colleagues in promotion, appointment of administrative position and other differentiated treatment. Finally, an explanatory quadrant of foreign academics' satisfaction and integration is constructed around the two dimensions of immediate context and connections. As Hong Kong has advantages in supportive immediate contexts, as well as open and inclusive social environment to access, those foreign academics bring along multiple connections and capitals to fit in and play. Therefore, the foreign academics have felt 'non-foreign' in their work and life in Hong Kong.

1. Introduction

Hong Kong has been known as a cosmopolitan city with East-West cultural mix. With its colonial legacy lasting for over 100 years, higher education system in Hong Kong has also been well recognized of high level of internationalization in the world. QS 2015-2016 statistics reveals that all eight public universities in Hong Kong have more than 40% international academics. According to the CAP research (Teichler, Arimoto, Cummings, 2013), this indicates a very high level of internationalization of academic faculty in the world. It is worth of a close study on why there are such a high proportion of foreign academics in Hong Kong and how they work and live as an international faculty in Hong Kong.

In a recent book chapter, Professor Postiglione and Dr. Xie (2017) used the case of the University of Hong Kong to elaborate the policies and strategies supporting international faculty. However, there were few in-depth studies found in the past to focus on international academics in HK higher education system. Little was known about the policies and actual work-life of those international academics in the HK higher education system. This creates an obvious knowledge gap

from the HK case.

Therefore this chapter aims to explore how international academics are recruited and integrated from cases of lived experiences in one case university. The research finding would shed light on how to integrate international faculty from an exemplary higher education system.

2. Background

Hong Kong is a unique higher education system with eight public-funded institutions. The system is quite small in its number of institutions as well as size of students and faculties. There have been fewer than 100,000 students and around 12,000 staff supported by public funding through the University Grants Committee of Hong Kong by 2015(see Table 1 and Table 2 below). In the year of 2015-2016, there were 1,872 senior and 2,877 junior academic staff among 11,933 full-time staff fully supported by the public funding in Hong Kong (UGC, n.d.). Teacher-student ratio in the HK higher education system is roughly 1:20.

Table 1. Total Student Enrolment in HK UGC-funded programs (2011-2015)

	學年 Academic Year				
	2011/12	2012/13 ¹	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16
Statistics on Overall Student Enrolment of UGC-funded Programmes (Headcount)					
Total Student Enrolment	75 597	93 394	94 635	96 911	98 842

Source: <http://cdcf.ugc.edu.hk/cdcf/searchStatSiteReport.do>

Table 2. Number of Staff in HK UGC-funded Universities (2015-2016)

**Staff Number (Headcount) in Academic Departments of UGC-funded Universities
by Source of Salary Funding, University, Staff Grade and Mode of Employment, 2015/16**

		大學 University								人數 headcount
薪金的資金來源 / 職級 Source of Salary Funding / Staff Grade	受聘形式 Mode of Employment	香港城市 大學 CityU	香港浸會 大學 HKBU	嶺南大學 LU	香港中文 大學 CUHK	香港教育 大學 EdUHK	香港理工 大學 PolyU	香港科技 大學 HKUST	香港大學 HKU	總計 Total
全部由綜合撥款支付 Wholly Funded by General Funds	全職 Full-time	1 475	725	227	2 668	621	1 977	1 472	2 769	11 933
	兼職 / Part-time /	674	250	52	390	254	504	218	224	2 566
	短期合約 Short-term Contracts									
	小計 Sub-total	2 149	975	279	3 058	875	2 481	1 690	2 993	14 499

Source: <http://cdcf.ugc.edu.hk/cdcf/searchStatSiteReport.do>

This elite system has been heavily subsidized by public money. For example, calculated from annual reports of the University of Hong Kong (2016) and the Chinese University of Hong Kong (2016), income from the UGC ranged from around 50% to 60%. Added by 20-25% income from the collected tuition, HK universities comparatively have no pains in the global financial cuts with a

government to support 70%-80% of their annual income. Despite a decoupling with the civil servant salary scale, average academic pay in HK is still globally competitive (Altbach and Postgillione, 2015).

Given its colonial legacy of using English as a dominant working language and the globally competitive pay to attract academics from the global market, this small higher education system is powerful in producing world-class universities. By QS ranking 2015-2016, four out of eight HK universities were listed within top 100 and six within top 300. The rest two institutions are topped in their own specialized fields as liberal arts education and the subject of education. That means the whole higher education system in Hong Kong has been well recognized of its academic excellence and educational quality. Few higher education system in the world can surpass Hong Kong in the intensity and extensity of the systemic excellence. Public money has been well paid off in this aspect.

3. Foreign Academics in Hong Kong: How Foreign is Foreign

Although Hong Kong higher education system has been regarded of high proportion of foreign academics, no accurate statistics can tell how many they are indeed. In other words, it is not a 'yes/no' answer to who is foreign academic and who is not. But it is a continuum of how foreign is foreign in the social context of Hong Kong.

This is partly due to the inherent and common difficulty in defining international/foreign academics by various criteria as birth place, first postsecondary degree place, or claimed citizenship (Altbach and Yudkevich, 2017). But the unique colonial history and the one-country-two-systems political reality of Hong Kong also contribute to the challenges of the definition. For example, although dual citizenship is not allowed by law, quite a number of HK permanent citizens virtually hold two or more than two passports. In practice, they can choose to claim either citizenship to their or institutional advantage in different situations.

Therefore, in the following several reliable data sources of foreign academics will be listed to show the data discrepancy as well as the challenge to define 'foreign' academics in Hong Kong. This also creates the 'visibility' and 'invisibility' of foreign academics in Hong Kong.

Source#1: QS internationalization data. Those data are usually collected from the institutions, either from official reports or from voluntary submission. By claimed passport citizenship, QS 2015-2016 reveals the number of international and total faculty in 7 HK institutions and I calculated the percentage. In general, based on the data from the 7 institutions, there were 6,526 foreign academics, consisting of 58.6% of the total faculty.

Table 3: Foreign Faculty in 7 HK Institutions by QS 2015-2016

	HKUST	HKU	CUHK	CityU	PolyU	BaptistU	LingnanU
Foreign Faculty	834	2,018	1,004	951	1,235	386	98
Total Faculty	1,092	3,054	2,155	1,352	2,417	831	230
Percentage of Foreign Faculty	73.4%	66%	46.6%	70.3%	51.1%	46.5%	42.6%

Source: QS 2015-2016

Source#2: CAP data. From the CAP research (Teichler, Arimoto, Cummings, 2013), 51% senior and 35% junior HK academics at the survey time hold the citizenship or passport other than that of Hong Kong, while 36% senior and 25% junior HK academics were not born in Hong Kong. These data further revealed the differentiated grouping of foreign academics between senior and junior levels. In general, HK higher education system has already been a top system hosting foreign academics in the world.

Source#3: Institutional annual report or institutional statistics open to the public. Not every HK university would release this type of data to the public. Currently, the University of Hong Kong sets an example to make such kind of information available online. According to HKU Quick Statistics 2015, there were 674 international professorial staff (61%) based on their nationalities among all 1,107 full-time academics. Those Mainland Chinese professors were counted as 32.6% of all foreign academics in the University of Hong Kong, the largest group followed by those from North America (23%) and Europe (22%).

To take HKU statistics 2015-2016 as an example, there is an obvious discrepancy between data from various sources as UGC, QS, and the self-disclosed statistics. Even for the total number of faculty in HKU is not clear, not to mention the number of international faculty. Moreover, there is a peculiar problem in Hong Kong as whether the Chinese Mainland professors (those who are holding P.R.China passports) should be counted as ‘foreign’ or ‘local’. In the common practice in Hong Kong, they are usually regarded as ‘non-local’ and ‘foreign’, although they are of Chinese ethnicity.

4. Realities and strategies in the case university

The above data and statistics provide a general impression of how many foreign academics in Hong Kong, but they fail to offer a detailed and thick mapping of which disciplines/faculties they belong to and how they feel and live. This part will base on a case university in Hong Kong and explore what realities the foreign academics face and what strategies are used by individuals and the

institution for adaptation and integration.

4.1. Number of foreign academics

Beyond the officially released statistics, I ventured to explore an alternative method to calculate foreign academics, i.e. to calculate the number of academics belonging to ‘local Cantonese’, ‘non-Chinese’ and ‘Chinese Mainland’ from alphabetic name spelling in the university directory. This method is inspired by the practically used strategy to identify staff for the first contact. As simplified and traditional Chinese and English are derived from separate spelling systems, name spellings could be a convenient tool to estimate academics’ birth places or family origins.

There are two advantages of using it as an alternative and inspirational method. First, it could provide supplementary information when the official statistics are not available. Not many universities are ready to share their personnel statistics for the sake of privacy protection. Usually a general statistics of the whole institution could be found but the detailed data request by gender, disciplines, age, positions would not be entertained. Without such detailed dataset, the analyses are superficial and limited by dimensions. Second, this method is derived from our intuitive social knowledge to identify people. It creates biased impression or even stereotyped judgment, but in this research it helps illuminate two types of foreign academics as ‘visible’ and ‘invisible’. The visible foreign academics bring obvious message from their appearance, names, spoken language and other overt identifiers. The invisible foreign academics are not easy to identify as ‘foreign’. To identify the name spellings in alphabets is an easy-to-use method in the HK context to offer an alternative estimation of foreign academics by two categories as ‘non-Chinese’, and ‘Chinese Mainland’ in contrast with ‘local Cantonese’. At the same time, it serves a sampling strategy for ‘visible’ and ‘invisible’ foreign academics.

This method is not without problem. As Hong Kong is a place of long history of migration, those who bear ‘local Cantonese’ names could be born and receive first degree out of Hong Kong, and hold foreign passports. This group of academics could be underestimated under this method.

I looked through the internally circulated university directory 2015-2016 and found 271 names of Chinese Mainland, 119 of non-Chinese out of 1,053 professorial faculties in the case university. With this measure, the percentage of ‘visible’ foreign academics in the case university is only 38%, quite below the officially released statistics. The gap might be caused by the underestimated ‘invisible’ foreign academics of local Cantonese name spellings.

In each faculty, the number and the ratio of ‘Chinese mainland’ to ‘non-Chinese’ academics are quite interesting. Please refer to Table 4 below for details. In the Faculty of Arts and Faculty of Law, non-Chinese academics outnumber Chinese mainland colleagues, while in the rest faculties, the situation is reversed. In Faculty of Science and Faculty of Engineering, Chinese mainland academics constitute the majority of foreign colleagues in the faculty. The distribution of foreign

academics guides the initial sampling of interviewees in the following case study.

Table 4. Distribution of ‘Chinese Mainland’ to ‘non-Chinese’ foreign academics in various faculties

	Chinese Mainland	Non-Chinese	Ratio of Chinese Mainland to Non-Chinese
Faculty of Arts	15	29	1:1.9
Faculty of Business Administration	46	15	1:0.3
Faculty of Education	7	3	1:0.4
Faculty of Engineering	44	7	1:0.16
Faculty of Law	15	22	1:1.5
Faculty of Medicine	54	24	1:0.4
Faculty of Science	37	5	1:0.14
Faculty of Social Science	46	22	1:0.48

4.2. Interviewees and interview data: sampling and analysis

This case study uses qualitative research strategy and mainly collects data from interviews. There are two university administrators and five foreign academics contacted and interviewed formally or casually during March to May 2015. Each interview lasted more than 30 minutes under permission of the interviewees. Interviews were conducted by myself around the interview guidelines provided by the project investigator. Interviewees were notified of the interview questions at the first contact. Only one interviewee allowed audio-recording and the rest declined.

The two university administrators are female, one serving senior faculty secretary for nearly 30 years and the other department secretary for over 10 years. They are the frontline administrators who are familiar with the university personnel policies and proficient in dealing with related recruitment, promotion and integration.

The five foreign academics are sampled by considering distribution of foreign academics in different faculties, gender, positions, career stage and visibility of personal background. They are anonymized with modified characteristics to protect their identity (see Table 5). In this case study the data have covered experiences from 5 faculties, especially from a non-Chinese academic in Faculty of Arts and a Chinese Mainland academic in Faculty of Science; of various service durations and positions in the case university. There is only one male and one invisible foreign academics included.

Table 5. Interviewees

Names (anonymized)	Birth place	Citizenship	Gender	Faculty	Service	Position	Visibility
AL	Europe	North America	M	Arts	Over 25 years, tenured, retiring	Associate Professor	Visible
BD	Mainland China	Chinese Mainland	F	Science	Over 10 years, tenured	Associate Professor	Visible
CE	Mainland China	Chinese Mainland	F	Education	1 year, untenured	Assistant Professor	Visible
DT	Europe	European	F	Social Science	2 years, untenured	Assistant Professor	Visible
EJ	North America	North America	F	Business	Over 25 years, tenured, retiring	Associate Professor	Invisible

4.3. Findings

4.3.1. Policies and strategies

From the policies and strategies perspectives, according to informants, the case university has practiced similarly as other HK higher education institutions in the four aspects.

First, wider local and international recruitment practice. The case university requires every academic recruitment advertisement should be enlisted both in the local and international newspapers or websites. Local advertisement should appear in both Chinese and English media, for example Chinese on *Mingpao* and English on South China Morning Post. The international advertisement should appear on the renowned academic media, e.g. Times Higher Education, or other important academic events, major international conferences e.g. AERA. Such policies on recruitment advertisement have ensured the coverage of potential local and international applicants. The practice is not ad-hoc but regular and institutionalized.

Second, equal treatment of academics. The case university emphasizes herself as equal employer, in which no prejudice or unfair treatments based on gender, ethnicity, citizenship, and etc. are allowed. The legal system and governmental regulations in Hong Kong also protect equal treatment of employees. It is illegal of any kind of differentiated treatment in recruitment, promotion and retirement. Therefore, the interviewed foreign academics didn't feel any obstacles or privileges

of promotion, advancement to leadership positions or other personnel decisions based on colleagues' citizenship. Currently, salary package, leaves, benefits, and travel allowances are provided regardless of citizenship or identities.

Third, favorable considerations for foreign academics. Under the rule of equal treatment, foreign academics could only enjoy once-off non-local employee's travel/luggage allowance at their first arrival. In early days, non-local academics received housing allowances while local academics couldn't. But this policy was removed in 1995. These favorable considerations were offered to the needs rather than unfair privilege.

Last, there is a rising policy concern to increase the number of international faculty for the sake of global higher education ranking competition. Recently, a strategic head-hunting project has been prompted towards competitive international applicants. Under such a scheme, the head-hunted international faculty might enjoy better package and favorable leadership positions.

4.3.2. Realities and issues

The realities and issues faced by the interviewed foreign academics can be concluded from language, motivations, future plan, and the felt differences.

First, language. Hong Kong as a global city with colonial legacy, English is assumed of its linguistic and intellectual primacy in the Hong Kong higher education system. Any academic employed is at least linguistically capable in English. English is a medium for teaching and working in any Hong Kong university. In the case university, any official document will provide both English and Chinese versions. In some occasions, only English version is provided. In the daily practice of department/faculty meetings, English is the working language. Therefore, foreign faculty can understand no Chinese at their arrival but the deficit of local language would not affect their work with colleagues. They have no obvious troubles with local colleagues, either linguistically or culturally.

However, when working with their students, the interviewed foreign academics are surprised to discover that their students' English is not as good as they have imagined. Because of the inconfidence in using English as a medium of instruction, students are usually troubled with total English teaching and learning (quoted from Professor AL). Student-teacher interactions are also impaired in some way. Three interviewees expressed their concerns and struggles in using English with their local students.

Second, motivations. The reasons for the five academics to move to Hong Kong can be summarized as family reason, and geographical, cultural and academic proximity. These reasons are quite similar to what have been identified by Professor Rumbley and Professor de Wit (2017). In the real decision situations, these considerations are compounded and evaluated intuitively. However there seem existing gender differences behind the decisions. Female academics in this case study

weighted more on family. Professor CE and Professor DT clearly explained their choices of HK for family reasons. Added on that, diversified cultures as well as international school places have facilitated their settlement with family members. There are also practical attractions from the competitive package as well as academic reputations of Hong Kong higher education. These are not the foremost attractions to the interviewees but no one denied such attractive factors to affect their decisions.

Third, future plan. All five interviewees claimed they would like to stay as long as they can. The tenure system in HK universities has an age limit. Professor AL and Professor EJ had to retire when they reached retirement age. Any foreign academic who is employed by an institution can easily obtain working visa. By law, anyone who has legally stayed in HK over 7 years can apply for permanent residence. However according to the interviewees, the status of HK permanent residence and HK passport do bring some convenience of travelling but not so attractive to them. However Professor AL and Professor EJ as senior members raised their concerns of retirement benefit scheme in HK. One interviewee mentioned that some of their foreign colleagues in their 50's would consider to move back to Australia or UK so as to ensure their pension while there is no retirement protection in HK.

Last, the felt differences of the foreign academics. Apart from the differences felt from students, the interviewees did feel no obvious differences or strangeness in their work and life in HK. Only one new member mentioned the detached and not-so-warm office culture compared with her previous experiences. In general, they have effortless acculturation in the case institution. In this sense, they are paradoxically the non-foreign foreign academics in Hong Kong. Overall they have been satisfied with their choice and their work.

5. Discussions

There are two dimensions in the quadrant as immediate contexts around the foreign academics and the connections/capitals they bring with. The immediate contexts include (1) the general institutional policies of recruitment and promotion, (2) departmental administration, colleagues in the same unit, and students to teach, (3) living support, for example apartment and daily chores, and kids' educational arrangement. Hong Kong as an international metropolitan has advantages in providing international school places, transparent and fair employment opportunities, as well as affordable household helper services to support family. Although the price of apartment is quite high in HK, foreign academics can afford decent places with generous housing allowances provided by institutions. Therefore, not only the globally competitive package itself to attract international faculties to Hong Kong universities, but also the wider and institutional inclusive and supportive contexts could easily accommodate them.

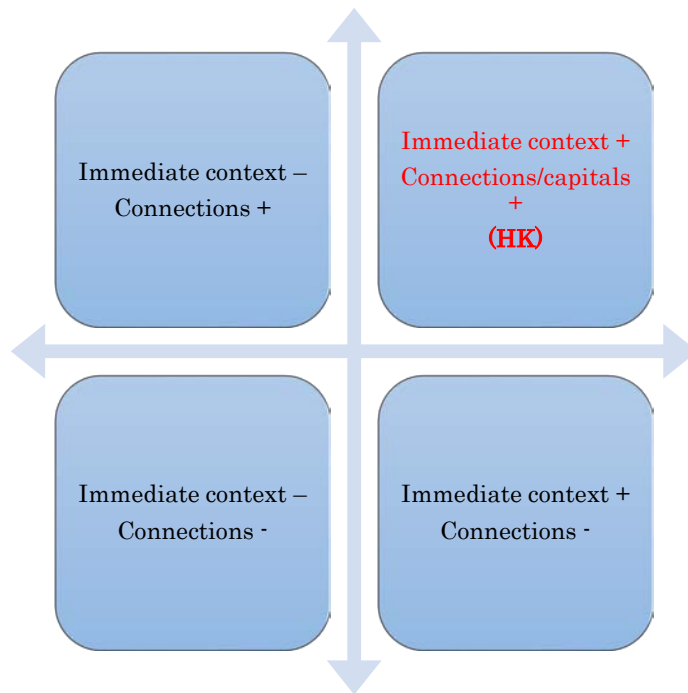


Figure 1: An explanatory quadrant of foreign academics' integration and satisfaction in HK

Moreover, individual foreign faculties bring along their connections and various capitals to facilitate their settlement in Hong Kong. Those connections include family members, previous friends and research partners. These constitute strong social capital to help them quickly fit in a new place. Hong Kong is a place to let the East meet the West. Either people from Western societies or from Eastern, especially those originally from the Chinese Mainland would favor HK as an easy place and a middle point to settle down. They also bring along English as a kind of linguistic capital which is highly valued in Hong Kong.

With positive and supportive contexts in HK, foreign faculties bring along strong and positive linguistic and social capitals in the process of integration and acculturation. Metaphorically, the contexts themselves are a 'socket' with various adaptors and the incoming foreign academics are multi-functional plugs. So both sides meeting in HK make the acculturation easy and effortless. As a result, the level of their satisfaction and integration is quite high compared with other systems. The proportion of international faculties in HK higher education system is almost the highest in the world.

6. Limitations and suggestions for the future study

Given the small sample size and the qualitative case method used, this preliminary study has the following limitations to be noted. First, it is a tricky question of asking how satisfied in the face-to-face interview. The five academic interviewees replied with high satisfaction of their work and life, but I still hold in question their embarrassment of telling their dissatisfaction. Moreover, there might be higher level of dissatisfaction of the left foreign academics. According to the senior members interviewed, some foreign academics chose to go back to their home countries for the sake of pension. This clue might suggest a new research on those who have left and the reasons behind. The second limitation of this study is that the senior male foreign academics are hard to access. I have contacted two senior male foreign professors with email but no reply was received. Last, this case study lacks samples from faculties of engineering, medicine and law. Therefore no data could be obtained to analyze how much different disciplinary backgrounds would matter in the integration of foreign faculties. However those limitations from this study could suggest more sophisticated researches on this issue in the future.

Therefore, based on this study, it could be suggested to the future research on (1) the left foreign academics, senior male foreign academics as well as foreign academics from different faculties are worth of careful and sophisticated study and (2) a comparative case country study is needed to verify and modify the explanatory quadrant proposed. With those extended and in-depth studies, the understanding of foreign academics' work and life can be raised and uplifted for better practices and better theories.

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6. International Academics in the Netherlands: Changes, characteristics and implications¹

Futao Huang¹

Abstract: The purpose of this study is to describe an overview of changes to inbound international faculty members to Dutch higher education institutions, their main characteristics, and forces or agents of change which occurred in them, and the implications for Japanese higher education. The analysis and discussion are based primarily on official statistics issued by the Dutch government, professional associations, individual higher education institutions, earlier relevant literature, case studies and interviews with administrative and academic staff in the Netherlands. With regard to the structure, it begins with a short introduction to the Dutch higher education system and academic profession and then analyzes key characteristics of international faculty members being employed in Dutch higher education research universities. The third section deals with major forces and agents of change which affected international faculty members in Dutch higher education institutions. The article concludes by summarizing main findings and offering implications for research, policy, and practice.

Keywords: international faculty member, the Netherlands, academic profession internationalization of higher education

Introduction

In recent years there has been an increase in the numbers of both international students and faculty at the global and regional levels (OECD, 2016; Altbach, 2013). This trend can also be

¹ I would like to express my sincere thanks to all faculty members, researchers and administrators in the Netherlands who kindly accepted my interviews in late September 2016. My special gratitude goes to Eric Beerkens, Dr. Jos de Jonge, Dr. Elizabeth Koier, Professor & Dr. Marijk van der Wende for their insightful responses to my interviews and questions about the inbound international academic staff in the Netherlands.

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identified in the Netherlands, which has not only provided the largest number of English-taught programs in continental Europe, including 282 English-taught Bachelor's programs, 1,172 English-taught Master's programs, and almost all of English-taught PhD programs (Nuffic, 2015), but also tried to attract more international students, researchers, and faculty members.

Numerous previous studies have been conducted on the Dutch policy of internationalization of higher education; acceptance of international students; academic exchange activities with other countries and regions; development of international joint degree programs; implementation English-taught programs; etc. (Huisman & van der Wende, 2004). Yet, while often seen as an important part of international mobility of the academy or academic profession, little research has focused upon international faculty members or researchers in Dutch universities. The Netherlands has maintained strong economic and cultural contacts with Japan as early as the Edo period in the 17th century. The impact of the Netherlands on the modernization of Japanese society and its higher education systems is considerable and evident. Even today the Dutch higher education system is used as one of the important examples of non-English-speaking country for Japan to emulate in its higher education reforms.

This study presents an overview of changes to international faculty members inbound to Dutch higher education institutions; their main characteristics; the forces or agents of change which occurred in them, and the implications for Japanese higher education. The analysis and discussion are based primarily on official statistics issued by both government, professional associations, and individual higher education institutions in the Netherlands; and previous relevant literature, case studies, and findings from interviews with administrative and academic staff in the Netherlands. The article begins with a brief introduction to the Dutch higher education system and academic profession, and then it analyzes key characteristics of international faculty members employed in it. The third section deals with major forces and agents of change which occurred to international faculty members in Dutch higher education institutions. The article concludes by summarizing main findings and offering implications for research, policy and practice.

There are diverse interpretations of the phrase "international faculty member." As used in this study the phrase refers to academics working in university and other types of higher education institutions with a foreign passport. Namely, non-Dutch faculty members. In addition, as to be mentioned in the following section, although there are two types of higher education institutions in the Netherlands, the number of international faculty members is a small number of the total, for example, according to an incomplete data, there are only about 3% of research group leaders in universities of applied sciences in the Netherlands (De Jonge, 2017).

Besides, according to Internationalization Vision which was released by VSNU² in 2014 (VSNU, 2014), no data are available on international staff of universities of applied sciences. This study is mainly concerned with faculty members with non-Dutch who work in research universities.

In addition to the analysis of national policies, documents, and national statistics, several semi-structured interviews were conducted in late September, 2016 based on similar interview outlines in the Netherlands. Altogether six interviews were undertaken in three research universities (Leiden, Amsterdam, and Utrecht), one national research institute, the Association of Universities in the Netherlands (VSNU), and the Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education (Nuffic). Interviewees included one Dutch administrative staff, one Dutch professor and three international faculty members at Leiden University, one Dutch professor at the University of Amsterdam, one Dutch Dean of Graduate Studies of Utrecht University, two Dutch researchers at the Rathenau Institute, two key Dutch persons from VSNU, and one Dutch administrator from the Nuffic.

Characteristics of the Dutch higher education system and its academics

Dutch higher education system

Unlike Japan, the Netherlands has a binary higher education system. In terms of mission or function, there are two types of higher education institutions. One refers to research universities in which research-oriented education (*wetenschappelijk onderwijs*, WO) is offered. Programs at research universities are more academically oriented and more theoretical in nature. They emphasize academic skills and independent research. In addition to a Bachelor's or Master's degree, research universities can also award the PhD degree. As of 2014-2015, there were 13 universities in the Netherlands, excluding the Open University. Approximately 254,541 students are enrolled. Among these universities, six provide a full range of disciplines, three universities – the universities of technology in Delft (TUD), Eindhoven (TUE) and Twente (UT) – focus predominantly on engineering and technology. Every Dutch university has programs for both graduate and undergraduate students. The system is split between Bachelor's degrees and Master's degrees, after which there is the potential to go on to study for

² The VSNU, Association of Universities in the Netherlands, is formed by the fourteen Dutch research Universities. VSNU represents the universities to the government, parliament, and governmental and civic organizations.

the PhD. All research universities are in the Top 300 of the Times Higher Education Ranking 2014; 6 out of 13 research universities made it into the Top100 (VSNU, 2016; Nuffic, 2016b).

The other type implies universities of applied sciences (*hogescholen*), also called institutions of higher professional education, in which higher professional education (*hoger beroepsonderwijs*, HBO) is offered. As of 2014-2015, there are 39 universities of applied sciences in which nearly 445,725 students are enrolled. Programs at universities of applied sciences prepare students for particular professions and tend to be more practically-oriented. Therefore, graduates find employment in various fields, including middle and high-ranking jobs in trade and industry, social services, health care, and the public sector. In higher professional education, research tends to be application-related and the research capacity and research funding is far less substantial than in the research universities. They also lead to either a Bachelor's or Master's degree (Nuffic, 2016a) but have an emphasis on undergraduate education.

Further, according to European Education Directory (EU, 2015) and VSNU, by administration all higher education institutions can be practically split into three different sectors in the Netherlands as follows:

First are government-funded institutions. They include both research universities and universities of applied sciences. They are funded by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science or the Ministry of Economic Affairs, Agriculture and Innovation, but can also charge their students government-approved fees. Second are legal entities providing Bachelor's-level and/or Master's-level accredited degree programs. Financially speaking, they can be considered to be private institutions because they are not funded by the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Science except for some religious institutions. Their operation is primarily supported by fees collected from students. Similarly to universities of applied sciences, a large number of them are concerned with providing application-oriented or practical training for occupations for which a higher vocational qualification is either required or useful. Third are private-sector institutions which are not covered by the Higher Education and Research Act. They include foreign universities and business schools to which Dutch government regulations do not apply.

The academic profession in the Netherlands

Based on the binary system and a clear division of labor between research and universities of applied sciences, faculty members belonging to research universities spend more time on research and are involved in the delivery of comprehensive and research-oriented academic programs. University of applied sciences faculty allocate more time to teaching and paying

more attention to applied and practical programs. Compared with Japan, although there are academic ranks including professor, associate professor, assistant professor, other academic staff (teachers and researchers), and the appointed PhD students or PhD candidates are also considered faculty members in the Dutch academic profession in relation to academic rank. Moreover, postdoc position is often seen as the first step in an academic career after a PhD is obtained. It is not only important for the individual career, but also for career policy. The job profile researcher (level 3 or 4) corresponds best to what used to be called ‘postdoc’.

Similar to Japan, academic positions in the Netherlands are structured hierarchically. At the top are professors, then associate and assistant professors, and below them a broad range of other academic staff (researchers and teachers) with PhD students on the bottom rung (De Goede, Belder & De Jonge, 2013).

Table 1. Dutch academic staff in 2011 (per type of contract and task)

	persons			full-time			task	
	total	permanent	temporary	total	permanent	temporary	education	research
Academic staff total of which	28,252	11,348	16,903	24,595	9,652	14,937		
Professor	3,153	2,769	384	2,584	2,425	159	×	×
Associate professor	2,437	2,319	118	2,187	2,118	69	×	×
Assistant professor	5,422	3,847	1,575	4,707	3,334	1,373	×	×
Other Academic staf, of which	8,230	2,411	5,819	6,410	1,774	4,636		
Teacher	3,405	1,669	1,736	2,202	1,155	1,046	×	
Postdoc	3,564		3,564	3,155		3,155		×
Researcher	875	683	192	701	567	134		×
Other	386	59	327	353	52	301		
PhD student	9,009	2	9,007	8,706	1	8,705		×

Source: 1. VSNU/Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs Personeelsinformatie (WOP)
2. De Goede, M., Belder, R. and De Jonge, J. (2013). Academic Careers in the Netherlands 2013. Facts & Figures 7. The Hague: Rathenau Instituut.

Note: 1. This does not include the category of endowed professors. The registration of this group is not yet unvocal.
2. Next to PhD students with an appointment as student employee at a university, there are also PhD students that work on a thesis without such as appointment (for example, from a job at the government in business). They form a substantial part of the number of PhD obtained, but they are not registered univocally.

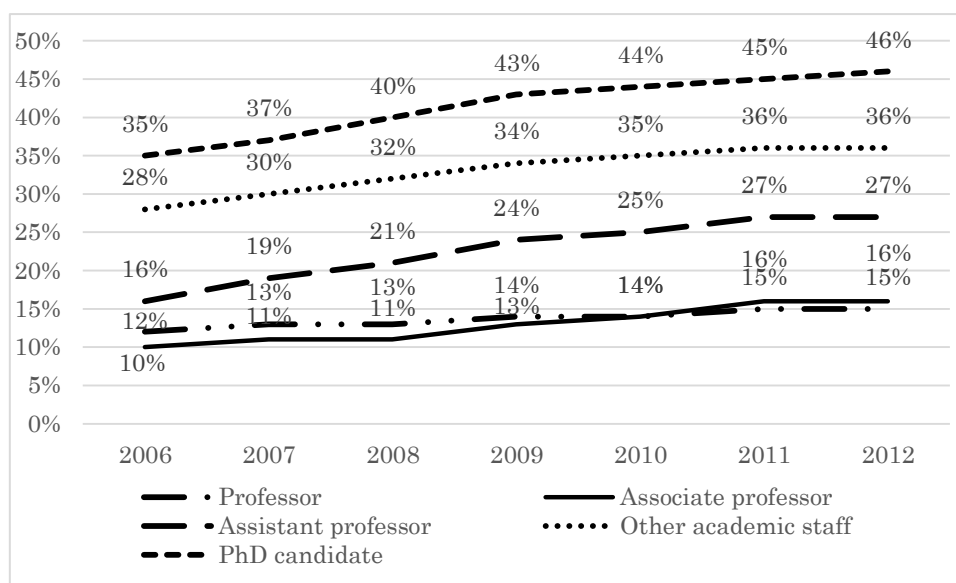
Changes to international faculty members

For nearly the last two decades, there has been rapid growth in the share of international faculty members in the Netherlands. As Koier, Scholten and Horlings (2016) noted in research

universities alone, the proportion of international faculty members increased from 17% in 2003 to 33% of the totals in 2015.

Figure 1 also shows the same trend. Firstly, except for a slight decline in the proportion of PhD candidates from 2014 to 2015, there was a steady increase in proportions of international faculty members by academic rank or status from 2006 to 2015. Secondly, over this time the proportion of PhD candidates accounted for the largest share, followed by other research staff, in particular post-doctoral students, and Lecturers who did not fall into the other categories. In contrast, the proportion of Full professor constituted the least share of the totals. The percentage of PhD candidates grew from over 33% in 2006 to over 44% while the percentage of Full professors only grew from about 12% to nearly 16% of the total. Thirdly, compared to others, the proportion of Assistant professors had an exceptionally rapid rise, rising from 14% in 2006 to 28% in 2015. Fourthly, interestingly, by 2010 the proportion of Full professors exceeded that of Associate professors, but by 2015, the proportion of Associate professors was larger than that of Full professors by nearly 4%.

Figure 1. Proportion of international faculty



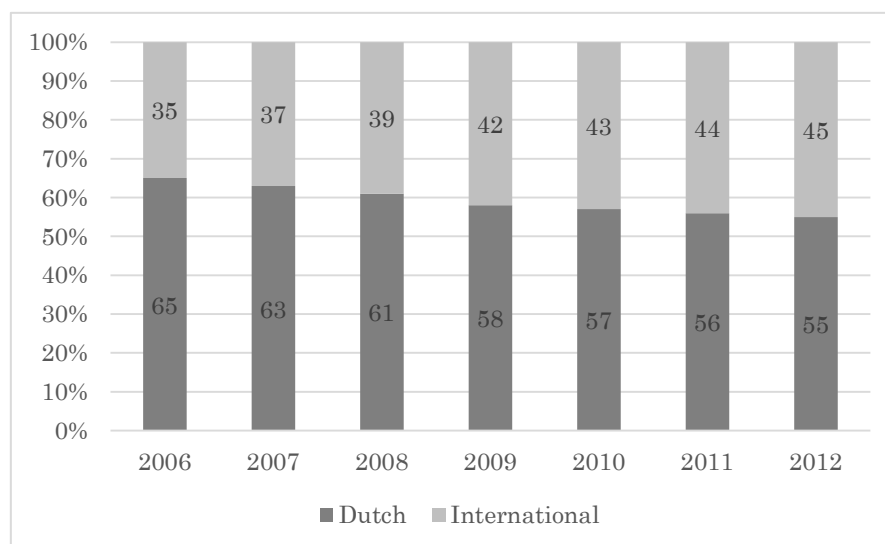
Source: http://www.vsnul.nl/en_GB/f_c_internationaal_wp.html

Note: Due to lack of valid data, the medical sciences have been excluded.

Figure 2 clearly reveals that there was a gradual decrease in the proportion of Dutch PhD candidates with a continuous increase from 2006 to 2012 in international PhD candidates. As noted earlier, since PhD candidates are counted as an integral part of Dutch faculty and make up the largest proportion of total faculty members in both Dutch academics and international academics (Table 1 & Figure 1), changes in the proportion of international PhD candidates, in a

major sense, have had a significant impact on the composition and structure of the entire faculty in Dutch higher education.

Figure 2. Changes in the proportions of Dutch and international PhD candidates (%) (2006-2012)



Source: http://www.vsnul.nl/en_GB/f_c_internationaal_wp.html

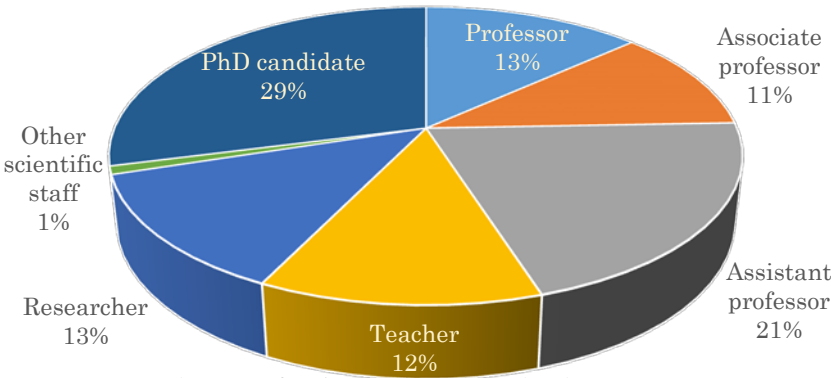
Note: Academic medical staff are not included.

As suggested in Figures 3 and 4, by 2012, although the proportions of both Dutch PhD candidates (29%) and international PhD candidates (47%) made up the largest shares of the totals respectively, differences between them by academic rank are considerable and evident. For example, among international faculty members; the second largest group are Researcher (23%); the third largest group are Assistant professors (15%); the fourth largest group are Professors (5%); then comes the proportion of Associate professors (4%); and the least group are Teachers (3%) and other scientific staff (3%). In contrast, among Dutch faculty members, however, the second largest group are Assistant professors (21%); followed by that of Professors (13%) and Researchers (13%); the fourth largest group are Teachers (12%); the fifth largest group are Associate professors (11%); and the least group are other scientific staff (1%).

International faculty members in the Netherlands can be grouped by regions of origin into two broad types: those from EU/EEA and those from outside EU/EEA. Figures 5 and 6 present all full-time international faculty members who come from EU/EEA and outside EU/EEA respectively. They suggest, firstly, that by 2012 by regions of origin, the total number of international faculty members coming from EU/EEA (20.7%) are more than those from outside EU/EEA (12.5%) and secondly, the proportion of faculty members with higher academic rank such as Professor, Associate professor, and Assistant professor from EU/EEA are larger than those from outside EU/EEA. While those from EU/EEA, the percentages of

these academic ranks are 6%, 6% and 18% respectively, the proportions of international faculty members holding these academic ranks from outside EU/EEA are 2%, 2% and 11%.

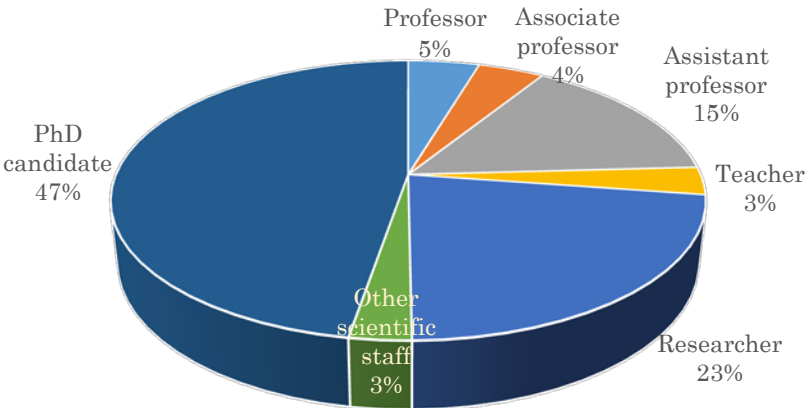
Figure 3. Breakdown of Dutch faculty by academic rank (2012)



Source: http://www.vsnu.nl/en_GB/f_c_internationaal_wp.html

Note: No data are available on staff resorting under a different, non-university employer (such as academic medical centers) or staff hired from third parties. These data do not include academic medical staff. Also no data are available on international staff of universities of applied sciences.

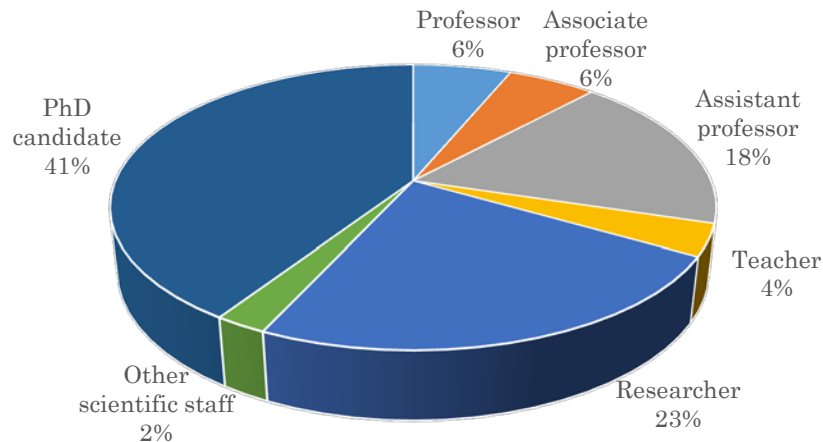
Figure 4. Breakdown of international faculty by academic rank (2012)



Source: http://www.vsnu.nl/en_GB/f_c_internationaal_wp.html

Note: No data are available on staff resorting under a different, non-university employer (such as academic medical centers) or staff hired from third parties. These data do not include academic medical staff. Also no data are available on international staff of universities of applied sciences.

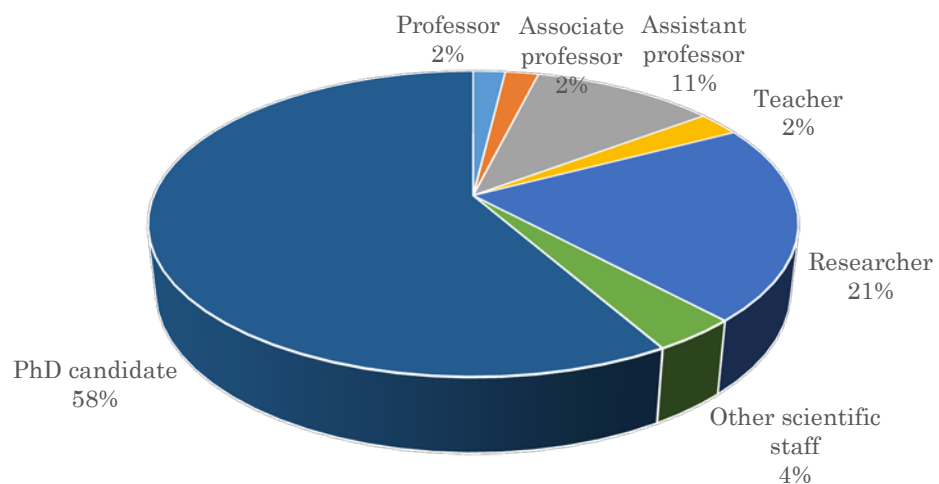
Figure 5. Breakdown of international faculty from EU/EEA (2012)



Source: http://www.vsnul.nl/en_GB/f_c_internationaal_wp.html

Note: No data are available on staff resorting under a different, non-university employer (such as academic medical centers) or staff hired from third parties. These data do not include academic medical staff. Also no data are available on international staff of universities of applied sciences.

Figure 6. Breakdown of international faculty from outside EU/EEA (2012)



Source: http://www.vsnul.nl/en_GB/f_c_internationaal_wp.html

Note: No data are available on staff resorting under a different, non-university employer (such as academic medical centers) or staff hired from third parties. These data do not include academic medical staff. Also no data are available on international staff of universities of applied sciences.

In relation to country of origin, according to reports published by the VSNU and others, from 2007 to 2013, around 3,000 university positions went to PhD students, researchers, and professors from abroad. The number of Dutch personnel remained stable at 20,000. International researchers and lecturers came mainly from south and Western Europe, namely Germany. However, as there were about 650 PhD students and researchers from China, this

country is also seen as an increasingly important source of academic knowledge (Wittenborg University Press, 2014).

Actually, previous studies also demonstrate that by country of origin (Table 2), in both 2003 and 2011, the largest number and proportion of PhD students came from Germany, followed by those from China. The third largest group was from Italy. In 2011, the next largest nationality groups were Indian, Iranian, and Turkish, while in 2003, Belgian PhD students remained the fourth largest group among foreigners (De Goede, Belder & De Jonge, 2013, p.23).

Table 2. Nationalities of PhD students in the Netherlands in 2003 and 2011

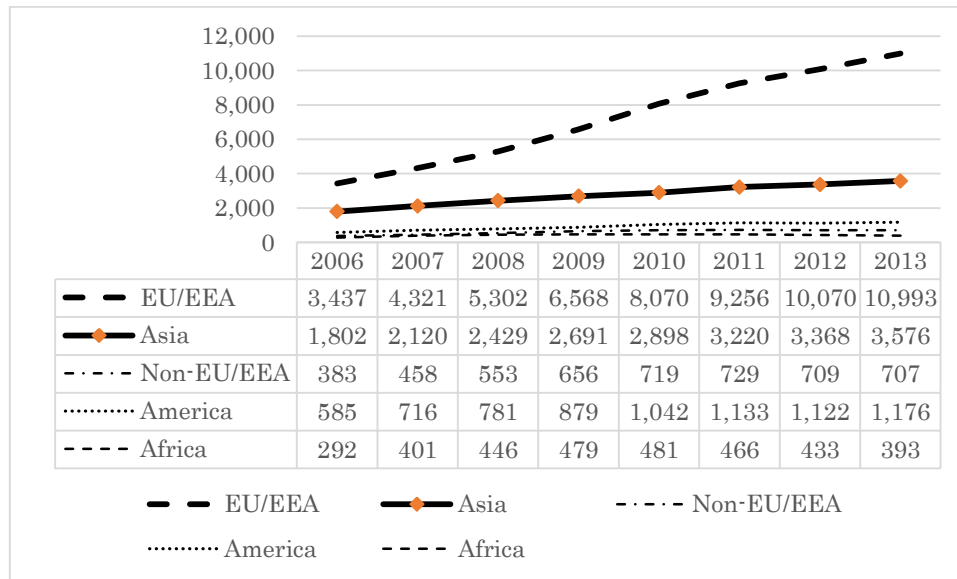
Nationality	2003		2011	
	Number	%	Number	%
Dutch	4,197	64	5,124	56.9
German	161	2.5	523	5.6
Chinese	155	2.4	387	4.3
Italian	122	1.9	285	3.2
Indian	94	1.4	248	2.8
Turkish	40	0.6	208	2.3
Belgian	118	1.8	143	1.6
Polish	83	1.3	130	1.4
Greek	32	0.5	104	1.2
Other	1,529	23.3	1,638	18.2
Total	6,555	100	9,009	100

Source: 1. VSNU/WOP

2. De Goede, M., Belder, R. and De Jonge, J. (2013). Academic Careers in the Netherlands 2013. Facts & Figures 7. The Hague: Rathenau Instituut p.8

A similar situation can also be found in Master students. For example, as revealed in Figure 7, from 2006 to 2013, there was a steady and the most rapid expansion in numbers of Master students from EU/EEA, followed by those from Asia. In contrast, students from Africa and Non-EU/EEA were constant.

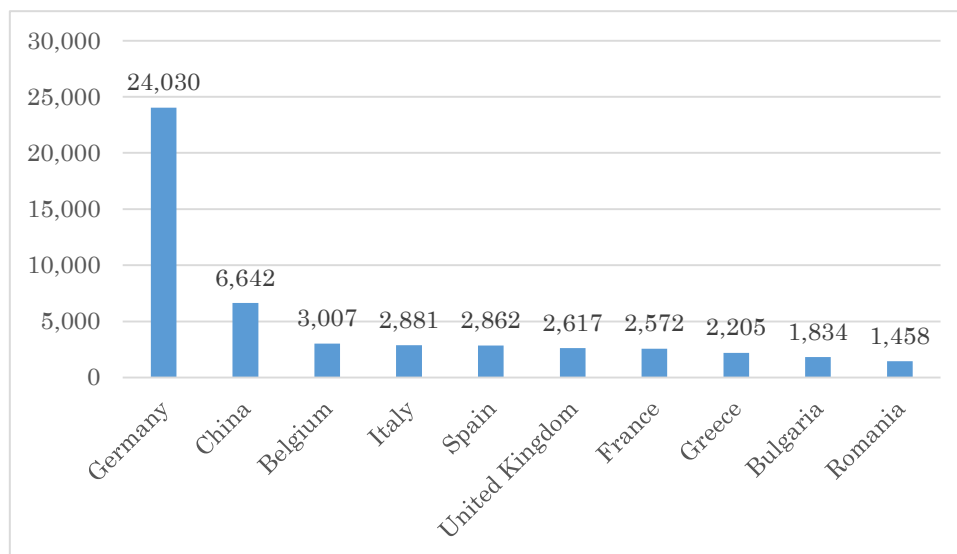
Figure 7. Changes in enrollment of international Master's students in research universities (person)



Source: http://www.vsnu.nl/en_GB/f_c_internationaal_wp.html

Additionally, the latest national data for inbound international students to all Dutch higher education institutions, including those studying in universities of applied sciences, shows that by origins of country, the largest numbers of students came from Germany, followed by those from China. These two groups, especially German students, constitute the lion's share of the totals.

Figure 8. International students by country of origin (as of 2015)



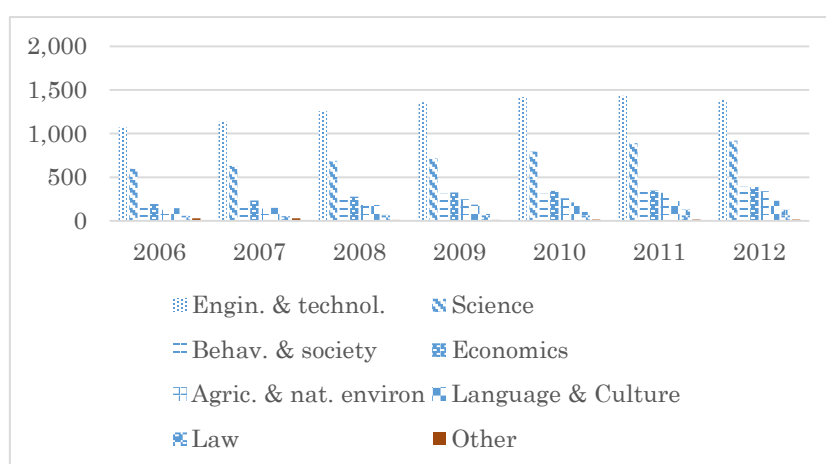
Source: Nuffic (2016b). Key Figure

<https://www.studyinholland.nl/documentation/key-figures-2015-internationalisation-in-higher-education.pdf>

According to Koier, Scholten and Horlings (2016), as of 2015 the largest proportion of international faculty members by discipline were from engineering (nearly half of the total), followed by those from natural science (about 40%), the third largest proportion of them from economics (nearly 35%), faculty members from other disciplines (mainly from humanities) makes up 30% of the total; and their proportion is slightly more than those from agricultural science (30%). Among all disciplines, the least proportion of faculty members comes from law, although constituting less than 20% of the total.

In terms of changes in international faculty members by discipline, as is firstly shown in Figure 9 and Table 3, from 2006 to 2012, the largest number of international faculty members came from engineering and technical fields, followed by those from science, and the third largest numbers were those from economics. In contrast, except for Other, the least numbers of international faculty members belonged to law. Furthermore, compared with other disciplines, especially those from science, experienced the quickest expansion over the period.

Figure 9. Number of international PhD candidates by discipline (person)



Source: http://www.vsnu.nl/en_GB/f_c_internationaal_wp.html

Table 3. Numbers of international PhD candidates by discipline (person)

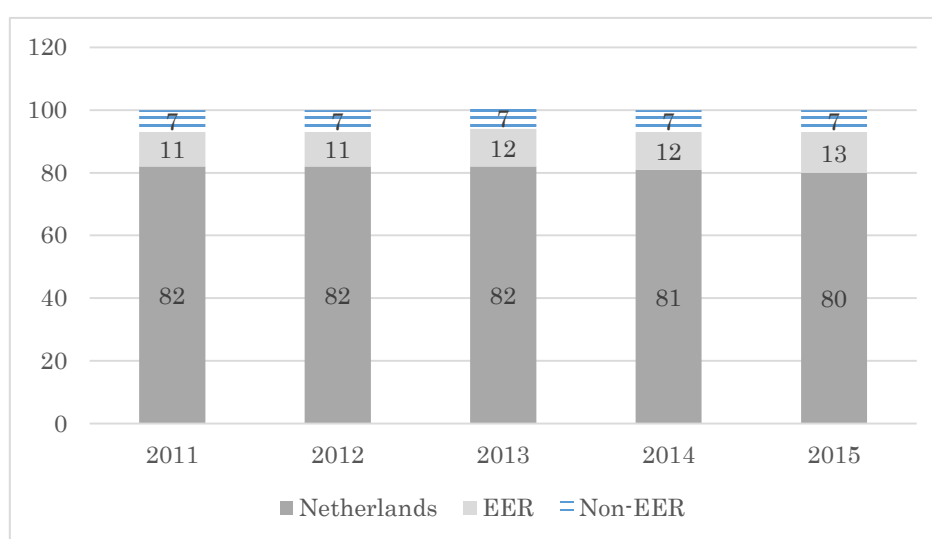
Discipline	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Engin. & technol.	1,071	1,138	1,257	1,360	1,419	1,435	1,385
Science	596	632	688	717	796	892	921
Behav. & society	184	201	241	311	313	346	391
Economics	195	235	278	327	343	348	389
Agric. & nat. environ	128	142	184	250	262	321	342
Language & Culture	148	150	184	188	213	229	230
Law	57	56	71	80	103	132	129
Other	29	30	12	10	13	13	13
Total	2,408	2,584	2,915	3,243	3,462	3,716	3,800

Source: http://www.vsnu.nl/en_GB/f_c_internationaal_wp.html

The case of Leiden University

Leiden University, the first in the Netherlands, was founded in 1557. It is an internationally-oriented university in which a wide range of internationally-inspired Bachelor and Master programs are provided.

Figure 10. Changes in international staff in Leiden University (%)



Source: “Personeel in Cijfers 2016”. Leiden University. Provided by Dr. Eric Beerkens from Leiden University

Note: Including all staff (academics and administrative/ support staff) in the university, excluding the medical center.

Figure 10 shows that with a gradual decline in the proportion of Dutch staff members (Academic Faculty + Administrators and support staff) from 82% in 2011 to 80% in 2015, there was a steady increase in international staff members from 18% to 20% of the total. While the proportion of international staff members from outside the European Economic Area stable, the proportion of faculty members within the European Economic Area grew from 11% in 2011 to 13% in 2015. If only academic staff members are taken into account, Leiden University has a composition of approximately one third international faculty versus two thirds Dutch faculty members.

The case of Wittenborg University

Wittenborg University of Applied Sciences represents a typical example of non-university sector in the Netherlands. It was established in 1987 and is one of the fastest growing of such universities in the Netherlands. Its mission focuses on 5 key themes, “Management,

Internationalization, Diversity, Sustainability, & Innovation”. As of 2015, it had around 600 students from more than 80 different countries studying in its Bachelor and Master programs in two schools: Business and Hospitality & Tourism (Wittenborg University, 2015).

According to University Press, it was recently commended by the German accreditation body, FIBAA, for the international composition of both its staff and student body. By 2014, its teaching and support staff came from 20 countries, including the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, China, Germany, Nigeria, Ireland, Zimbabwe, Kenya, Switzerland, Ireland, Nepal, Italy and New Zealand. Teaching staff in its Master’s programs consist mainly of lecturers from the Netherlands and the United Kingdom and also includes lecturers from Pakistan, Kenya, Germany and Greece. In the past two years, it has had regular exchange teachers from European countries such as Spain, Latvia, Austria, Romania as well as Canada and the United States (Wittenborg University Press, 2014).

Forces and agents of changes

Major drivers and factors behind these changes to international faculty members are summarized below:

At the regional level, there has been an increasing demand for academics and researchers in the European Economic Area for several decades. The opening up of the labor market has been very much supported by action in the framework of the European Research Area (ERA) framework, including the academic labor market. For example, in 2004 the European Commission estimated that a net increase of one million researchers would be needed for the next decade. Despite large numbers of talented and skilled researchers in Europe, and the total number of which exceeds that of the United States, Japan, and China, they account for a significantly lower share of the labor force than is the case in the United States and Japan. The Commission also states that without more researchers and an open labor market for them, Europe cannot remain globally competitive (European Commission, 2013).

The Bologna process which started in 1999 has also indirectly contributed to the opening up of the academic labor market, although its primary purpose is to facilitate student mobility across borders in Europe. It has made it much easier not only for faculty members to find jobs within the European Economic Area, but also for faculty members coming from outside Europe to be employed in European countries, including the Netherlands. Relatedly speaking, a rapid increase in the number of international students from Asian countries such as China, and Pakistan, and parts of European countries such as Italy, Romania, etc. has provided more sources and possibilities for the mobility of PhD candidates and other types of academics.

At the national level, as early as the 1980s, the Dutch government imposed a policy of inviting international reviewers to participate in external evaluation of Dutch higher education institutions in order to assure and improve education quality and research activities. During the process, it has facilitated a rapid advancement of internationalization of higher education in the Netherlands. The importance of introducing international evaluation on Dutch higher education cannot be overstated. It has largely created an international environment for individual universities and incorporated international perspectives and content into faculty members' teaching and research activities, as well as enhancing the overall level of internationalization of Dutch higher education (Interview in VSNU). In recent years, the government has developed more national policies with a goal of attracting more international talents, especially the intellectually brightest worldwide, to help the Netherlands play a leading role in research and innovation.

Unlike some European continental countries or the United Kingdom, the Netherlands is perceived as having a very liberal immigration policy for knowledge workers. Also universities in the Netherlands offer the academic culture and facilities that top academics expect, including autonomy, academic freedom, unrestricted information access and laboratories. For example, international postdoctoral graduates and academics who pursue employment in the Netherlands can be issued a visa which permits them to stay a relatively long time. Both liberal immigration and academic policies have provided a favorable environment which attracts international faculty members to come and stay in Dutch higher education institutions for the sake of academics (interview from Dean of Graduate Studies at Utrecht University).

Several interviewees stressed the following reasons why there has been rapid growth in international faculty members to the Netherlands, especially those from EU/EEA. "Although I have a Dutch passport and my nationality is the Netherlands, I am also a European citizen. Academically speaking, more importantly, you should seek for the best brains and top talents from all over the world if your university wants to be the best in the world and attract best students from the world." Besides, differing from France or Germany, there is an emphasis on English teaching in junior and middle schools. English is naturally considered as the preferred second language. The English environment can be felt in the Netherlands. For example, through television and newspapers, as well as other media, Dutch children and young adults can easily learn and improve their English proficiency. At the same, it also makes it possible and more convenient for international faculty members who do not understand the Dutch language to survive and enjoy their academic life in Dutch universities without worrying about a language problem.

Interviews with two lay persons from the VSNU indicated that it, as a national professional association has tried from its establishment to keep in line with Netherlands' national policies

and strategies for growing internationally as a knowledge-driven economy and adding an even more international dimension to its education system. Its report also emphasizes that “Dutch students will profit from this and world-class research will boost innovation.”

As mentioned earlier almost all Dutch research universities, compared with many European ones, are highly ranked in major global ranking systems, and a broad variety of research subjects in the Netherlands enjoy an extremely high reputation worldwide. According to Academic Transfer, several science disciplines in the Netherlands’, such as the food sector, water management, (industrial) design and engineering are ranked among the top in the world. And PhD candidates are treated differently compared to other countries; they are not perceived as students, but as employees. This status gives them another more evident and responsible role within their university department (Academic Transfer, 2016). However, according to Beerkens (2017), this situation is changing now. Because many international PhDs are in a PhD program in Dutch universities but are funded by scholarships from their home governments. They do not have employee status. The same goes for the part-time PhD candidates that conduct PhD research next to their regular jobs.

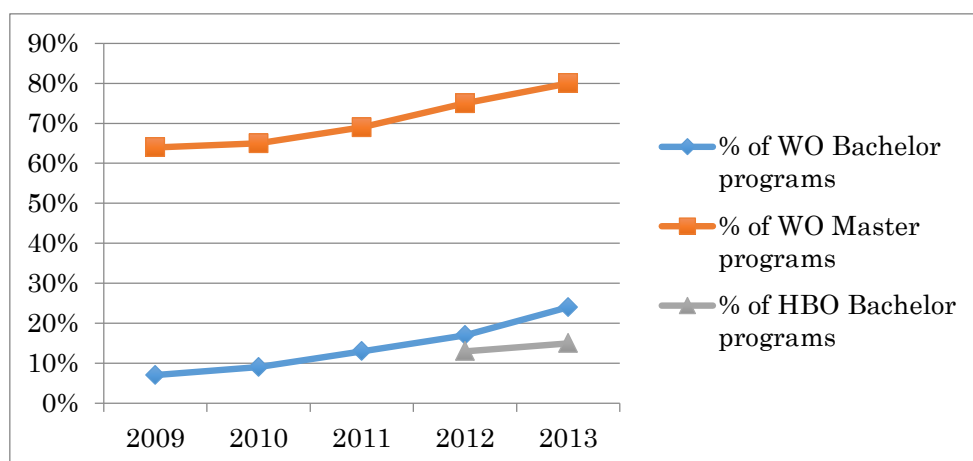
Another important factor is that the Netherlands has provided more and more English-taught programs in recent years, seeking to foster graduates equipped with international perspectives, knowledge, skills, and competencies. As indicated in Figure 11, the percentage of English-taught Master-level programs in research universities increased from 64% in 2009 to 80% in 2013, and the percentage of English-taught Bachelor-level programs increased from 7% to 24% in the same period. In universities of applied sciences, from 2012 to 2013, the percentage of its English-taught Bachelor-level programs grew from 13% to 15%. Furthermore, the interviews with two key persons from VSNU also show that, by 2015, approximately 80% of Master’s level courses are taught in English, and although only about 27% of their Bachelor-level programs are delivered in English, they are considering providing almost all courses in English. Rapidly stressing the importance of English-taught programs can also be considered an enormous attraction for both international students and faculty members

An interviewee at Leiden University who is in charge of internationalization summarized why his university has made efforts to recruit international faculty members.

“As a highly internationalized university, the most important and fundamental policy here is to recruit the best talents or faculty members from the world. The only criterion is academic performance no matter what his or her nationality is. There are other important drivers for a rapid expansion in numbers of inwards international academic staff. For example, European research policies and research funding has had both a direct and an indirect effect on the attraction of foreign staff, mainly European. Moreover, the fact that many foreign PhD students receive

scholarships (e.g. CSC/China and other scholarship schemes) has brought many foreign PhDs to the Netherlands.”

Figure 11. English-taught study Bachelor’s and Master’s Programs



Source: VSNU (2014). Internationalisation Vision.
http://www.vsnunl/en_GB/f_c_internationaal_wp.html

Concerning the recruitment of international faculty members, a professor from the University of Amsterdam said below:

“All of our academic positions are open internationally. Dutch universities encourage faculty members to publish internationally. So it is good for international faculty member to work here, too.”

And lastly, the two interviewees from the VSNU mentioned one of reasons why Dutch universities want to recruit international faculty members and how they do so.

“As a small country, we always depend on international relations with other European countries, there is no exception for higher education. Although they are more concerned with attracting PhD students and postdoctoral students from other countries, academic transfer even send out staff to universities in other European countries to Boston and Beijing to recruit faculty members.”

Concluding remarks

This study has shown that there has been for the last several decades a steady expansion in the number of international faculty members in Dutch universities. This increase in international faulty members is apparent in almost all types or academic ranks, especially the rise in both numbers and proportion of PhD students is substantial and obvious. Furthermore, compared with many other European countries such as France, Germany and non-English-speaking

countries such as Japan, China, and Korea, the Netherlands has not only made significant efforts in developing and offering English-taught programs, but also achieved much progress in attracting international faculty members to its higher education. In a major sense, Dutch higher education and its composition of faculty members have been more international and its academic labor market has become more open to the world as well.

By region and country of origin and academic rank or status, it is true that clear differences can be identified between international faculty members from EU/EEA and those from outside EU/EEA. As discussed earlier, the number and proportion of international faculty members from EU/EEA, especially Germany have accounted for the largest portion of the total international faculty members, and there are more percentages of international faculty members who professors, associate professors, and lecturers from EU/EEA. However, the data also indicates that there has also been a rapid growth in Chinese faculty members. With a continuous increase in postgraduate and doctoral students from China in the Netherlands and other European continental countries, one can assume that there will be more international faculty members coming from China in the future.

Rationales for this growth are concerned with diverse factors at different dimensions. It goes without saying that the long-standing EU policy of internationalization of higher education and the Bologna process, as well as the acceptance of the concept of European citizen in EU/EEA have greatly contributed to the formation of a favorable academic labor market and the mobility of students, researchers, and faculty members at a regional level. The expansion of international faculty members in the Netherlands has naturally benefitted from these policies and the establishment of the European dimension of higher education. The emphasis by the Dutch government on the importance of attracting top talents worldwide and linking it with building a society with innovation and global competitiveness has had a profound impact on the expansion of international faculty members. This national-level ambition and vision, together with the national policy of immigration, academic freedom and autonomy, as well as an eagerness to increase the number of universities with international reputations have all driven the rapid attraction of international faculty members to Dutch universities.

Implications for research include the necessity of examining the correlation or connection between changes in incoming international students and incoming international faculty members to the Netherlands. For example, through what routes are international faculty members recruited and employed in Dutch universities? Roughly how many incoming international students become faculty members who are employed by Dutch universities? What factors have affected their decision to work in Dutch universities? Moreover, are there any differences in academic productivity, teaching, or social services between Dutch faculty members and international ones? If so, what accounts for the differences? What specific role

or roles do international faculty members play in their affiliations or in Dutch society? How much does this contribute to the realization of various ambitions and vision of the Dutch government and individual universities? Implications for policy and practice perhaps are more concerned with the following issues: how significantly the Dutch way of attracting international faculty members can be applied to other non-English-speaking countries? What can be learned from the Dutch policy and practice of accepting international faculty members to its universities? And to what extent should international faculty members be encouraged to come work a tone's national higher education system? In what sector, at what level and in what disciplines? Should the large size of an academic system like China or Japan also employ more and more international faculty members similar to what is being done in the Netherlands? Should society at large become more internationalized or English-oriented in all its aspects in order to accommodate international faculty members?

Acknowledgement

This study is part of research project, titled 'A Study of Foreign Academics Recruitment in the International and Comparative Perspectives' (Code of research project: 15H05200). It is funded by the Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research from Japan Society for the Promotion of Science.

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7. International Faculty Members in Japanese universities: Changes and challenges

International Faculty Members in Japanese Universities: Changes and Challenges

The 4th Higher Education Research Association Conference on
“Equity, Employment, and Mobility in Asian Higher Education”
27-28, May 2016 at the University of Hong Kong

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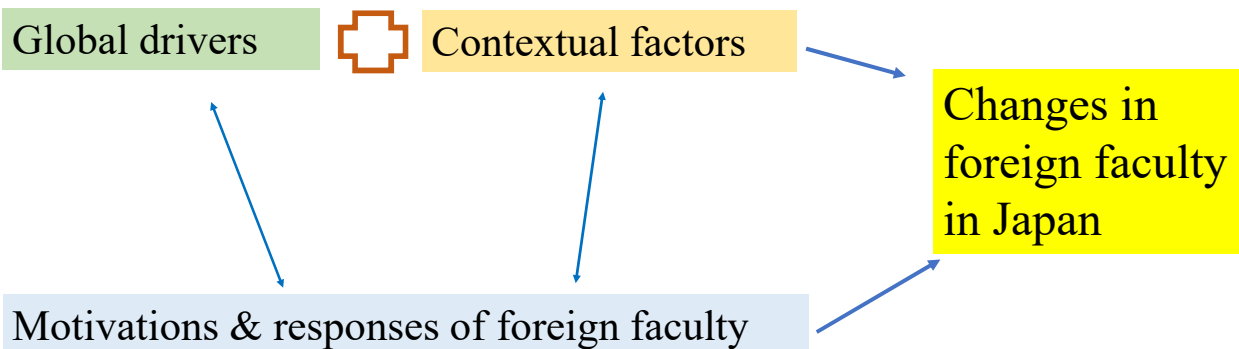
Outline

- Research design and methods
- Changes in full-time foreign faculty members in Japan
- Factors behind the changes and challenges
- Concluding remarks

2

Theory and Research Design

Push & Pull factors of immigration, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Social Capital and Social Networks, and World-Systems Theory are employed in the research design.



3

Research questions

Based on the research design, the study addresses the following three research questions:

- What changes had happened to full-time foreign faculty members in Japan over the period of 1980–2015?
- What factors are behind these changes? And
- To what extent the relevant approaches and theories can be applied to the Japanese context?

4

Data sources and methods

National Statistics, whitepapers, and University Reports

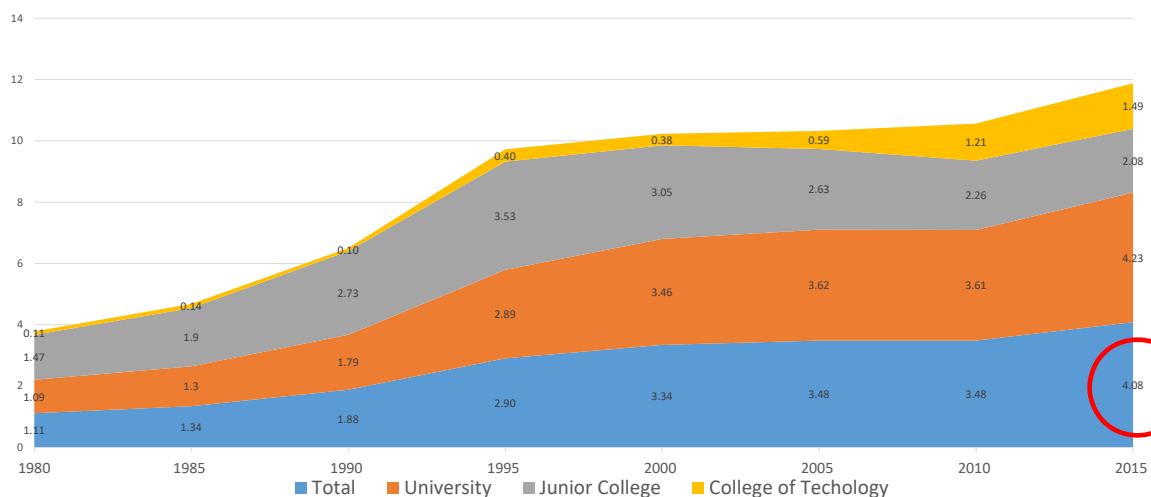
- MEXT. *Basic Investigation on School Education: Higher Education Institutions*. 1980-2015 [In Japanese.] Tokyo
- MEXT. *Statistical Abstract* 1980-2015 editions Tokyo
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- *The University of Tokyo Guidebook* 2001- 2015.
- Annual Reports of Waseda University, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, and Hiroshima University.

Outline of Case Studies

Interviews conducted in August 2015-April 2016

University	Location	Sector	Year of Establishment	Type	Interviewees
Kyusyu University	West	National	1911	Research	Associate Professor in social science from the UK
Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University	West	Private	2000	Teaching	Vice president of international affairs, one professor in social science from the USA, and one associate professor in science from Iran
Hiroshima University	Central	National	1949	Research	One associate professor in engineering from Viet nam, one professor in humanities from France
Aizu University	Northwest	Prefectural	1992	Teaching	Director of international affairs, one professor in science from China, one associate professor in humanities from Australia
Waseda University	Tokyo	Private	1902	Research	Vice president of international affairs, one professor in social science from Korea, and one associate professor in science from Africa

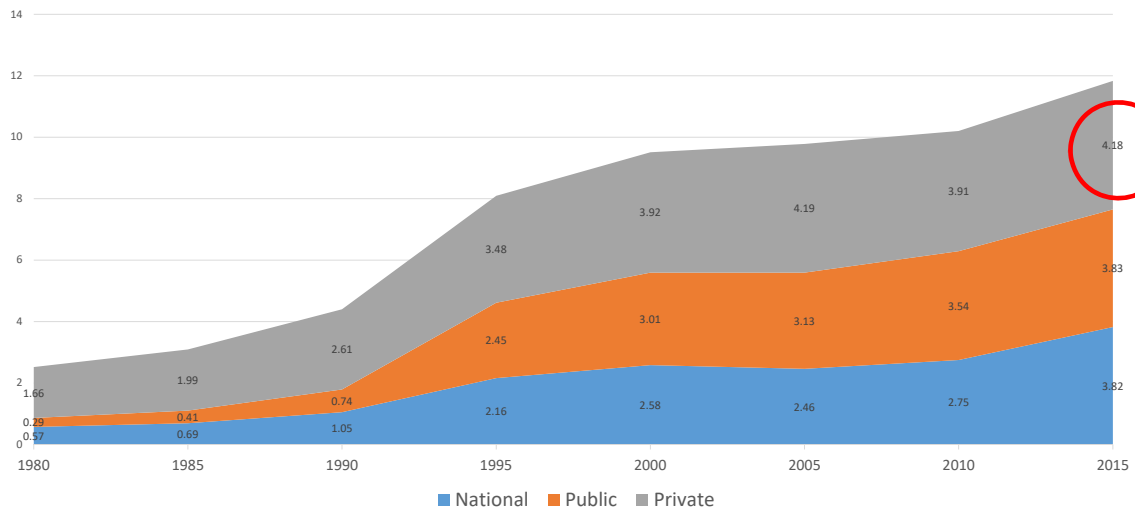
Changes in the ratio of foreign faculty members by type of institutions (%)



The percentage of full-time foreign faculty was increased from 1.11% in 1980 to 4.08% in 2015 in total, with the largest percentage of them in university by 2015.

6

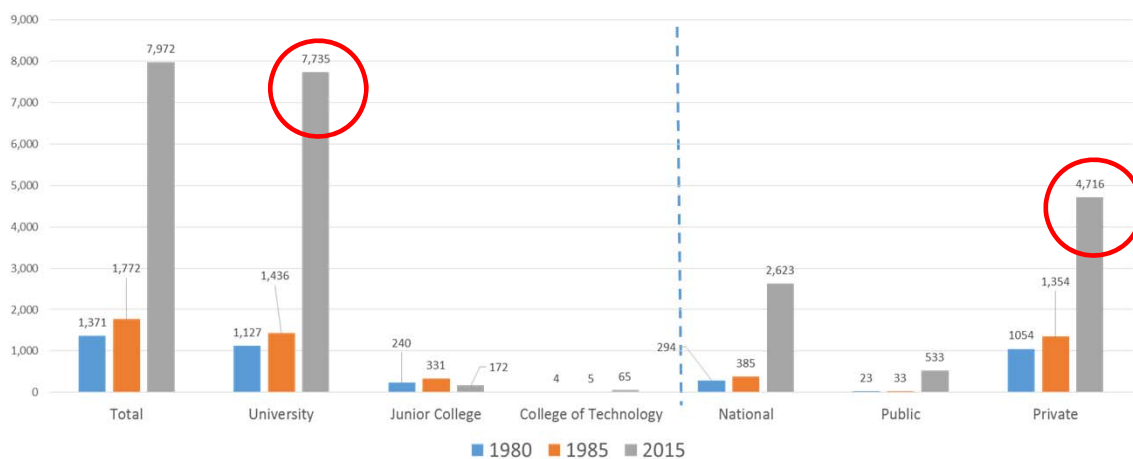
Changes in the ratio of foreign faculty members by sector (%)



There was the largest increase in the percentage of full-time foreign faculty in private university between 1980-2015.

7

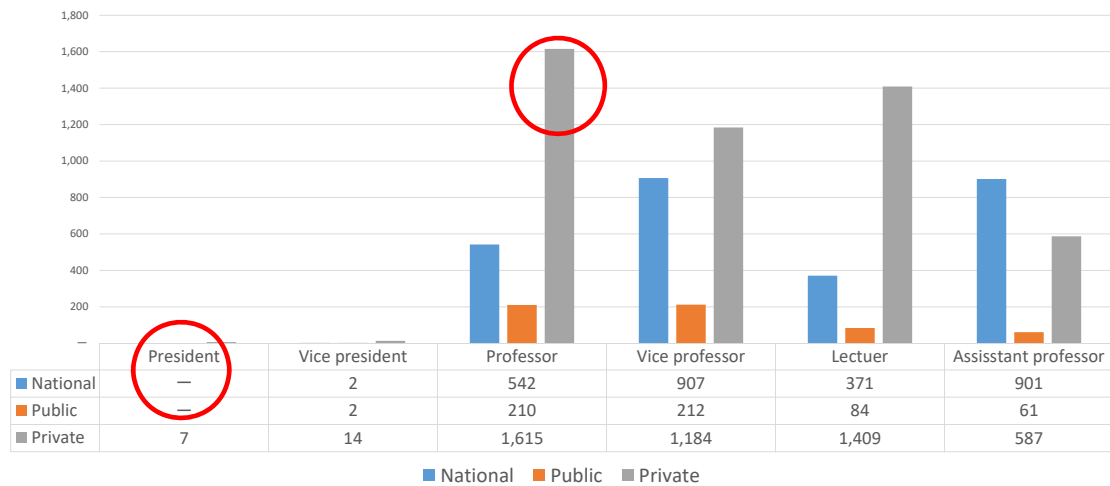
Changes in the number of foreign faculty members by type & sector (person)



There was the largest number of full-time foreign faculty in private university by 2015.

8

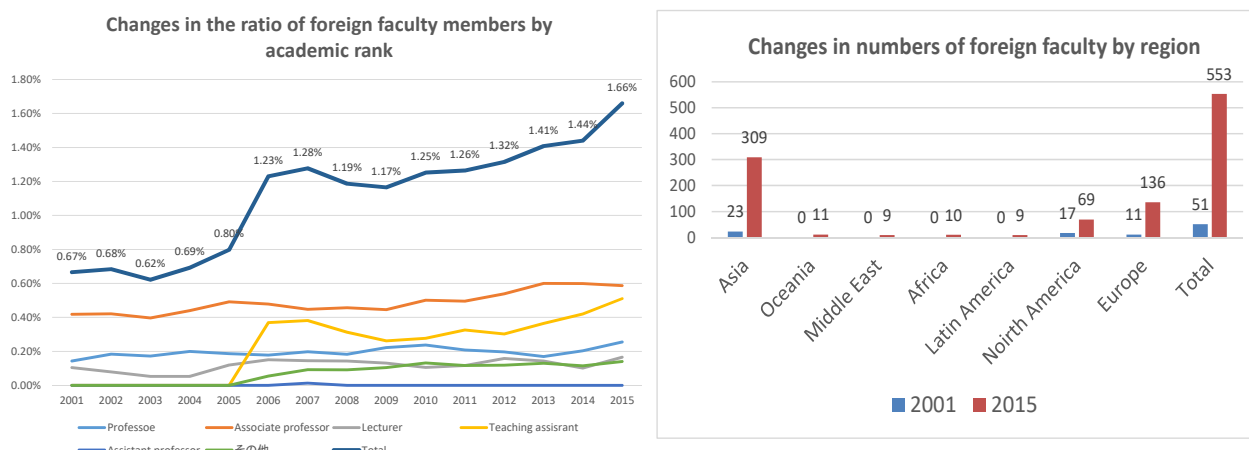
Numbers of foreign faculty members by administrative position and academic rank (2015)



There was no any foreign President in either national or public prefectural sector. There was the largest number of full-time foreign professors in private universities by 2015.⁹

Case of the University of Tokyo

A national university with its largest numbers of foreign faculty members in Japan

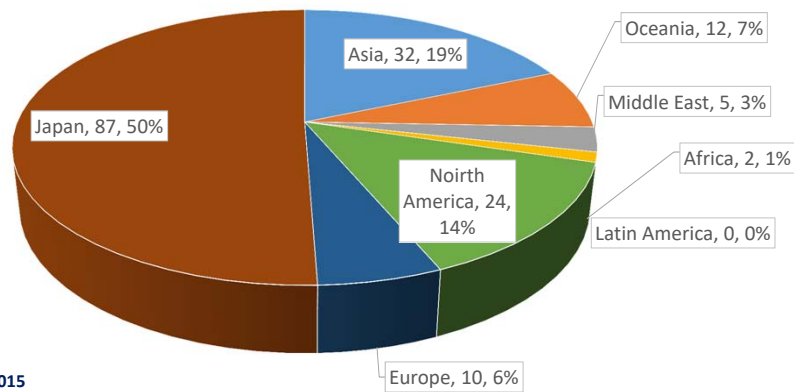


Source: The University of Tokyo Guidebook 2001-2015

10

Case of Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University:

A private university with the largest share of foreign faculty members of the totals



As of 1 May 2015

Source: <http://www.apu.ac.jp/home/about/content60/>

11

What factors are behind these changes?

Global drivers

- Rapid progress of globalization.
- Increased international mobility of academics.
- Growingly international competitiveness of higher education.
- Widening gap in R & D of higher education and research between different systems.
- Impact from global university ranking systems.

12

What factors are behind these changes?

Contextual factors: at a policy level

- *Special Measures Act for the Appointment of Foreign Staff at National and Public Universities* in 1982.
- Incorporation of National, Prefectural and Municipal Universities since 2004.
- *Global 30 Project* in 2009.
- English Education Reforms Plan Corresponding to Globalization in 2013
- *Top Global University Project* in 2014.

13

What factors are behind these changes?

Contextual factors: at an institutional level

- Private institutions with the mission of internationalization since their establishment such as APU
- Universities with an aim of building a center of excellence in specific discipline such as Aizu University in computer science.
- Universities attempting to attract more talented international students by providing more English-taught degree programs.
- Universities aims at becoming world-class universities by increasing the ratio of their foreign faculty members.

14

What factors are behind these changes?

Foreign faculty being employed in Japan

- For a better quality of life or to be closer to one's spouse or family.
- For a more favorable working condition.
- For esteem and self-actualization.
- To find work.

15

Challenges taking place in full-time foreign faculty members in Japan

- The share of full-time foreign faculty members still accounts for less than 5 percent of the total. The academic market of Japanese academic profession is not so internationally opened as North America or European countries.
- There are very few numbers of foreign Presidents or Vice-presidents, and there was none of foreign Presidents or vice-presidents in national or public prefectural sector.
- Due to the requirement of high level of Japanese proficiency for foreign faculty members in their academic work and daily life, plenty of them feel isolated and find it difficult to be integrated into local community, team work with local colleagues, and governance & management activities.
- A large number of them seem to worry about their future employment, the future of their children and their pension.

16

Concluding remarks

- Strongly affected by increased global competitiveness of higher education, and directly supported and facilitated by the central government, there has been a quick increase in full-time foreign faculty in Japan, especially in the private sector at a higher academic rank.
- There is little doubt that foreign faculty have played more and more important roles in their belonging institutions. However, a vast majority of foreign faculty still play a supporting role which they used to be as early as in the 19th century. In recent years, increasing numbers of foreign faculty is more considered to be one of the quickest and effective means to enhance the level of internationalization of Japanese higher education and to raise their ranking in several global university ranking systems.
- The relevant approaches and theories mentioned earlier can be largely applied to this case study, especially the economic, environmental, intellectual, and social factors seem to have exerted more evident and considerable influences on foreign faculty members' moving to Japan.

17

Thank you

18

8.Foreign faculty in Japan: a trial of quantitative survey



Foreign faculty in Japan a trial of quantitative survey

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1



Akiyoshi Yonezawa, Kenji Ishida, & Hugo Horta, 2013. 10 The long-term internationalization of higher education in Japan. In Mok, Ka Ho, & Yu, Ka Ming, Internationalization of Higher Education in East Asia: Trends of Student Mobility and Impact on Education Governance, Routledge. 179-191.

2

The meanings of transnational mobility of academics in various national contexts

- Center of Learning (one way mobility)
 - Germany (before WWII) to US (after WWII up to now)
 - Attraction of global brains: agglomeration economy (external economies of scale)
- Knowledge hub (circulation)
 - Singapore: hub of brain circulation through strong national policy support
- Others
 - English speaking HE systems: mingled with brain gain/brain drain game
 - Non-English speaking HE systems: supporting local students/academics to act internationally: academic instructors, language teachers

3

- Leading knowledge economies
 - English speaking HE systems: UK, Australia
 - Attraction of global brains through national policies promoting research competition and HE as an exporting industry
 - Non-English speaking HE systems: France, Japan...
 - Concentration of talents with their own language space
 - Attraction of global talents through national policies in
 - (A) Fostering foreign researchers who can work inside their own language space or bridge over plural language spaces
 - (B) Supporting local students/academics to act internationally: academic instructors, language teachers

4

Non-Japanese academics and Japanese HE

- Policy intentions
 - Brain gain as science and technology policy (from 1950s- or older)
 - World class university policy (2001)
 - Global 30 (5 to 10% of academic staff should be **non-Japanese**)
 - Top Global University Project (Submission of numerical target as a Key Performance Indicator: **those who have at least 1 or 3 year study/working experiences abroad, foreign degrees**)
 - Human rights for non-Japanese residents
 - **Non-Japanese faculties at the establishment of first generation universities/HEIs were replaced by Japanese with studying experience abroad**
 - Non-Japanese citizens (including Korean & Chinese residents for historical reasons) were not allowed to be full faculties of national and local public universities until 1982
 - New comers who gained Japanese citizenship or the status permanent residence
- ‘Self-contained’ & limited attraction for ‘supporting local students/academics to act internationally’ or language teachers
 - **Survey in English language by RIHE, Hiroshima University (1980) via universities**
 - 371 respondents
 - 87.8% from North America or Europe
 - 77.4% engaged in language education

5

Koizumi Yakumo (Lafcadio Hearn)

- Born in Greece under Protestant Anglo Irish father and Greek mother in 1850
- Raised by his father's aunt in Ireland
- Educated in France and England (Catholic school and college)
- Migrated into US in 1869, and developed his career as a journalist and translator
- Sent to West Indies in 1887 as a correspondent
- Sent to Japan in 1890 as a correspondent, gained teaching position at a middle school, a normal school, and a higher middle school
- Taught English Literature as a lecturer at Tokyo Imperial University (1896-1903)
- **Gained Japanese citizenship in 1896**
- **Left Tokyo Imperial University (as a termination of contract), succeeded by Soseki Natsume**
- Taught at Waseda University (1904)
- Died in 1904

6

Non Japanese Faculties at Japanese Universities

- 6,292 (3.6%) fulltime faculties (2010) cf. 27.3% in UK (HESA) 7,735 (4.2%) full time faculties (2015)
- No available information more at the national aggregated statistics
 - Non faculty positions (part-time, research fellows, post doctoral fellows etc.)
 - Fields, citizenship, careers, private life, networks, etc.
- Questionnaire survey to non-Japanese and Japanese faculties by Yonezawa et.al. in 2009 '**Survey on the International Attractiveness of Japanese Universities**'
 - 3,925 academics at 34 public and private universities ranked highly in terms of the number of non-Japanese academics staff (around 50% non-Japanese and 50% Japanese with similar characteristics)
 - Covers around 1/3 of non-Japanese academic staff
 - Sent to universities based on publicly available staff lists on the websites: 637 (16.2%) responded
 - **Sent questionnaires both in English and in Japanese**

7

Research questions

- What is the characteristics of academic labor market, especially from a viewpoint of non-Japanese academics?
 - Entry: From which countries and in what fields do non-Japanese professors enter the academic labor market in Japan?
 - Positioning and perspective: What are the factors which give influence on positioning, behavior and self-recognition of foreign faculties?
 - Career perspective: Do they think Japan as a final destination or a transit point in their career?

8

Citizenship, Fields & Final Degrees

Nationality	Research Fields				Final Degree			
	STEM	Language, Humanities & Social Sciences	Literature, Education, & Area Studies	N	Japan	Home Country	Other Countries	N
Japan	48.0	31.0	21.0	248	84.9	84.9	15.1	225
China	76.3	15.8	7.9	38	62.2	35.1	2.7	37
non-OECD countries	80.0	6.7	13.3	30	53.3	36.7	10.0	30
USA	16.0	32.0	52.0	25	11.5	80.8	7.7	26
OECD (English speaking) + Singapore	25.0	30.0	45.0	20	10.0	70.0	20.0	20
OECD (non-English speaking)	21.4	42.9	35.7	14	30.8	53.8	15.4	13
Korea	69.2	30.8	0.0	13	84.6	0.0	15.4	13
UK	25.0	25.0	50.0	12	16.7	75.0	8.3	12
India	66.7	33.3	0.0	6	16.7	83.3	0.0	6
Total	49.3	28.1	22.7	406	66.2	20.9	12.8	382

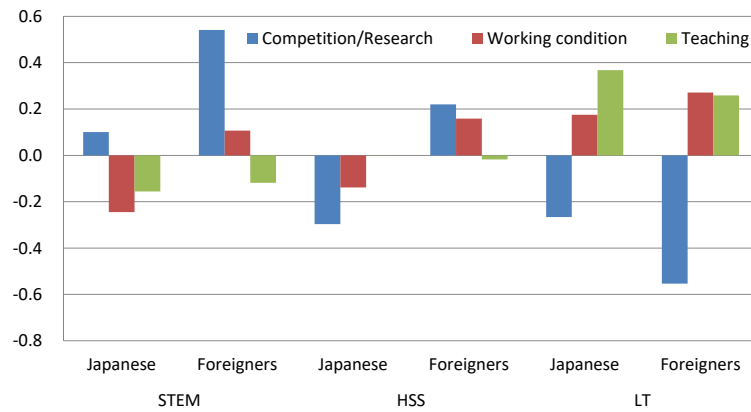
9

Job choice

	Research/ Competition	Work Condition	Education/ Governance
Competitive environment	0.77	0.00	0.09
Merit is a precondition for career advancement	0.68	0.12	0.30
The job which makes progress in my career	0.62	0.33	-0.10
Excellent colleagues in research or teaching	0.61	0.29	0.13
Condition for research activities	0.61	-0.07	-0.01
Geographic location of institution	-0.16	0.73	-0.05
Prestige of the university	0.33	0.62	-0.15
Salary/income	0.24	0.61	0.20
Human relationships in the workplace	0.08	0.59	0.25
Stability in employment status	0.08	0.56	0.21
Wider opportunities to participate in governance/management	0.22	0.12	0.69
Condition for teaching activities	-0.04	0.11	0.79
Contribution(%)	20.39	18.13	11.65

10

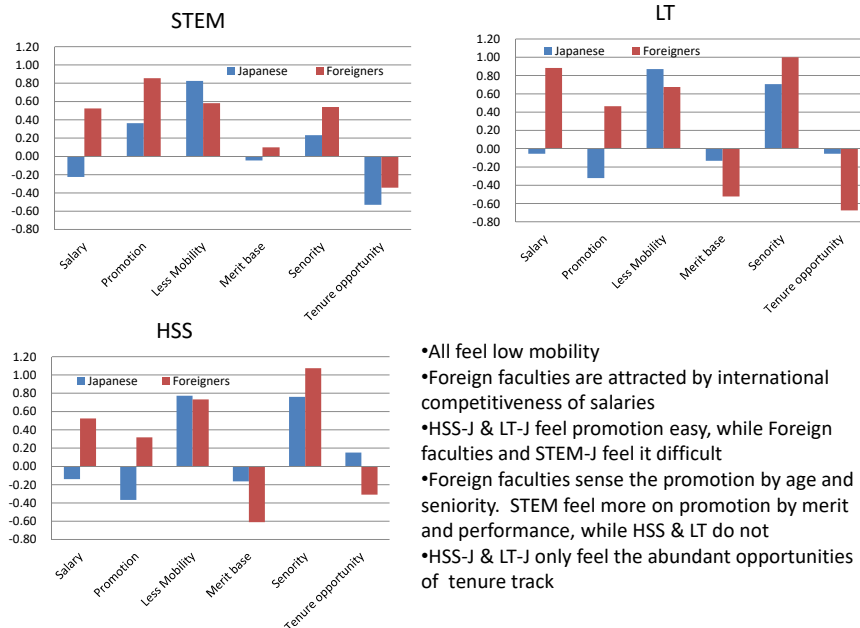
Score Average (by fields and nationalities)



- STEM (esp. foreigners) put importance on research, while language teaching faculties [LT] (esp. foreigners) on teaching
- Foreign faculties and LT-Japanese put importance on working condition
- HSS-Japanese are negative for all

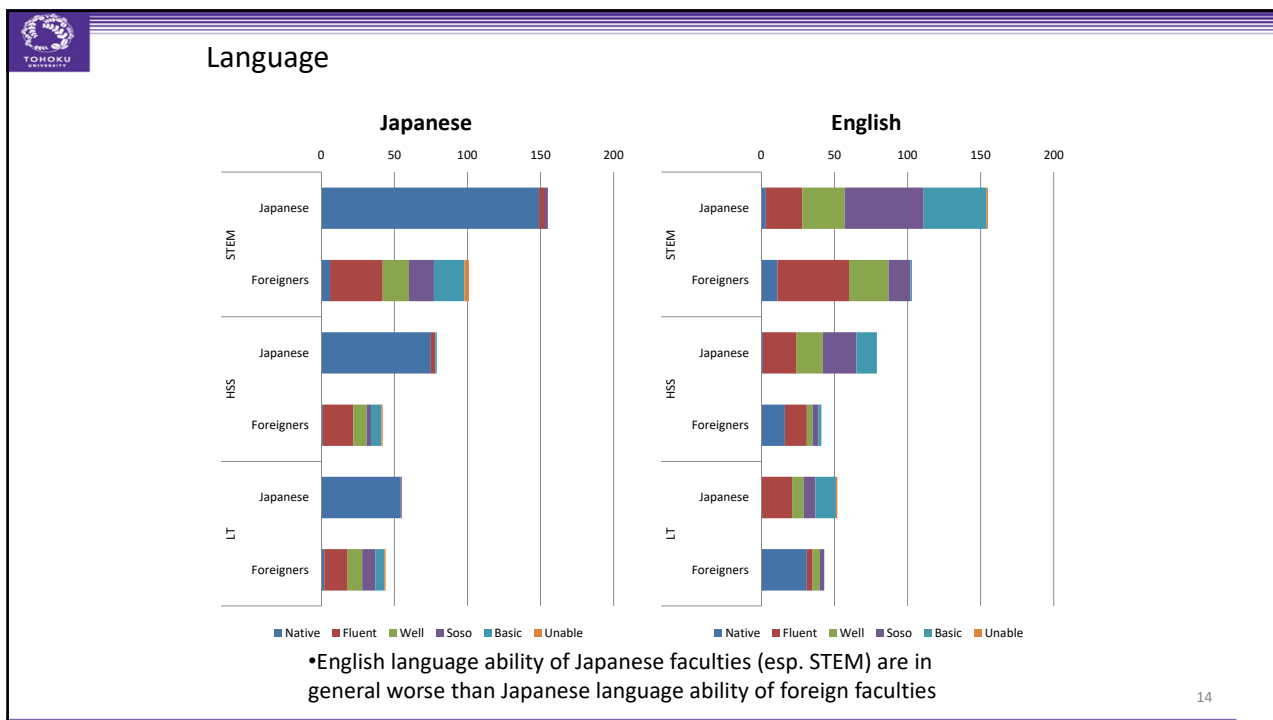
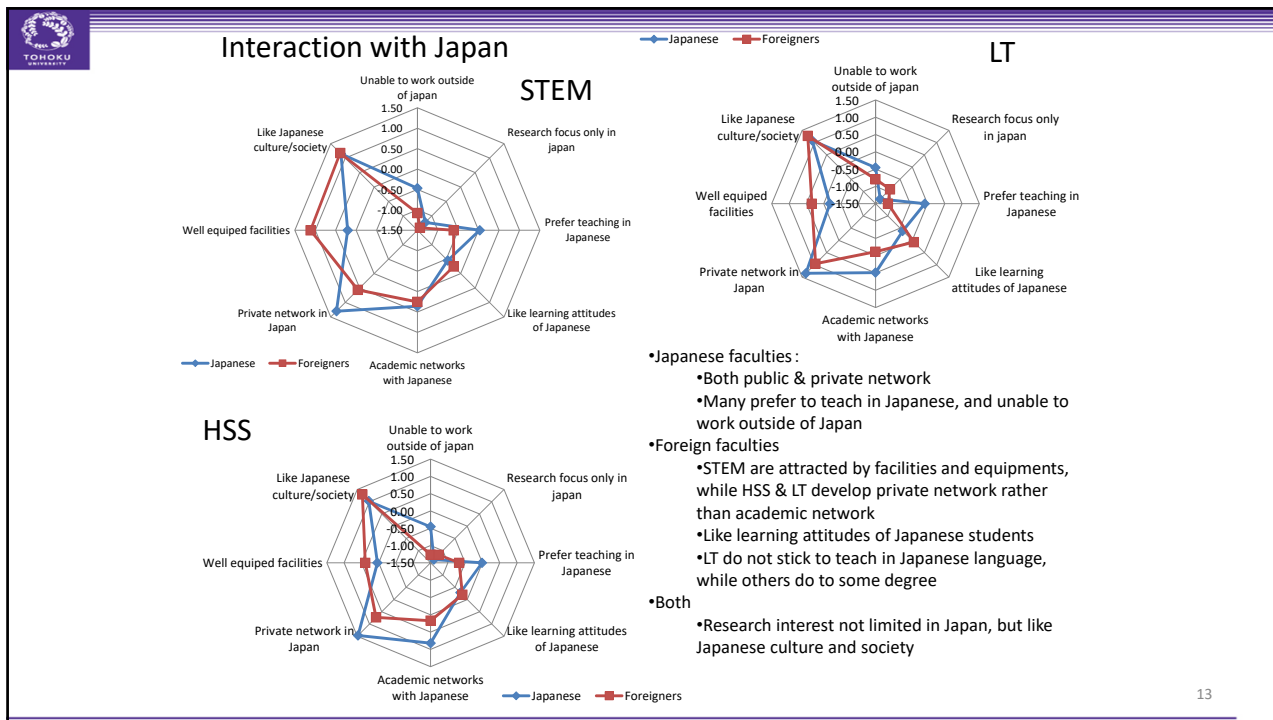
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Impression of Japanese Universities

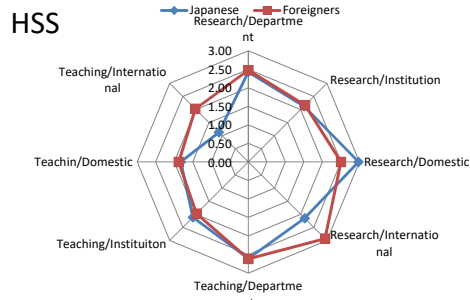
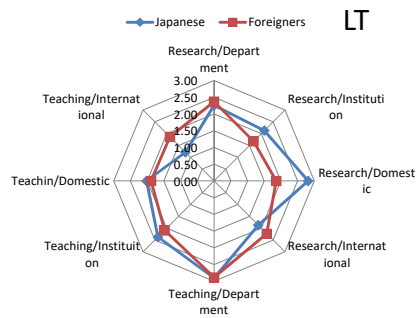
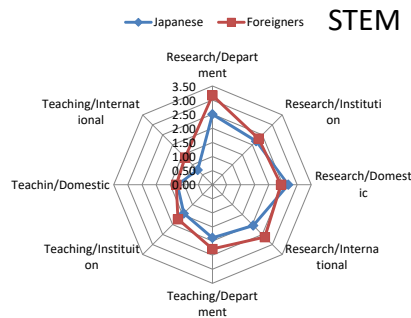


- All feel low mobility
- Foreign faculties are attracted by international competitiveness of salaries
- HSS-J & LT-J feel promotion easy, while Foreign faculties and STEM-J feel it difficult
- Foreign faculties sense the promotion by age and seniority. STEM feel more on promotion by merit and performance, while HSS & LT do not
- HSS-J & LT-J only feel the abundant opportunities of tenure track

12



Communication

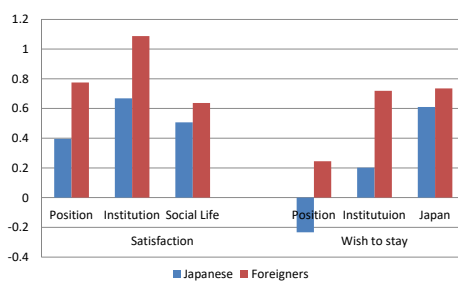


•Communication in research and teaching by foreign faculties is equal with Japanese faculties, and better in international communication

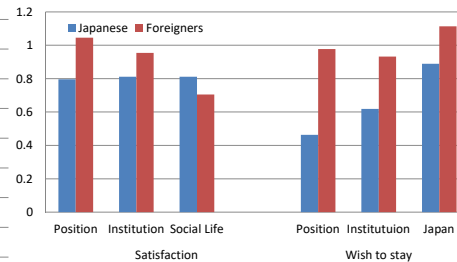
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Satisfaction & Wish to Stay in Japan

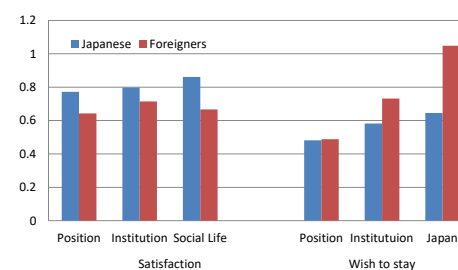
STEM



LT



HSS



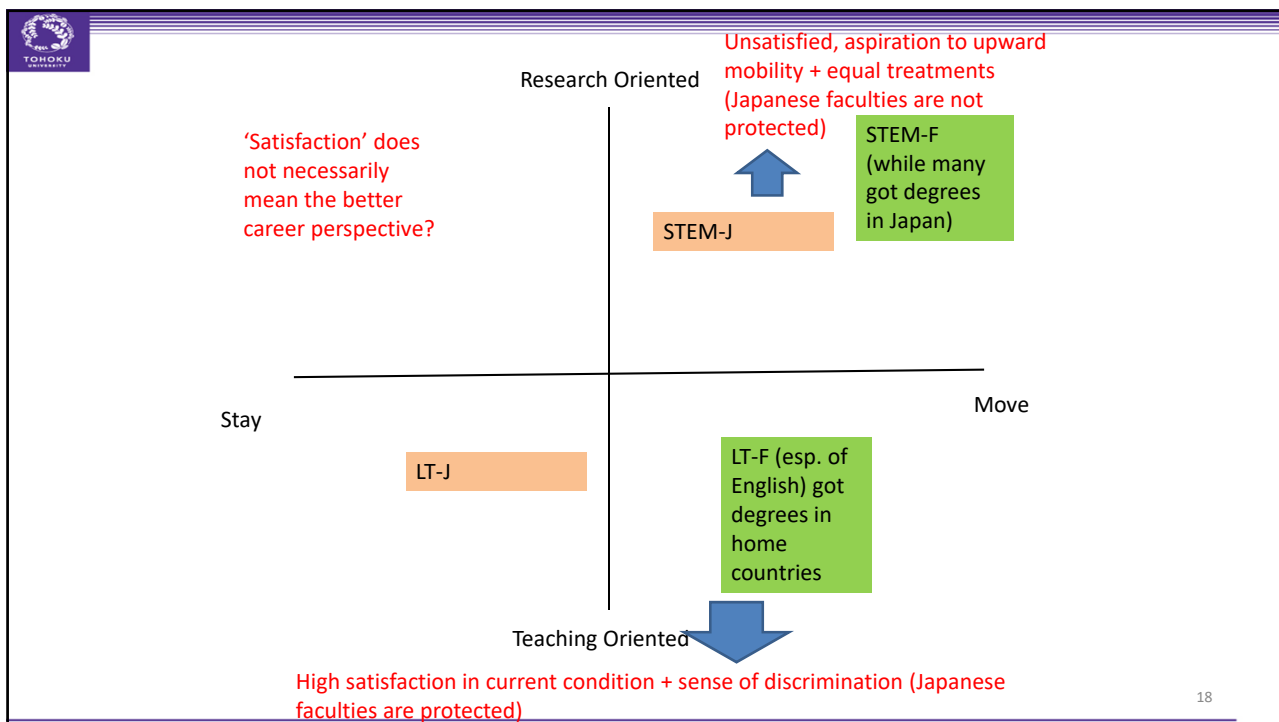
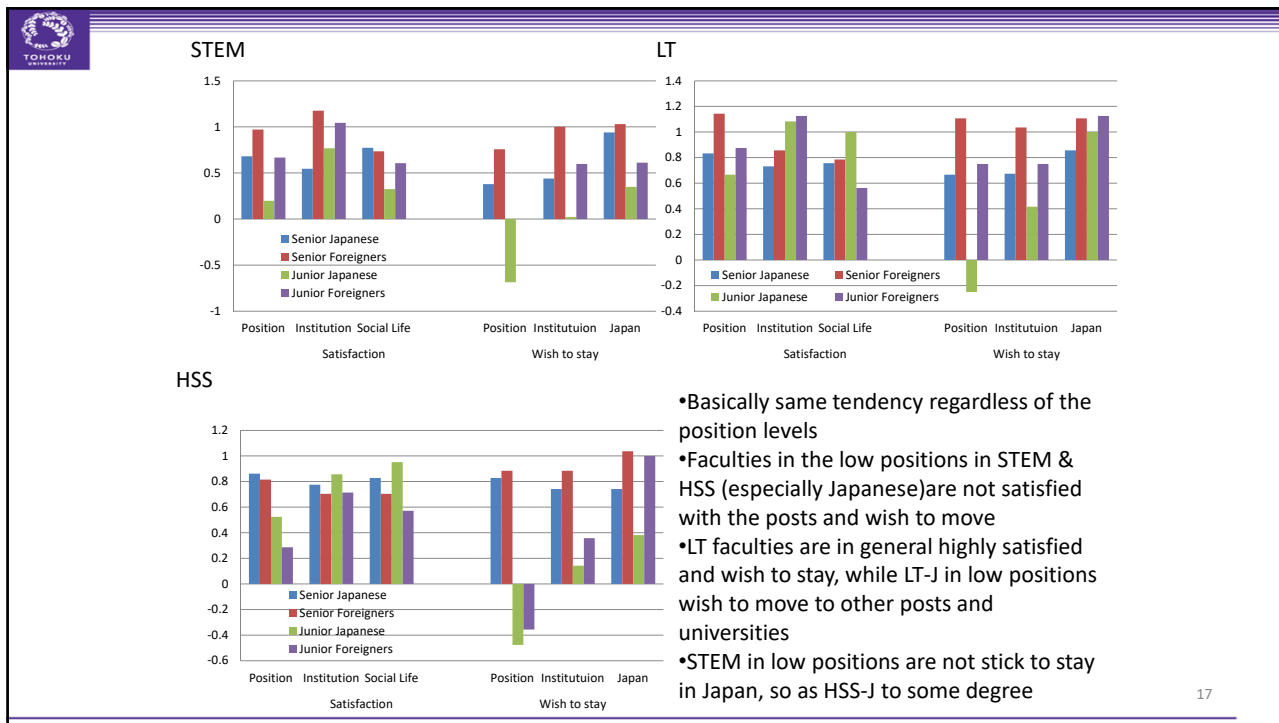
•Japanese faculties

- High satisfaction among HSS-J & LT-J, while low satisfaction among STEM-J esp. in posts and social life
- Not satisfied with current position (esp. among STEM-J) but wish to stay in Japan

•Foreign faculties

- High satisfaction among LT-F, while modest satisfaction among STEM-F & HSS-F
- STEM-F are not satisfied with current position
- LT-F strongly wish to stay in Japan

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Impacts

- Positive feedbacks and interactions from non-Japanese faculties in general, especially from those from North America and Europe
- Data requests.. Sometimes not easy to collaborate
- Theorization
 - Developed as a study of **academic mobility**.. Not as the research on the **citizenship and university management**
 - Needs for **research on diversity**... responded partly, but not really..

9. 外国人大学教員の採用に関する国際比較研究(1)

—日中の大学教員・職員へのインタビュー調査結果を中心として—

黄 福涛 大膳 司

本研究発表は、黄福涛を代表者とする「基盤研究(B)海外調査 外国人大学教員の採用に関する国際比較研究」の一環として、日本における外国人大学教員の採用に関する今後の改革方策に一定の知見を提示するため、諸外国・地域における外国人大学教員の採用にかかわる政策・現状・課題・効果を明らかにしたうえで、全国統計資料の分析や現地訪問調査などを通じて日本と中国の一部の「採用・雇用側」である大学における外国人教員の採用に関する制度や取組と、「被採用・雇用側」である大学外国人教員自身の現状や課題を解明することを目的とする。具体的には、まず、関連概念と理論を説明する。次に、日中両国の外国人教員受け入れの歴史について概略する。第3に、日中両国の大学教員・職員へのインタビュー調査結果を中心として日中両国における外国人教員受け入れの政策やプロジェクト、現状など紹介したうえで、事例研究を通じて機関レベルにおける外国人教員受け入れの対策や実態、問題点などをとりあげる。最後は、研究や政策への示唆などを提示する。

1. 概念と分析の枠組み

本発表では外国人教員とは日本国内で12年の学校教育終了した特別永住の在日韓国・朝鮮人2世・3世等を含めて、海外において少なくとも中等教育を終了した後に日本の大学で働いている日本以外の国籍をもつ教員を意味する。また外国人教員の採用を説明する際に、移民の理論や、国際関係論、国際政治論などの先行研究に基づいて、主に用いられる理論としては、経済的理論(プッシュ・プル要因分析)や、社会文化理論、社会関係資本理論とネットワーク論、世界システム論(歴史-構造アプローチ)、トランスナショナル論などである。

2. 中国

まず、中国における外国人教員の受け入れについて、その政策と実態について明らかにする。

1.1 中国における外国人教員受け入れ政策

1950年代初期から、中国はソビエトモデルに基づいて、現代高等教育システムを構築するなか、すでにソ連から専門家や大学教員などを招聘した。これらは正規の専任教員ではなかったが、中国の大学改革、特に大学教員を養成するには大きな役割果たした。1980年代以降、海外留学する中国人学生の数が増加する一方、中国政府と関係大学は、中

国の大学教師の水準を早急に引き上げ、国際的に活躍できる人材を育成し、そして世界一流大学の構築を目指すため、海外の留学生や華人研究者をはじめ、海外人材を呼び戻し政策を実施すると共に、外国人教員を受け入れるためのさまざまな施策も実施している。たとえば、1994 年の「百人計画」、1996 年の「春暉計画」、1998 年の「長江学者奨励計画」、2008 年の海外ハイレベル人材招致「千人計画」と 2011 年の「青年千人計画」等である。以下、1998 年以降の三つの計画を紹介する。

「長江学者奨励計画」

この計画は教育部と香港李嘉誠(りかせい)基金会により、1988 年から国内外の優秀な学者を中国の高等教育機関に招致し、海外のトップレベル人材を養成することを目的とした計画。対象者には、①長江学者特別招聘教授や講座教授のポストが与えられる。また、②任期中に大きな学術成果を上げた者に対しては、長江学者業績賞が与えられる。対象者の処遇について、①給与や保険などが支給されると同時に、年間 10 万元の手当てが補給される。②任期中に大きな学術成果を上げた場合には「長江学者業績賞」として、100 万元あるいは 50 万元の奨励金が贈られる。

「千人計画」

この計画は中国共産党中央組織部が主に海外のレベル高い人材を招致する計画である。対象者は、①国籍問わず、原則上 55 歳以下、海外で博士号を取得している者、②当選された者は毎年中国での研究活動は 6 ヶ月以上であること。また、以下の諸条件のいずれに該当する者：①海外の著名な高等教育機関、研究機関において教授またはそれに相当するポストに就いた者、②国際知名企業と金融機関において上級管理職を経験した経営管理人材及び専門技術人材、③自主知的財産権をもつ、またはコア技術を把握している；海外での起業経験を持ち、関連産、④業分野と国際標準を熟知する創業人材、⑤中国が至急に必要とするその他のハイレベルイノベーション創業人材である。

主な処遇について、①外国籍の海外招致人材について、本人及びその外国籍の配偶者と未成年の子女が「外国人永久居住証」及び 2～5 年期間付きの数次再入国ビザをもらえる、②中国国籍の海外招致人材について、出国前の戸籍所在地の制限によらず、国内の任意 1 つの都市を戸籍所在地として選択することができる、③中央財政から海外招致人材に 100 万元/1 人の一括補助金（国家奨励金とみなし、個人所得税を免除する）を与える、④招致人材及びその配偶者子女が中国国内の各種社会保険制度をうけることができる、⑤5 年以内の中国国内収入の内、住宅手当、飲食手当、引越し費、親族訪問費、子女の教育費などについて、国家税法の関連規定により、免税となる、⑥招致人材の配偶者について、招致人材の就業先機関から仕事を手配するかまたは生活補助金をだすこと、招致人材の子女の就学について、本人の志望に応じて関連機関が対応すること、⑦招致人材の雇用機関が招致人材の帰国（入国）前の収入水準を参考に、本人と協議し、合理的な賃金額を決めること。

「青年千人計画」

この計画は、「千人計画」の一環として、中国人に限らず海外の優秀な若手人材を中国へ招致することを目的としている。対象者は、①自然科学系や技術分野のバックグラウンドを持つ 40 歳以下の者であること、②学位を海外の有名大学で取得し、さらに 3 年以上の研究活動経験を持つ者、もしくは中国で学位を取得後に海外機関で 5 年以上研究か教育を行ってきた者、③同じ年齢層において卓越した研究活動を行っている、もしくはその潜在能力を持つ者の条件を満たし、かつ採用後は中国国内の大学、研究機関等でフルタイムの研究活動を行うことである。応募した時点で、海外有名大学、科学研究機構、大手企業研究機関で正規職員として教職、あるいは研究職に就いている▽専門の研究分野において、同年齢層のうち抜きん出た存在で、学術、技術のリーダーとなる潜在力を備えている▽博士課程の期間中に突出した研究成果を挙げた卒業予定者もしくはそのほか目立った成績を残した者については、例外的に受け入れを認める。

そのほか、特筆すべきことは政府レベルにおける各種の海外人材を招致する政策が実施される一方で、一部の地方政府と大学も独自の施策も行われている。たとえば、台湾に隣接する福建省は台湾の人材を招致する計画も実施している。また上海交通大学をはじめ、一部の有力大学も自己資金調達や海外の大学との提携などを通じて海外人材を採用している。

1.2 中国における外国人教員受け入れ実態

ここでは、中国における外国人教員比率の推移と一部の大学における外国人教員の構成などを整理する。

1.2.1 中国における外国人教員比率の推移

先述した通り、中国の大学における外国人受け入れは、1990 年代中期から本格的に実施されており、現在、すべての高等教育機関における外国人教員の全国統計資料が公開されていないが、2002 年から普通高等教育機関（そのほとんどは日本の四年制大学に相当する）における非常勤外国人教員数が増加する傾向がある。

一方、機関レベルにおいては、近年来、特に「985 プロジェクト」に組み込まれた世界一流大学の構築を目指す有力大学も積極的に外国人教員受け入れに取り込んでいる。たとえば、1998 年の時点では、上海市の有力な大学のひとつである S 大学における専任外国人教員はわずか 20 名程度だったが、2015 年の時点では、128 名に増加した。国別でアメリカからの教員は全体の三分の一以上を占めている。職階別で三分の二以上は教授である。学位号別で、128 名のうち、120 名は博士号取得者である。また、地方の研究大学も国の海外人材を招致する政策を活用し、大学教員の国際化や教員の質的向上に力を入れている。たとえば、経済的に裕でない東北地方のある D 大学では、その専任外国人教員数が 1998 年の 5 名から 2016 年の 27 名に増えた。国別で、その半分以上はアメリカからの専任教員である。

職階別で、5名の技術系の教員は准教授であるほか、残り22名の教員が教授である。学位号別で、すべての教員は博士号取得者である。

分野別にみると、主に理工系の外国人教員を雇用することであるが、最近、法学や、経営学、哲学などの人文社会科学系の外国人教員も受け入れるようになった。

3. 日本

ここでは、日本における外国人教員の受け入れについて、その政策と実態について明らかにする。

1.1 日本における外国人教員受け入れ政策

「大学における外国人教員の受入れ制度については、明治以来、外国人教師又は講師としての任用制度があったが、国公立大学の正規の教授等に外国人が就くことはできなかったため、昭和57(1982)年9月、大学における教育、研究の進展を図るとともに学術の国際交流の推進に資することを目的とする「**国立又は公立の大学における外国人教員の任用等に関する特別措置法**」が議員立法として制定された。法律では、外国人の教授等が教授会、評議会等に参加することができること、任用については各大学の定めるところにより任期制を採用できること、従来の外国人教師等の制度は存続することなどが規定されている。

この法律に基づく外国人教員の数、国立大学等に限った場合、平成3(1991)年現在で165人と、この5年前の4.6倍にまで増加した。また、従来からの外国人教師等を含む外国人教員数は、国公立大学等合わせて、平成3年には3,014人（本務者）となっており、この20年間で3.2倍に増加している。これら外国人教員は、語学の会話指導などに効果的な役割を果たしている。」（『学制120年史』）。

「留学生30万人計画」

福田康夫元総理は、「日本を世界に開かれた国とし、人の流れを拡大していくために重要である」として、第169回国会（平成20(2008)年1月）の施策方針演説の中で、「留学生30万人計画」を打ち出し、平成20年7月29日文部科学省によって策定された。日本が世界に対してより開かれた国へと発展する「グローバル戦略」の一環として平成32年に日本国内の外国人留学生を30万人に増やすというもので、このため、日本留学への関心呼び起こす動機づけや情報提供から、入試・入学・入国の入りの改善、大学等の教育機関や社会における受入れ体制の整備、卒業・修了後の就職支援等に至る幅広い施策を実施することにより日本社会そのもののグローバル化を目指すとしている。

その中で、「国際化の拠点となる大学を30選定し重点的育成。」が示され、その後のグローバル30の事業へとつながった。

また、外国人教員の採用については、「大学等のグローバル化の推進 ～魅力ある大学づ

くり～」として、「専門科目での外国人教員の採用を増やし、教育研究水準を向上。」と指摘された。

「グローバル 30」

グローバル 30（「国際化拠点整備事業（大学の国際化のためのネットワーク形成推進事業）」）は、留学生 30 万人計画の達成を目指し、留学生受入体制の整備をはじめとする大学の国際化へ向けた取組を実施し、留学生と切磋琢磨する環境の中で国際的に活躍できる高度な人材を養成することを目的として実施された。

そのため、「英語による授業等の実施体制の構築」「留学生受入れに関する体制の整備」「戦略的な国際連携の推進」など、日本を代表する国際化の拠点としての総合的な体制整備を図ることに加え、「産業界との連携」「拠点大学間のネットワーク化の推進、資源や成果の共有」など、広く我が国の国際化推進を目指した取組も行われた。

採択 13 大学においては、英語による授業のみで学位が取得できるコースとして、平成 21 年より、学部 33 コース、大学院 124 コースが開設され、平成 21 年以前から開設していたコースも合わせると、現在 13 大学において英語による授業のみで学位が取得できるコース数は、およそ 300 コースとなっており、多くの外国人教員が雇用されている。

「スーパースーパーグローバル等大学事業」

このグローバル 30 に続いて我が国の高等教育の国際競争力の向上及びグローバル人材の育成を図るため、世界トップレベルの大学との交流・連携を実現、加速するための人事・教務システムの改革や、学生のグローバル対応力育成のための体制強化など、国際化を徹底して進める大学を重点支援することを目的として、「経済社会の発展を牽引するグローバル人材育成支援」（平成 24(2012)年度から平成 28(2016)年度まで）と「スーパースーパーグローバル大学創成支援」（平成 26(2014)年度から平成 35(2023)年度まで）が平成 24 年度から展開された。

「成長戦略第 2 弾スピーチ」

平成 25(2013)年 5 月 17 日、世界に勝てる大学改革の一環として、安部総理が「成長戦略第 2 弾スピーチ」の中で示した「国立の 8 大学で、今後 3 年間の内に、1500 人程度を、世界中の優秀な研究者に置き換えます。これにより、外国人教員を倍増させます。」とのスピーチを日本アカデメイアで行った。

この内容は、その後の「スーパースーパーグローバル大学創成支援」の内容を支えるものであった。

1.2 日本における外国人教員受け入れ実態

ここでは、日本における外国人教員比率の推移と大学別の外国人教員比率の上位校推移を明らかにした。

1.2.1 日本における外国人教員比率の推移

日本の大学における外国人雇用は、1970 年代まで私立大学を中心におこなわれてきたが、

「国立又は公立の大学における外国人教員の任用等に関する特別措置法(以下、外国人教員任用法)」が 1982 年に交付された後、国公立大学において外国人の雇用が徐々に増加している。

まず外国人教員受け入れの現状であるが、日本の大学教員に占める外国人教員の比率(以下、外国人教員比率)は 4.2%である。設置者別にみると、国立 4.0%、公立 3.9%、私立 4.4%でそれほど差はない。性別でみると男性 4.0%、女性 5.1%となっており、女性の外国人教員比率が高くなっている。職位別にみると、学長 0.7%、副学長 1.5%、教授 3.3%、准教授 5.1%、講師 8.1%、助手 3.2%となっており、講師以上において職位が高くなるにつれて外国人教員比率は低くなっている。

外国人教員受け入れの経緯についてみると、外国人教員任用法が公布された直前の 1970 年代、外国人教員比率は 1%程度、私立大学だけにみても 1.5%程度であった。実は、統計資料のある 1955 年では私立大学の外国人教員比率は 2.6%で、その比率は外国人教員任用法が公布される直近まで微減してきた。特に教授の外国人教員比率はその傾向が顕著である(4.6%から 1.4%に減少)。実は、国立大学でも講師身分での外国人教員比率は 1955 年当時において既に 2.3%であった。その後微増し、1998 年には 11.4%まで増加している。

外国人教員任用法の交付によって国立大学において外国人教員比率は 1982 年 0.7%、1992 年 1.5%、2002 年 2.6%、2012 年 3.2%、2015 年 4.0%、と増加していった。この間、もっとも外国人教員比率増加したのは、女性の助教授 8.0%増、続いて女性の助手 6.5%増、女性の教授 5.0%増、であった。逆に減少したのが、女性の講師 6.2%減、男性の講師 1.6%の減であった。

1.2.2 大学別の外国人教員比率の上位校と外国人教員の雇用について

大学別の外国人教員比率を確認したところ、2014 年において外国人教員比率が 4 割を超えている大学は、「宮崎国際大学 (58.1%)」「立命館アジア太平洋大学 (50.9%)」「神田外国語大学 (49.8%)」「国際教養大学 (45.9%)」「関西外国語大学 (41.0%)」「会津大学 (40.0%)」であった。

これらの大学は、3 つのカテゴリーに分類できる。

1 つは、「宮崎国際大学」や「国際教養大学」のように国際教養系の 1 学部で構成された大学である。

2 つめは、「立命館アジア太平洋大学」や「会津大学」のように専門学部が国際化した大学である。

3 つめは、「神田外国語大学」や「関西外国語大学」のように語学系の学部で構成された大学である。

この度、2 つめのカテゴリーの 2 つの大学を訪問し、大学を国際化した経緯、外国人教員を雇用した理由、どのような経緯で外国人は日本で働いているのか、の視点からインタビ

ューを行った。

両大学の外国人教員比率の高さは、大学設立の理念に起因している。

「立命館アジア太平洋大学（ＡＰＵ、以下ＡＰＵという）」は、学校法人立命館が地方自治体大分県および別府市と協力し、立命館学園創立 100 周年を記念して、2000 年 4 月に大分県別府市で開設された。

ＡＰＵは、日本の大学として、来るべき新しい時代に相応しい国際貢献を果たし、同時に日本の大学の国際化に新境地を切り拓くという志の下に、学生の半数、一学年 400 名を外国からの留学生（ＡＰＵでは通常、「国際学生」と呼んでいる）として迎え、その教育を支える教員の半数を外国人教員で雇用するという考えを基本コンセプトとして組み立てられた、日本でははじめての本格的な国際大学である。

「会津大学」では、1991 年に設置された設立準備専門委員会が、「コンピュータサイエンスの分野で、我が国最大の規模と最新の教育・研究内容を有する大学を目指しており、魅力と特色ある大学とするためには、特に優れた研究業績を有し、学生を引きつける魅力を持った教員を確保し、実力主義の教員組織の確立を図る必要がある」として、「我が国ではコンピュータサイエンスの分野は特に教員が払底しているため、外国人教員を積極的に採用する。」ことを教員選考の考え方として、1992 年春、コンピュータサイエンスの学会誌、IEEE と ACM に募集広告を掲載し、大学院開設に必要な教員を含めて、国際公募による教員採用を行った。開学時に約 60% の外国人教員を迎え、現在も約 40 % の外国人教員を擁している。

紙幅の関係で、インタビュー結果は、大会当日資料を配付して説明したい。

参考資料

教育部『中国教育年鑑』各年度版。

人民網「長江学者奨励計画」、「千人計画」、「青年千人計画」などの紹介。

朝日新聞社出版本部「大学」編集室編『大学ランキング』各年度版。

高橋和（2014 年）「人の国際移動をめぐる研究の動向ーヨーロッパにおける人の移動の自由」『山形大学法政論叢』第 58・59 号。

10. 外国人大学教員に対する役割期待に関する研究

—地方国立大学 S 大学を例にして—

李 敏(信州大学)

本報告は、日本の大学における外国人教員雇用の歴史を紹介したうえで、日本の大学につとめる外国人教員の分類を試みる。そのうえで、地方国立大学 S 大学をケーススタディーとして、データ分析とインタビューを通して、それぞれのタイプの教員の特徴をまとめる。また、大学が各タイプの外国人教員への役割期待、及び外国人教員の満足度を検討する。

1. 日本の大学における外国人教員雇用の歴史と役割期待

帝国大学が誕生した初期、日本の大学は外国人教員の全盛時代であった。近代化・産業化の担い手を早急に養成するためには、欧米諸国から直接人材を招聘し、「お雇い外国人」として、外国語により、外国書を教材として人材養成するという大学教育が行われてきた（天野，2004，喜多村，1984）。外国人教員は語学専門に限らず、ほぼすべての専攻で活躍していた。ところが、こうしたお雇い外国人は、あくまでも日本の最初の大学をつくるための「臨時の助かった人であり、客人である」（喜多村，1984，p.33）にすぎず、大学の正式の構成員として大学のガバナンスに参加することが許されなかった。しかも、海外に留学した日本人の帰国の増加により、日本の大学は徐々に「洋語・洋学大学校」から「邦語・日本大学校」へと転換を果たした（天野，2004，p.50）。

戦後、高度成長を遂げた日本は、1970 年代に海外への経済的進出が活発化することにしたがい、「国際化時代」を迎える一環として、「大学の国際化」を提唱するようになった。特に、1970 年の OECD 教育調査団が日本の「国際的参加の必要性」の増大を強調したことを受け、日本は教員・留学生の国際交流の推進に力を入れるようになった。ただ、明治・大正時代の大学誕生期に高等教育そのものが海外から倣うことと違い、高度成長期の日本の高等教育の国際化は、閉鎖した国内の教育を海外に門戸を開くところに特徴がある（喜多村，1984，p.54,55）。当時の日本の国立大学には外国人を任期付きの外国人客員教授として雇用することがごくまれにあるものの、殆ど外国語教育という特殊な分野に限定されていた。外国人教員を雇用するネックの一つは、国立大学の教員が公務員扱いなので、外国人が担当することができないというところにある。1949 年の人事院規則一七では「個人的基礎においてなされる勤務の契約による場合」において「当該職の職務がその資格要件に適合する者を日本の国籍を有する者の中から得ることが極めて困難若しくは不可能な性質のものと認められる場合、又は当該職に充てられる者に必要な資格要件がそれに適合する者を日本の国籍を有する者の中から得ることが極めて困難若しくは不可能な特殊かつ異例の性質のものと認められる場合」（傍点筆者）という条件付きで外国人を国家公務員として

任用することが可能であると規定している。つまり、外国人教師は国立大学においては、日本人が担当できない職務の補いとして雇用できるということであり、あくまでも一時しのぎの臨時雇用の人に過ぎないという意味が読み取れる。OECD の勧告及び日本国内の在日韓国・朝鮮人をはじめとする定住外国人教員の努力によって（日高六郎・徐龍達，1980）、1982 年によろやく国公立大学の外国人教員を公務員として雇用することを前提とした法律として「外国人教員任用法」が制定された。この法律に基づくと、国立大学の外国人教員は教授会などの構成員として、その議決に参加できるようになったところは大きな前進と言えるが、外国人教員が依然として任期を定められている。

近年は大学のグローバル化の一環として、留学生や外国人教員の受入れを促進する政策が「グローバル 30」、「スーパーグローバル大学」をはじめとする日本の大学における国際化の政策に盛り込まれている。1980 年代までの外国人教員が語学を中心に授業を担当するという特徴と違い、今回の外国人教員の受入れは、専門科目を英語で授業を行うことを目的にする内容が多い。しかも、国際公募を通して、世界から優秀な人材を集めるところに大きな特徴と言える。外国人教員の雇用を推進するためには、文科省は、各大学に任期付き、年俸制の導入を推奨している。要するに、日本における外国人教員の専門に関しては、幅広い専門分野から語学中心へ、再び広い専門分野という転換が見られる。他方では、任期を付け、大学教育の助けという臨時雇用の色彩が日本の大学の歴史の中で終始貫いている。

上記のように、外国人教員の雇用の歴史をレビューしてみると、外国人教員への役割期待はおおよそ図 1 のようにまとめられる。

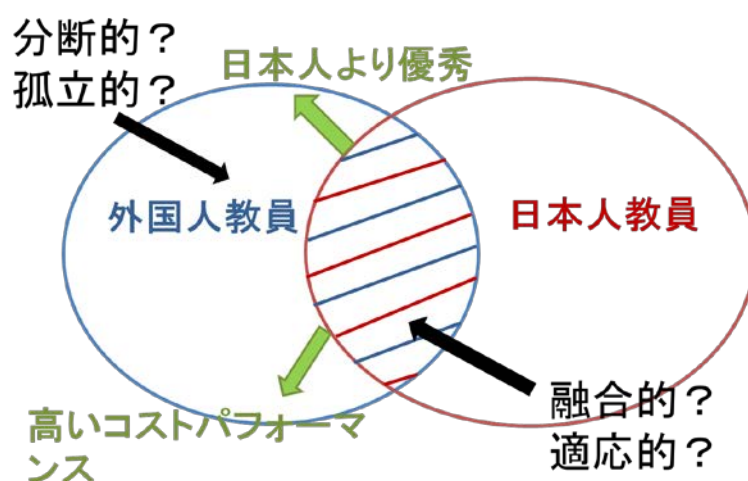


図 1 日本の大学における外国人教員の類型

外国人教員の雇用について、上記の人事院規則が述べたとおり、日本人が担当できないあるいは日本人の人材が不足の場合に雇用されることが多い。これは日本の大学が発足さ

れた初期に多く見られると同時に、60年代から90年代において、語学教員として雇用される場合に当たる。しかし、近年の高等教育のグローバル化にしたがい、本来日本人教員が担当する授業の一部は外国人によって担当されるようになった動きも見られる。敢えて外国人教員を採用したのは、外国人がより優秀であるか、外国人を雇用するのがよりコストパフォーマンスが高いかという2つの原因が考えられる。前者については、英語による授業の開設という文科省の要請で、外国人教員を雇用するようになったことが代表例であり、後者についてはコスト削減のために、非常勤、有期雇用の外国人教員を採用する私立大学がそれにあたる。このように、外国人の特性が強調されて雇用された外国人教員は、日本の大学に溶け込みにくく、日本人教員と隔離的、分断的という特徴を帯びる可能性が高い。一方、日本人教員と重ねられている部分の外国人教員はより日本の大学に融合的、適応的である可能性が推測できる。以下では、ケーススタディーを通して、各種類の大学教員の特徴を考察してみる。

2. 日本の大学における外国人教員の類型

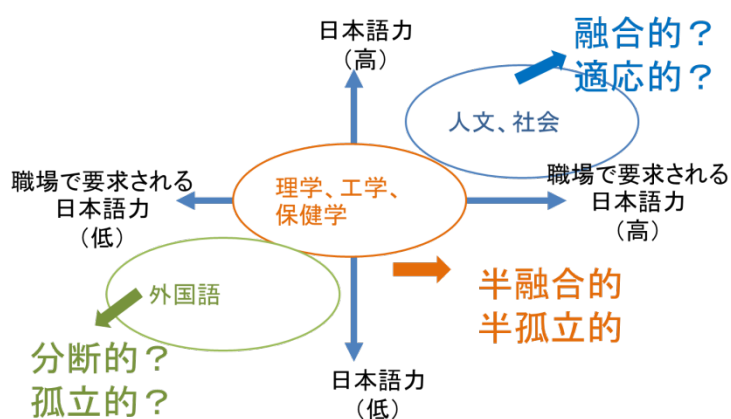


図2 日本の大学における外国人教員の類型

図2は、外国人教員の語学力を縦軸にし、職場で要求される日本語力を横軸にして、専攻分野別で外国人教員の類型を分類したものである。ここでいう外国人教員個人の語学力が人によってかなり異なるため、ここで提示したのはあくまでもおおよその傾向に過ぎないことをお断りしたい。すべての専門分野の中で外国語専門の外国人教員に対しては、日本語力の要求が少ない。一方、人文、社会学専攻に対しては、職場での日本語力が高く要求されている。また、理学、工学、保健学などのような理工医系は、その両者の真ん中にある。1980年の広島大学・大学教育研究センター（現高等教育研究開発センター）が外国人教員を対象にした調査では、外国語を教える外国人教員の割合が高いのに対し（広島大学・大学教育研究センター、1983）、2009年の米澤らの調査では、理工系専攻で若手の研究

職をつとめる外国人教員が半数を占めていることを明らかにした。人文社会系において、外国人教員が少ないのは、日本語力に対する要求が高いことが大きな理由であろう。職場に対する日本語力と相応して、教員個人の日本語力も恐らく同じ分布を示す。このように、職場で日本人並みの日本語力を要求される人文社会系の外国人教員が言葉のバリアが低いために、日本の大学にはより融合的、適応的と推測できるのに対し、簡単な日本語しか要求されない語学を教える外国人教員は、言葉の障害で、他の日本人教員とのコミュニケーションも少なく、大学へのコミットメントも低いことが容易に推測できる。一方、理工系については、専門の性質上で、日本人外国人を問わずに、英語をある程度通用するため、理工系の外国人教員のコミットメントは上記両者の真ん中にあるであろう。

3. 地方国立大学 S 大学における外国人教員

外国人教員の受入に特に力を入れているのは、グローバル 30、スーパーグローバル大学に選ばれた旧帝大や、研究型大学が多い。それにもかかわらず、本研究のケーススタディーで取り上げた地方国立大学の S 大学が、外国人教員の受入に乗り出したのはなぜであろうか。周知のように、文科省は、2016（平成 28）年度から、全国 86 校の国立大学を大学のミッションに応じて、①「卓越した教育研究」タイプ（16 大学）②「専門分野の優れた教育研究」タイプ（15 大学）③「地域貢献」タイプ（上記以外 55 大学）という 3 つのタイプに分類して、それぞれのミッションに応じて、運営交付金の分配を行う改革を行った。本稿のケーススタディーの対象である S 大学は③番目の「地域貢献」タイプに分類されている。

地方国立大学であるために、社会が大学に対する評価が旧帝大には及ばないものの、一部の専攻は、日本、ひいては世界でトップの研究水準を持っている。したがって、S 大学は研究大学を目指す努力はずっと弛まないものである。優秀な外国人教員の招聘が研究型大学になる方法の 1 つとも考えられている。しかし、グローバル化に関する大型プロジェクトには採択されていないため、外国人教員を誘致するための予算が足りていないのは実情である。また、学内においては、学内運営、職員のサポート等々はすべて日本語で行われるために、外国人教員を受け入れる環境の整備は十分とはいえない。外国人教員が S 大学につとめるなら、ある程度の日本語力が必須である。

表 1 は外国人教員が各種類の大学における分布を表す内容である。2015 年度に、日本の大学に在籍する外国人教員が 7,735 にのぼり、その 6 割が私立大学につとめている。また、私立大学における外国人教員の割合が 4.4%でもっとも高く、それに次ぐのは国立大学の 4.0%と公立大学の 3.9%である。全国の平均である 4.2%に対し、S 大学における外国人教員の割合は教員全員の 3.5%にすぎない。外国人教員は S 大学において、まだまだマジョリティーというしかない。

一方、職位別で外国人教員の分布を見ると、国立大学においては、准教授と助教の

割合が最も高いのに対し、公立、私立大学においては、教授、准教授割合が高い。S大学の場合は、教授が31.9%であり、国立大学の平均より10%も高い。また、助教も外国人教員

表 1 外国人教員の分布（全国・S大学）2015年

		合計	国立	公立	私立
全国	合計	182,723	64,684	13,126	104,913
	外国人教員	7735	2574	514	4647
	(%)	(4.2%)	(4.0%)	(3.9%)	(4.4%)
S大学	合計		1,063		
	外国人教員		37		
	(%)		(3.5%)		

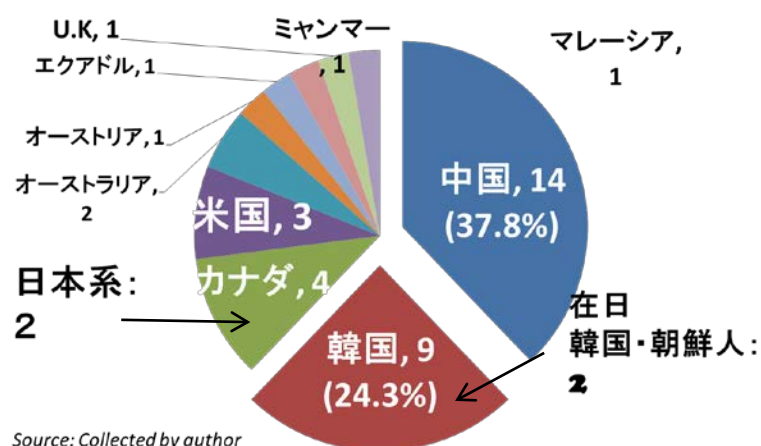
出所：文科省『学校基本調査』2016年、S大学『大学概要2016』より算出

表 2 職位別からみる外国人教員の分布（全国・S大学）2015年

	合計	国立	公立	私立	S大学
学長	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	
副学長	0.2%	0.1%	0.4%	0.3%	
教授	29.7%	20.7%	36.0%	34.0%	31.9%
准教授	28.3%	34.3%	36.4%	24.1%	29.3%
講師	22.0%	10.3%	15.6%	29.2%	6.8%
助教	17.5%	33.1%	11.1%	9.6%	31.1%
助手	2.1%	1.5%	0.6%	2.6%	0.9%
合計	7,735	2,574	514	4647	37

出所：同上

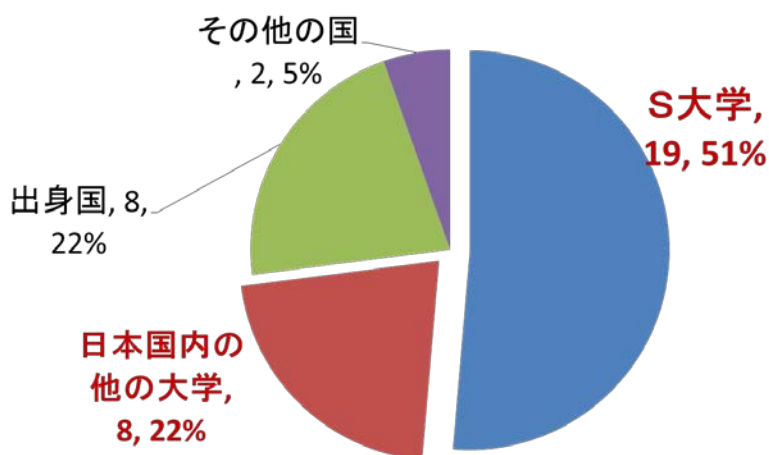
の31.3%を占めており、2番目に多い。本調査では、外国人教員の年齢を把握していないが、職位から推測すると、シニアの外国人教員と若手教員が多いという外国人教員の分布の特徴があるであろう。



出所：著者による収集と統計

図 3 S大学の外国人教員の出身国分布（2015年）

S大学の外国人教員の出身国分布を見てみると、中国出身が14人で最も多く、全体の37.8%を占めており、それに次ぐのは韓国出身の教員である（9名、24.3%）。ただし、韓国出身の教員の中には、2名が日本国内で12年の学校教育終了した特別永住の在日韓国・朝鮮人2世・3世であるため、日本以外の国で生まれて教育を受けた外国人と比べると、やや特殊である。カナダ出身の教員が4名いるが、その中の2名は日系2世か3世である。このように、S大学に勤務している外国人教員の6割以上がアジア、特に東アジアの中国と韓国の出身である。



出所：著者による収集

図 4 S大学の外国人教員の最終学歴取得国（地域）

一方、外国人教員の最終学歴の取得国（地域）を見てみると、半数である19名がS大学の修了者であり、また22%である8名が他の日本の大学から最終学歴を取得した。出身国、

あるいはそれ以外の国で最終学歴を取得したのはわずか 25% しかない。実際、日本以外の国と地域で学歴を取得した教員の中（10 名）に、5 名が日本の企業、研究所あるいは学校で勤務した経験を持っている。このように、外国人教員とはいえ、家族の歴史やら、教育経験やら、仕事経験やら、現職につくまでは、すでに日本となんらかの接点を持っており、日本文化、日本社会にもある程度適応しているということが言えよう。

図 5 は、S 大学の外国人教員が S 大学に所属する部署の専門分野を表した内容である。半数以上は工学専攻に所属し、理学と保健学の先生を含めると、7 割の外国人教員が理工系の学部と研究科に所属している。この結果は米澤らの調査と一致する。日本語に対する要求が高い人文・社会科学系の部署に所属する外国人教員はわずか 5 名にすぎない。

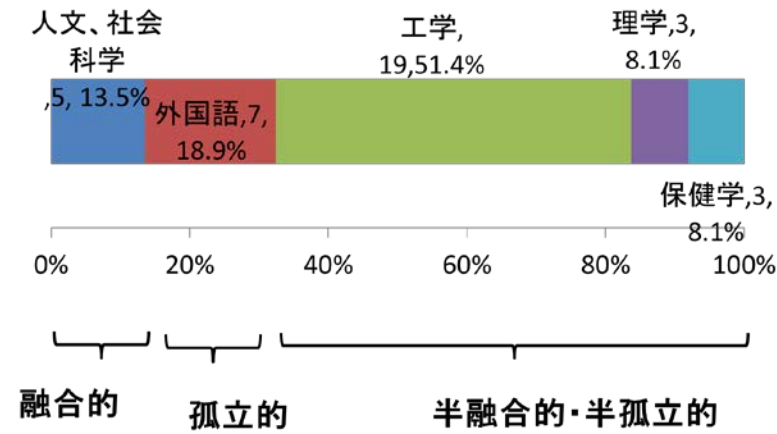


図 5 外国人教員が S 大学に所属する部署の専門分野

4. S 大学におけるケーススタディー

表 3 ケーススタディー対象者のプロフィール







	性別	年齢	出身国	職位	研究分野	学歴・職歴	日本語力	現職の内容	類型
A	男性	51		教授	分析化学		上級(仕事に支障がない)	教育・研究	融合的
B	男性	47		准教授 (任期付き)	工学		中級(生活に支障がない)	教育	孤立的
C	女性	34		助教 (任期付き、更新不可)	地域研究	M.A.(人文) S大学	上級(仕事に支障がない)	コーディネーター	融合的
D	女性	27		助教 (任期付き、更新不可)	工学	Ph.D. (工学) S大学	中級下(生活に支障がない)	コーディネーター	半融合的 半孤立的

表3は、今回のケーススタディーでヒアリングをした外国人教員のプロフィールである。性別、年齢、出身国、職位、研究分野、及び日本語力を総合的に考慮したうえで、調査対象者を選出した。出身のA氏は1989年に来日したが、旧帝大で博士号を取得したあと、某地方国立大学で8年間勤めてから、S大学に移籍した。研究においては、英語を使うものの、授業と所属機関での管理運営においては日本語を使う。そのため、日本語も堪能である。高い能力が評価され、A氏はすでにパーマネントの教授ポストを手に入れた。

出身のB氏は、名門の大学出身で、工学の修士号を持っている。エンジニアとしてで数年間勤務したあと、英国に戻り、また数年間働いた。その後は再び来日して、会社に就職するかわりに、中小学校で英語教員として働きました。S大学の附属小中学校で教えたことがきっかけで、現職についた。現職では、外国人教員として雇用されているため、仕事は英語を教えることだけで、研究と管理運営には一切参加しない。日本語力については、日常会話ならまったく問題がないが、読み書きは難しい。現在は准教授の職位をもらっているものの、任期制なので、3年間ごとに更新する必要がある。

出身のC氏は、S大学の修士号を取得してから、そのままS大学が新設した共同利用施設の助手として採用された。仕事内容は、主として学内外のコーディネートの内容が多いが、研究申請、報告、ニューズレターの執筆等々、高度な日本語を要する仕事内容である。現在の仕事は2年間の任期がついており、任期終了後は再更新が不可である。報告書執筆の時点では、C氏はすでに某公立大学に移籍した。

出身のD氏は、S大学で工学の博士号を取得したあと、その英語力が買われ、S大学新設のある国際交流部門に助教として採用された。このポストは、3年間の任期付きである。更新はできるものの、D氏は日本に残る意思は特になく、帰国か第三国に行く予定となっている。簡単な日本語も使えるが、ほとんど英語で仕事をする。

4.1. 現職につくきっかけ

A氏は、工学専攻だったので、大企業に就職するチャンスもあったが、大学の自由な空気が好きなので、指導教員などのご紹介を通して、大学での職を得た。ここで特筆すべきは、A氏はいままで研究で数々の賞を受賞し、学会の理事もつとめる優秀な研究者である。大学の研究者になるための実力を十分持っているうえに、指導教員の紹介もあって、大学の教職を手に入れたのであろう。前職は主として研究であったが、S大学における現職は研究と同時に、教育も重んじられる。

B氏が現職についたのは、かなりの紆余曲折を経た。エンジニアだったB氏は大学教員になったのは、日系企業につとめた経験で企業の雰囲気合わないことに気付き、より自由な生活を送りたいからだそうである。前述したように、S大学附属学校の英語の教員を担当したことがきっかけで、S大学の英語の非常勤になった。現在の職場の英語教育の前任が

帰国したことによって、期限付きの常勤教員になったのである。

C氏とD氏はいずれも終了後すぐ現職についたのである。しかも、指導教員の紹介が就職の成功に結びついた大きな要因である。ただし、指摘したいのは、実際現在のポストについて公募も行ったが、適任の人がなかなか見付からなかったため、周りの適任者を選んだのである。したがって、縁故就職には当たらないと強調したい。

要するに、この4人の外国人教員は現職に適する優秀な方であるにもかかわらず、日本社会、日本の大学、そしてS大学とつながりがなければ、いまの職を手に入れることも困難であろう。

4.2. 現職の環境、待遇

A氏は現職に対しては、かなり満足している。本人の言葉を借りてみれば、いまの職場は「とても気持ちがいい」場所である。ここの「気持ちがいい」とは、私立大学のように教育の負担が重過ぎず、研究も自由にできるということである。また、人間関係もいたって簡単で、きわめて平穏な生活ができるとA氏が説明した。外国人だから、特別視されることがないかと尋ねたところ、「ここは業績で評価されているので、特に差別等々は感じられていない」とA氏が回答した。「おそらく差別があるにしても、露骨に表れていないので、あまり気にしていない」との補足もある。ただし、外国人だから、逆に期待されることがあるかと問う質問に対しては、「これもない。ただ日本人並みに働いて、日本人並みに評価されている」と説明した。A氏との会話の中で、特に印象に残ったのは、「日本人並み」という言葉である。それに対して、A氏は、日本で働くならば、かならず日本の「和のこころ」を理解しなければならないということを強調した。「ここの学部は教育中心なので、いくら研究実績があっても、日本語がわからなければ、受け入れられにくいと思います。私たちも、日本の文化を知らずに、いまの平和を打破してしまう人を歓迎しないのである。」

要するに、A氏の採用は外国人であるというよりも、日本人並みの性質を持つ優秀な研究者、教育者であるということの要因が大きい。いままで長く続けられてきた集団の文化を打破する異質者にはきわめて警戒的である意味が読み取れる。

職場に完全に溶け込んだA氏と比べ、B氏は非常に孤立された立場にある。「私の仕事は教えること、教えること、ただ教えることです。しかも基礎英語しか教えません。」B氏は毎週多数の授業をこなせば、残りの時間は自由である。この意味では、現在の仕事に対して、B氏が極めて満足している。かつてのように日系企業の企業戦士として働くよりは、自由に生活できる現在をはるかに幸せであるという。研究はほとんど要求されていないが、年に1本くらいの英語教育関係の論文を書いている。ただし、所属部署の会議や、管理運営には一切参加できないし、他の日本人の先生との付き合いもほとんど持っていない。窓口として、ある日本人の先生が管理層とのパイプ役を担当しているものの、その意思疎通があまりうまくいってはいない。

このように、B氏が採用されたのは、英語圏出身という外国人のアイデンティティーが大

きな原因であり、A氏とはかなり対照的である。しかも、その日本人と異なる異質性があるがゆえに、日本人の集団に溶け込むことができず、孤立的な立場に立たされている。

A氏、B氏と比べ、C氏はまた特殊な例である。C氏の仕事は、大型プロジェクトの申請、開発、運営なので、きわめて高度な日本語が求められている。頻繁な会議、打合せのほか、報告書、申請書、ニューズレター、議事録を作成するのは仕事の大半を占めている。C氏の日本語が日本人並みに上達であるにもかかわらず、母国語ではないので、ついていけないときもあるそうである。したがって、議事録作り、関係書類作りなどのような仕事に関しては、日本人ほど早くはない。ただし、周囲からは自分が外国人であるということは意識されていません。しかも、この仕事を得たのは、外国人であるということではないため、日本人並み、もしくは日本人以上に働かなければならないというプレッシャーをC氏が持っている。他方では、現在推進しているプロジェクトでは、外国人だからという異なる視点を持たせることも期待されている。また、時には韓国語の翻訳通訳もしなければならぬ。差別については多少感じているものの、これは相手が意図的にやったのか、それとも自分の勘違いなのかはわからないそうである。「日本人よりも優秀な外国人が入って、自分のポストを奪ってしまうことは恨みになる可能性もあるので、私は理解できますよ。」C氏は述べた。

A氏と比べ、C氏は日本語力が高く、職場に高度に溶け込むところが共通している。ただし、A氏は研究用語が英語であるため、日本語に対する要求がC氏より低くても大丈夫である。また、研究で高い評価を得る道がある。それに対して、C氏の仕事は、人とのコミュニケーションがメインであり、より高度な日本語と日本文化への適応が要求されている。ただし、外国人である以上は、純然たる日本人と異なる異質性をもっているが、それを強く主張することができず、むしろこの異質性を隠すことが必要とされる。これもC氏が抱える最も大きな悩みとも言える。

来日の時間がまだ短いためか、D氏はインタビューを受けた4人のなかで、日本文化の影響がもっとも少ない。日本語は会話くらいで、英語力が買われて今の仕事についたのである。ただし、日本人の職員との仕事をより円滑にするためには、どうしても日本語が必要なので、「もうちょっと日本語を習え」という周囲からの目を感じているそうである。ただし、任期を終えたらすぐ帰国か他国へ行くと予定しているD氏は、まったく日本語を勉強する意欲がなく、要求された仕事以上に働くつもりもない。「だって、私が雇用されたのは、英語がしゃべれるから、日本語ではありませんよ。彼らはこれを知っているはずで、私に労働契約書以上の仕事を要求しないでほしい」。ある意味では、日本式の「和」を重んじるのではなく、西洋式の「個人主義」の考えの持ち主である。

4.3. 現職に対する評価と展望

上記の4人は、それぞれの経歴によって、現職、日本の大学及び日本社会に対する評価もかなり分かれている。A氏は現職に対して、かなり高い満足度を示しているものの、現在

の「平和」な生活を打破し、よりチャレンジのある生活を送りたいという意思も示している。「現在の中国有力大学は、研究資金が充実し、研究のレベルがかなり高くなりました。しかし、ここ日本では、中国に抜かれたことには気付いていないらしいです。そのままだとすると、いつかは中国に遅れてしまいますよ」。また、現職では、研究することにあたって、硬直なルールが多いため、研究や、海外との交流が必ずしもやりやすいとは言えないという問題も指摘した。

B氏もいまの生活に高い満足度を示している。配偶者が日本人であるため、もう日本に住むことを決めたそうだ。「日本という国は平和だし、環境も抜群ですから、日本が大好きです。」しかし、今の仕事は3年ごとに更新するために、不安も多々残っている。そして、職場で孤立されたことには非常に不満を持っている。「もうちょっと大学側、日本人の同僚と交流したいが、その道は知りません。いまグローバル化、グローバル化と叫ばれながら、われわれのような人を活用しないのはもったいない。実は英語以外に、英国の文化や工学などを英語で教えることもできるし、そういった授業をしたいのですが、その道も知りません。」とやり切れていない気持ちを抱えている。

C氏は現在の職場に対して、決して高い評価ではないが、初職としては人生の中できわめて貴重な経験だと評価した。ただし、職場では、常に日本人らしく振舞うか、外国人としてのアイデンティティーを表すかというジレンマを抱えている。「どうしても私が外国人から、日本人と同様な物腰、言葉扱いは無理きわまりです。外国人としてのハンディーがあると同時に、その特徴を生かしてほしい。」という言葉がおそらく多くの外国人の本音とも言えよう。

D氏は仕事の初年度であることもあり、職場に十分に適応できていないように見受けられる。特に彼女の西洋的個人主義が「和」を重んじる職場文化と衝突する部分が多い。「外国人をすべて日本人に変えさせるのは面白くないでしょう。彼らももっと海外のことを勉強しないと」と今の職場をより開放的にする必要性を強く主張した。

5. まとめ

日本の大学につとめる外国人教員は専攻分野、日本語力等々によって、職場への適応度がかなり異なる。また、日本の大学に就職するには、日本人並み、あるいはそれ以上の能力と実績が必須であるだけでなく、コネクションも欠かせない。現在グローバル化をはかるために、英語による授業を開設する大学が増えたものの、本ケーススタディーで取り上げたような教育中心の地方国立大学や、私立大学においては、外国人のアイデンティティーを求めるよりも、日本人並みに仕事をすることが前提となっているところが多い。そのため、外国人教員は高い日本語力が必要だけでなく、日本社会に対する理解と適応も要求されている。その意味では、日本の大学は、外国人にとってはまだまだ閉鎖的であるといわざるを得ない。

一方、4氏に対するインタビューの中でもわかるように、いまの職場に適応度の高い外国人教員では、いかにして外国人のアイデンティティを維持するのが課題であるのに対し、孤立された教員をいかにして日本人の集団に溶け込むという課題も同時にある。言い換えれば、外国人教員に対しては、同化ではなく、その異質的な部分を受け入れる覚悟と体制が必要であろう。

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“International academics recruitment and integration in the comparative perspective”

11. 外国人教員の雇用と国際連携の比較分析

シンガポール（国立シンガポール大学並びに南洋理工大学の事例）

堀田泰司（広島大学）

1. 国の豊さを維持するための人材育成と外国人教員の雇用

本調査報告で、まず言及しなければならないことは、シンガポール高等教育における外国人教員の雇用は、特別に外国人のために設定された制度を通して、採用されているものではないということである。少なくとも今回、調査対象とした国立シンガポール大学（以下 NUS¹）、南洋理工大学（以下 NTU²）の世界ランキング上位に位置する2大学では、そうした外国人研究者に対し、一部生活支援を除く、雇用契約上、特別な措置を施す制度はなかった。³具体的には、選考基準、採用手続き、給与額、業績評価、昇進の基準並びに手続き、そして授業負担や研究助成金等でも、シンガポール人と外国人教員間での制度上の違いは見られなかった。シンガポール社会に於いて上記2校の「外国人教員」は、先導的に国全体の発展を促進し、その繁栄を維持するための高度知識社会を形成する上で、極めて重要な人材であるが、重要な点は、シンガポール自体は、同様の貢献をする人材であれば、シンガポール人でも積極的に採用している点である。したがって、本調査報告書で説明する大学教員の雇用制度並びに実態は、外国人教員に対してのみだけでなく、シンガポール人教員にも同様の条件が課せられ、同様の処遇が与えられている点を十分に留意する必要がある。

もう一つ留意する点は、上記2大学における外国人雇用の拡大は、2007年以降、急激に拡大された点である。表1は、2大学の具体的な外国人雇用者数の推移ではないが、国全体の高等教育機関に勤務するシンガポール国籍並びに永住権を持つ研究者（以下、国内研究者）と外国籍の研究者（以下外国人研究者）の人口の推移を2002年から2014年まで表している。しかし、博士号を持つ研究者のほとんどは、両2大学並びにシンガポール経営大学（以下 SMU）に勤務していることから、表1における推移は、両大学でも同時に起きた現象であると予測する。この拡大傾向は、2006年の国立大学の法人化と同時に、政府が展開した世界トップクラスの若手研究者の雇用促進政策「NRF⁴ フェローシップ」の影響が大きい。⁵ 前述したとおり、シンガポール政府並びに高等教育機関は、外国人教員への特

¹ NUS は、National University of Singapore の略称。

² NTU は、Nanyang Technological University の略称。

³ NTU 国際担当副理事（2016年9月13日）、並びに、NUS アジア系外国人教員（2016年9月15日）の聞き取り調査。

⁴ NRF は、National Research Foundation の略称。

⁵ NTU 欧州系外国人教員（2016年9月13日）、NTU 国際担当副理事（2016年9月13日）、並びに NUS 国内専門家（2016年9月16日）の聞き取り調査。

別な措置は施していないが、国際的にも十分魅力的な多額の研究費と給与を提供し、国際公募をかけた手法は、海外からの優秀な若手研究者を集めた。そして、その競争の中で、シンガポール人の若手研究者が採用される確率は、低かった。しかし、表1において、こうした特別待遇の若手研究者の雇用は、政府主導で2007年から2014年の8年間に約160名程度であり、両2大学が独自に持つ似通った制度でも合計160名以下であることから、それ以外の外国人研究者の雇用拡大は、大学の通常の雇用審査を通して採用されたことになる。2007年から2014年の間に国内研究者と外国人研究者の伸び率は、前者が約2倍拡大していく中、後者は、4倍の速度で飛躍的に拡充されたのは、90年代後半から始まった「World Class University」プログラム⁶や2002年から開始した「Global Schoolhouse」ビジョン⁷等、世界の英知が集まる知識社会のハブになるミッションを実現させるための一連の政策の発展と実践が影響していると推察する。

表1 シンガポールの高等教育機関における国籍別研究者数の推移（2002年から2014年まで）

年度	シンガポール国籍・永住者	外国籍居住者	合計
	研究者全体（博士号取得者）	研究者全体（博士号取得者）	研究者全体（博士取得者）
2002	2,532 (1,389)	941 (661)	3,473 (2,050)
2003	2,761 (1,425)	956 (673)	3,717 (2,098)
2004	2,883 (1,511)	863 (592)	3,746 (2,103)
2005	3,075 (1,604)	932 (644)	4,007 (2,248)
2006	3,368 (1,746)	1,083 (745)	4,451 (2,491)
2007	3,591 ⁸ (1,835) ⁹	1,288 ⁴ (859) ⁵	4,879 (2,694)
2008	3,817 (1,920)	1,694 (1,087)	5,511 (3,007)
2009	4,003 (1,993)	2,122 (1,353)	6,125 (3,346)
2010	4,255 (2,010)	2,866 (1,727)	7,121 (3,737)
2011	4,094 (2,025)	3,071 (1,801)	7,165 (3,826)
2012	4,206 (2,196)	3,551 (2,151)	7,757 (4,347)

⁶ 世界トップレベルの大学を誘致し、シンガポールをアジアの知の拠点にしようとする計画。Ng, Pak Tee and Tan, Chariene (2010) “The Singapore Global Schoolhouse: An Analysis of the Development of the Tertiary Education Landscape in Singapore”, International Journal of Educational Management, 24 (3), p. を参照。

⁷ （1）世界トップレベルの大学並びに（2）国際的に留学生獲得を展開するトランスナショナル大学を海外から積極的に誘致し（3）さらに国内のトップ3大学を発展させ、シンガポールの経済に知の拠点としての新たなビジネスチャンスと雇用を生もうとする計画。

⁸ 2007年には、国内研究者数は外国人研究者のおよそ2.8倍であったのが、2014年には、外国人研究者が4倍に増加し、ほぼ同じ人数になっている。

⁹ 博士号を取得しているシンガポール国籍並びに永住権を持つ研究者は、2007年から2014年のおよそ1.3倍、増加したのに対し、外国籍研究者は、約3倍増加し、2013年からは、外国籍研究者数が上回っている。

2013	4,254 (2,334)	3,951 (2,519)	8,205 (4,853)
2014	4,294 ⁴ (2,402) ⁵	4,014 ⁴ (2,603) ⁵	8,308 (5,005)

注) 筆者が 2002 年から 2014 年までの出典の各年度の報告書のデータを基に作成。

出典: Agency for Science, Technology and Research (A*STAR) (2003~2015) *National Survey of Research and Development in Singapore (2002~2014)*

では、なぜそうした「知の拠点」作りを政府は目指したのであろうか。それは、90 年代に起きたアジア金融危機、そして、2000 年初頭の IT バブル崩壊時等により経済の落ち込みが深刻化する中、シンガポールに多くの雇用をもたらす次世代の産業として、高等教育自体を注視したことがあげられる。そして具体的な戦略として、90 年代からは、世界的に著名なトップランキングの大学を積極的に誘致し、オフショア・キャンパスの開校を促進した。同時に、海外投資による様々な分野の私立大学の開校も奨励した。しかし、そうした計画とは裏腹に、移民法の厳格化や国内での留学生の雇用機会の減少、そして高等教育機関からの卒業生の供給過多により、次第に経営が十分に成り立たなくなった教育機関が増えた。結果として、2000 年以降、オフショア・キャンパスを撤退させる国際的に有名な高等教育機関が増えていった。¹⁰ 2007 年以降の NUS と NTU という国立のトップ 2 大学への多額の資金投資と国際公募を通じた優秀な若手研究者の積極的な雇用は、世界の高等教育市場の発展を意識した 90 年代からの一連の成長戦略の第 2 の方策であると言える。そして、それは、この 10 年間に起きた極めて新しい現象である。

こうした背景の中、今回、対象となった 2 大学は、世界をリードするトップレベルの大学になることを目指している。そして、そのために国は大学に多額の補助金を与え、繰り広げられている世界トップレベルの大学間の激しい国際競争に参入し、アジア 1 位だけでなく世界のトップリーグの一員になることを目指し、絶えず様々な教育・研究活動を展開している。本報告書では、そうした状況を踏まえつつ、シンガポールの高等教育機関における外国人教員の回答を中心に、彼らのおかれている現状を報告する。

2. 調査対象大学の特徴

本調査の対象とした NUS 並びに NTU は、シンガポールが持つ国立 6 大学¹¹の 2 校である。そして、両校は、現在、Times Higher Education の世界ランキング (2017)¹²では、NUS が東京大学の 39 位を抜き、24 位にランク付けされ、アジア地域では、1 位を誇っている。

¹⁰ オフショア・キャンパスを撤退させた海外の高等教育機関は、例えばジョンズ・ホプキンス大学 (2006 年)、シカゴ大学 (2014 年)、ニューヨーク大学 (2015 年)。() 内は撤退した年。

¹¹ 国立 6 大学とは、NUS, NTU, そして、Singapore Management University (SMU)、Singapore University of Technological Design (SUTD)、Singapore Institute of Technology (SIT)、そして、Singapore Institution of Management's University (UniSIM) の 6 校である。S I T は、5 つのポリテクニクと連携した学士号が取得できる大学。Uni-SIM 大学は、2017 年 3 月 17 日に Singapore University of Social Science (SUSS) に改名した。前身は、シンガポールに開校されたイギリスのオープン大学 (遠隔教育センターの大学) であるが、近年は、全日制の学士課程教育プログラムも開講している。

¹²

https://www.timeshighereducation.com/world-university-rankings/2017/world-ranking#!/page/0/length/25/sort_by/rank/sort_order/asc/cols/stats 参照。

NUS は、その前身を 1905 年に設立された医学校にまで遡ることができ、大学としては、1949 年に当時はまだマレーシアの一部であったため、マラヤ大学として設立された。¹³ そして、1962 年にマレーシアからの独立に合わせて、マラヤ大学シンガポールキャンパスはシンガポール大学と改名された。以上の通り、シンガポール大学は、戦前、そしてマレーシアからの独立前からこの地域と社会をいつもリードしてきたトップエリート大学であった。

一方、NTU は、過去 6 年間に 174 位から 54 位へと飛躍的に躍進を遂げ、10 年間にもっとも成長を遂げた大学の 2 位に選ばれた世界的に求心力のある大学である。NTU は、1991 年に国立師範学院と共に教育大学として創設された比較的新しい大学である。¹⁴ しかし、その前身は、1955 年から 80 年までは、南洋大学という中国系住民が設立した工学系の職業訓練の色合いの強い私立大学であった。1981 年以降は、南洋工科学院となったが、そのミッションは基本的に同じであった。1991 年以来、教育大学として多くのエンジニアを養成してきたが、2006 年には、独立行政法人化し、政府の強い財政支援の下、2007 年以降から、特に若手研究者の養成に力を注ぎ、この 10 年で、世界的には、無名の大学から一気に 2017 年度 THE の世界ランキングで 54 位まで、伸び上がった。2006 年の法人化後は、自主的な運営権を持ち、大学の規模も 6 倍に発展させた。¹⁵ そして今では、4,500 人以上の 82% が博士号を持つ教授陣を抱え、33,000 人以上の学生数を抱える大規模な総合大学である。そして、R&D 予算としては、政府からの公的資金獲得に加え、世界的な大企業と直接の契約を結び、年間 5 億シンガポールドル（約 390 億円）以上の外部資金を獲得している。しかし、現在も 77% は政府からの運営交付金に頼っている。シンガポールの大学で、THE2017 年世界ランキングの上位に乗る大学は、上記 2 大学で、アジアをリードする総合大学として存在するのは、この 2 校なので、今回の調査対象に選んだ。

3. 調査方法

本調査は、2016 年 9 月にシンガポールにおいて実施した聞き取り調査のデータを基に作成する。聞き取りは、NUS の学部教育担当副学長（以下、NUS 教育担当理事）、アジア諸国出身の若手外国人教員（以下 NUS アジア系外国人教員）とアジア高等教育を専門とするシンガポール国籍の大学教員（以下 NUS 国内教員）、そして、NTU の国際関係を担当する副理事（以下、NTU 国際担当副理事）並びに大学の研究科レベルの学術委員会において、学科全体の研究活動の指導的立場にいる世界的に著名な欧州からの教員（以下、NTU 欧州系外国人教員）に対して実施した。さらに、在シンガポール日本国大使館のジャパン・クリエイティブ・センターも訪問した。また、シンガポール政府の教育省をはじめ、統計局、A*STAR（シンガポール科学技術研究庁¹⁶）や NRF（シンガポール国立研究財団）

¹³ NUS (2016), *NUS at Glance* [NUS の大学を紹介するパンフレット] p.16

¹⁴ 小林治・津田憂子(2016)「シンガポールの科学技術情勢」東京、国立研究開発法人科学技術振興機構、p.8

¹⁵ NTU 国際担当副理事(2016 年 9 月 13 日)並びに NTU 欧州系外国人教員(2016 年 9 月 13 日)の聞き取り調査。

¹⁶ A*STAR 並びに NRF の日本語名については、三菱総合研究所(2009)「研究開発評価活動のグローバル化の推進及び研究開発評価のためのデータベースの構築・運用・活用に関する調査・分析：研究開発評価活動のグローバル化の推進編」(平成 20 年度文部科学省研究開発評価推進調査委託事業) p. 107-108 を参照。

等のホームページからもシンガポール全体の現状や高等教育機関に関する動向についてデータ収集を行った。

4. シンガポール高等教育における外国人教員の雇用制度

NUS と NTU については、一般の部局ごとの雇用制度に加え、世界的に優秀な研究者として招へいする 2 つタイプの特別な雇用制度が存在する。1 つは、NRF が運営する「NRF フェローシップ」である。¹⁷ NRF は、1998 年に設立された研究財団であり、このフェローシップは、2007 年より展開している事業である。目的は世界トップレベルの研究プロジェクトを展開できる若手研究員を世界公募し、採用が決まった研究者には 3-5 年の研究プロジェクトを展開する資金として最高 3 百万シンガポールドル（およそ 2 億 3 千万円）を配分し、給与も月額 1 万から 1 万 2 千シンガポールドル（78~93 万円）支給し、一般教員と比べると破格の待遇で雇用する制度である。¹⁸ また、採用されれば、人文社会系でも 1-2 億シンガポールドル（約 7800 万円—1 億 6 千万円）は配分されるので、若手研究者は、かなり大がかりな研究プロジェクトを展開することができる。¹⁹ ただし、この公募は、国籍を問わないためシンガポール人が採用される可能性もある。しかし、実態としては、採用された多くの教員は外国人教員である。制度上は、採用された教員は、シンガポール国内の 7 か所の研究所や大学から赴任先を選択できるが、これまでは、毎年、この「NRF フェローシップ」で採用された約 20 名の研究者の多くは、NUS と NTU 両校を選んで赴任している。²⁰

例えば、NTU は、この制度に基づき、9 年前から優秀な若手研究者を受け入れ、現在もトップレベルの研究の最前線で活躍する人材として、85 名が勤務している。この制度の特徴は、大学や部局のニーズとは関係なく、採用された若手研究者の選択を尊重し、大学は、その研究者を受け入れなければならない点である。²¹ それは、場合によっては、部局に同じ分野の教員がいる場合もある。したがって、当初は、そうした受け入れを拒絶する部局もあったり、研究以外の問題で部局からその研究者はいらないと言われたりするケースもあった。しかし、それらの若手研究者は、選考の段階で、スウェーデンのノーベル賞選考委員会の委員の専門家等によって選ばれた研究者であり、赴任後も、世界トップレベルの研究を成功させ、部局全体の知名度を向上させるなど成果を出してきたので、次第に部局からの文句は減少した。

また、似通った若手研究者の雇用制度を NUS も NTU も独自に展開している。NUS のプログラムは「Temasek Research Fellowship」と呼ばれ、主に自然科学系の若手研究者を対象に、大学が指定する研究分野で 3 年間の研究プロジェクトを立ち上げ遂行することを条件に、

¹⁷ <https://www.nrf.gov.sg/funding-grants/nrf-fellowship-and-nrf-investigatorship> を参照。(2017 年 4 月 20 日検索・確認)

¹⁸ NTU 欧州系外国人教員（2016 年 9 月 13 日）の聞き取り調査。

¹⁹ NUS 国内専門家（2016 年 9 月 16 日）の聞き取り調査。

²⁰ NTU 国際担当理事（2016 年 9 月 13 日）と NTU 欧州系外国人教員（2016 年 9 月 13 日）の聞き取り調査。

²¹ NTU 欧州系外国人教員（2016 年 9 月 13 日）の聞き取り調査。

最大100万シンガポールドル（約7800万円）まで研究費を提供している。²² また、NTUでは、「Nanyang Assistant Professorship」と呼ばれ、こちらも同様に研究助成金を最大100万シンガポールドル（約7800万円）まで支給し、さらに、宿舍支援やテニユアトラック制度の教員として採用を約束している。²³

NTUでは、毎年10名の枠に対して50人ぐらいの申請がある。²⁴ 最初は、有名ではなかったため、申請が少なかったが、今は知名度も上がり、申請者が急激に増えてきた。NTUが最近、世界ランキングをあげているのは、こうした政府並びに大学独自に展開する若手研究者採用制度の貢献が大きい。世界的に研究能力の高い研究者にとにかく研究させる環境を提供し、成果を出してもらっている。しかし、採用された若手研究者も、もちろん絶えず成果を求められている。契約は3年で、更新はできるが、長期に滞在したい場合は、テニユア付き専任教員になるしかない。また、3年の契約期間中に成果がでなかった場合は、1年前に更新がない旨伝えられ、大学を去らなければならない。大学が独自に行っている若手研究者採用制度は、「Nanyang Assistant Professorship」プログラムと呼ばれ、これまでに40人程度がこのフェローシップを通して勤務しているが、そのうち8名は日本人である。若手日本人研究者にとっても、初期の段階から大きな研究費をもらい独立した研究をする機会をもらえるのは、非常に魅力的なのであろう。

また、NUSの場合は、人文社会科学系の学部も多く持つが、国内教員も外国人教員も、通常、3つのタイプに分けられる。²⁵ 1つ目は、NTU同様、新人枠で採用された教員は、前述した政府や大学独自の多額の資金を投入した若手研究者の雇用制度以外に、一般枠の雇用であっても、赴任当初の2-3年間は、全ての学部で、支給額は異なるもののstartup grantが全員に配分される。そして、その予算で、当初の研究活動を開始することを可能にしている。2つ目のタイプの教員は、研究中心の教員であり、研究費等の配分が異なるが、例えば、人文社会系の研究者には、最低でも1万（約78万円²⁶）から7万シンガポールドル（約546万円）の研究助成金が配分される。3つ目のタイプの教員は、教育中心の教員である。教育中心の教員にも研究助成金は申請すれば配分される。教育中心なので、その額は、研究中心型教員よりは低いが、同時に、研究業績の評価はそれほど厳格ではない。NUSの場合は、それらの研究費が、金額は異なるが、全ての部局の教員に申請が採択されれば、研究や教材開発のための調査等を実施する機会が多い。また、通常、NUS、NTU両校とも、担当する授業科目は、毎学期1-2科目である。しかし、それは、講義だけでなく、実験や実習等も含めているため、授業のタイプや単身か協働教育かの違いによって、実際の講義を担当し、研究を指導する授業時間数には、個人差がある。

²² <http://www.nus.edu.sg/dpr/InfoForResearchers/trf.html> を参照。（2017年4月20日検索・確認）。

²³ <http://www3.ntu.edu.sg/nap/NTUNAP2014.pdf> を参照。（2017年4月20日検索・確認）。

²⁴ NTU 欧州系外国人教員（2016年9月13日）の聞き取り調査。

²⁵ NUS 国内教員（2016年9月16日）の聞き取り調査。

²⁶ 為替のレートは、2016年4月16日の換算表。ヤフー・ファイナンスサイト（<https://info.finance.yahoo.co.jp/fx/convert/?a=70000&s=SGD&t=JPY>）。

5. シンガポールにおける外国人教員の功績と課題

外国人教員の功績としては、やはり、2007 年以降開始した政府の「NRF フェローシップ」や NUS の「Temasek Research Fellowship」制度、そして NTU の「Nanyang Assistant Professorship」制度等が国際公募をかけ、世界的に優秀な若手外国人研究者を積極的に採用してきた結果、例えば、NTU の国際担当副理事曰く、今、それらの制度で採用された 85 名の若手研究者は NTU の構成員の 5% にしかないが、NTU の教員が世界トップレベルの国際学術誌に掲載した論文数の実に 35% を発表している。²⁷ この影響は、以下の表 2 をみても、NTU の過去 7 年間の世界ランキングの上昇に著しく影響していることがわかる。その反面、NUS は以前より世界上位に位置し、競合するトップ 30 大学は、それぞれが絶えず挑戦的な試みに取り組み、大学改革・改善を繰り返しているため、若手研究者による NUS の成長があっても、他大学との差をつけるのが難しくなっているようである。

表 2. Time Higher Education 世界大学ランキング (2011 年から 2017 年までの推移)

	2011 年	2012 年	2013 年	2014 年	2015 年	2016 年	2017 年
NTU	174 位	169 位	86 位	76 位	61 位	55 位	54 位
NUS	34 位	40 位	29 位	26 位	25 位	26 位	24 位

出典： <https://www.timeshighereducation.com/world-university-rankings>
(2017 年 4 月 20 日検索・確認)

しかし、そうした特別な形で招聘された若手外国人教員の貢献があっても、同時に外国人教員に係わる課題も残る。今回調査した大学代表者並びに外国人教員からの意見をまとめると、最大の課題は、シンガポール全体で幾度となく起きている移民拡大に対する国民の不満である。シンガポール全体の人口が約 5.6 百万人である中、そのうちの約 3 割である 1.7 百万人は、外国人でありさらに永住権を持つ 0.5 百万人を加えると実際には、ほぼ 4 割の人口は、外国から来ている。²⁸そして、前述したとおり、大学教員の約半数も外国人である。そんな中、留学生の受け入れについては、2011 年以降、15% を上限に受け入れる方針ができ、現在は、国立大学は、留学生の受け入れ超過を避けるようになっている。また、大学教員についても、明確なルールがあるわけではないが、シンガポール人研究者の雇用を促進するよう政府から依頼がきているようである。²⁹

しかし、もう一つの現実として、優秀なシンガポール人学生は、多くが欧米諸国の大学院に進学し、さらに優秀な学生は、留学先の大学教員となり、母国に戻らないという傾向

²⁷ NTU 国際担当副理事 (2016 年 9 月 13 日) の聞き取り調査。

²⁸ The Singapore Department of Statistics (2016) *Singapore Population Highlights 2016*, https://www.singstat.gov.sg/docs/default-source/default-document-library/statistics/visualising_data/population-trends2016.pdf [2017 年 4 月 20 日検索・確認]

²⁹ NUS アジア系外国人教員 (2016 年 9 月 15 日) の聞き取り調査。

がある。³⁰ また、別の側面からは、NUS でも NTU でもシンガポール人の学部学生は非常に優秀だが、そのほとんどは母国の大学院に残らないことから、優秀なシンガポール人研究者を自らの教育機関から要請できないでいる。さらに、例えば理系の分野を専攻していた学生でも、多くの学生が理系ではなく、ビジネスや金融関連の企業に就職する傾向もあり、優秀なシンガポール人の大学教員の養成をますます難しくしている。

第2の課題は、優秀な若手外国人教員の雇用並びに活用は前述した政府と両大学の特別な雇用制度で成功しているが、世界的に活躍している中堅クラス（40—50代）の研究者を欧米諸国から呼び寄せることは非常に難しい点である。³¹ これまでも、多額の研究助成金等を用意し、いろいろな方策で試みているが、今、現役で一番活躍している研究者の多くは、それぞれの国内での移動はするが、アジアの大学に赴任する教員は、限定的である。その傾向は、学校へ通う子供を含め、家族がいる研究者には、さらに強くみられる。逆に家族にアジア系の家族がいる場合は、シンガポールに赴任する可能性は比較的高い。この状況は、すでに優秀な若手研究者並びにシニア研究者を獲得している両校にとっては、現在、最も必要な人材である。両校とも、今後も世界のトップクラスの高等教育機関と競合し、アジアから世界をリードする知の拠点となるために、こうした40代—50代の成熟したすでに世界をリードする研究で実績を上げている中堅層の研究者を今後も積極的に雇用しようとしているが、実際には、効果的な手法を現在模索している段階である。

第3の課題は、外国人教員の家族の生活環境である。唯一、シンガポール人と外国人教員の雇用条件で異なるのは、外国人に対しては、大学が管理する宿舎が提供されたり、都心のコンドミニウムの住居費の50%程度ぐらいまで大学から住居費を補てんしたりする点である。³² そして、その間は、多くの外国人教員は、都心のコンドミニウム等に居住する。しかし、それはあくまでも、採用から8—9年後に永住権を取得するまでであり、永住権を取得した外国人教員へは、住居手当は一切なくなり、都心のコンドミニウムに継続して住むのは、財政負担がかかりすぎるため、シンガポール人のおよそ80%³³ が住む政府の住宅開発局（HDB³⁴）が斡旋する公団住宅に入居する必要がでてくる。しかし、それらの住宅は郊外にあり、施設も質が落ちることから住環境の変化に不満を漏らす外国人教員もいる。また、近年では、10年前と比べると外国人教員への宿舎補助は段階的に自己負担が増えてきている。³⁵ それは、10年前は、外国人教員が数えるほどしかいなかったのに対し、現在は、両校とも半数以上が外国籍の教員に占めるようになったため、今後も、この傾向は継続する可能性が高い。

³⁰ NUS 国内専門家（2016年9月16日）、NUS アジア系外国人教員（2016年9月15日）、そして NTU 国際担当副理事（2016年9月13日）の聞き取り調査。

³¹ NUS 国内専門家（2016年9月16日）の聞き取り調査。

³² NUS アジア系外国人教員（2016年9月15日）の聞き取り調査。

³³ The Singapore Department of Statistics (2017) *Key Household Income Trends 2016*, <http://www.singstat.gov.sg/statistics/latest-data> [2017年4月20日検索・確認]。

³⁴ HDB は、Housing and Development Board の略称。

³⁵ NUS 国内専門家（2016年9月16日）と NUS アジア系外国人教員（2016年9月15日）の聞き取り調査。

これに付随して外国人教員の生活面で課題なのが、子供の教育環境である。³⁶ 赴任直後は、現地の公立学校に入学するには、シンガポール国籍の住民に優先権があり、優秀な公立学校へ送ることは極めて困難であるため、外国人教員の子女の多くは、外国人向けのインターナショナル・スクールへ通わせている。大学から当初は教育手当が支給されるが、学費が高額のため、教育費は、新任外国人教員の家庭にとっては大きな財政負担となっている。さらに、テニユアをもらい常勤教員になると、教育支援費の支給はなくなるため、国内の優秀な公立学校に通わせる必要がでてくるが、そこでも、永住権を持つ外国人への優先権は低いいため、トップレベルの公立学校へ通わせるのは難しいようである。

6. シンガポールの今後の課題と可能性について

外国人教員採用に係わる課題：シンガポールにおける外国人教員の役割は、先進国の教員を専門家として招き、新たな知識・技術を学ぼうとする手法だけではなく、まだ経験の少ない若手外国人教員を招聘し、研究の機会を与え、新たな国の発展につながる産業開発、技術革新に貢献してもらおうとするものである。それは、(1) シンガポールは人口が少ない小国であることから、技術移転をするだけでなく、多くの外国人自身に国の発展に直接貢献してもらう必要があった、(2) 国立大学を世界的に競争力のあるトップエリート大学に発展させるために大がかりな予算を集中させ、特に人的資源獲得に投入した、そして(3) 2000 年から特に知的集約産業を次世代の国内主要産業とみなし、大学のみでなく、国全体の産業界が高度な外国人技術者の雇用を積極的に促進してきたことが大きく影響している。よって、この度調査したシンガポールのトップ 2 大学における外国人教員の雇用体制は、今後も大きく変更されることは、しばらくないと考える。

そうした状況の中で、今後どのようなことが課題になるのは、シンガポール人の人材育成並びに雇用である。シンガポールは、前述したように多くの優秀な人材を海外から招き、国全体の発展に貢献してもらうことができている反面、シンガポール人の優秀な人材は、それら 2 大学の大学院生や教員になろうとはしない傾向がある。今回の調査では、特に NUS でそういう声が大学代表からも元若手外国人教員からも聞かれた。こうした状況が続く限り、現在の若手外国人教員の雇用制度を今後も継続させる必要があり、それは、国民から見ると、シンガポールの若者の養成とはかけ離れた政策に見えるのは、否めない。しかし、現実には、政府はシンガポール人研究者を冷遇しているわけではなく、同じ土俵の上で審査・評価をいつもしている。また、政府もシンガポール人教員の雇用については、具体的な規定等は設けていないが、大学には、それぞれが自主的に配慮するよう促しているのは事実である。今後の課題としては、では、どのような条件を整えたら、優秀なシンガポール人教員は、シンガポール国内の大学に戻ってくるのであろうか。このテーマについては今後も調査・研究を継続する必要がある。

³⁶ NUS アジア系外国人教員（2016 年 9 月 15 日）の聞き取り調査。

将来の外国人教員並びに国際連携の可能性： 現在、シンガポール政府は、これまでの高等教育環境を大きく変革させようとしている。2015年にシンガポール政府は、「SkillsFuture」構想³⁷を打ち出し、シンガポール全国民を対象に、個人の様々なスキルを向上させるための国家レベルの支援制度・体制を予算化し、2016年からいろいろな研修プログラムを展開し始めた。³⁸ これまでも新たなポリテクニクを90年代から2000年初頭に開校し、それ以外にも職業訓練学校等の拡充に努めてきた。さらに2009年からは、ポリテクニクの卒業生が実践的な教育センターの学士号を取得しやすくするために専門技術大学である「シンガポール工科大学³⁹」も設立し、トップエリート大学以外にも、大衆のためのポスト・セカンダリー教育の発展に努めてきた。⁴⁰ しかし、2016年からの全国民を対象とする大がかりな生涯学習制度「SkillsFuture」は、トップ研究大学3校を含め、全ての国立大学、そして、現存する5つのポリテクニク並びに職業訓練学校等、全ての教育機関において、生涯学習用の教育コースや受講科目を立ち上げ、様々なニーズに応える教育体制を構築しようとしている。⁴¹ この新たな発展は、シンガポール国民全体の人材育成を計画するものであるが、同時に、オンライン教育等と連動させることで、国際的に展開することのできるグローバル人材としてのスキルを養成する新たな形式の国際教育産業に発展する可能性も十分に考えられる。そうした、可能性を秘めている国家レベルの生涯学習プログラムのハブ化が発展していった場合、外国人教員並びに海外の高等教育機関との連携は、また、新たな段階の発展を遂げる可能性がある。表1によると現在も約1,500名程度の博士号を持たない外国人教員は、シンガポールの高等教育機関に勤務している。この度の調査では、すでにポリテクニク等に勤務する異なる役割を持つ外国人教員の調査は実施できなかった。また、海外の高等教育機関との例えば、グローバルインターンシップ・プログラムを相互交流を通して発展させる可能性やシンガポールのポリテクニクは日本の高等専門学校と制度的に非常に似通っており、交流を通して、相互にグローバル人材育成を試みることは十分に検討する価値がある。シンガポールの高等教育は、次の発展段階へと進もうとしている。新たなパラダイムにおいて、外国人教員の役割や採用方法、そして役割がどう変わるのか、今後、引き続き調査研究を継続していく必要がある。

7. シンガポールの外国人教員の事例報告

事例1

³⁷ <http://www.skillsfuture.sg/what-is-skillsfuture.html> を参照。(2017年4月20日検索・確認)

³⁸ シンガポール日本国大使館ジャパン・クリエイティブ・センターでの聞き取り調査。(2016年9月14日)

³⁹ 英語名は、Singapore Institute of Technology

⁴⁰ Ministry of Education (2016) *Education Statistics Digest 2016*, Research and Management Information Division, October 2016.

⁴¹ Ong Ye Kung, 教育大臣(高等教育と技術担当)の2017年3月7日のスピーチより。
<https://www.moe.gov.sg/news/speeches/moe-fy-2017-committee-of-supply-debate-speech-by-minister-of-education-higher-education-and-skills-ong-ye-kung> (2017年4月20日検索・確認)

(1) プロフィール：

Nationality,	欧州諸国
gender,	男性
age,	75 歳
academic rank,	教授
administrative position,	全学の研究部会 (committee of research) 委員
degree,	博士 (Ph.D.)、
country from which final degree is earned,	
mother tongue,	
nationality of your spouse or partner,	
affiliation,	南洋工科大学
years of employment,	2008 年
discipline,	
number of offering courses,	毎学期 1-2 科目

(2) 研究・教育環境：

1. シンガポール以外での教育・研究の経験：元々は、母国でポリテクニクに長年、勤務していた。退職後、米国の州立大学にて、2003 年から 2008 年まで教員として勤務した。
2. シンガポールでの現地語の能力：シンガポールでは、生活用語として英語がどこでも通じるので、特に問題はない。マレー語や中国語といった現地語はできない。
3. 大学での使用言語：教育、研究、そして大学運営の会議等は、すべて英語で行われている。

(3) シンガポールの大学に勤務した理由：

1. 現在勤務する大学を志望した理由：学会で現在の所属大学の学科長と出会い、教授ポストでの赴任の誘いを受けた。それまでは、アメリカの大学に勤務していたが、少し都市から離れていたため、家族の生活に課題があった。その時、シンガポールでの勤務の可能性がでてきたので、米国滞在との条件を比較し、シンガポールに赴任することを決めた。特にアメリカの大学では、専門か基礎研究だが、応用科学の研究が中心で、研究の方向性が異なり、困っていた。また、アメリカのキャンパスは、都心からは、遠いため家族もアメリカに滞在することに不満があった。

そこで、アジアでどこか赴任できる場所を探していたところ、たまたま、オーストラリアのシンポジウムで NTU のトップレベルとあう機会があり、招聘された。勤務条件は、アメリカ時代より、宿舍をただで提供（学内）されていることを含めると、3 割増しの待遇だったので、魅力を感じた。首都圏にある大学であり「文化」（コンサートや展覧会、そのほかのイベント）にも参加しやすいのも家族（家内）にとっては魅力的なので、特に不満はない。
2. 永住権、市民権の獲得への希望：家族や親族が全員、欧州の母国にいたので、いずれは、母国への帰国を考えている。よってシンガポールの市民権を獲得しようと考えたことはない。
3. 大学での担当、役割：現在、在籍する大学において、一番期待されている業務は、研究分野に行ける研究とその成果発表に加え、大学が毎年、採用している若手研究者の選考である。また、担当する授業負担は非常に少ない。

4. 現地教員との雇用条件の差：雇用条件について、外国人教員は、赴任当初、宿舍の提供や宿舍費への補てんがあるが、それ以外は、現地教員と全く同じである。
5. 現在の勤務状況に対する満足度：研究をする環境は整っており、労働条件も生活環境も良いので、大変、満足している。
6. 他国の高等教育機関への転職の試み：シンガポールを出て、他の国で働こうと思ったことはない。しかし、退職後は、家族、親族、友人が欧州の母国に在住しているので、帰国する計画である。

(4) 外国人教員が抱える課題と今後の展望

1. 現地教職員との間で起きた問題：ビザ申請から、シンガポールに滞在する手続き等は全て、大学事務局が支援してくれるので、大変、助かっている。また、研究費の獲得や、昇進等で外国人教員と現地教員の取り扱いに差は、ないので、特に内部でもめたことはない。
2. 現在の勤務状況における問題点：シンガポールに滞在して、特に困ったことはない。NTU では、研究成果がすべてなので、外国人として働くことについての不満はない。ただし、シンガポールは多くがトップダウン方式で決められることが多いので、何か不満があっても、反論するシステムがないのは課題であるが、トップダウンの決定がこれまでは、成功しているので、誰も文句はいえないとおもうが、たぶん失敗した場合は、トップレベルでも責任は問われるシステムになっているのだと思う
3. シンガポールの政府並びに大学が外国人教員を雇用することに関する意見：シンガポールでは、大学教員は、現地の教員との間に雇用条件では、ほとんど差がない。しかし、この国は、小さい国で、資源もないので、貿易や知的財産に頼る必要がある。そのために、NUS も NTU もどうしても門戸を世界に広げ、世界に教育・研究の場を提供しないと生き残れないので、外国人教員のほうが多くなるのは仕方がない。今、NTU の化学研究科の課長は、日本人であるのが、象徴している。

事例 2

(1) プロフィール：

Nationality,	■
gender,	男性
age,	41 歳
academic rank,	■ 準教授
administrative position,	研究部会の委員（主に若手教員の雇用）
degree,	博士（Ph.D.）
country from which final degree is earned,	ドイツ ■
mother tongue,	■
nationality of your spouse or partner,	■
affiliation,	国立シンガポール大学
years of employment,	10 年（2007 年に赴任）
discipline,	■
number of offering courses,	毎学期 1 科目（モジュール）だけ、他の研究
所にも併任のため。化学学科の教員は、通常は、1.5 科目（モジュール）担当する。ほかの教員と合同で教えている。1 科目は、通常 4 時間の授業と 1 時間のチュートリアルなの	

で、1週間に5時間教える。（一般の教員は、週に7-8時間担当することになる）x13週。加えて、ラボ授業もある。学期ごとに異なるが、たいていは週3-4時間のラボ授業が別途ある。TA もいる。

（2） 研究・教育環境：

1. シンガポール以外での教育・研究の経験： 教育経験はないが、ドイツで博士号取得後、米国のUCLAに2年間、ポスト・ドクとして務め、その後、シンガポールに赴任した。
2. シンガポールでの現地語の能力： 英語と中国語が話せるが、生活全般にわたって英語を使っている。
3. 大学での使用言語： 教育、研究、そして大学運営の会議等は、すべて英語で行われている。

（3）シンガポールの大学に勤務した理由：

1. 現在勤務する大学を志望した理由： NUSは世界的に有名な大学だった。そして、母国に近い大学で働きたかった。また、シンガポール自体が国際的であると同時に文化も似通っているのも魅力を感じた。特に食事は、アメリカでは、苦労したので、こちらに来てよかったと思う。
2. 永住権、市民権の獲得への希望：すでにシンガポールの永住権を得ている。市民権は、取得する気は現在のところない。
3. 大学での担当、役割： 教育と研究に専念する通常の教授で特段の職務はない。
4. 現地教員との雇用条件の違い： 違いはなく、たとえば、研究助成金への申請は、国民である必要はなく、誰でも申請できる。
5. 現在の勤務状況に対する満足度： 大学の勤務環境は非常によく、不満は全くない。
6. 他国の高等教育機関への転職の試み： 母国に近い位置になり、また、文化も似通っているのも、シンガポールは理想の国であるので、現段階では、移動するつもりはない。

（4）外国人教員が抱える課題と今後の展望

1. 現地教職員との間で起きた問題： 特に大きな問題はない。雇用も昇進も、研究費の配分も、外国人と現地教員の間には、一切、差はないので、双方にとって、現在の状況が一番摩擦を起こしにくい状況であると思う。
2. 現在の勤務状況における問題点： 大学での労働環境は、非常に良い。職場ではないが、現在の課題は、子供の公立学校への進学する際、シンガポール人の子女に入学の優先権があり、外国人国籍の子供は、希望する上位の公立学校に進学できないのが一番の不満である。
3. シンガポールの政府並びに大学が外国人教員を雇用することに関する意見： 高等教育機関における外国人の雇用条件並びに労働環境は、とても良いと思う。しかし、家族にとっては、現況の公教育制度では、シンガポール国籍が優先され、市民権を持たない外国人の子女は、いくら優秀であっても、進学を望む学校へ進学できない状況がある。そうした外国人教員の家族への支援体制の充実が今後の課題となるであろう。

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12. 「連合王国（UK）における外国人大学教員の採用に関する研究」

秦由美子（広島大学）

はじめに

本稿は、高等教育統計局（Higher Education Statistics Agency）のデータ及び引用文献、そして 2016 年度及び 2017 年度実施したインタビュー及びアンケート調査を基に記したものである。

1. 基本情報

1) 大学を含む高等教育機関（HEIs）数

イングランド：130、ウェールズ：11、スコットランド：18、北アイルランド：4

合計 163

人口は、6,264 万 1,000 人（2011）、国土面積は日本のおよそ 3 分の 2（本州と四国を併せた程度）

2) 教職員数

表 1 勤務体系別及び契約形態別教職員数（2010/2011 年度）（連合王国）

勤務体系	教員数	%	専門的・支援者数	%
FT	96,540	79	108,140	71
PT	20,115	16	37,200	25
Low activity	6,095	5	6,315	4
合計	122,750	100	151,655	100

契約形態	教員数	%	専門的・支援者数	%
終身	88,580	72	132,985	88
期限付き	34,170	28	18,670	12
合計	122,750	100	151,655	100

出典： HEFCE. *Staff employed at HEFCE-funded HEIs: Trends and profiles 1995-96 to 2010-11*. Bristol: HEFCE, 2012.

連合王国の教員身分は、大学との雇用契約に基づき働く被雇用者で、パートタイム（PT）を含む 2011/12 年度の全教職員数は 274,405 人で、その内全教員数は 122,750 人である。

職階別に分類すると、教授（professor）は全教員の 9.6%、上級講師（senior lecturer）

は 17.2%、講師 (lecturer) は 35.0%、その他の教育・研究職は 38.1%となっている⁴。また、従来大学で使用されていた lecturer⁵の職名を、オックスフォード大学では、Associate Professor に変更する予定である。lecturer の称号は、いかなる職階を意味しているのか、国際的な認知が不足しているのが現状であり、名称変更により教員の国際的流動性を高めるとともに、優秀な教員を保持することが目的と言われている。

表 2 日本の大学教員数 (平成 22 年度) (本務者)

	計	男	女
総数	174403	139349	35054
学長	736	670	66
副学長	891	827	64
教授	68787	60207	8580
准教授	41189	32798	8391
講師	19738	14146	5592
助教	37163	27956	9207
助手	5899	2745	3154

(兼務者)

	計	男	女
総数	185231	133922	51,309
学長	38	37	1
副学長	64	59	5
教員	61791	48194	13,597
教員以外	123338	85632	37706

出典： 広島大学高等教育研究開発センター「高等教育機関・教員数、入学者数」『総合データ編』

3) 学生数

表 1 と表 2 とを比較すると理解されるように、連合王国の教員数は日本の教員数の約 70%である。一方、学部生数は日本が 2,569,349 人に対し、連合王国では 1,928,140 人と連合王国は日本の約 75%で、逆に、大学院生数は日本が 272,566 人に対し、連合王国では 568,505 人と連合王国は日本の約 2 倍となっている。しかしながら、総学生数は、日本が 2,893,489 に対し、連合王国は 2,496,645 人と、ほぼ同数となっている。

2. 背景

1995-96 年から 2002-03 年にかけて、アカデミック・スタッフの流入および流出ともに増加した。流出については、この時期の全般にわたって増加傾向が見られた。しかし、流入については、2000-01 年の 4209 件をピークに、2001-02 年と 2002-2003 年は減少傾向に

⁴ 大学教員の地位は、教授 (professor)、准教授 (reader)、上級講師 (senior lecturer)、専任講師 (lecturer) の順である。ただし、1992 年以降に昇格した大学では、教授、准教授、主任講師 (principal lecturer)、上級講師 (senior lecturer) の順となる。

⁵ university lecturer, university lecturer (medical), CUF lecturer, faculty lecturer 等を指す (University of Oxford, 2013)。

あった。2002-03 年には、推定で 3671 件の流入が、そして 3082 件の流出があった。アカデミック・スタッフの移動は、下位のスタッフに与える影響が特に大きい現象である。流入および流出ともに、移動の約 2/3 は研究職位のスタッフによるものである。流入および流出ともに、上位のスタッフの移動の絶対数はあまり多くない。

連合王国以外の EU 諸国からの流入および同地域への流出件数は、アメリカからの流入およびアメリカへの流出の 2 倍以上にも上る。現在の傾向を元に考えると、こうした傾向は今後も続くと思われる。1995-96 年から 2002-03 年までの 8 年間で、連合王国以外の EU 諸国へと流出したアカデミック・スタッフの数は 71% 増加し、また、アメリカから流入したスタッフの数は減少している。

3. アカデミック・スタッフの国籍

流入が流出をまだ大きく上回っているものの、その差も縮小傾向にあるように思われる。連合王国の国籍を持たないスタッフの正味の流入は、2000-01 年をピークにその後の 2 年間で明らかに大きく減少し、また、連合王国の国籍を持つスタッフについては、2000-01 年以降から流出が流入を上回っている。

前述したように、講師、上級講師、および教授の間では移動率が非常に低い。こうしたアカデミック・スタッフの場合、全体的に、流入件数は流出件数をやや上回るものの、一定していない。恐らく、上位のスタッフの指名のタイミングが研究評価 (Research Assessment Exercise: RAE) の実施サイクルの影響を受けており、1996-2001 年 RAE の対象期間においては、研究職位にあるスタッフの流入に安定した増加傾向が見られるものの、その期間後には減少している。

流出においても流入においても、連合王国以外の国籍をもったスタッフが占める割合が非常に高い。国籍が確認されているスタッフについてのみ取り上げると、1995-96 年から 2002-03 年にかけて、流入の 74% と流出の 63% は連合王国以外の国籍を持つスタッフによるものであった。

これは、オックスフォード大学についても同様である。オックスフォード大学の教職員の国籍は下記のとおりである。教職員の国籍最多は本国英国であるが、二位はドイツ、三位 USA、四位イタリア、五位中国、六位フランス、七位スペインとオーストラリア、九位インド、十位アイルランドである。

表 3 オックスフォード大学の教職員の国籍

Staff in post by nationality⁽¹⁾ and staff group as at 31-7-2015

Nationality	Teaching & Research		Headcount as at	
	Academic	Research ⁽²⁾	Support ⁽³⁾	31-7-2015 Rank

UNITED KINGDOM	1,067	2,184	267	3,518	1
GERMANY	70	239	21	330	2
UNITED STATES	114	202	7	323	3
ITALY {INCLUDES SARDINIA, SICILY}	40	221	8	269	4
CHINA	12	163	5	180	5
FRANCE {INCLUDES CORSICA}	23	128	7	158	6
SPAIN {INCLUDES CEUTA, MELILLA}	19	122	6	147	7
AUSTRALIA	44	100	3	147	7
INDIA	18	116	3	137	9
IRELAND	32	90	3	125	10
NETHERLANDS	18	89	3	110	11
CANADA	30	62	8	100	12
GREECE	20	76	2	98	13
POLAND	7	71	3	81	14
PORTUGAL {INCLUDES MADEIRA, AZORES}	6	54	1	61	15
RUSSIA [RUSSIAN FEDERATION]	9	28	3	40	16
JAPAN	5	29	3	37	17
BELGIUM	10	25	1	36	18
SWEDEN	2	29	3	34	19
NEW ZEALAND	8	23	1	32	20
ROMANIA	6	25		31	21
AUSTRIA	8	20		28	21
SWITZERLAND	7	19	1	27	23
DENMARK	11	15		26	24
FINLAND	2	23	1	26	24
KOREA (SOUTH) [KOREA, REPUBLIC OF]	5	20	1	26	24
IRAN [IRAN, ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF]	1	21	2	24	27
SOUTH AFRICA	4	13	4	21	28
TURKEY	3	16	2	21	28
ISRAEL	6	15		21	28
HUNGARY	7	12		19	31
MALAYSIA	4	14		18	32
MEXICO	2	13	2	17	33
TAIWAN [TAIWAN, PROVINCE OF CHINA]		17		17	33
CZECH REPUBLIC	4	10	1	15	35
BRAZIL	2	9	3	14	36

ARGENTINA	3	10		13	37
CYPRUS (EUROPEAN UNION)		11	2	13	37
KENYA		12	1	13	37
BULGARIA	1	9	2	12	40
HONG KONG (SAR OF CHINA)	4	6	1	11	41
CROATIA	2	9		11	41
CYPRUS NOT OTHERWISE SPECIFIED	3	7	1	11	41
BELARUS		8	2	10	44
SRI LANKA		10		10	44
SLOVAKIA	1	7	2	10	44
NORWAY	4	6		10	44
UKRAINE		9		9	48
SINGAPORE	2	6		8	49
VIETNAM [VIET NAM]	1	7		8	49
LITHUANIA		7		7	51
NEPAL		6	1	7	51
NIGERIA	1	5	1	7	51
SLOVENIA		6		6	54
LEBANON		6		6	54
COLOMBIA	1	5		6	54
MALTA	1	3	1	5	57
THAILAND		5		5	57
BANGLADESH		3	2	5	57
EGYPT		4		4	60
CHILE	1	3		4	60
VENEZUELA		4		4	60
ESTONIA		4		4	60
ZIMBABWE	3	1		4	60
LUXEMBOURG	1	3		4	60
PAKISTAN	1	2	1	4	60
MAURITIUS		3		3	67
CAMEROON		3		3	67
UGANDA		3		3	67
MOROCCO	1	2		3	67
ALGERIA		3		3	67
LATVIA	1	2		3	67

SYRIA [SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC]	3		3	67
INDONESIA	2		2	74
SERBIA AND MONTENEGRO NOT O/W SPECIFIED	2		2	74
GEORGIA	2		2	74
BOLIVIA	2		2	74
SERBIA	1	1	2	74
GHANA	2		2	74
BOTSWANA	2		2	74
ARMENIA	2		2	74
PERU	2		2	74
ICELAND	2		2	74
ZAMBIA	1		1	84
BARBADOS	1		1	84
CUBA	1		1	84
SUDAN	1		1	84
JORDAN	1		1	84
KAZAKHSTAN	1		1	84
BURMA [MYANMAR]	1		1	84
ECUADOR	1		1	84
SEYCHELLES	1		1	84
AFGHANISTAN	1		1	84
COSTA RICA	1		1	84
MACAO (SAR OF CHINA)	1		1	84
ETHIOPIA	1		1	84
SAN MARINO	1		1	84
BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA	1		1	84
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	1		1	84
MALAWI	1		1	84
PHILIPPINES	1		1	84
Not known	128	439	27	594
Grand Total	1,791	4,988	419	7,198

出典：オックスフォード大学・本部（2016年5月入手）

註：(1) HESA nationality field used, this defines the country of legal nationality and not necessarily the domicile. 2) The Research staff grouping is comprised of the University staff classifications: 'Research Fellow' and 'Research Staff (incl E grades)'. (3) The Teaching Research Support staff

grouping is comprised of the University staff classifications: 'Teaching Support' and 'Research Support'.

興味深いのは、流出における連合王国以外の国籍を持つスタッフの数である。正味の流入全体と関連させて考えた場合、これらの数字によると、連合王国から流出したスタッフの多くは、アカデミック・ポストに従事するために連合王国に入国したことになり、「頭脳流出」の特徴の裏付けにはまずあたらない。

同様に興味深いのは、海外から連合王国に流入する連合王国の国籍を持つスタッフの数である。1995-96年から2002-03年の間に、連合王国の国籍を持つスタッフへの流入が7027件(国籍がわかっている総件数の26%を占める)あったことがわかっている⁶。ただし、2002-03年のこうした流入件数は、1998-99年の流入件数を13%下回る。以上のことから、海外で暮らす連合王国の国籍を持つアカデミック・スタッフは、連合王国の各機関が海外からアカデミック・スタッフを採用する際には、重視すべき点であり、また、ひいては、海外で培われたアイデア、技術、そしてネットワークを利用できるという意味においても、やはり貴重な存在であることが窺える。こうした人材の中には自らの研究生生活の全てを海外で過ごしたという者もいるかもしれないが、大多数は、研究もしくはアカデミック・スタッフとして従事するために連合王国を離れたと考えるのが妥当であろう。

2002-03年、国籍がわかっている流出および流入件数のそれぞれ48%と53%が、研究職にある連合王国以外の国籍を持つアカデミック・スタッフによるものであった。すなわち、アカデミック・スタッフの移動の全体的な数値に大きな影響を及ぼしているのは、連合王国国内で一定の時期だけを過ごした(及び過ごす予定の)多数の研究員であることが窺える。こうした種類のスタッフの移動が、連合王国の各教育機関に大きな影響を与えている可能性は低いと思われる。というのも、このような移動を行うアカデミック・スタッフの中に、連合王国の各機関が留任を望むような人材は含まれていないと思われるからである。恐らくこうした移動は、考えられる範囲でもっとも影響の少ない移動だと言えるかもしれない。というのも、国際的な経験を積むというメリットをスタッフに与えはするものの、思わぬ時期に主要なスタッフを失うことでデメリットを被るということがないのである。連合王国ではアカデミック・スタッフの移動率が高い、という背景には以上のことが考えられる。

HESAのデータによると、1994-5年から2002-03年にかけて、流入したアカデミック・スタッフの中で、EU 15カ国⁷から流入してきたスタッフは44%、アメリカが19%、その他の地域が37%を占めた。同時期、EUが流入全体に占める割合は一定しているが、ア

⁶ また、1192名の流入したアカデミック・スタッフの国籍が不明であり、この中には連合王国国籍を持つ者が含まれていた可能性もある。

⁷ EU 15とは連合王国を除く以下の国を指す。オーストラリア、ベルギー、デンマーク、フィンランド、フランス、ドイツ、ギリシャ、アイルランド共和国、イタリア、ルクセンブルグ、オランダ、ポルトガル、スペイン、スウェーデン。

アメリカの割合は減少した。その他の地域からの流入については増加している。また、同時期、流出したスタッフの中で、EUに流出したスタッフが41%、アメリカが23%、残りの地域が36%を占めた。EUに流出するアカデミック・スタッフの数が最も急速に増加しているものの、あらゆる地域への流出の絶対数が増加した。

表4 オックスフォード大学の教職員を学部、職種、国籍で分類

Division	Staff Group ⁽²⁾	United Kingdom	European Union	Other	Not Known	Headcount as at 31-7-2015
Medical Sciences	Academic	207	27	19	7	260
	Research	1,519	816	545	218	3,098
	Teaching & Research Support	170	42	27	18	257
Medical Sciences Total		1,896	885	591	243	3,615
Social Sciences	Academic	220	87	108	53	468
	Research	167	130	126	66	489
	Teaching & Research Support	30	4	9	3	46
Social Sciences Total		417	221	243	122	1,003
Maths, Physical & Life Sciences	Academic	312	103	90	28	533
	Research	404	314	336	119	1,173
	Teaching & Research Support	40	11	8	3	62
Maths, Physical & Life Sciences Total		756	428	434	150	1,768
Humanities	Academic	306	74	83	39	502
	Research	74	51	38	34	197
	Teaching & Research Support	13	10	12	2	37
Humanities Total		393	135	133	75	736
Continuing Education	Academic	16	3	1		20
	Teaching & Research Support	12		1		13
Continuing Education Total		28	3	2		33
Academic Services	Academic	6	1		1	8
	Research	14	5	1	2	22
	Teaching & Research Support	2	1		1	4
Academic Services Total		22	7	1	4	34
University Administration And Services						
	Research	6	1	2		9
University Administration And Services Total		6	1	2		9
Grand Total		3,518	1,680	1,406	594	7,198

出典：オックスフォード大学・本部（2016年5月入手）

註：(1) HESA nationality field used as the basis for the groupings, this defines the country of legal nationality and not necessarily the domicile. (2) Research staff grouping is comprised of the University staff classifications: 'Research Fellow' and 'Research Staff (incl E grades)'; The Teaching Research Support staff grouping is comprised of the University staff classifications: 'Teaching Support' and 'Research Support'.

上記表 2 は、オックスフォード大学の教職員を学部、職種、国籍で分類した表であるが、英国の EU 離脱が今後どのような影響をもたらすのか調査する必要がある。

4. 外国人大学教員採用のメリット

アカデミック・スタッフの受け入れは、国際労働市場において人材の採用や留保に力を入れている研究系の大学で主に見られる。外国人大学教員採用のメリットは、下記インタビュー結果からも理解されるように、視野が広くなり、研究や開発を行う上で広くかつダイナミックな環境をもたらすとしている。しかし一方で、多様な文化の存在は、互いに理解しあおうという意識がなければ、誤解やひずみ、軋みをもたらし、労働環境を悪化させることにもなりうる。

5. 英国大学における教員の人事制度

任用制度—オックスフォード大学の事例・合同任用—

オックスフォード大学においては、教員のポストを各部局が保有していることから、任用の手続きは部局主導で行われている。以下のように、教授と講師では採用の形態が異なっている。また、周知のように、オックスフォード大学ではカレッジ制を採用しているが、カレッジは財務面においても大学から独立していることから、カレッジと大学の双方に所属する講師はカレッジと大学の双方が給与を負担する合同任用（Joint Appointment）という柔軟な採用システムが採られている。

① 教授（Professor）の選考

学群（academic division）と学科（department）のポスト保有部局が外部に公示（external representation）し、選考委員会（selection committee）を設置する。上記の部局で個別にポストを保有しているため次に記載する講師（lecturer）の採用手続きとは異なる。この場合は学科のみでの採用となる。

② 講師（lecturer）の選考

約 800 人の講師がおり、大学とカレッジで合わせて選考委員会（selection committee）を設ける。給与は大学とカレッジ別々で支払われ、任命権者も大学とカレッジの二者にな

り、これが合同任用（Joint appointment）であり、業務の負担量は大学とカレッジ間で調整され、相応の給与が大学とカレッジの双方から支給される。

表5 基礎配分（Baseline）比率

	学科	カレッジ
カレッジ・大学教員	41	59
大学講師（University Lecturer）	86	14
カレッジのみの任用	5	95
学科のみの任用	100	-

（出典）University of Oxford(2011b)より一部抜粋のうえ、筆者作成

③ 若手研究者と外国人研究者の受け入れ

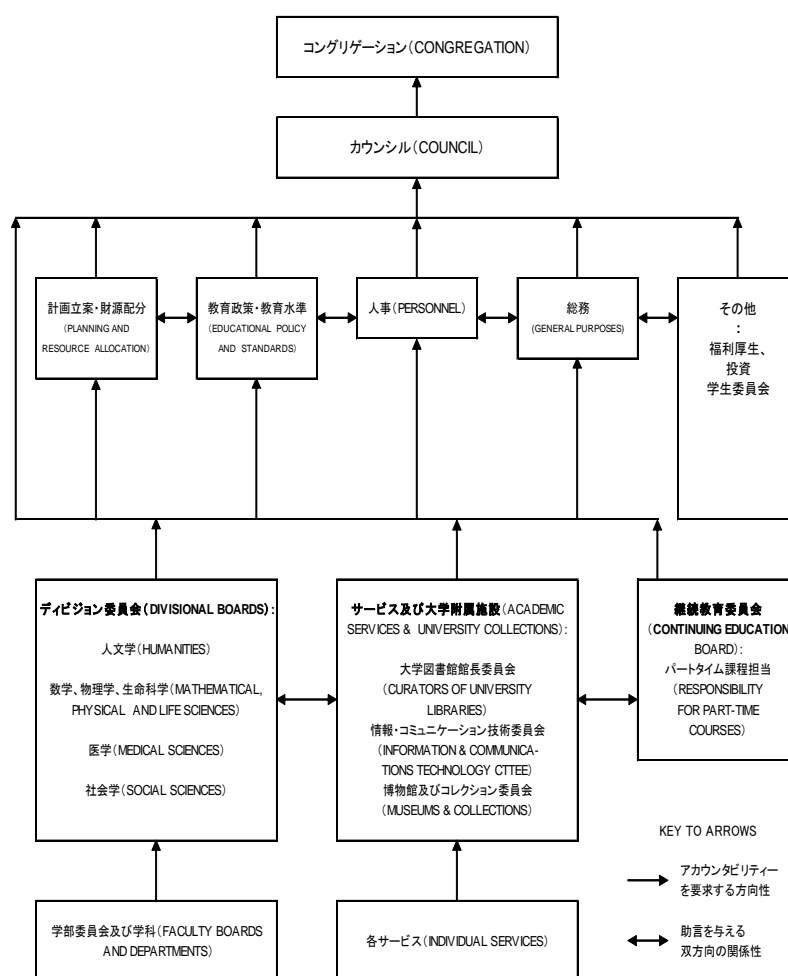


図1 オックスフォード大学の内部構造（改革前の構造）

わが国において、正規教員と非正規教員は生涯賃金や身分保障において大きな隔たりがあり、給与・賞与・退職金・年金，福利厚生面で、非常に大きな格差が存在している。一方上述したとおり、イングランドでは退職金が存在せず、給与についても同一の給与表に基づいて支給される。さらに、わが国では例えば、私立大学と国立大学間を異動すると報酬比例部分における年金加入期間が通算されないことになるが、イングランドの場合、USS という同一の年金機構に加入していることから、この点についての不平等もない。決して、わが国と比較し、イングランドの待遇が良いわけではないが、平等性という点に鑑みれば、参考となる点がある。しかし、教員にとってみれば、賃金も安く、正規教員としての優遇措置も期待できないのであれば、同一の大学に留まる動機づけも殆ど感じる事ができないであろう。オックスフォード大学における教員の在職年数は、名門大学であるにも関わらず、Academic 及び Research とも、わが国に比較し、流動性の高さが看取される。Academic においては 53%の教員が 9 年以下の勤務経験であり、14 年以下の教員で見れば 70%にのぼる。また、研究者における流動性は極めて高いが、これは研究審議会 (Research Councils) 等を中心とする研究費補助金の存在が背景になっていると思われる。

また、オックスフォード大学の内部構造が 800 数十年を経て漸く構造改革されたのだが、下記の図 1 は改革前であり、図 2 は改革後である。改革前に比べ、改革後は責任の所在が明確化している。

表 6 オックスフォード大学の全カレッジ入学者数及びその割合 (2011 年～2013 年)

Three-year average, 2011 to 2013								
College	No. of applicants to this college	No. of those applicants accepted at this college	% of applicants naming this college accepted at this college	No. of applicants to this college accepted at Oxford	% of applicants naming this college accepted at Oxford	Total intake at this college	No. of imports	% of total intake imported
Balliol College	2333	297	13%	447	19%	331	34	10%
Brasenose College	2683	294	11%	538	20%	313	19	6%
Christ Church	1907	268	14%	338	18%	359	91	25%
Corpus Christi College	757	147	19%	191	25%	194	47	24%
Exeter College	1608	216	13%	299	19%	270	54	20%
Harris Manchester College	340	47	14%	50	15%	82	35	43%
Hertford College	1573	274	17%	355	23%	345	71	21%
Jesus College	1321	219	17%	264	20%	284	65	23%
Keble College	1885	298	16%	387	21%	367	69	19%
Lady Margaret Hall	1274	217	17%	271	21%	323	106	33%
Lincoln College	1232	206	17%	267	22%	244	38	16%
Magdalen College	2047	302	15%	481	23%	330	28	8%
Mansfield College	598	97	16%	108	18%	185	88	48%
Merton College	1429	222	16%	323	23%	247	25	10%
New College	1820	329	18%	449	25%	364	35	10%
Oriel College	1141	180	16%	251	22%	238	58	24%
Pembroke College	1246	207	17%	256	21%	285	78	27%
Somerville College	592	139	23%	157	27%	270	131	49%

St Anne's College	1141	211	18%	233	20%	331	120	36%
St Catherine's College	1613	236	15%	274	17%	366	130	36%
St Edmund Hall	956	167	17%	192	20%	290	123	42%
St Hilda's College	491	78	16%	89	18%	263	185	70%
St Hugh's College	679	142	21%	158	23%	298	156	52%
St John's College	2006	282	14%	426	21%	333	51	15%
St Peter's College	814	136	17%	156	19%	269	133	49%
The Queen's College	1084	186	17%	240	22%	269	83	31%
Trinity College	1596	228	14%	314	20%	254	26	10%
University College	1749	266	15%	332	19%	320	54	17%
Wadham College	1760	295	17%	400	23%	350	55	16%
Worcester College	2699	319	12%	588	22%	347	28	8%
Permanent Private Halls	123	21	17%	24	20%	137	116	85%

出典：オックスフォード大学・本部（2016年5月入手）

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<アンケート調査結果>

1. サイド・ビジネス・スクール教員（女性）

Broad items	Specific items
Profile	<p>Nationality, USA/ITALY gender, FEMALE age, 37 academic rank, SEMI-ACADEMIC POST (NON-ACADEMIC BACKGROUND) administrative position, DEPUTY DIRECTOR, SKOLL CENTRE degree, MBA country from which final degree is earned, UK mother tongue, ENGLISH nationality of your spouse or partner, UK affiliation, years of employment, AT THE SKOLL CENTRE: PART TIME 2.5 YEARS, FULL-TIME 1.5 discipline, number of offering courses, mother tongue. HAVE TAUGHT COURSES ON “HIGH IMPACT ENTREPRENEURSHIP” AND A TUTOR/LECTURER ON OTHER ENTREPRENEURSHIP/GLOBAL CHALLENGES COURSES</p>
Teaching & research	<p>1. Educational or research experience at a tertiary level outside of the UK - NONE 2. Proficiency of local language. FLUENT 3. Language used in teaching. ENGLISH 4. Language used in research. ENGLISH 5. language used in committees/administrative meetings. ENGLISH</p>
Motivations & status	<p>1. Your motivations for applying for the position in this university. I WAS A STUDENT THERE BEFORE. I BELIEVE IN THE SKOLL CENTRE’S WORK 2. Have you ever considered changing your nationality to the current country where you are employed, or obtained permanent residence? NOT NECESSARY 3. What role you are expected to play in your university, faculty or department? LEADING MY TEAM BUT SUPPORTING THE WIDER SCHOOL INITIATIVES 4. Any difference in promotion, appointment of administrative position, salary, teaching load, or workload, etc. between you and local faculty members in terms of regulations or practice? SAME 5. Your overall satisfaction with your job. HIGH 6. Have you ever considered leaving the UK and finding a new job in other country in future? Please specify the reason, if any. WILL LIKELY MOVE TO THE US AT SOME POINT AS MY HUSBAND HAS NOT LIVED THERE YET – BUT NO RUSH.</p>
Issues & prospects	<p>1. Have you ever felt unhappy or got into trouble with your local colleagues, administrative staff, or students? Please specify the reason, if any. N/A 2. Please specify any troubles or difficulties you have had while working here. 3. Please specify your expectations and opinions of recruiting international faculty members to government, your university or belonging faculty if any. I WAS HIRED AS A LOCAL AS I HAVE AN ITALIAN PASSPORT AND DO NOT NEED A VISA. MY ROLE IS NOT VISA BEARING.</p>

2. オックスフォード大学・オールソウルズ・カレッジ職員（女性）

Broad items	Specific items
Profile	<p>Nationality, FRENCH</p> <p>gender, FEMALE</p> <p>age, 41</p> <p>academic rank,</p> <p>administrative position, SECRETARY</p> <p>degree, BA (Hons) LANGUAGE STUDIES</p> <p>country from which final degree is earned, UK</p> <p>mother tongue, FRENCH</p> <p>nationality of your spouse or partner, N/A</p> <p>affiliation, ALL SOULS COLLEGE</p> <p>years of employment, 4</p> <p>discipline, number of offering courses, mother tongue.</p>
Teaching & research	<p>1.Educational or research experience at a tertiary level outside of the UK N/A</p> <p>2. Proficiency of local language BILINGUAL</p> <p>3. Language used in teaching.N/A</p> <p>4. Language used in research.N/A</p> <p>5. language used in committees/administrative meetings. ENGLISH</p>
Motivations & status	<p>1. Your motivations for applying for the position in this university. I WAS ALREADY WORKING FOR ANOTHER COLLEGE AND WANTED A MORE SENIOR ADMIN. POSITION WITHING THE COLLEGIATE SYSTEM.</p> <p>2. Have you ever considered changing your nationality to the current country where you are employed, or obtained permanent residence? I HAVE PERMENENT LEAVE TO REMAIN (PERMANENT RESIDENCE RIGHT)</p> <p>3. What role you are expected to play in your university, faculty or department? SUPPORT THE BURSARS AND ACCOUNTANT WITH ADMINISTRATION, ORGANISE SENIOR EVENTS FOR THE COLLEGE.</p> <p>4. Any difference in promotion, appointment of administrative position, salary, teaching load, or workload, etc. between you and local faculty members in terms of regulations or practice? PRACTICES VARY FROM ONE COLLEGE TO THE NEXT AND FROM THE CENTRAL UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES.</p> <p>5. Your overall satisfaction with your job. IT CAN BE STRESSFUL BUT I HAVE NICE</p>

	<p>COLLEAGUES AND SOMETIMES IT'S INTERESTING.</p> <p>6. Have you ever considered leaving the UK and finding a new job in other country in future? Please specify the reason, if any. I HAVE LIVED AND WORKED IN FRANCE AND IN ITALY, I DON'T MIND MOVING GEOGRAPHICALLY WHERE OPPORTUNITY ARISES, NEVERTHELESS ONE NEEDS TO THINK ABOUT ONE'S PENSION WHEN MOVING AROUND A LOT.</p>
Issues & prospects	<p>1. Have you ever felt unhappy or got into trouble with your local colleagues, administrative staff, or students? Please specify the reason, if any. BULLYING AND HARRASSEMENT HAPPEN EVERYWHERE OXFORD COLLEGES ARE NOT EXEMPT.</p> <p>2. Please specify any troubles or difficulties you have had while working here. JEALOUS COLLEAGUES CAUSING TROUBLE BY SLANDERING, MANAGER ABUSING THEIR POSITION TO FORCE MORE WORKING HOURS THAN ARE REASONABLY OWED.</p> <p>3. Please specify your expectations and opinions of recruiting international faculty members to government, your university or belonging faculty if any. I THINK HAVING AN INTERNATIONAL COMMUNITY ALLOWS AN ORGANISATION TO HAVE AN OPEN AND DYNAMIC ENVIRONMENT IN WHICH TO DO RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT, ON THE DOWN SIDE VARIOUS CULTURES CAN GRATE WHEN THEY MEET AND MISSUNDERSTANDING CAN ARISE.</p>

3. ヨーク大学の英語教員（イタリア人女性）

Broad items	Specific items
Approaches to and policy of recruiting & employing international faculty members	<p>1. Please specify approaches to or practices of expanding the recruitment of international faculty members, if any. The University practices a principle of open competition in terms of recruitment – see Recruitment Policy link: http://www.york.ac.uk/admin/hr/resources/policy/recruitment.htm</p> <p>2. Please supply any particular examples, if any.</p> <p>3. Please specify major rational for or purpose of recruiting international faculty members.</p> <p>4. Please specify what kind of international faculty members your university is searching for. The best person for the role regardless of international or local</p> <p>5. Please specify general or basic requirements for all international faculty members to be recruited and hired in terms of professional qualifications, academic degree, or working experience, if any. Minimum is Phd plus some experience – the Uni job library will show you the different requirements for roles – please note these apply to local and international</p> <p>6. Please specify actor(s) who determines the recruitment and employment of international faculty members, its numbers and the form of employment such as permanent or temporary, etc. Recruitment is determined by academic departments medium term planning process who co-ordinate the recruitment process with HR.</p> <p>7. Please specify any difference in the process of recruiting international faculty members and local faculty members, if any. None except for visa matters</p> <p>8. Please specify any outcomes of recruiting and hiring international faculty members, if any.</p> <p>9. Please specify if your university has any policy of recruiting international faculty members from any specific disciplines. No</p> <p>10. Please specify if your university has any policy of recruiting international faculty members from any specific regions or countries. No</p>

Information on international faculty members	<p>1. Total number by nationality, gender, age, discipline, academic rank, etc. Not able to give these figures</p> <p>2. Data of form of international faculty members' employments such as permanent or temporary, fixed-term, contract-based, etc. Not able to give these figures</p> <p>3. Data of international employee's period of contract or renewal, etc. if any. Not able to give these figures</p> <p>4. Can international faculty member hold managerial positions such as president, vice-president, dean or member of governing body like board of trustee, etc? Yes</p> <p>5. Any special considerations for recruiting international faculty members? No</p> <p>6. Any difference in the promotion, salary, workload, or teaching load between international faculty members and local faculty members? No</p>
Issues & Prospects	<p>1. Please specify your university policy and practice of recruiting international faculty members in future, if any. See Recruitment Policy above</p> <p>2. Please specify your expectations or opinions of recruiting international faculty members to government, if any.</p>

4. バース大学経済学講師 (バングラディッシュ人男性)

Broad items	Specific items
Approaches to and policy of recruiting & employing international faculty members	<p>1. Please specify approaches to or practices of expanding the recruitment of international faculty members, if any. The University practices a principle of open competition in terms of recruitment – see Recruitment Policy link: http://www.york.ac.uk/admin/hr/resources/policy/recruitment.htm</p> <p>2. Please supply any particular examples, if any.</p> <p>3. Please specify major rationale for or purpose of recruiting international faculty members.</p> <p>4. Please specify what kind of international faculty members your university is searching for. The best person for the role regardless of international or local</p> <p>5. Please specify general or basic requirements for all international faculty members to be recruited and hired in terms of professional qualifications, academic degree, or working experience, if any. Minimum is Phd plus some experience – the Uni job library will show you the different requirements for roles – please note these apply to local and international</p> <p>6. Please specify actor(s) who determines the recruitment and employment of international faculty members, its numbers and the form of employment such as permanent or temporary, etc. Recruitment is determined by academic departments medium term planning process who co-ordinate the recruitment process with HR.</p> <p>7. Please specify any difference in the process of recruiting international faculty members and local faculty members, if any. None except for visa matters</p> <p>8. Please specify any outcomes of recruiting and hiring international faculty members, if any.</p> <p>9. Please specify if your university has any policy of recruiting international faculty members from any specific disciplines. No</p> <p>10. Please specify if your university has any policy of recruiting international faculty members from any specific regions or countries. No</p>

Information on international faculty members	<p>1. Total number by nationality, gender, age, discipline, academic rank, etc. Not able to give these figures</p> <p>2. Data of form of international faculty members' employments such as permanent or temporary, fixed-term, contract-based, etc. Not able to give these figures</p> <p>3. Data of international employee's period of contract or renewal, etc. if any. Not able to give these figures</p> <p>4. Can international faculty member hold managerial positions such as president, vice-president, dean or member of governing body like board of trustee, etc? Yes</p> <p>5. Any special considerations for recruiting international faculty members? No</p> <p>6. Any difference in the promotion, salary, workload, or teaching load between international faculty members and local faculty members? No</p>
Issues & Prospects	<p>1. Please specify your university policy and practice of recruiting international faculty members in future, if any. See Recruitment Policy above</p> <p>2. Please specify your expectations or opinions of recruiting international faculty members to government, if any.</p>

Table 1 Interview guideline for university

Broad items	Specific items
Approaches to and policy of recruiting & employing international faculty members	<p>1. Please specify approaches to or practices of expanding the recruitment of international faculty members, if any. The University practices a principle of open competition in terms of recruitment – see Recruitment Policy link: http://www.york.ac.uk/admin/hr/resources/policy/recruitment.htm</p> <p>2. Please supply any particular examples, if any.</p> <p>3. Please specify major rationale for or purpose of recruiting international faculty members.</p> <p>4. Please specify what kind of international faculty members your university is searching for. The best person for the role regardless of international or local</p> <p>5. Please specify general or basic requirements for all international faculty members to be recruited and hired in terms of professional qualifications, academic degree, or working experience, if any. Minimum is PhD plus some experience – the Uni job library will show you the different requirements for roles – please note these apply to local and international</p> <p>6. Please specify actor(s) who determines the recruitment and employment of international faculty members, its numbers and the form of employment such as permanent or temporary, etc. Recruitment is determined by academic departments medium term planning process who co-ordinate the recruitment process with HR.</p> <p>7. Please specify any difference in the process of recruiting international faculty members and local faculty members, if any. None except for visa matters</p> <p>8. Please specify any outcomes of recruiting and hiring international faculty members, if</p>

	<p>any.</p> <p>9. Please specify if your university has any policy of recruiting international faculty members from any specific disciplines. No</p> <p>10. Please specify if your university has any policy of recruiting international faculty members from any specific regions or countries. No</p>
Information on international faculty members	<p>1. Total number by nationality, gender, age, discipline, academic rank, etc. Not able to give these figures</p> <p>2. Data of form of international faculty members' employments such as permanent or temporary, fixed-term, contract-based, etc. Not able to give these figures</p> <p>3. Data of international employee's period of contract or renewal, etc. if any. Not able to give these figures</p> <p>4. Can international faculty member hold managerial positions such as president, vice-president, dean or member of governing body like board of trustee, etc? Yes</p> <p>5. Any special considerations for recruiting international faculty members? No</p> <p>6. Any difference in the promotion, salary, workload, or teaching load between international faculty members and local faculty members? No</p>
Issues & Prospects	<p>1. Please specify your university policy and practice of recruiting international faculty members in future, if any. See Recruitment Policy above</p> <p>2. Please specify your expectations or opinions of recruiting international faculty members to government, if any.</p>

添付資料 (Appendix)

Interview guideline of research project “**International academics recruitment and integration in the comparative perspective**”

Futao Huang

Objectives: To identify actual situation of international academics recruitment and integration in individual universities, e.g. national, public and private sectors, and their views of the recruitment systems, life and academic activities in belonging institutions.

Methodology: 1) to undertake interviews with key persons in charge of recruitment and human resource practices of international academics at institutional or faculty, departmental level (see Table 1) to obtain the information on recruitment system and practices of international academics; 2) to undertake around interviews with about 4 international academics by nationality, discipline, gender, and academic rank (see table 2) to understand their perceptions of employment situation, their life and academic activities, and especially their views on factors affecting their recruitment of and integration into current institutions.

Terminology: In this study, international academics is practically defined as those who are employed as full-time faculty members in higher education institutions with a foreign nationality. It may include those who were born and even received their k-12 education or undergraduate education prior to their employment in current countries, but it is highly expected that the research focus should be placed on full-time faculty members with foreign passports or citizenships whose mother tongues are not used as national languages in the countries where they are employed or different from those utilized in their current institutions.

Guidelines: see Table 1 and Table 2

Table 1 Interview guideline for university

Broad items	Specific items
Approaches to and policy of recruiting & employing international faculty members	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Please specify approaches to or practices of expanding the recruitment of international faculty members, if any. 2. Please supply any particular examples, if any. 3. Please specify major rational for or purpose of recruiting international faculty members. 4. Please specify what kind of international faculty members your university is searching for. 5. Please specify general or basic requirements for all international faculty members to be recruited and hired in terms of professional qualifications, academic degree, or working experience, if any. 6. Please specify actor(s) who determines the recruitment and employment of international faculty members, its numbers and the form of employment such as permanent or temporary, etc. 7. Please specify any difference in the process of recruiting international faculty members and local faculty members, if any. 8. Please specify any outcomes of recruiting and hiring international faculty members, if any. 9. Please specify if your university has any policy of recruiting international faculty members from any specific disciplines. 10. Please specify if your university has any policy of recruiting international faculty members from any specific regions or countries.
Information on international faculty members	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Total number by nationality, gender, age, discipline, academic rank, etc. 2. Data of form of international faculty members' employments such as permanent or temporary, fixed-term, contract-based, etc. 3. Data of international employee's period of contract or renewal, etc. if any. 4. Can international faculty member hold managerial positions such as president, vice-president, dean or member of governing body like board of trustee, etc? 5. Any special considerations for recruiting international faculty members? 6. Any difference in the promotion, salary, workload, or teaching load between international faculty members and local faculty members?
Issues & Prospects	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Please specify your university policy and practice of recruiting international faculty members in future, if any. 2. Please specify your expectations or opinions of recruiting international faculty members to government, if any.

Table 2 Interview guideline for international faculty members

Broad items	Specific items
Profile	Nationality, gender, age, academic rank, administrative position, degree, country from which final degree is earned, mother tongue, nationality of your spouse or partner, affiliation, years of employment, discipline, number of offering courses, mother tongue.
Teaching & research	1. Educational or research experience at a tertiary level outside of Japan. 2. Proficiency of local language. 3. Language used in teaching. 4. Language used in research. 5. language used in committees/administrative meetings.
Motivations & status	1. Your motivations for applying for the position in this university. 2. Have you ever considered changing your nationality to the current country where you are employed, or obtained permanent residence? 3. What role you are expected to be played in your university, faculty or department? 4. Any difference in promotion, appointment of administrative position, salary, teaching load, or workload, etc. between you and local faculty members in terms of regulations or practice? 5. Your overall satisfaction with your job. 6. Have you ever considered leaving current country and finding a new job in other country in future? Please specify the reason, if any.
Issues & prospects	1. Have you ever felt unhappy or got into trouble with your local colleagues, administrative staff, or students? Please specify the reason, if any. 2. Please specify any troubles or difficulties you have had while working here. 3. Please specify your expectations and opinions of recruiting international faculty members to government, your university or belonging faculty if any.

The 1st International Workshop

TITLE:

- Foreign Academics Recruitment and Integration in the International and Comparative Perspectives

DATES:

- Monday, June 27, 2016

LOCATION:

- Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University

All speakers will talk for 20 minutes and leave 10 minutes for discussion

WORKSHOP PROGRAM

- 9:00am **Welcome and Introductions**
- Futao HUANG, Hiroshima University, Japan
- Workshop Proceedings:** Chair: Tsukasa Daizen, Hiroshima University, Japan
- 9:05am **Paper 1:** Akira ARIMOTO, Hyogo University, Japan
- “A Tentative Study on the Recruitment of Foreign Academics in Japanese Academia”
- 9:35am **Paper 2:** Jung Cheol SHIN, Seoul National University, Korea
- “Acculturation of Foreign Degree holders in Korean Universities”
- 10:05am **Paper 3:** Chang Da WAN, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia
- “International Academics in Malaysia: Recruitment and Integration”
- 10:35am *Tea break*
- 10:45am **Paper 4:** Shuangye CHEN, Chinese University of Hong Kong, China
- “Foreign Academics in Hong Kong: Strategies and Realities”
- 11:15am **Paper 5:** Akiyoshi YONEZAWA, Tohoku University, Japan
- “Foreign university faculties in Japan: a quantitative survey”
- 11:45am Plan of Interview in Singapore: Taiji HOTTA, Hiroshima University, Japan
- 12:00pm **LUNCH BREAK**

Workshop Proceedings: Chair: Akiyoshi YONEZAWA, Tohoku University, Japan

1:30pm

Paper 6: Kazuhiro SUGIMOTO, Tohoku University, Japan

“Recruitment of international academics at Tohoku University: Policy and new challenges”

2:00pm

Paper 7: Min LI, Shinsyu University, Japan

“The role expectations of international academics in Japan: A case study of a national university in local regions”

2:30pm

Paper 8: Tsukasa DAIZEN, Hiroshima University, Japan

“History and present condition of the recruitment of international academics in Japan: Macro and micro analysis”

3:00pm

Paper 9: Futao HUANG, Hiroshima University, Japan

“Foreign Academics Recruitment and Integration in China: Case studies”

3:30pm

Tea break

Workshop Proceedings: Chair: Futao HUANG, Hiroshima University, Japan

3:45pm

Discussions on Questionnaire and Future Research Plan

4:45pm

Adjourn

5:30pm

GROUP DINNER