



University of HUDDERSFIELD

University of Huddersfield Repository

Kieu, Hieu Thi

Globalisation and reforming higher education in Vietnam: Policy aspirations, public institutional changes and reform imaginaries.

Original Citation

Kieu, Hieu Thi (2017) Globalisation and reforming higher education in Vietnam: Policy aspirations, public institutional changes and reform imaginaries. Doctoral thesis, The University of Huddersfield.

This version is available at <http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/id/eprint/34642/>

The University Repository is a digital collection of the research output of the University, available on Open Access. Copyright and Moral Rights for the items on this site are retained by the individual author and/or other copyright owners. Users may access full items free of charge; copies of full text items generally can be reproduced, displayed or performed and given to third parties in any format or medium for personal research or study, educational or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge, provided:

- The authors, title and full bibliographic details is credited in any copy;
- A hyperlink and/or URL is included for the original metadata page; and
- The content is not changed in any way.

For more information, including our policy and submission procedure, please contact the Repository Team at: E.mailbox@hud.ac.uk.

<http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/>

**GLOBALISATION AND REFORMING HIGHER
EDUCATION IN VIETNAM: POLICY
ASPIRATIONS, PUBLIC INSTITUTIONAL
CHANGES AND REFORM IMAGINARIES**

HIEU THI KIEU

**A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

The University of Huddersfield

School of Education and Professional Development

11 December 2017

Copyright statement

- i. The author of this thesis (including any appendices and/or schedules to this thesis) owns any copyright in it (the "Copyright") and s/he has given The University of Huddersfield the right to use such copyright for any administrative, promotional, educational and/or teaching purposes.
- ii. Copies of this thesis, either in full or in extracts, may be made only in accordance with the regulations of the University Library. Details of these regulations may be obtained from the Librarian. This page must form part of any such copies made.
- iii. The ownership of any patents, designs, trademarks and any and all other intellectual property rights except for the Copyright (the "Intellectual Property Rights") and any reproductions of copyright works, for example graphs and tables ("Reproductions"), which may be described in this thesis, may not be owned by the author and may be owned by third parties. Such Intellectual Property Rights and Reproductions cannot and must not be made available for use without the prior written permission of the owner(s) of the relevant Intellectual Property Rights and/or Reproductions

Abstract

This thesis analyses the mediation of globalisation on higher education in Vietnam (VHE) in policy (the Agenda of reforming VHE 2006-2020—the Agenda), the universities (public institutional changes), and individual practitioners (reform imaginaries). Using the critical interpretive paradigm, it draws on Appadurai's (2001) vernacular globalisation, Ball's (1993) textual and discursive sides of policy, Gale's (2003) the "who" in realising policy, Rizvi and Lingard's (2010) globalising education policy, and Weaver-Hightower's (2010) policy ecology. It was designed in two parts: the analysis of the Agenda and the comparative case studies of three public universities. Data include policy documents, 22 semi-structured interviews with three groups of university leaders and retired senior policy-makers, and fieldwork notes. This thesis argues for the indirect but significant influence of globalisation on the Agenda's reform aspirations, public institutional changes, and individual perspectives. It demonstrates changes and transformations of VHE from an inward to an outward system; from the State-controlled system to the State-supervised system; from the State-owned system to the multiple-owned system; and lastly from national to global and back. Despite the Agenda's great expectations, it is unknown to leaders of three public universities. Thus, its reform solutions remain policy aspirations whilst institutional changes are ongoing without their direct link to the Agenda. These public universities are at the threshold of transformation marked by their beginning of being autonomous institutions. If the Agenda focuses on the VHE's future scenarios, reform imaginaries generate insight into the present unsettled practices. This study contributes to the discussion of globalisation and higher education in Vietnam where what is global about reforming VHE is present but less powerful than what is national about it. The country's historical consequences, cultural traditions, and ideological commitments alter the nature and method of global influences that are manifested in policy and institutional changes.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents	i
List of Figures	viii
List of Tables	x
Acknowledgements	xii
Chapter 1 An introduction to the country, the policy and the university	1
1.1 Initial ideas and intentions	2
1.1.1 The Đổi mới (reformation) dream	2
1.1.2 The globalisation optimism	3
1.2 This study	4
1.3 Research contexts	7
1.3.1 The country	7
1.3.2 The policy	9
1.3.3 The universities	11
1.4 Theoretical and methodological concepts	12
1.5 Significance of this study	14
1.6 Structure of the thesis	15
Chapter 2 The global and the Vietnamese	17
2.1 Introduction	17
2.2 Part I – Globalisation and global methods	17
2.2.1 Globalisation: definitions	17
2.2.2 Globalists, Sceptics and Transformationalists	20
2.2.3 Appadurai’s (1996) global flows	22

2.2.4	Eduscapes.....	25
2.2.5	Education mobility	27
2.2.6	Neoliberalism.....	28
2.2.7	Social imaginary	29
2.2.8	Globalisation and higher education	33
2.2.9	Neoliberal higher education reform	38
2.3	Part II – Vietnam and the Vietnamese methods	40
2.3.1	Vietnamese education and higher education	40
2.3.2	Historical influences	44
2.3.3	Vietnamese political economy.....	47
2.3.4	Vietnamese culture of Confucian-socialism	51
2.4	Chapter conclusion.....	53
Chapter 3 Methodology		55
3.1	Introduction.....	55
3.2	Research questions and aims	55
3.3	Philosophical stance.....	57
3.3.1	This study: an interpretive research	58
3.3.2	This study: a critical stance in policy sociology	60
3.4	Policy analysis: analysis of policy and policy ecology.....	62
3.4.1	Analysis of policy	63
3.4.2	Policy ecology	65
3.5	Case studies.....	65
3.6	Research Samples	67
3.6.1	Case selections	68

3.6.2	Participant selections	71
3.7	Research Methods	73
3.7.1	Interviews	73
3.7.2	Fieldwork notes	79
3.7.3	Documents	79
3.8	Data analysis	79
3.8.1	Language of analysis: Vietnamese and English	80
3.8.2	Words that are typical to Vietnamese	82
3.8.3	Use of metaphors	82
3.8.4	Quotations displayed in English	83
3.8.5	Analysis processes.....	85
3.9	Positionality	88
3.10	Ethics.....	89
3.10.1	Ethics in securing the interviews	90
3.10.2	Ethics in using policy documents	91
3.10.3	Ethics in anonymising institutions and participants	91
3.11	Chapter conclusion.....	92
Chapter 4	Globalisation and the Agenda	93
4.1	Introduction.....	93
4.2	Reform pathway: great expectations.....	93
4.3	Contextual and ecological factors	101
4.3.1	In-Agenda contexts: recognition of globalisation.....	102
4.3.2	Beyond-Agenda context: continuity of ecological factors.....	107
4.4	Manifestation of globalisation from above within the Agenda	111

4.4.1	Multiple-owned system and promoting non-public higher education	111
4.4.2	Reforming solution on international integration.....	114
4.4.3	Increased autonomy for university	115
4.4.4	Reforming learning and teaching	117
4.4.5	Enhancing integration of research with teaching	118
4.5	Discussion	118
Chapter 5 Changes in public universities and the Agenda		122
5.1	Introduction.....	122
5.2	How changes were constructed	122
5.3	Practices of public universities	123
5.4	An unexpected finding.....	124
5.4.1	Discontinuity of political support	125
5.4.2	Top-down policy features	126
5.4.3	An important point of reference	127
5.5	Changes in practice of three universities	128
5.5.1	CCU.....	129
5.5.2	STU	131
5.5.3	UEMR	133
5.6	Linking to the Agenda: Governance.....	136
5.6.1	The Agenda.....	136
5.6.2	Three universities	136
5.7	Linking to the Agenda: International Cooperation.....	138
5.7.1	The Agenda.....	138
5.7.2	Three universities	139

5.8	Discussion	143
Chapter 6 Reform imaginaries		146
6.1	Introduction.....	146
6.2	General observations	146
6.2.1	Institutional constraints.....	146
6.2.2	Overwhelmed by the question.....	147
6.3	Social imaginary in reforming VHE	147
6.4	Perspectives of university leaders.....	148
6.4.1	Expansion with social obsession.....	148
6.4.2	Expansion with demotivation.....	151
6.4.3	Curriculum in need of change	152
6.4.4	Governance	156
6.5	Perspectives of teacher leaders	159
6.5.1	“Teaching workers”.....	159
6.5.2	“A silent business”	161
6.5.3	“Billions of responsibilities”	162
6.6	Perspectives of student leaders	163
6.6.1	From the internet café to the lecture room	164
6.6.2	Research, subjects and internship	165
6.6.3	Teaching, learning and students’ politics of silence	166
6.6.4	“The Vietnamese characteristics”	168
6.7	Discussion	169
Chapter 7 Conclusion.....		172
7.1	Introduction.....	172

7.2	Overview of the thesis	174
7.3	Key ideas of the study	174
7.3.1	Vietnamese-styled globalisation.....	175
7.3.2	Reforming higher education in Vietnam	176
7.3.3	Policy aspirations	177
7.3.4	Public institutional changes	179
7.3.5	Reform imaginaries	180
7.4	Contribution to knowledge.....	181
7.4.1	Theoretical contribution	182
7.4.2	Researching higher education policy in Vietnam	183
7.4.3	The review of conceptual framework	183
7.4.4	Policy research method.....	187
7.5	Research implications	187
7.6	Limitations	189
7.7	Suggestions for further research.....	191
7.8	Concluding remarks	192
7.8.1	Globalising Vietnamese-styled globalisation.....	192
7.8.2	The system intricacy.....	193
7.8.3	Dream and reality	194
	References	195
	Appendices.....	204
	Appendix 1 – Ethical Approval	204
	Appendix 2 –Introductory Letters to Participants (English-Vietnamese).....	205
	Appendix 3–Introductory Letters to University Presidents (English–Vietnamese).....	207

Appendix 4 – Research Information for Participants (English-Vietnamese) 209

Appendix 5 – Participant Consent Form (English-Vietnamese)..... 211

Appendix 6 – Policy Documents 213

Appendix 7 –Interview Questions for Each Participant- English 215

Appendix 8 – Interview Questions for Each Participant-Vietnamese..... 223

Word Count 75,357

List of Figures

Figure 1: Globalisation concept in three research questions	5
Figure 2: Illustration of three research questions in this study.....	6
Figure 3: Vietnamese students in the United States 2005-2020 (adapted from International Trade Administration, 2016)	26
Figure 4: Changes in numbers of students in higher education from 2000-2015 (adapted from GSO, 2017)	34
Figure 5: Changes in numbers of Vietnamese universities from 2000-2015 (adapted from GSO, 2017)	35
Figure 6: Total students in public and non-public higher education institutions (adapted from GSO, 2017)	37
Figure 7: Numbers of Vietnamese non-public higher education institutions from 2000-2015 (adapted from GSO, 2017).....	37
Figure 8: Higher education enrolments in VHE from 2011-2015 (adapted from GSO, 2017)	43
Figure 9: Numbers of public and non-public higher education institutions in Vietnam from 1998-2017 (adapted from GSO, 2017).....	43
Figure 10: Party's system and academic system within higher education institutions	49
Figure 11: Tight's (1992) university freedom	50
Figure 12 : Governance higher education in Vietnam.....	51
Figure 13: Methodology linking philosophy and methods (adapted from Finlay & Ballinger, 2006) .	55
Figure 14: Two parts of the research design in this study	57
Figure 15: Critical interpretive research paradigm in this study	57

Figure 16: Three cases under the Agenda	66
Figure 17: Designing this study	71
Figure 18 : Analysis of data.....	87
Figure 19: Numbers of projected higher education institutions by 2020 (adapted from Vang, 2012)	97
Figure 20: Numbers of projected higher education students by 2020 (adapted from Vang, 2012) ..	98
Figure 21: Numbers of academic staff needed for universities by 2020 (adapted from Vang, 2012)	99
Figure 22 : Numbers of teaching staff needed for higher education by 2020 (adapted from Vang, 2012)	100
Figure 23: Numbers of students in the whole country (Vietnam) from 2008 - 2016	103
Figure 24: Population of the whole country (Vietnam) from 2011-2016	103
Figure 25: Changes in student enrolments from 2005 to 2015.....	112
Figure 26: Conceptualisation of changes in this chapter	125
Figure 27: Vietnamese higher education's curriculum for undergraduate level.....	154
Figure 28: An alternative to theorise findings.....	185

List of Tables

Table 1: Global concepts take Vietnamese forms	24
Table 2: Research aims	56
Table 3: Major disciplines of three public universities in this study.....	70
Table 4: Three universities in this study.....	70
Table 5: Accessing three universities.....	75
Table 6: Three participative universities.....	75
Table 7: Emergent and opportunistic interviews	76
Table 8: Actual participants in three universities.....	77
Table 9: Actual interviews in CCU.....	78
Table 10: Actual interviews in STU	78
Table 11: Actual interviews in UEMR.....	79
Table 12: Example on the accuracy of a translated concept	82
Table 13: Data and data analysis.....	86
Table 14: Examples of Agenda's targets as numbers	96
Table 15: Frequency use of certain words in the Political Reports from 1986 to 2016	105
Table 16: Key policies followed the Agenda's reform solutions	128
Table 17: Documenting research questions and their findings.....	173
Table 18: Globalisation then and now in this study.....	175
Table 19: Vietnamese-styled globalisation	176

Table 20: Conceptual-contextual framework	184
---	-----

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my supervisors Professor James Avis and Professor Lyn Tett for their guidance and support. Over the years, James and Lyn have been a source of inspiration for me as my teachers and academic role models. Without them, this thesis would not have been completed.

Thank you James for your enthusiasm in teaching, advising and helping me throughout this journey.

Thank you Lyn for your devotion, endless patience and your attention to the detail that teaches me the importance of a good writing.

Thank you James and Lyn for helping me to make this thesis happen.

Thank you also to all my friends from the Lockside building, from the University of Huddersfield, and from all the places I have been to for giving me their smiles and encouragement when I need them.

Thank you also to my family for giving me a home to return to and for the opportunity to pursue this privileged educational journey.

Finally, thank you to all my wonderful teachers in Vietnam, Australia, and this beautiful country for showing me the beauty of education and nurturing the love of learning.

Chapter 1 An introduction to the country, the policy and the university

The fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 was indicative of new forms of globalisation and moved the world towards the dominance of neoliberalism (Rizvi, 2017). Capitalism in the global economy also affected socialist countries such as China and Vietnam and the ways their economies worked. Vietnam has expressed its desire to become a modern, developed industrial country and economy by 2020 via a series of long-term action plans, reform, and policies in socio-economic development, human resource, and education. These policies are the manifestation of Vietnamese government's political will, maintaining the socialist regime while following the market economy. Reforming higher education is an urgent task facing contemporary Vietnam to provide competent human resources for the socialist-oriented market economy that is necessary to development. In 2005, the Vietnamese government released the Agenda of reforming higher education in Vietnam 2006-2020 (the Agenda) identifying a desire to make major improvements to the current system of higher education by 2020. The Agenda was enacted in 2005 but it is the latest reform policy for higher education in Vietnam (VHE). This thesis critically analyses the Agenda in relation to influences of globalisation and the public universities context.

Using a critical interpretive paradigm, this study draws on Appadurai's (1996) vernacular globalisation, Ball's (1993) and Gale's (2003) views on policy as text, discourse and processes, Rizvi and Lingard's (2010) analysis of policy, and Weaver-Hightower's (2008) policy ecology. It was designed in two parts: the analysis of the Agenda and the comparative case study of three public universities. Data were drawn from policy documents, 22 semi-structured interviews, and fieldwork notes. This thesis illustrates the complexity of the process of localising globalised practices in education policy and universities. It argues that the ecological factors of history, culture and political commitment are the most distinctively Vietnamese about reforming VHE, altering the nature and method that the global influences manifested in the policy and public institutional changes. Thus, the presence of the global influences is not as powerful as these Vietnamese features. The country's ideological commitment is not just something symbolic but anchored into the practices of VHE as

seen in the contextual review of the VHE system, analysis of the Agenda as well as the institutional changes and reform imaginaries.

This chapter sets the scene for my thesis *Globalisation and reforming higher education in Vietnam: policy aspirations, public institutional changes and reform imaginaries*. It introduces my initial ideas and intentions; proposes the research questions and aims; highlights the theoretical and methodological concepts; the significance; and includes the structure of this study.

1.1 Initial ideas and intentions

1.1.1 The *Đổi mới* (reformation) dream

I started this thesis with the concept of the *Đổi mới* (reformation) dream of our Vietnamese people. *Đổi mới* policy in 1986 is one of the most successful policies under the Party's leadership (the Communist Party of Vietnam) and the State's management. Literally, it means "change" (*Đổi*) and "new" (*mới*) and is usually translated as reform/renovation, *Đổi mới* means reform. However, renovation is a preferred version of translation for its implication of showing respect to what had been done in the past. Reform implies carrying out radical changes and showing little inheritance from the past. *Đổi mới* policy marked the beginning of the market economy in Vietnam and its significant achievements in changing the country's economy. For example, the economic achievement of *Đổi mới* moved Vietnam out of the 40 poorest countries in the world in the 1990s (World Bank, 2017). Vietnam is now in the group of "lower middle income" countries with per capita income of US \$1,260 (World Bank, 2017). The success of *Đổi mới* over 30 years of economic reform (1986-2016) shaped aspiration of changes and improvements in many sectors, including higher education. In this thesis, such aspiration is the *Đổi mới* (reformation) dream in VHE expecting that it could bring similar changes to higher education as that of the country's economy. The reformation dream in VHE has been a part of the national social imaginary where the responsibility and demand for reforming higher education has been considered as urgent and important (Vietnamese Government, 2005).

Contemporary VHE has been criticised for its shortcomings in leading, teaching, learning and researching (Harman, Hayden, Pham, 2010; Vietnam Education Foundation, 2014; World Bank, 2017; Phan, Lupton, and Watters, 2016) and failing to fulfil the social demand (Linh, 2010; Dao, 2015). Each of these authors captured an in-depth analysis of VHE's shortcomings that need to be

changed. However, these studies tend to focus more on the deficit of the system as consequences of the residues in the past, e.g. how the State-centric approach influences VHE management (Dao, 2015; Madden, 2014), the presence of Confucian education practices in teaching and learning (Hằng, Meijer, Bulte, & Pilot, 2015), and the impact of the Soviet model of higher education in research culture (Harman, 2010; Hayden et al, 2012). Thus, building upon from these studies, this thesis addresses the topic of reforming VHE not only from the national deficits but also from global-embedded practices imported into the VHE system. Ultimately, it will contribute to the entire picture of reforming VHE: the “what was” (enacted in the reform policy), the “what is” (inside public institutional changes), and the “what ought to be” (perspectives of public universities’ practitioners).

1.1.2 The globalisation optimism

Another starting point is the globalisation optimism in reform policies in education. This optimism goes along with the global mobility of the market ideology embedded educational policy (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). Thus, the concept of globalisation in educational policy becomes globalised and globalising (Rizvi, 2017). Underneath the globalising policy in education in general and higher education in particular is the belief that certain policies and practices that exist globally will promise to solve national matters. In Vietnam, the *Đổi mới (reformation)* dream of VHE also linked to the positive reading of globalisation evidenced in its presence in contemporary education development policies (Centre Committee of Communist Party of Vietnam, 2014; Hayden et al., 2012; Vietnamese Government, 2005), the increase in private universities (Hayden & Khanh, 2010), and reforming VHE governance (Pham, 2012; Dao, 2015). Rather than breaking down different matters of reforming VHE into smaller topics, the Agenda as a system-based reform policy provides a complete and sufficient context to interpret the influence of globalisation on VHE specified in this policy. In other words, this thesis will contribute to unpacking the complexities of combining the state-centric and market approaches in the reform policy.

Researchers on the globalised higher education and education reform policy in particular national contexts such as Rosser (2016), Mok (2008) and Carnoy (1999) argued for the distinctive hybridity when the national system adopts various global methods of enhancing autonomy, accountability and competitiveness to reform. However, there is no research explicitly on this hybridity in VHE reform

policy and institutional changes. Thus, another dimension that this thesis is concerned with is to gain an insight into the manifestation of globalisation or the process of localising globalisation in the reform policy (Agenda) and changes in public universities in the Vietnamese context.

1.2 This study

This study has three research questions:

1. What are the influences of globalisation on the Agenda of reforming higher education in Vietnam 2006 -2020?
2. How have the practices of the public universities in Vietnam changed as a result of this Agenda?
3. What are the perspectives of university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders towards reforming higher education in Vietnam?

Globalisation is explicitly and implicitly regarded as:

- A policy context element
- A driver of change
- An explanation for change

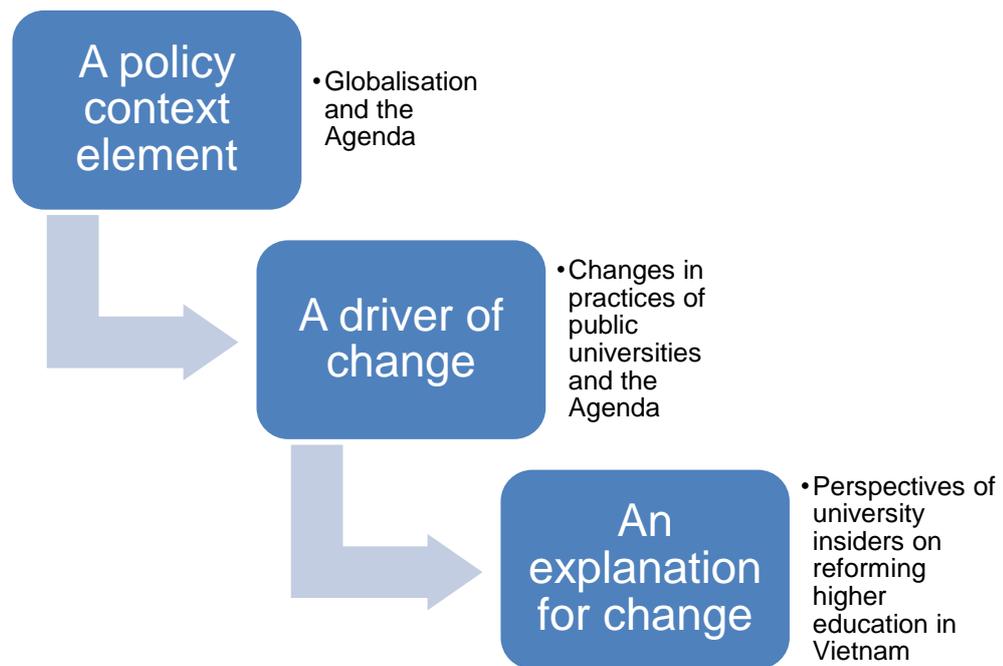


Figure 1: Globalisation concept in three research questions

These research questions do not merely import globalisation into the study context but also imply its presence in policy, in practices and in the perspectives of contemporary practitioners. To make it clear, the logic is shown in Figure 2 below.

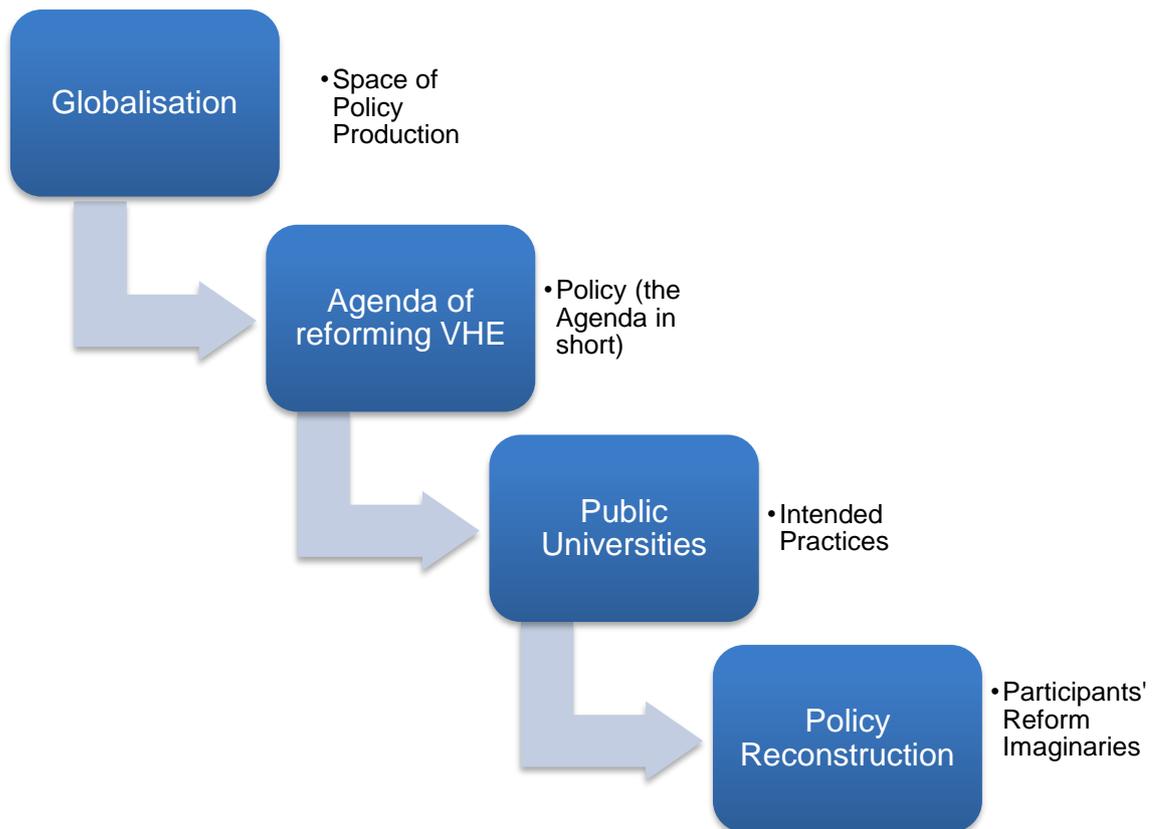


Figure 2: Illustration of three research questions in this study

In both Figure 1 and Figure 2, globalisation is a thread either visibly or invisibly linking the research questions together. As such, globalisation has its role in the aims of this study: to critically analyse VHE *from national to global and back* via the Agenda, three public universities and participants' perspectives:

- VHE- *from national*: To explore the national manifestation or the distinctive Vietnamese features within the policy, universities and reform imaginaries.
- VHE-*to global*: To consider the manner in which the policy, universities and reform imaginaries embody new global practices, i.e. their responses and resistance.
- VHE- *and back*: To widen the discussion on educational policy in Vietnam as well as the comparative studies related to the system of higher education in Vietnam.

The first aim is to critically analyse VHE *from national* by exploring the national manifestations, or the distinctive Vietnamese features embedded in the policy, universities and individual narratives on reforming higher education. These characteristics were incorporated from the continuity of historical,

cultural and political elements underpinning practices in higher education: the unchanged, changed and changing features of the system.

The second aim is to critically analyse VHE (from national) *to global* by considering the manner in which the Agenda embodies new global practices, trends and dominant values: if the national completely integrate to become a part of the global or if the national come close to the global but remain outside their boundaries. In other words, the second aim of this study is to understand the manifestation of the global or globalisation not only in the reform agenda but also in public universities and to identify the responses and resistances to the new circumstances of globalisation.

The third aim is to critically analyse VHE (from national to global) *and back*. This aim is concerned with the process of localising the globalised policy and practices in VHE. If the first and second aims are associated with the first research question (influences of globalisation on the Agenda) and the second research question (changes in public universities from the Agenda), the third aim lies in the third research question by creating insight into reforming VHE from the participants' perspectives.

Finally, this study also aims to add a contribution to the academic knowledge on educational policy in Vietnam as well as to the comparative studies related to the VHE system.

1.3 Research contexts

1.3.1 The country

Vietnam, the country of Viet's people in the South of China (*Việt* refers to the tribe of *Việt* people, and *Nam* means the South), is located in Southeast Asia, sharing its borders with China to the North, Laos and Cambodia to the West, and the South China Sea to the East. With a population of 90.73 million people (as of 2014) of which 67 % lives in rural areas, Vietnam today is the world's 13th most populous country (Central Intelligence Agency, 2017).

Đổi mới policy is one of the most important policies to understand contemporary Vietnam. It has enabled greater exchanges and movement of trade, investment and diplomatic relations into Vietnam. The notion of "international friends" since *Đổi mới* (1986) has been widened geographically rather than merely "brother countries" (other socialist countries such as China and Cuba). In the post-*Đổi mới*, Vietnam started widening its diplomatic relations with many countries and international

organisations and even normalised the relations with past enemies including the United States in 1995. Vietnam has now become a member of 63 international organisations and has diplomatic relations with more than 500 Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) in the world (Vietnamese Government Portal, 2015). Vietnam has become a member of the United Nations (UN), Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), United Nations of Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), the World Bank (WB) and the World Trade Organisation (WTO) (Vietnam's Government Portal, 2015). Participating in these international organisations has a strategically important role for the country to be fully supported in both finance and policy for major projects, including projects for higher education development.

Contemporary Vietnam is the combination of continuity and interruption of the country's historical, cultural and political influences. Among such combinations is the Vietnamese Confucian-socialism (Nghia, 2005) where the Vietnamese indigenous wet-rice agricultural culture encountered Chinese Confucianism and socialist ideology. It was said that the ancient Vietnamese civilisation started along the river delta where the Vietnamese ancestors made their living by cultivating rice in flooded land. The Vietnamese Confucian-socialism is typical of the positive thinking mentality of the Vietnamese ancestors, the conforming and hierarchical nature of Confucianism, and the emphasis on the collective interest of socialism (Nghia, 2005). Despite almost a century under the French colonialist period, the French influence in Vietnamese culture had a limited effect (Them, 2008).

In politics, the country's political economy is a socialist-oriented market economy with multiple forms of ownership and distribution under State management (Communist Party of Vietnam, 2015). The adoption of market principles is explained by the Communist Party of Vietnam (the Party) as being temporary for the purpose of building the necessary infrastructure serving the country's transition period towards socialism (Nguyen, Dinh, et al., 2015). Developing infrastructure is of vital importance for a country like Vietnam transitioning to the socialist society from an underdeveloped semi-feudal, colonialised country. Based on Karl Marx's categorisation of human society progression (from the Primitive Society to the Slavery Society to the Feudal Society to the Capitalist Society and to the Communist Society, in which the Socialist Society is the early period of the Communist Society), the Party claimed that Vietnam bypassed the Capitalist progression period and moved straight into the Socialist Society from an underdeveloped background (Communist Party of Vietnam, 2015). Thus,

building the economic pre-condition in the transition period is of crucial importance. The Party's vision of a socialist country goes along with the Manifesto of "*making people prosperous and building a powerful nation and an equal, democratic and civilised society*" (Communist Party of Vietnam, 1991, p.8) and "*using Marxism-Leninism and Ho Chi Minh's Thoughts as the guidance for all the actions*" (p.1) are important political messages in all the Vietnamese Government policies. Additionally, these Manifesto's messages have an important role in understanding the country's politics. Like the indigenous Vietnamese culture and Confucianism, the socialist-orientation determination has a significant impact on the country's capacity to integrate other ideological commitments (Gillespie & Nicholson, 2005). In higher education, the country's system reflected Vietnamese history of war and peace having been influenced by the Confucian system, French colonisation, Soviet model of higher education, and contemporary socialist-oriented market Vietnam (Phan, 2015). Significant changes in the current VHE system started with the departure from the Soviet model of higher education, the country's economic development after *Đổi mới*, and population expansion (Welch, 2010). These changes have put an enormous pressure on VHE system to better its performance serving the country's development.

1.3.2 The policy

The Agenda in this study is among three milestones that are salient to understand the contemporary higher education system: the *Đổi mới* policy in 1986, the system expansion in 1993, and the Agenda of reforming VHE 2006-2020. *Đổi mới* policy started the country's initial experience of marketisation and privatisation in many areas (Nguyen, Dinh, et al., 2015), including higher education (Welch, 2013). The second milestone is the expansion of the higher education system in 1993 via the adoption of *Decree No. 90/CP* marked by restructuring the VHE system via the merging of mono-disciplinary universities into national and regional ones and the introduction of fees. This expansion also went along with the establishment of the people-founded universities (private universities now) and new qualification frameworks with four-year degrees for universities and three-year degrees for colleges. These changes marked the abandonment of the Soviet model of higher education in Vietnam (Thiep, 2006).

In 2005, five years after the enactment of the National Education Development Strategy 2001-2010, the Government enacted the Agenda of reforming higher education in Vietnam for the period 2006-2020 in the name of *Resolution No. 14/2005/NQ-CP*, dated November 2, 2005 (Vietnamese Government, 2005). This Agenda proposed an extensive reform of the system of higher education towards 2020. It aimed to expand the VHE system, complete the national network of higher education, reform teaching, and learning, doing research and governing higher education at the same time as promoting socialisation, decentralisation, and international cooperation. The Agenda maintained consistent guidelines for educational development of the Party and the State. These guidelines consist of four important messages:

- Educational development as the country's top policy
- Building the education system toward the people, science, modernity and socialist-orientation
- Educational development alongside socio-economic development, advancement of science and technology and improving national security
- Education as the responsibility of the Party, the State and the People

Prior to the Agenda's enactment (2005), these four messages were also highlighted in the Constitution of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam (1992), Law on Education (1998), Political Report of the National Congress IX (2001), the National Socio-Economic Development Strategy 2001-2010, and the National Education Development Strategy 2001-2010. Those messages reflected the priority for education and educational development but also implied the economic benefit from education (in message 3). After 1986, the Party's and State's perception on education was no longer identified as only being a part of the cultural and ideological revolution (Nghiem, 2010) but instead was positioned for its role in economic development as "*Investment in education is investment for development*" in *Resolution 04-NQ/HNTW* (Centre Committee of Communist Party of Vietnam, 1993, p.5). Underpinning this changing view is the recognition of the economic role of education and training. According to a recent report of the Minister of Planning and Investment, economic achievement from *Đổi mới* is significant but not sufficient (Bui, 2016). The key concern of the Vietnamese government is to move from the economy of basic requirements to one of efficiency enhancers with improvement in the process and quality of production (World Economic Forum, 2011).

Coming out from the context of seeing educational development as national top policy as well as a part of the economic growth, the Agenda will be analysed in unpacking both national concerns and global trends. The analysis purpose is to see the importance of reforming VHE (why in 2005, why the reform policy should be globalised as well as the details of what to reform and how to reform). Therefore, the Agenda's analysis will be conducted in connection with globalisation and public institutional changes.

1.3.3 The universities

The three public universities chosen for this study are:

- The Capital City University (CCU)
- The Science and Technology University (STU)
- The University of Economics, the University of Middle Region (UEMR)

These three universities are well-established and top public universities in Vietnam. The Capital City University (CCU) and the Science and Technology University (STU) are located in Hanoi while the University of Economics – the University of Middle Region (UEMR) is in Danang. Among these three universities, STU is one of the first 18 universities to be categorised as a 'Key' university. They received additional assistance to undertake research and were funded from two projects of the World Bank for quality, teaching and research improvement (Asian Development Bank, 2010). UEMR is the university member of the University of Middle Region that was formed in 1993 from merging mono-disciplinary universities. CCU started as a single disciplinary university and expanded into multi-disciplinary in 2006 by internationalising its educational programmes. All three universities share similar visions of being nationally and internationally recognised for their achievements and offering programmes using English as the medium of instruction. In addition to the Agenda, these universities are at the centre of another research context, particularly the institutional changes taking place in CCU, STU, and UEMR. Thus, another focus of this study is to explore how changes in these public institutions are linked to the policy (the Agenda) and if these changes are directly or indirectly linked to the Agenda.

1.4 Theoretical and methodological concepts

This study is constructed around the key concepts of reforming VHE and the global tendency of reforming higher education. The theoretical resources are derived from literature on Vietnamese practices, global practices, and convergent practices. The theoretical background was developed with the awareness of the differences between the Western and the Vietnamese context using the approach that is legendary to Vietnam “*learning but implementing creatively into the context of Vietnam*” (Anh et al., 2015, p. 12).

In addition to globalisation and reforming higher education policy, Charles Taylor’s (2004) concept of social imaginary is the central point in linking the key concepts of this study together. Social imaginary entails collective and individual aspirations spreading through society. It conveys the sense of the future in the “imaginary”. The future connotation in this concept is compatible with the aims of this study exploring the national manifestation and global embodiment in policy and universities. It is not only about the imprints from the past left in the current VHE system but also heralding the “imaginary” about the future in policy, university, and individuals. Taylor (2004) argued that social imaginary is not only what reality is but also what reality is aspired to be. Thus, the “what is” and “what is aspired to be” are not only present in the social imaginary and globalisation but also in the Agenda where the reform carries great expectations for the future of VHE towards 2020. Beneath these three concepts (social imaginary, globalisation, and reform policy) runs the pathway from the present to the future, from national to global, and from the less developed to the more developed status of VHE.

In the VHE practices, the literature tends to be constructed around analysis of the shortcomings of the system from leading (Dao, 2015; Hayden & Thiep, 2007; Madden, 2014; Mok, 2008), teaching (Harman & Bich, 2010), learning (Vietnam Education Foundation, 2014) to research (Harman, 2010) as well as the dilemma of funding constraints (Hayden & Khanh, 2010), and the incomplete legal framework for higher education (Hayden et al., 2012; Huong & Fry, 2002). However, these sources are more focused on commentary and critique rather than based on solid empirical data. The other source of literature for VHE comes from the reports of organisations such as the World Bank, the Vietnam Education Foundation, and the Asian Development Bank. They are comprehensive reports but usually tailored to the purposes of their specific projects. The literature in this study is reviewed

in an integrated manner whereby literature about the research context in which each global practice and discourse takes place is followed by an example from the Vietnamese context. This combination sets the scene for the way in which the global practices are manifested in the Agenda and the public universities.

In the literature on global practices, the expansion of higher education systems in the world is depicted by Trow (2000) as the movement from the elite to the mass system and by Marginson (2016) as a high participation system. Along with this expansion, globalisation intensifies the interrelatedness and interconnectedness (Held & McGrew, 2003) among the systems of higher education and the dominant social imaginary of market-based aspiration (Gale & Parker, 2015). It goes along with the aspiration of reaching the same level of development of the countries in the Global South whilst embracing the diversity of the countries in the Global North. Coming from these points, this interrelatedness and interconnectedness encourages optimism of reforming the education system in what Pasi Sahlberg (2016) called the Global Education Reform Movement (GERM). The reform strategies might differ from one place to another. For example, Carnoy (1999) categorised three reform strategies including competitive-driven reform (the enhancement of quality for the labour market), finance-driven reform (the search for alternative forms of funding), and equity-driven reforms (the improvement of the educationally important political role as a source of social mobility and social equalisation). Underpinning these reform strategies is “*a continuous economic capitalisation of the self*” (Rose, 1999 cited in Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, p.161). It is the spreading of neoliberalism and the growing dominance of globalisation from above (Appadurai, 1996) from which there is no alternative to these market principles. In higher education, the neoliberal reform agenda embraces a number of globally convergent features such as increasing institutional autonomy, promoting competition and reforming accountability (Rosser, 2016).

In methodological terms, this study was designed in two parts: analysis of the Agenda and comparative case studies, which are linked together towards understanding the reform process of higher education in Vietnam by joining the dots of system-based policy, to three specific public universities and views of current practitioners within these three universities. I take a critical interpretive stance in examining the higher education reform policy in Vietnam. The epistemological integration between critical and interpretive stances guided me through the entire research journey.

This stance is located within the critical policy sociology (Ball, 2012; Gale, 2001; Ozga, 1999) aiming at understanding factors and processes that shape the policy as well as the values and ideologies underpinning it. A critical stance in policy sociology does not focus on seeking causality of government actions (Ham, Hill, & Pollock, 1988) or giving recommendations for the people practising policymaking (Gordon, Lewis, & Young, 1977). Coming from that stance, my policy research uses perspectives alongside other contextual factors to understand and analyse the policy. Gordon et al. (1977) and Rizvi and Lingard (2010) distinguished two types of policy analysis (1) serving academic purposes (*analysis of policy*) and (2) serving political purposes (*analysis for policy*). With *analysis of policy*, there is more space for criticality compared with the *analysis for policy* approach. The Agenda will be analysed from the view of policy as texts, discourses and processes but also social imaginary (Ball, 1993; Gale, 2003; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). By combining Rizvi and Lingard's (2010) and Weaver-Hightower's (2008) into the policy analysis, this combined framework enables the understanding of policy from both the social, political milieu and the internal policy factors within and beyond the policy text. Like other policy research, as Ball (2012) noted on the critiques of this research area "*The field of policy analysis is dominated by commentary and critique rather than by research*" (Ball, 2012, p.9). Another critique of policy research summarised by Maguire and Ball (1994) is the methodological unsophistication in the taken-for-granted concepts.

1.5 Significance of this study

This thesis provides a critical and interpretive study of a higher education policy in Vietnam in relation to globalisation and public universities. The critical accounts in analysing this policy focus on the already-existing practices that hinder the reform processes and prospects while the interpretive elements concern the new adoption of decentralisation, privatisation and internationalisation. It also provides a wide range of narratives on reforming higher education in Vietnam by different groups of leaders within public universities. Thus, it is anticipated it will contribute important insights into higher education policy in Vietnam, public universities, and individual practitioners' perspectives. Nationally, this study helps to generate new knowledge on the selective and critical adoption of the global methods in reforming the national system of higher education. In particular, the crucial role of the national factors of history, culture and politics embedded in policy and public universities is decisive in making the reform as either a process of change or continuity. Another dimension that this study

potentially seeks to contribute to is the wide range of reform agendas from individual participants (university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders). Their accounts specified and individualised the broad topic of reforming VHE into their own narratives based on their professional practices. Together with the national factors of history, culture and politics, these reform narratives are the most distinctively Vietnamese about reforming higher education in Vietnam. As such, this study is intended to generate new knowledge and understanding that can steadily contribute to influencing the assumptive worlds of the policy makers to continue developing and reforming the VHE system. Globally, this study seeks to contribute to the global higher education debate on the multiplicity of globalisation in different places and spaces. It also can help to develop the academic literature on the research topic as well as on comparative studies of higher education.

1.6 Structure of the thesis

This chapter introduces the entire thesis and sets the scene for the following chapters. It covers the starting points of this study: my initial plans and ideas on studying the topic of reforming VHE, three research questions, and the key contexts (the country, the policy, and the universities). It sets out the background for the forthcoming discussions on how the reform Agenda and public universities responded to new circumstances of increasing expansion, decentralisation, privatisation and internationalisation. It also summarises the theoretical and methodological concepts.

Chapter 2 *The Global and the Vietnamese* integrates the theoretical resources on globalisation and the global methods in reforming higher education and the Vietnamese contexts and methods. This chapter starts with the key concepts in this thesis: globalisation, reforming higher education, social imaginary and globalised discourses on reforming higher education. It is followed by a discussion on Vietnam and the Vietnamese practices and interpretation of these global tendencies. This chapter provides the conceptual-contextual background for the study in an integrated manner.

Chapter 3 *Methodology* entails the discussion of philosophical and methodological dimensions in researching the policy Agenda in Vietnam. The philosophical dimensions include the justification of choosing the critical interpretive paradigm in doing policy research as well as how this paradigm matches with the critical stance of policy sociology. The methodological issues include the description and reflection on the empirical journey (designing the study, research instruments, and

analysis method) ethical issues, my reflections and positionality. It will also outline my approaches to the data collection methods and analysis that were used to explore the research questions driving this study.

Chapter 4 *Globalisation and the Agenda* discusses the answer to the first research question (Influences of globalisation on the Agenda). This chapter argues that globalisation is present in the process of Agenda and has an indirect impact. Globalisation is manifested in the Agenda's content via the adoption and promotion of the globalised discourses of reforming higher education including the tendency of privatisation, internationalisation and decentralisation of higher education. The Agenda is an example of Appadurai's (1996) vernacular globalisation where globalisation from above encounters globalisation from below and creates the Vietnamese-styled globalisation. The Agenda answered the questions: why reform, what to reform, but is silent on the how to reform.

Chapter 5 *Changes in public universities and the Agenda* looks critically at the Agenda and its place in the public universities. This chapter discovers an important but unexpected finding that the Agenda is unknown to participants in three universities (CCU, STU, and UEMR). Thus, the public institutional changes take place without a direct link to the Agenda.

Chapter 6 *Reform imaginary is* the collection of insights on reforming VHE by university leaders, teacher union leaders, and student leaders in CCU, STU, and UEMR. Their narratives are elements in a social imaginary of reforming VHE in this study (see Kieu, 2017).

Chapter 7 *Conclusion* summarises the entire thesis including the research methods, literature and the research findings. It is then followed by how this thesis conceptualises its findings, in particular, how the three research questions have been answered as well as the new concepts coming out of this study. The contribution to knowledge, research implication, and future orientation and research limitations will also be discussed.

Chapter 2 The global and the Vietnamese

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I am reviewing two bodies of literature: the global and the Vietnamese. The global concerns are with the key sets of concepts (globalisation, social imaginary and neoliberal higher education reforms) while the Vietnamese entail issues of the contextual factors of history, political economy, and culture influencing the policy processes and public institutional changes.

Globalisation in this review is understood as the dominant social imaginary constructed by transformations and interconnectivity; by similarities and differences; and by the global and local. It signifies the dominance of the neoliberal agenda such as market principles, a minimalist role of the state, a deregulated labour market and individualism (Rizvi, 2017). In higher education, globalisation is associated with the capitalisation of knowledge, transformations brought about by ICTs, deeper engagement with the market, new principles in governing higher education (Knight, 2008), and neoliberal reform agenda (Rosser, 2016). Globalisation has brought with it the presence of new actors: markets and measurement. In Vietnam, globalisation is seen as the connections that Vietnam has with the world and the world has with Vietnam. In higher education, globalisation positions Vietnamese universities to receive influences from multiple directions: the Party's ideology, the State's management, the market, and involvement with the West. These influences are evident in the major policies of contemporary VHE. This review argues that VHE has been engaged deeper into the process of globalisation.

2.2 Part I – Globalisation and global methods

2.2.1 *Globalisation: definitions*

Globalisation has become one of the most frequently used academic concepts but is difficult to define. It can be either the cause or effects of “*almost anything and everything*” (Ball, 1998, p. 120). Globalisation is blamed for being the cause of inequality, instability, insecurity (Scholte, 2005), and unresolved challenges in politics, economies, culture and environment (Rizvi, 2017). Likewise, it can also be seen optimistically and offer opportunities for individuals as well as countries to develop and prosper.

Amongst a number of globalisation definitions, Held and McGrew (2003) suggest globalisation as being:

...the expanding scale, growing magnitude, speeding up and deepening impact of transcontinental flows and patterns of social interaction. It refers to a shift or transformation in the scale of human organisation that links distant communities and expands the reach of power relations across the world's regions (Held & McGrew, 2003, p. 1).

In this definition, Held and McGrew (2003) use a series of images such as “*expanding*”, “*growing*”, “*speeding up*”, “*deepening*”, “*shift*”, and “*transformation*”, to convey the changing and changed realities through the process of globalisation. They did not include in this definition whether these transformations are seen as good or bad; hopeful or fearful; opportunities or threats, but they imply the acceleration of powerful forces, i.e. globalisation. The places that these transformations occupy are amongst continents, within social interactions, in organisations, communities, and the world's regions. Although this definition has been around for 15 years, it captures well the complexity of globalisation as an expanding power both vertically and horizontally amongst territories and spaces.

Instead of defining globalisation as an expansion, a speeding up, a depth, as in the account of Held and MacGrew (2003), Scholte (2002) points to the reduction of barriers: “*From this perspective, globalisation involves reductions in barriers to transworld contacts. People become more able - physically, legally, culturally, and psychologically – to engage with each other in one world*” (Scholte, 2002, p.14). Globalisation has not only associated itself with the concept of transcontinent and transworld, but also with the connection between and amongst people's emotions. Thus, globalisation is not merely a concept of large-scale matters but also anchored into the lives of different individuals in society. Robertson (1992) insists that individual lives are amongst four categories of the globalisation process including national societies, individual selves, the world system of society and humankind. He argued, “*Individuals are as much a part of the globalisation process as any other basic category of social-theoretical discourse*” (Robertson, 1992, p.104). The impact of globalisation on individuals within society is no less important than on their collective societies (Held, 1999).

Based on the discussion above, my stance for understanding the manifestation of globalisation in Vietnam is under two forms, either (1) the world to Vietnam or (2) Vietnam to the world. One example

of the world to Vietnam is the presence and operation of international organisations in Vietnam rather than the coercive power imposed on Vietnam in the past: from the Northern Feudal (the Chinese emperors), to the Colonial (French Colonialism) and finally the Imperial (American Imperialism). Globalisation does not carry the same threat of assimilation by the Northern Feudal Power or the French Colonials. Globalisation is associated initially with a choice of integration to the world and a positive interpretation of the changes that it can bring for the Vietnamese people. However, it also comes with the possible threat to the leadership role of the Communist Party of Vietnam (the Party) (Vu, 2014). The hospitality towards globalisation is formalised in the international relations policy documents of the Vietnamese Government as, “*Being friends with all the countries in the world*” (London, 2014, p.23).

In education, right from the first days of an independent Vietnam, the Democratic Republic of Vietnam in 1945, Ho Chi Minh expressed his expectation for future generations: “*It is due to the contribution from your study to maintain our beautiful Vietnam. It is also due to the contribution from your study that our Vietnam can stand equally with powerful countries in the world*” (Ho Chi Minh, 2000, p. 35). Ho Chi Minh emphasised the importance that education can have in maintaining the independence of Vietnam as well as to its development. Another implication is to position Vietnamese education and Vietnam as a nation of the world, with dreams about being equal to powerful countries. Globalisation was not yet a concept in the 1945 message of Ho Chi Minh but those expectations are somehow linked to what globalisation looks like today.

In this study, globalisation is specific to global discourses and processes that informed the Agenda, its intended practices within three public universities, and the views of participants. However, I want to use globalisation instead of replacing it by another term so that its complexities and contestations can be discussed. The multiple forms of globalisation are not only in the forms of text, discourse within the policy, i.e. the Agenda but also directly, and indirectly go along with changes in universities, i.e. three public universities. Adding to that, globalisation is read in the diverse accounts of university insiders on reforming the Vietnamese higher education system. Thus, the travel route of globalisation adoption is stair-cased down from the system (via a top down policy, the Agenda) to the institutions (three public universities) and to individual perspectives (three groups of leaders: university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders).

2.2.2 Globalists, Sceptics and Transformationalists

Since its appearance in the 1960s (Waters, 1995), the concept of globalisation has always been contested. This section discusses three principal stances in the globalisation debates outlined by Held and McGrew (2003) including the globalists, the sceptics and the transformationalists. First, the globalists acknowledge the power of globalisation in fundamentally changing all aspects of life. They look at the world under the dissolution of nations with the unification of a global culture and global governance. Central to their concept is the belief in the importance of the global market and in global governance, such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), The World Trade Organisation (WTO) and The World Bank (WB). These intergovernmental organisations together with the transnational corporations will be seen as a threat to the sovereignty and autonomy of countries in the world (Held & McGrew, 2003). The second position includes the non-believers in the “myth” of globalisation, notably the sceptics. In their perspectives, change due to globalisation in the realm of the globalists is a mere exaggeration. According to the sceptics, the world is not actually globalised, but is instead regionalised (Held, 1999). To back up this claim, they point to the inequalities between countries in the Global North and the ones in the Global South (Held & McGrew, 2003). For them, globalisation is considered as simply a synonym for Americanisation or Western imperialism. Finally, the middle position in making sense of globalisation is the transformationalists. They see globalisation as the growing flows of trade, capital, people, ideas, images and ideologies. They believe that globalisation is associated with a reduction of power for national governments (Held, 1999) but the role of nations remains crucial in the process of globalisation. These three accounts are constructed around the reading of globalisation as good, bad or both. However, these accounts were constructed more than a decade ago where there might have been fewer failures and disappointments from the mobility and interconnectivity of globalisation. People questioned the world order, equality, or social democracy less than they do now (Rizvi, 2017). No matter how globalised the world might be, people were born in one country and vote for their national leaders rather than for a global leader (Porter & Vidovich, 2000). In education and higher education, curriculum content is constructed around the promotion of national values, history and culture via stories of a country’s heroes, wars, and politics (Rizvi, 2017). The advancement of technology has created global spaces for each individual. In many sectors, the distinction between global and national has become blurred.

In this study, globalisation is read from the views of the transformationalists in which the circulation of global influences to and from Vietnamese higher education is expressed. In this case, the global forces meet the ideologies of the Communist Party of Vietnam and the management of the State. Whether their reception is in a friendly or conflicting manner, there will inevitably be a power negotiation. Take the participation of Vietnam in the regional and international organisations for example. The most influential organisations that directly or indirectly impact on changes and the construction of national policies in Vietnam, including education policies, are the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), the World Bank (WB), and the World Trade Organisation (WTO).

Vietnam became a member of ASEAN in 1995. The core principles of this organisation emphasise state autonomy and non-interference in the affairs of other states. According to Stubbs (2008), five elements of the ASEAN way include neutrality; sovereignty and territorial integrity; the peaceful settlement of disputes; informal, non-confrontational negotiations; and the promotion of domestic stability and social harmony. Furthermore, "*better is a nearby neighbour than a far off relative*", ASEAN is a strategic and important forum giving Vietnam a chance to develop its comprehensive cooperation with other ASEAN members. Education is among the dimensions of the ASEAN cooperation commitment in which a number of cooperation activities have been implemented among Vietnam and other ASEAN country members (Madden, 2014).

The second international organisation that has been influential in the shaping of higher education policies in Vietnam is the World Bank. Coming to Vietnam after the removal of the American embargo in 1995, the World Bank is the biggest fund provider for Vietnamese projects in higher education. World Bank educational support projects aim at facilitating neoliberal agenda in enhancing the decentralisation process in educational management. Since 1998, there have been six World Bank projects and one International Finance Corporation project related to higher education in Vietnam (World Bank, 2008). The World Bank has been the author of a number of changes in education and higher education in Vietnam, including its support for the policy programme (World Bank, 2017).

Another international organisation is the World Trade Organisation (WTO). Under the WTO regulations, Vietnam has to commit to conditions of the General Agreement on Trade and Services (GATS) in which education is considered as a tradable service. After becoming the WTO

membership, in Vietnamese Education Law (Law no.38/2005/QH) the commercialisation of educational activities is no longer prohibited, leading to the formation of an immature higher education market in Vietnam (Mok, 2008). This marked an important milestone for VHE as it started to open itself to the market, bringing cross-border education into the country. Following this period, the VHE system has experienced the global influences both extensively and intensively (Welch, 2010). Consequently, the entry to the WTO has further liberated the education market and cultivated cross-border education in Vietnam.

2.2.3 Appadurai's (1996) global flows

Globalisation as the five scapes

Over twenty years ago, Appadurai (1996) conceptualised the circulation of global cultural flows using the metaphor of five “-scapes” including

- Ethnoscapes (global flow of people)
- Technoscapes (global flow of technology)
- Financescapes (global flow of money)
- Mediascapes (global flow of media)
- Ideoscapes (global flow of ideology)

These –scapes capture the global flows of people, technology, money, information, and ideologies. Appadurai (1996) analysed the use of the –scape suffix for the capture of “*the fluid, irregular shapes of these landscapes*” (Appadurai, 1996, p. 33) as the circulation of these five factors are not uniform. He refers to these five factors as “*deeply perspectival constructs inflected by the historical, linguistic, and political situatedness of different sorts of actors*” (Appadurai, 1996, p. 33). These flows carry within themselves both new possibilities, inconsistencies, and even contradictions (Appadurai, 1996). Building on Appadurai's (1996) scapes, Luke (2001) elaborated further that “*globalisation is as much about difference and ambivalence as it is about sameness and similarities at the level of local uptakes, appropriations, identities, and engagements with global processes, structures, and ideologies*” (Luke, 2001, p.95). Both Appadurai (1996) and Luke (2001) highlight the importance of context in making sense of globalisation as the diverse and complex construction of local realities.

Globalisation as pathways

The contribution of Appadurai's (1996) work is on not only the conceptualisation of five –scapes but also their contingency in relation to local history, culture, and eco-politics. In this sense, globalisation is not possible without its local or contextual milieu. Take ethnoscapes (global flow of people) for example. Based on Appadurai's work, I see globalisation with its connotation of a pathway, moving *from* somewhere and *to* somewhere else. In doing so, there are changes in spaces and places. The mid-way between the start and the destination of the pathway is another explanation of globalisation. However, what is unique about the global pathway is the multiplicity of its starting points and destinations. For example, ethnoscapes (the global flow of people) in their mobility bring with them their cultural practices, languages, and ways of living to the receiving countries, which is localised in the globalised spaces and places. These practices, like these flows of people, have their origins (the *from* place) and when travelling to the new nations became globalised as they are no longer native to either the *from* or the *to* places. The spaces between *from* and *to* link these -scapes together. Appadurai (1996) associates ethnoscapes with the formation of the post-national society where people need to think themselves beyond the nation and develop "*global consciousness*" (Folk, 1993, cited in Appadurai, 1996, p. 157). In other words, they need to shift their practice of thought to "*think post-nationally*" and to be aware of their "*post-national identities*" (Folk, 1993, cited in Appadurai, 1996, p.157). Therefore, globalisation is not only the –scapes but also interconnectedness (i.e. the globalisation processes) that are locally or contextually contingent. With more contexts, the more versions of globalisation there will be. This locally contingent feature resonates with Rizvi and Lingard's (2010) argument that each country has its uniqueness in the global positionality due to its distinctive culture, history, politics and economy and will therefore experience globalisation differently.

Vernacular globalisation

The interactions between what is local and what is global produces a hybridity of local-global and/or global-local. These interactions make the global become local (globalised localism) and the local become global (localised globalism) (Santos, 2002) and form the concept of vernacular globalisation (Appadurai, 1996; Lingard, 2013). Vernacular globalisation is the convergence between globalisation from above and globalisation from below. In particular, it is the interplay between localising

globalisation from above and globalising globalisation from below. Appadurai (1996) elaborated vernacular globalisation as “*global facts take local forms*” (p.126). In the Vietnamese context, for example, the process and policy of privatisation in education is manifested and used as educational socialisation policy. The introduction of the policy of socialisation in education in Vietnam started in 1989. The socialisation policy was officially explained as the mobility of resources in society for the development of education (Ha & Vui, 2015). In a sense, it means privatisation but implies the equal contribution of people in society. Most importantly, socialisation policy implies the process of planned privatisation under the leadership of the Party and the management of the State as in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Global concepts take Vietnamese forms

Global concepts	take Vietnamese forms
Privatisation policy	Socialisation policy
	Under the State’s management Implied equal contribution within society Matching with the political environment of the socialist-transition period of Vietnam

In other words, the use of the term “socialisation” in Vietnamese is a vocabulary for privatisation. Loc (2006) and Mok (2008) explained the replacement of the “privatisation” by “socialisation” as an attempt to avoid a misunderstanding of the political nature of a socialist country like Vietnam as outlined in Table 1. Socialisation of education has been expressed widely in a number of important educational policies, for example:

- *Decision 44/HĐBT* dated April, 24th 1989 on fee paying in general education marked the initial implementation of educational socialisation policy;
- *Resolution 90/CP* dated August 21st 1997 of Vietnamese Government on socialisation in Education, Healthcare, Culture stated that the State encouraged diversity in different forms of training, with different types of schools and universities;
- Education Law dated June 14th 2005 stated the importance of socialisation policy via the promotion of the organisations and individuals participating in the development of education.

Another example of Appadurai's (1996) vernacular globalisation in the Vietnamese context is the rise of private higher education. Hayden and Khanh (2010) analyse an increase in different types of non-public higher education and argue that one of the major strengths of this tendency is the contribution to the socialisation policy. The increased participation of the non-public higher education sector (private sector now) partly shoulders the overloading of the system of higher education from the excessive demand for universities amongst Vietnamese people (Hayden & Khanh, 2010). However, the public awareness of private education and higher education remains negative for its quality.

In the discussion of this study, the focus is more on the importation of global practices to the VHE context (or the world to Vietnam) than the exportation of Vietnamese practices to the world. In capturing the former process, the complexity and multiple forms of interactions, e.g. receiving, reinventing, negotiating, constraining, resisting, conflicting, are explored.

2.2.4 Eduscapes

Building on Appadurai's (1996) scapes, Kynäslähti (1998) added another dimension to the global flow of education as the eduscapes, referring to the global mobility of education regardless of locations and individual realities. Kynäslähti (1998) argued that educational experiences are not merely for the making of ethnicity but are motivated by finance, ideas, and media.

However, the concept of the eduscapes focuses more on the virtual space of education in which the educational activities exist independently of its own context:

The eduscapes is a world-wide "scape" of educational flows which people can reach regardless of their location and regardless of the physical reality they live in. It is a space of education which has been divorced from its context, flowing through technologies, to be taken in use by people within their own context (Kynäslähti, 1998, p. 159).

Different from Kynäslähti's (1998) definition focusing on the virtual space of education, Luke (2005) approaches eduscapes from the viewpoint of education as a lucrative trading business globally. Within Luke's global eduscapes, there are flows of capital, information, people and knowledge. He argues:

My use of the term "eduscapes", then, is meant to invoke the inconsistencies and incongruences of that hot export commodity coveted by providers and highly desirable from the vantage point of consumers: branded international education and

credentials brought to you by the “enterprise university”—we take VISA, Mastercard, or AMEX (Luke, 2005, p.101).

The convergent point between these two accounts of eduscapes is the mobility of education. Mobility in higher education is one area that is shaken up by globalisation. One example is student mobility in which students travel outside their home countries to pursue education in the international environment (Scott, Gallacher, & Parry, 2017). It is an urgent wish and the numbers of students seeking mobility keeps increasing regardless of the alternative to provide Western university training at home (Wildavsky, 2015). An illustration of the increased demand for Western education can be seen through the rocketing number of students from the rest of the world travelling to the West for their education. Such a tendency is a phenomenon in Vietnam.

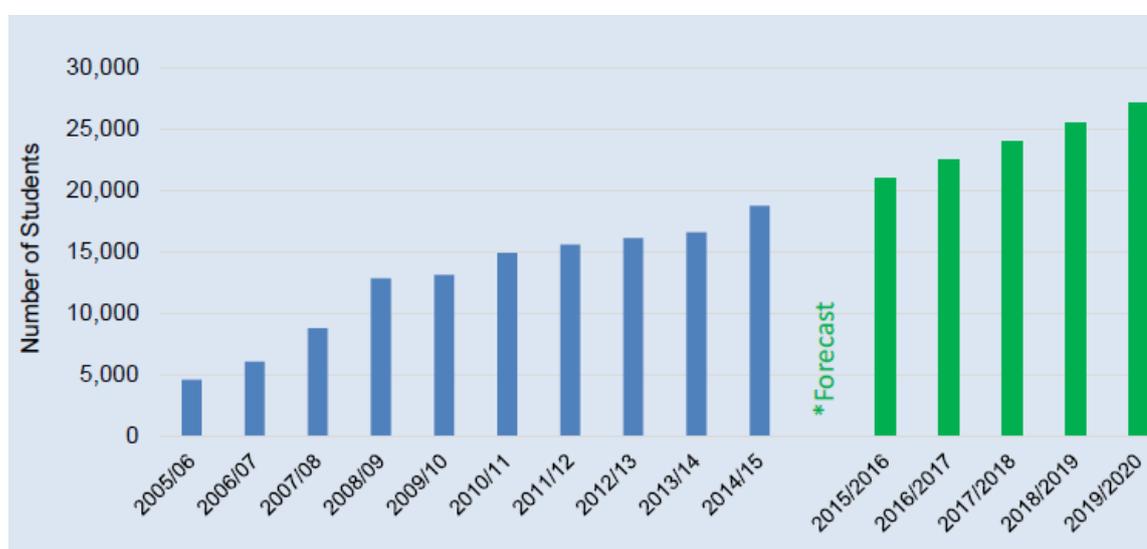


Figure 3: Vietnamese students in the United States 2005-2020 (adapted from International Trade Administration, 2016)

Take the United States as a destination country for Vietnamese students (see Figure 3). According to the report of the International Trade Administration (2016), Vietnam has been amongst the top 20 places of origin since 2006/07 and has been in the top 10 since 2010/11. There were large increases for three years starting in 2006/07. The number of students from Vietnam rose from close to 2,000 in 2000/01 to more than 18,700 in 2014/15. Among approximately 53,500 Vietnamese students studying abroad in 2013, roughly a third of this number chose the United States (International Trade Administration, 2016). In the same report, the estimated expenditure that Vietnamese parents invest in their children’s education in the United States is approximately 1 billion USD per year. Family

investment in education is a part of the Vietnamese tradition of strong commitment to education. It is a part of the Vietnamese Confucian tradition of valuing education and educational professions (Marginson, 2013).

2.2.5 Education mobility

Some decades ago, education mobility was associated with the threat of brain drain where the less developed countries lost their talents to the West (Wildavsky, 2015). Now, given the case of Vietnamese parental investments above, the most obvious and visible financial profits are found within international students in the receiving countries such as the United States. Given that large amount of financial investment, how much talent can develop from such a number of mobile students? Although Wildavsky (2015) argued that the developing countries are catching up on the global brain race, in my view, the catching up point remains suspicious. Global higher education is a unique market, where there is so much trust from the buyers in the less developed world and the insurance from the sellers in the developed side of the globe remains partly unknown. It is not the academic or training quality that is suspected but rather the behaviour of the students themselves. This could be because of ontological insecurity, gaps in understanding the world from the non-mother language, and many other cultural and social factors in which the educational journey in another country might not go well as planned. The acceleration of global eduscapes implies the important role of academic free trade and the necessity of a more open approach to the mobility of the mind.

The global eduscapes are situated in this study in the practices of international cooperation including training and research cooperation between Vietnamese universities and foreign universities. Seeking international education in Vietnam and outside Vietnam has been the choice of many Vietnamese families, given the mentality of "*Foreign made seems to be better than domestic*" (Madden, 2014, p. 200) and most importantly, the public disappointment in Vietnamese higher education (Harman, Hayden, & Nghi, 2010). The global eduscapes in higher education in Vietnam can be seen in the presence of the first foreign-owned university, RMIT Vietnam (Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology Vietnam) (Welch, 2010); the rise of joint training programmes with foreign universities; and the implementation of the Doctoral training project 911(Decision No. 911/QĐ-TTg) (sending

university lecturers overseas for Doctorate programmes); and the international research cooperation projects.

2.2.6 Neoliberalism

In the globalisation debate, neoliberalism is a powerful force explaining globalisation. The key neo-liberal ideas include emphasis on the role of the market over the state and encouraging trade liberalisation, privatisation, consumer choice, competition and reduction of labour costs (Olssen & Peters, 2005). Neo-liberalism has permeated not only in politics but also in social policies, including education (Harris, 2007). According to Harvey (2007):

Neoliberalism is in the first instance a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterised by strong private property rights, free markets, and free trade (Harvey, 2007, p. 3).

In this sense, neoliberalism is associated with the liberation of individual business skills and freedom. Harvey (2007) argues that in the neoliberal paradigm, "*individual freedoms are guaranteed by freedom of the market and trade*" (Harvey, 2007, p. 7). The market becomes centralised in the daily life of individuals as well as in the operation of national economies, "*Neoliberalisation has meant, in short, the financialisation of everything*" (Harvey, 2007, p. 33). In addition to individual freedom, the dominance of the market ideology also invites a new concept of governance, with greater dependence on the role of the market over the role of the state. Neoliberal agenda has its meaning in the political structure as it implies the movement from government to governance. Harvey (2007) elaborates it further as "*the shift from government (state power on its own) to governance (a broader configuration of state and key elements in civil society) has therefore been marked under neoliberalism*" (Harvey, 2007, p.77). Governance refers to the structure (i.e. the components and representation of different actor groups in councils and committees) and process of the decision-making (Sporn, 1999).

In addition to the decentralisation of governance matching the new demands of the market, the rise of neoliberal ideology is also associated with the change in the nature of employment, making it less secure, temporary, flexible, and requiring individuals with a new set of skills and attitudes. To sum up, neoliberalism includes the notion of individual freedom, the rise of the market where the

measurement of everything is possible via financialisation, of new forms of governance and of new forms of labour.

In Vietnam, the co-existence between the market economy and socialist-orientated governance seems to be so impossible that for many, socialism in Vietnam and China is only nominally socialist (Rizvi, 2017) or self-described socialism (Gillespie & Nicholson, 2005). One important point is that the political economy that Vietnam is pursuing now is a socialist-oriented market economy. This model is explained as temporary experience of market economy but with a long-term vision of socialism (Communist Party of Vietnam, 2015). Notwithstanding that, the debate on the political economy of the socialist-oriented market model remains ongoing (Truong, 2015). In matching the socialist-oriented political aspiration with the market model, how will the Vietnamese government define the relationship between the State and the market? This ambiguous connection will place the State and its administration intervention into the position of over-managing the market. Hence, this intervention has deformed the market economy, leading the enterprises and other sectors in the national economy to be over dependent on the State (Truong, 2015). In VHE, Dao (2015) shared similar concerns about the involvement of the State in the governance of public universities. He analysed the newly granted freedom to these public institutions as conditional autonomy.

2.2.7 Social imaginary

In addition to globalisation, Charles Taylor's (2004) social imaginary is the key conceptual element in this study. Social imaginary, as defined by Taylor (2004), is "*the way ordinary people " imagine" their social surroundings, and this is often not expressed in theoretical terms; it is carried in images, stories, legends, and so on*" (Taylor, 2004, p. 22). From this definition, social imaginary is carried in narratives and is

the ways people imagine their social existence, how they fit together with others, how things go between them and their fellows, the expectations that are normally met, and the deeper normative notions and images that underlie these expectations" (Taylor, 2004, p. 23).

Social imaginary embeds in daily practices in the community and society. Taylor also argued that the common understandings within a social imaginary could become incorporated into common practices. As such, Taylor's (2004) analysis implied the power of the plurality in the shared understandings and narratives. In this study, the concept of social imaginary provides a tool to

theorise from the empirical data of the perspectives of participants (university leaders, teacher union leaders, and student leaders) on reforming VHE. Their views convey not only the “what is” but also the “what ought to be” of VHE based on their professional experiences. Throughout this thesis, a social imaginary of reforming VHE was manifested not only in the Agenda but also in public institutional changes and individual narrative accounts.

Globalisation as social imaginary

Globalisation affects the way in which we both interpret and imagine the possibility of our lives. In addition to global changes and global ideologies as in the view of the transformationalists (Held & McGrew, 2003) or to the ongoing circulation of Appadurai’s five scapes, another stance in understanding globalisation in this study is to take globalisation as the social imaginary (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010).

Rizvi and Lingard’s (2010) views of globalisation as social imaginary resonate with my understanding of globalisation as the pathway of the “*from*”, the “*to*” and the “*mid-way*”. Both concepts (globalisation and social imaginary) not only convey what reality is but also carry within them the sense of the future. Another feature of social imaginary that Taylor (2004) incorporates is the difference between social imaginary and social theory. Whilst social theory is the possession of a small number of intellectuals, social imaginary stretches throughout the community and society with its shared narratives, images and events. Despite this difference, there is an interplay between social theory and social imaginary. Taylor’s (2004) elaboration is that some key elements of a social theory can become social imaginary and that theory is often built up from established social imaginary, even if they leave open the possibility of interpreting the world in an alternative way. Another elaboration for its interplay is that “*Humans operated with a social imaginary well before they ever got into the business of theorising about themselves*” (Taylor, 2004, p.26).

In the context of Vietnam for example, education development is stated as the responsibility of the Party, the State, and the People, which has nothing to do with the ordinary Vietnamese people’s educational imaginary. The expansion of education and higher education went alongside changes in the way in which ordinary Vietnamese people “imagine” purposes of education: from learning how to read, write, and calculate money, to learning how to get out of low-income agricultural occupations,

to learning to be empowered and to be managers. Another imaginary of education is that studying overseas is better than studying in Vietnam (Welsh, 2010) and studying in Vietnamese public universities is better than doing so in Vietnamese private universities (Hayden & Khanh, 2010). Linked to this study, the way in which university insiders constructed their own versions of the reform agenda conveyed their imaginaries with regard to their expectations, explanations, and their identification of the problematic practices existing in their public institutions. In other words, their imaginaries include their insights and aspirations of reforming VHE based on the continuity of the old practices and their capacity to aspire to the new practices.

Policy and social imaginary

Social imaginary is not only embedded in daily practices and theory but also in policy (Taylor, 2004). Neoliberal social imaginary of globalisation includes market principles, a minimalist role of the state, a deregulated labour market, and individualism (Rizvi, 2017). These key ideas of such imaginary not only alter the way that education policy is shaped but also how education policy is comprehended. This imaginary is shaped under the influence of local, national and global factors (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). It has a role in framing policy problems. If Ball (1993) defines policy as text and discourse for its nature of being ad hocery despite its appearance of stability (policy as text) and its power relation (policy as discourse) and Gale (2003) emphasises the policy process of allocating whose values and how, Rizvi and Lingard (2010) add to the definition of policy in relation to social imaginary. They suggest that policy is located in the dominant social imaginary – how things might be different from now. Policy is informed by the dominant social imaginary. Social imaginary arises from normative forms and collective aspirations and is the overarching concept while policy proposes solutions to particular problems. However, there is an interactive relationship between social imaginary and policy illustrated in the way in which policy conveys elements of a dominant social imaginary. For example, valuing education has been a feature of the Vietnamese social imaginary since the Feudal time, which ranked the intellectuals at the top among the class categories (Intellectuals, Farmers, Workers, and Merchants–Sĩ, Nông, Công, Thương) (Phan, 2015). Reflecting this social imaginary are policies of valuing talented people by Vietnamese kings (Phan, 2015) and later on the view of education development as a national policy priority (see p.10, Chapter 1).

Globalisation as social imaginary has expanded new spaces in both the policy cycle and the movement of policy discourses: globalising education policy (Gulson et al., 2017). The mobility of the globalised discourses and practices facilitates the mobility of policy discourses including “*policy borrowing, modelling, transfer, diffusion, appropriation and copying that occur across nation states*” (Rizvi, 2017, p.6).

This mobility is identified by Carney (2008) as policyscapes emphasising the learning processes of ideas and ideologies among systems of education in the world via the process of globalisation. Policyscapes refer to a cross-national dimension of shared educational policies, witnessed through an analysis of educational policies on the different continents that show great similarities (Carney, 2008). The concept of policyscapes is a way of linking diverse contexts instead of treating them nationally and separately, thus attempting to identify a transnational dimension of policies (Robertson & Dale, 2008). Carney (2008) maintained the argument of the ongoing connection of educational policy across systems of education via the travelling of neoliberal agenda in educational policy.

In the Vietnamese context, policy learning can be traced back through the country’s history with references to Chinese, French and Soviet practices. Adoption of policy ideas and discourses into the Vietnamese setting can be counted as:

- organising the education system based on Chinese Confucian education during the Vietnamese feudal time
- establishing the first French-colonised universities in the 20th century in Indochina (Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia today)
- modelling a higher education system on the Soviet model of central planning during the period 1954- 1986.

The most important policy discourse imported to Vietnam that remains anchored up to today is the importation of Marxism and Leninism to Vietnam. Applying these ideologies to the context of Vietnam has become known as Ho Chi Minh’s Thoughts. These ideologies are guidelines for the establishment and operation of the Communist Party of Vietnam with its crucial role in the current Vietnamese political system. The Party’s leadership is involved in all areas of the country, including

the higher education system, its policies, universities and university staff and students, as evidenced in this study.

2.2.8 Globalisation and higher education

In analysing the meaning of globalisation on higher education, Knight (2008) identifies five significant elements including (1) the emergence of a knowledge society, (2) the development of ICTs (information and communications technology), (3) the growth and influence of market economy, (4) trade liberation and (5) the new global governance systems. Each of these elements has a direct impact on higher education and pushes it toward greater international involvements. In VHE context, these elements have contributed differently to current changes in the system.

Expansion

The first element is the increasing important role of knowledge that leads to the expansion of higher education globally. Knowledge is seen as a type of capital (like land, property and money), and therefore investment in knowledge is identified as the key to economic success (King & Bjarnason, 2003). Universities are central to the mission of generating and disseminating knowledge for two reasons. Being influenced by the notion of a knowledge society, universities have been expanded in both scope and scale to meet the greater demand of students. This worldwide expansion of higher education has been depicted by Martin Trow (1970) as the transition from an elite system to a mass system of higher education. Trow's (1970) definition of the elite system of higher education is the participation of less than 15% exclusively for the elite in society, and he suggested that the onset of mass higher education happened around the 1960s. Mass education is defined as the participation in higher education for a larger proportion of population from 16% to 50% in which a wider group of the population take part in technical and professional roles. Trow's definition entails increases in both enrolments and the distribution of professionals in the labour market. In many countries, systems of higher education expanded to the level of high participation, in which the total enrolment rate to universities exceeded 50 % (Marginson, 2016). Marginson (2016) explains for this expansion as the "*norms of modernisation*" and as "*a social differentiator and allocator*" (Marginson, 2016, p.413). He also suggests another reason for the high participation system is the "*universal desire for betterment*

through education” (p.414). Linking this expansion to the concept of social imaginary, this phenomenon underpins the social imaginary of trust and hope that people have for higher education.

The rate of expansion in VHE system over recent years has been spectacular. The past decade has seen an annual average rate of growth of 9% in higher education enrolments, which is very high by international standards, and is even high by East Asian standards (Hayden et al., 2012). The total enrolment rates during 15 years, from 2000 to 2015 increased from approximately 900,000 to almost 2,100,000 students (as in Figure 4). This rate reached a peak in 2014 and then declined to the 2013 level in 2015 because of the introduction of a new entrance examination method for VHE in 2014.

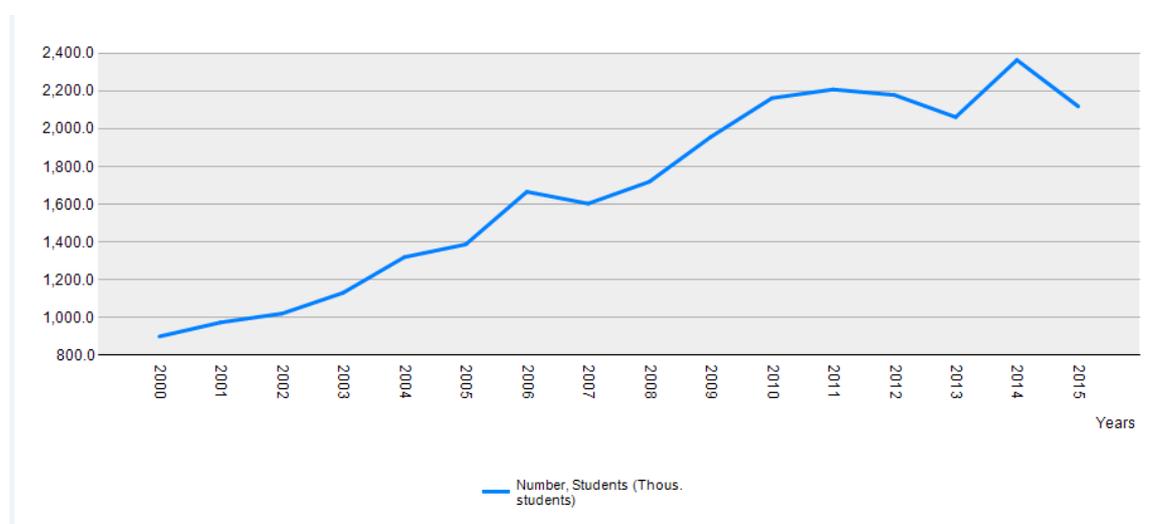


Figure 4: Changes in numbers of students in higher education from 2000-2015 (adapted from GSO, 2017)

In this 15 year period, the number of colleges and universities more than doubled from less than 200 to 450 (Figure 5). This means that approximately 250 new institutions were established over 15 years.

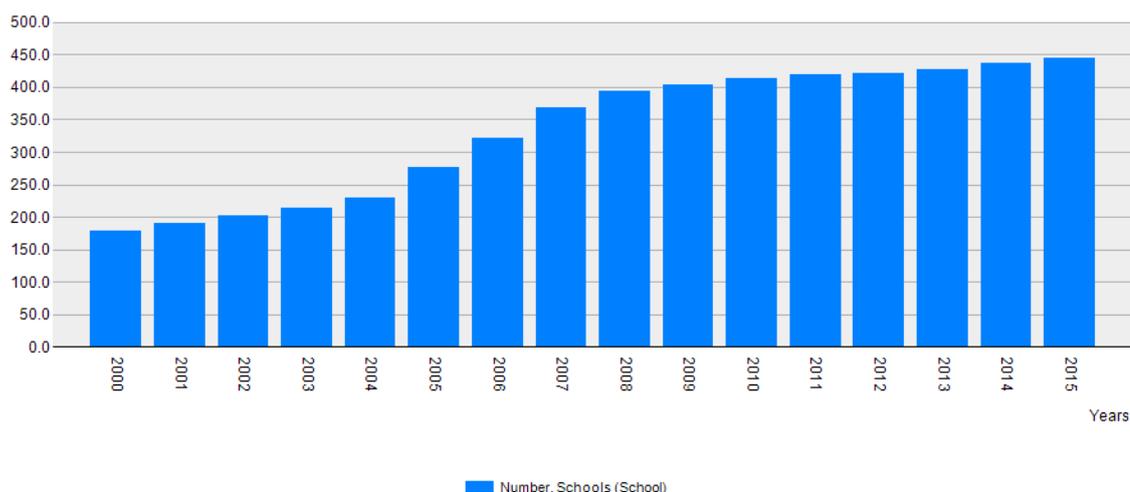


Figure 5: Changes in numbers of Vietnamese universities from 2000-2015 (adapted from GSO, 2017)

The increase in enrolments and higher education institutions in Vietnam can be explained by domestic and external factors. Domestic factors include an education-value tradition, the increase of a young population, and economic development. External factors are global higher education and the labour market coming to Vietnam (see Chapter 4).

ICTs

The second feature of globalisation that affects higher education is the development and achievements of science and technology, which have altered and improved traditional instruction practices and research (Odin & Manicas, 2004). Specifically, they have diversified teaching, learning, accessing, and delivering information. The popularity of Internet use has sparked the recognition of an expanding technology-led education such as e-learning and m-learning (Maringe & Gibbs, 2008). The power of ICTs has made revolutionary changes in the process of globalising the world of higher education (Carnoy & Rhoten, 2002; Cunningham, 1998). However, the risk of this tendency is the question of quality assurance and assessment for students. In Vietnam, the development of ICTs has widened the gap between the reality and university, in terms of curriculum (Phan, Lupton, & Watters, 2016), teaching and learning (Ngoc & Harman, 2010), and doing research (Pham, 2010). The language barrier (i.e. insufficiency of English proficiency) is among the major challenges for VHE to be able to utilise attainment from ICTs such as using resources from the Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs).

To the market

Thirdly, globalisation goes with the domination of capitalism and market-based economies around the world where universities are considered as “*agents of national and international markets*” (Maringe & Gibbs, 2008, p.6), entrepreneurial universities (Clark, 1998), and neoliberal universities (Harris, 2007). The key idea of such names is the embracing of market practices within universities (Currie & Newson, 1998; Rhoads & Torres, 2006), for example the fee charging practice where students are the buyers and universities are the sellers. The market principles encourage universities to generate their incomes from different sources, through teaching, research and other services, leading to diversifying higher education types, research commercialisation, and the relationships between universities and the industry sector (Marginson & Considine, 2000). In this context, the higher education institutions have to re-position themselves so that they can compete with other economic agencies while ensuring the student output is high quality and the institution is cost-efficient.

In Vietnam, the manifestation of the market in higher education is present but not powerful. It is reflected in the increase in the number of private universities. Private higher education is seen as the effective alternative means to expand the system of higher education. One of the objectives in the Agenda is to expand the enrolments in non-public higher education (private higher education now) to 40% (Vietnamese Government, 2005). However, from 2000 to 2015, enrolments in private higher education as well as number of private higher education institutions have always lagged behind the public ones (see Figure 6 and Figure 7).

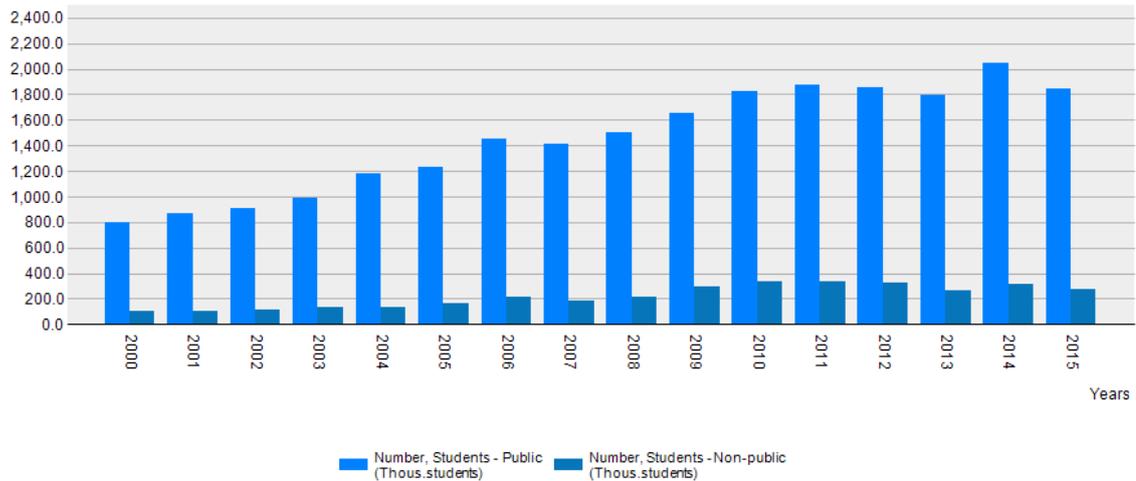


Figure 6: Total students in public and non-public higher education institutions (adapted from GSO, 2017)

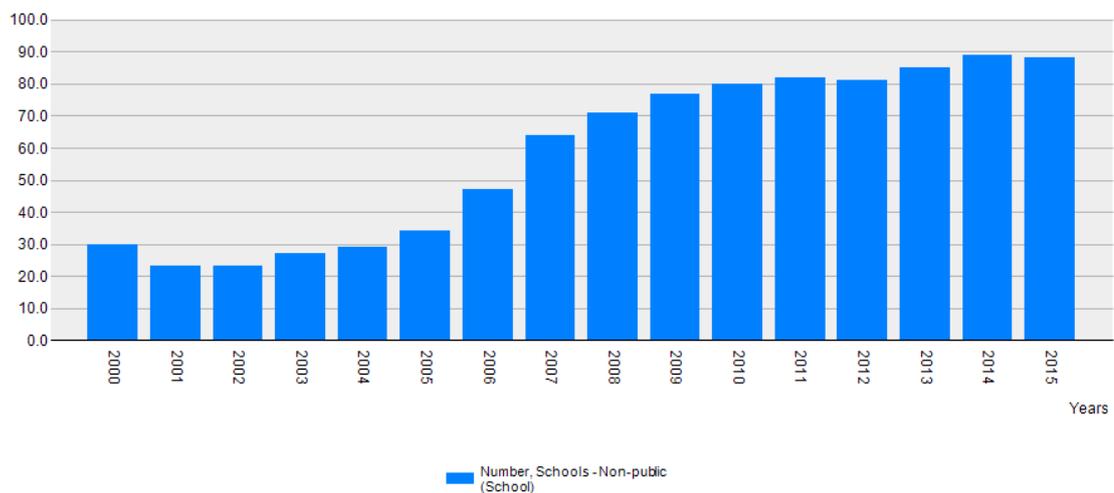


Figure 7: Numbers of Vietnamese non-public higher education institutions from 2000-2015 (adapted from GSO, 2017)

However, the imprint of the market on Vietnamese universities is not strong enough to put them in a race for students. The number of students wanting to enter university is always more than the enrolment quota the universities have. Regardless of the university quality, students keep enrolling for their places (Dao, 2015). One consequence of this trend is the alarming unemployment rate of university graduates. For example, in 2016 the total numbers of unemployment with higher education qualifications reached the number of 218,000 (Ministry of Labour Invalids and Social Affairs, 2016).

Governance

The final element of globalisation that influences higher education is the matter of governance. The involvement of international governance organisations has had significant impact in the policy world of higher education. These organisations, such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the World Bank, have an influential role in the process of educational policy formation and evaluation at national and international level. Another justification for the connection between globalisation and the need for new governance of higher education is the role of the market in the universities' community. Central to the presence of the market is the increasing competition among universities making the price for universities more and more expensive. Thus, in order to be successful in university competition, good management is the key part.

In Vietnam, governance of the higher education system is politically influenced and strongly centralised (Evans & Adam Rorris, 2010). The State is the source of all authority in which all the important decisions are made through the direct control of the Communist Party of Vietnam's agencies. The State controls both the public and the private sector of higher education and exercises its authority through various ministries, of which the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) has by far the most extensive responsibilities. MOET allocates enrolment quotas for all higher education institutions and controls the maximum level of tuition fees that higher education institutions may charge. It controls the curriculum frameworks for all training programmes delivered by higher education institutions and regulates all training programme structures (Hayden & Dao, 2010). In summary, the elements of globalisation in higher education have their manifestation in Vietnamese context: from the worldwide expansion trend, to the virtual world of ICTs, to the market-orientation and changes to the governance model of higher education.

2.2.9 Neoliberal higher education reform

Many reforms of higher education systems reflect the focus on increasing the importance of knowledge via enhancing the system capacity, in order to produce knowledge that improves economic and market competitiveness (Varghese & Martin, 2013). Rosser (2016) analysed how developing countries were committed to expanding higher education via the case of Indonesia in its neoliberal higher education reform agenda. Features of the neoliberal reform agenda in higher

education include (1) enhancing autonomy of higher education institutions, (2) promoting competition between and amongst universities, (3) increasing the accountability of universities for the use of public funding. He argued that programmes of neo-liberal higher education reform are unlikely to succeed in developing countries in the absence of strong domestic political support. These reforms are conceptualised as neoliberal higher education reform agendas in many developing countries in Asia, including Vietnam (Varghese & Martin, 2013). Regardless of the global commonality of reforming higher education, the reform methods in the specific context is continuously mediated to be compatible with the intricacy of each country's higher education system. Whilst higher education systems are increasingly influenced by the global commonality, universities are nationally located as the extension of their own country's distinctive history, culture and politics (Naidoo, 2011). As such, any expansion or development of higher education must be in line with these distinctively national features. In addition to neoliberal higher education reform, Carnoy (1999) categorises three different reform strategies of the national education systems in response to globalisation. These strategies include competitive-driven reform (the enhancement of quality for the labour market), finance-driven reform (or the search for alternative forms of funding) and equity-driven reform (the improvement of important educational political roles as a source of social mobility and social equalisation).

In this study, the Agenda is an example of the embracing of this global tendency. The binary coexistence between the State and the market in Vietnam has been a provocative issue. According to Gainsborough (2010), neoliberalism is present in the context of Vietnam but not powerful. Between the external and native ideas and practices, rather than one dominating another, there is the continuity of influencing each other. Using the argument of Madden (2014), the binary coexistence is seen as walking between the rigidity of the state-centric approach and the flexibility and unpredictability of the market.

The adoption of neoliberal ideology combined with the Vietnamese political commitment to socialism can be seen in the country's major policy on higher education. Take the Law on Higher Education for example. Prior to 2013, there was no Law on Higher Education. It was not until 2013 that this law took effect. It includes regulations on issues such as the socialisation of higher education, institutional autonomy and international cooperation. This is evidence of the promotion of neoliberal ideologies in Vietnam. Take the Article on international integration for example. Detailed regulations of this

Article on full ranges of educational cooperation activities prove the openness of this policy in welcoming external partners in participating in higher education activities in Vietnam. These new regulations have illustrated Vietnam's effort in opening its higher education system to the world. Vietnamese higher education has moved toward internationalisation and the process of diversification, marketisation and privatisation (Mok, 2008). The Law on Higher Education is one of crucial content in reforming higher education management and creates a legal foundation for the State management of higher education in Vietnam.

2.3 Part II – Vietnam and the Vietnamese methods

In Part I, globalisation has been presented in the conceptual approach as a phenomenon, an ideology as well as a social imaginary. I also explained its interconnectedness, multiple forms of existence, local and contextual contingency, and how these features manifest into the higher education context. In each of the global discussions, I provided examples of the Vietnamese elements in terms of educational and higher education policy and practices to argue that underpinning these practices are a reflection of embracing globalisation into the contemporary system of VHE.

In this part, I will expand the discussion into *Vietnam and the Vietnamese methods* including influences from the country's history, political economy and culture on contemporary Vietnamese higher education. I argue that contemporary VHE is a hybridity of influences from the East (Chinese culture), the West (French and American) and indigenous Vietnamese culture. Despite the interruption in its development, education in general and higher education in particular have always been regarded as the top priority for individuals, families, and for the entire society which is expressed in the commitment, expectations, and tradition of valuing education and educational professions by Vietnamese people.

2.3.1 Vietnamese education and higher education

The history of Vietnam is the history of 4,000 years of war and peace. One of the first lessons in the primary school curriculum is the lesson of patriotism:

Patriotism has been our country's precious tradition. Patriotism is an endless source in the heart of our people. Patriotism has become our ancestors' strength to go

through hardship and the constant invasion of foreign powers. Patriotism has always been our national power to destroy the treason of individuals and invaders (Ho Chi Minh, 1995).

History lessons are lessons of the revolutions, the struggles, the wars, and of foreign invasions and fighting against enemies. It is the history of 10 centuries under the Northern Colonisation of Chinese dynasties (179 BC to 938 AD), the independent Vietnamese feudal nation, French colonisation (1858-1945), and the period of building socialism in the North and American war in the South (1954-1975) (Le, 2014). The main themes in the curricula are love for the country, determination about building socialism, and the pride of being Vietnamese (London, 2010). At a young age, students are taught that harmony and loyalty are the highest cultural values. All students are advised to follow five lessons of Ho Chi Minh:

Love country and fellowman

Study well and work hard

Have united spirit and self-discipline

Take good care of yourself

Be modest, honest and brave

Lessons about defending Vietnam territory from the foreign invaders are emphasised. The theory of socialism is one of the compulsory curriculums for higher education although students are reluctant to learn and find less benefit in it (London, 2010).

Education and higher education in Vietnam is centralised and politically embedded (Evans & Rorris, 2010; London, 2010). The State is the source of all authority in which all the important decisions are made through the direct control of the Party's agencies. The State controls both the public and the private sectors of higher education. The State exercises its authority through various ministries, of which the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) has by far the most extensive responsibilities. The MOET allocates enrolment quotas for all higher education institutions and controls the maximum level of tuition fees that higher education institutions may charge. It controls the curriculum frameworks for all training programmes and regulates all training structures delivered by higher education institutions (Hayden & Dao, 2010). In teaching, about 30-40% of the curriculum framework is made up of compulsory subjects related to political ideology. The Vietnamese government often initiates directions of change in higher education. The conformity of higher education institutions to

the government policies plays an important role for the success of such governmental steering (Evans & Rorris, 2010).

Vietnam has had an organised education system for hundreds of years with a mixture of native and foreign influences reflecting the country's historical, political and cultural influences. The national education system of Vietnam consists of official education and continuing education. It includes

- Pre-primary education: nursery and kindergarten;
- General education: primary (grade 1-5), lower secondary (grade 6-9) and upper secondary (grade 10-12);
- Vocational training (or upper secondary technical and vocational training): vocational training schools and vocational colleges ;
- Higher education: colleges, universities and postgraduates.

According to the General Statistics Office of Vietnam (GSO) up until 2015, Vietnam's post-secondary education system (vocational training and higher education) consisted of 445 universities and colleges, 293 vocational training schools, 129 vocational colleges, and 79 research institutes eligible to offer doctoral programmes (GSO, 2017). In this study, higher education refers to university and college education. Colleges in Vietnam offer three-year diplomas. Up until 2015-2016, VHE accommodates 2,115,500 students (both public and private institutions) with about 34% part-time students. Among 357 public universities, 18 key universities accounted for almost one-third of all higher education enrolments. Private higher education enrolments accounted for only a small proportion of all enrolments as in Figure 8

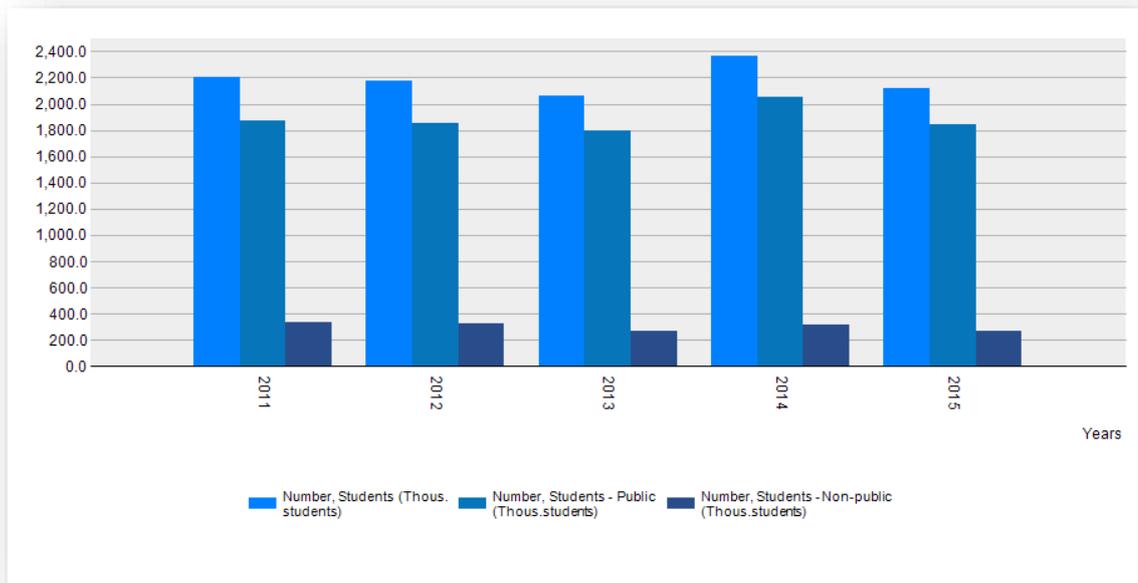


Figure 8: Higher education enrolments in VHE from 2011-2015 (adapted from GSO, 2017)

The rate of expansion of VHE system during the past decade has been extraordinary as in Figure 9 below

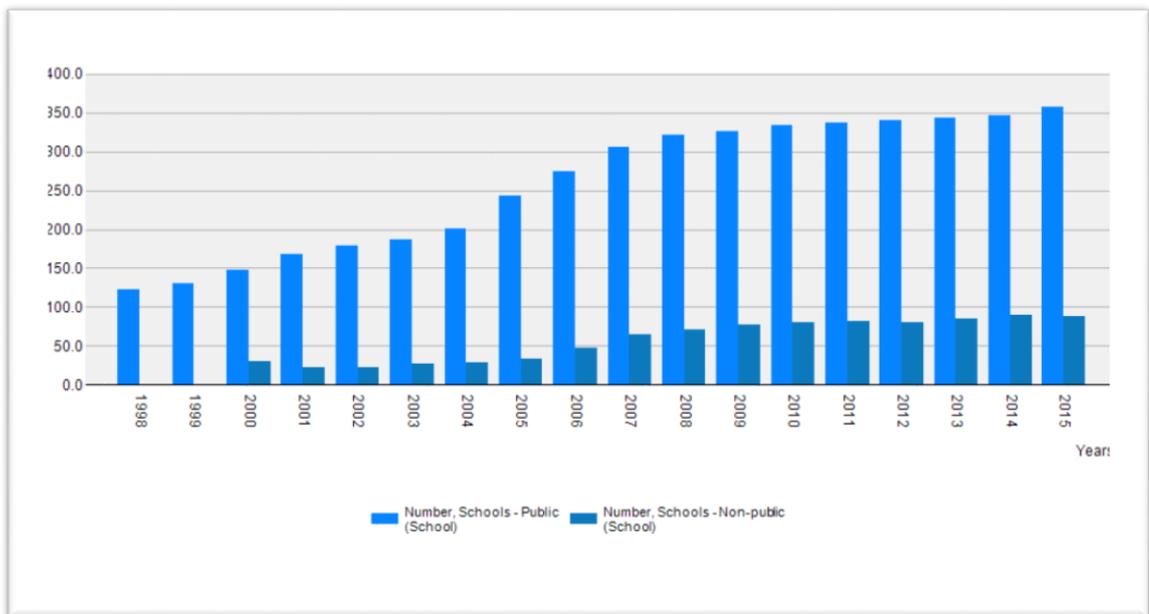


Figure 9: Numbers of public and non-public higher education institutions in Vietnam from 1998-2017 (adapted from GSO, 2017)

2.3.2 Historical influences

Higher education in Vietnam flows along with the country's history of war and foreign invasion from the 10th century BC until 1975. However, a number of studies relating to Vietnam argue for the maintenance of the Vietnamese characteristics despite 10 centuries of Northern Invasion (Chinese feudal dynasties), nearly a century under French colonisation, and 25 years of American War (Nguyen, 2015; Pham, 2007). The higher education system in Vietnam is one example of the way in which the Vietnamese people maintain the Vietnamese characteristics throughout periods of war and peace (Gainsborough, 2010; Nguyen, 2011).

Chinese influences

Vietnam was under the domination of Chinese dynasties from 179 BC to 938 AD. This period is named as the Northern Colonisation Time (or Chinese invasion). It was a long period of struggle and rebellions rose within the country to fight against the Chinese occupation. All subsequent Chinese dynasties never stopped their effort to assimilate Vietnam into their *Hán* people (Chinese people). Their scheme of national assimilation, however, was never successful. After almost a thousand years under the feudal Northern colonisation, the *Viet* people were surely influenced by the political, social, and cultural institutions of China. However, the most significant substance of the Viet people remains the Vietnamese characteristics (Nguyen, 2015). The Chinese people always considered language assimilation as the most important assimilation criterion but they failed to achieve this in Vietnam. Vietnam is now using Latinised rather than Sinitic language. As for the Vietnamese people, "*As long as our language survives, our country will survive*" (Pham, 2007, p.10).

The year 1076 was an important milestone for the development of the Confucian education system in Vietnam with the establishment of the Temple of Literature – the first feudal university in Vietnam. Initially, the Temple of Literature was to serve the children of the royal families. In 1253, it changed its name into the Confucian Institute and began serving the outstanding children of ordinary families in the districts and provinces within the country. From then on, the Confucian education system started spreading widely out amongst different classes of people. The first exam of the king was held in this Temple in 1076 and the final exam was in 1919. For about 800 years, there had been 189 exams at the Kingdom level in this Temple, recruiting 3021 doctors and thousands of bachelors and pre-bachelors (Phan, 2015). After eight centuries of Confucian educational practice in Vietnam,

Confucianism has left its imprint in Vietnamese social and educational practices. Key features of Confucian heritage in Vietnamese culture include the preferences for collectiveness, harmonisation and stability, along with a focus on virtue, strong family values, and hierarchical order. There is also a strong emphasis on theoretical knowledge, valuing education, and the educational professions (Hằng, Meijer, Bulte, & Pilot, 2015).

Influences from the French colonisation

In the middle of the 19th century, the French came to Vietnam with their “civilisation mission” and turned the land of Vietnamese Kings into an impoverished colonial slave country (Phan, 2015). One of the major duties for the colonials was to remove Chinese cultural influences in their French-colonised Indochina, which included *Nam Kỳ* (the South of Vietnam), and the three protected provinces of *Bắc Kỳ* (The North of Vietnam), *Trung Kỳ* (The Middle of Vietnam), Cambodia and Laos. As such, the names of Tonkin (The North), Annam (The Middle), and Cochinchina (The South) replaced the word Vietnam to avoid raising national spirit amongst people (Lamb, 1972). The French colonialists removed Chinese influences in Vietnamese society at this time, specifically the Confucian Education System, by replacing it with French education for local people. The ideology of Confucianism within Vietnamese society with an emphasis on loyalty to King and country was seen as a constant threat to the colonial administration.

Building education and higher education systems in Indochina became a part of the French colonised policy as propaganda supporting the contribution of the French towards the colonials. This soothed down social struggles amongst the intellectuals and helped obtain submission from the Vietnamese people. By this method, the French stopped the influence of other countries into Vietnam. In terms of its contribution, the French brought about improvements in transportation, commerce and manufacturing, colonialism, and most importantly today, the Vietnamese language, *Chữ quốc ngữ*. The French colonisation in Vietnam spread Western culture amongst various Vietnamese intellectuals. These intellectuals quickly received French culture and started abandoning the traditional style and regulations of Chinese-influenced poetry in favour of free verse in Vietnamese.

Influences in the turbulent time of North-South division

The civilisation mission of the French Colonials left Vietnam with 2 million deaths from starvation and a 95% illiterate population in the 1940s (Pham, 2015). An independent Vietnam came into being as the Democratic Republic of Vietnam in 1945 which was followed by another 9 years of Anti-French Revolution until 1954. The North of Vietnam was in the process of constructing socialism following the model of the Soviet Union's central planning economy. It was central planning in all areas of society including education and higher education. Although there has been a significant departure from the Soviet model since the country's reunification in 1975, its residues remain in the current system of higher education (Nguyen, 2010; Hayden et al., 2012). The typical model of Soviet higher education was moulded into Vietnam with all the State-run universities. Some distinctive features of Soviet model universities include the strong specialisation of knowledge with mono-disciplinary universities, the separation of teaching and research, and the strongly centralised management (Nguyen, 2010; Hayden et al., 2012). Influences from such practices have been long lasting within higher education practices in Vietnam up to the present day (Linh, 2010; Valley & Wilkinson, 2008).

The South of Vietnam, at this time, was under the French imperialists. In this period, the Americans started to pay attention to Vietnam in order to stop the spread of communism. In the South, there were tensions of competing influence between the French and Americans in many sectors of society, including education (Statler, 2007). Differing from the mission of civilisation by the French colonials, the Americans came to Vietnam with the focus of nation building. The Americans turned Saigon (Ho Chi Minh City now) into the Pearl of the East by carrying out economic aid, reforming administration and culture. However, the priority of the Americans was more inclined towards the struggle against communism, rather than the urge to impose American values and culture on to the Vietnamese people (Statler, 2007). As such, Statler (2007) suggested that the high level of development of education in South Vietnam was contributed to more by the French imperialists than the Americans. During the period 1954 to 1975 Vietnam, with the assistance of the Soviet Union and China, the Party (Communist Party of Vietnam) mobilised the whole country to fight against America. The victory of the Vietnamese people put an end to the American war in Vietnam and marked the reunification of the South and North. In 1976, Vietnam was renamed as the Socialist Republic of Vietnam as it is today.

Over the years, from the Chinese Confucian education to the French colonised education to the Soviet model in the North and American model of the South, education in Vietnam has undergone a mixture of foreign influences from its early days of development.

2.3.3 Vietnamese political economy

Đổi mới and higher education

In Chapter 1, *Đổi mới* was introduced as one of the most important milestones in understanding contemporary Vietnam. *Đổi mới* also has its meaning in education and higher education. In education and higher education, *Đổi mới* has its imprint in bringing the onset of the market to education and higher education. However, the central planning economy has left its heritage in the systems of education and higher education during the transition period, including difficulties in providing sufficient public resources for the education system, which led to a decline in quality.

In 1987, after the Nha Trang Summit for University Rectors, four pillars or preconditions for reforming higher education in Vietnam were proposed (Ministry of Education and Training, 1997) in terms of:

- Higher education purpose - not only to serve the State-owned economy but also to all other economy sectors, including the private sectors.
- Higher education enrolments - not only imposed by the State but also depended on social demands.
- Alternative funding for training - the State is not the single source.
- Terminating job assignment practices for graduates.

These four pillars are the initial steps of VHE moving away from the central planning practices. These pillars also recognised the role of the non-State agencies in participating in VHE. To sum up, the Nha Trang Summit in 1987 marked the beginning of transforming VHE into the system as it is today.

The Communist Party of Vietnam (the Party)

The Communist Party of Vietnam (the Party) is the most important political organisation and has a crucial role in understanding the contemporary Vietnam as well as VHE. The Party shapes the country's policy and legal system, and maintains a firm control over all government and social systems. Its structure is parallel to the government's structure and has close relations to the

government. Its influence is reflected through the formation and election of the National Assembly, the operation of the administration, and the function of the judicial system. The highest authority of the Party is its National Congress which meets once every 5 years. The most important overall policy of the Party, and thus the significant changes in the economic and social policy of the country, is set out in its Resolutions. Article 41 of the Charter of the Communist Party of Vietnam states that “*the Party leads the State by its political statements, its strategy, by ideological activities and through staff management.*” The Party also maintains its influence at all levels of society through its affiliated organisations: Vietnamese Fatherland Front, Ho Chi Minh Communist Youth Union, Ho Chi Minh Young Volunteers Organisation, Vietnamese Women’s Association, Vietnamese Farmers Association and other agencies. The role and ideology of the Party is so crucial that the Party, the State and the People have become part of day-to-day discourses in education, media and politics. In education and higher education, in Article 3 of Education Law 2005 (38/2005/QH11) it is specified that: “*Vietnamese education is socialist education based on the foundation of Marxism-Leninism and Ho Chi Minh’s thoughts*” (Education Law, p.1). This Law also states the importance of loyalty to the “*the ideology of national independence and socialism; to shape and foster personality, quality and capacity of citizens, fulfilling the national construction and defence requirements*” (Education Law, p.2).

Governance of higher education in Vietnam

In education, the Party has a central role in organising, managing, and delivering the country’s educational content. Most of the universities (both public and private) at the institutional level are governed by the Party system and by the Academic System as detailed in Figure 10.

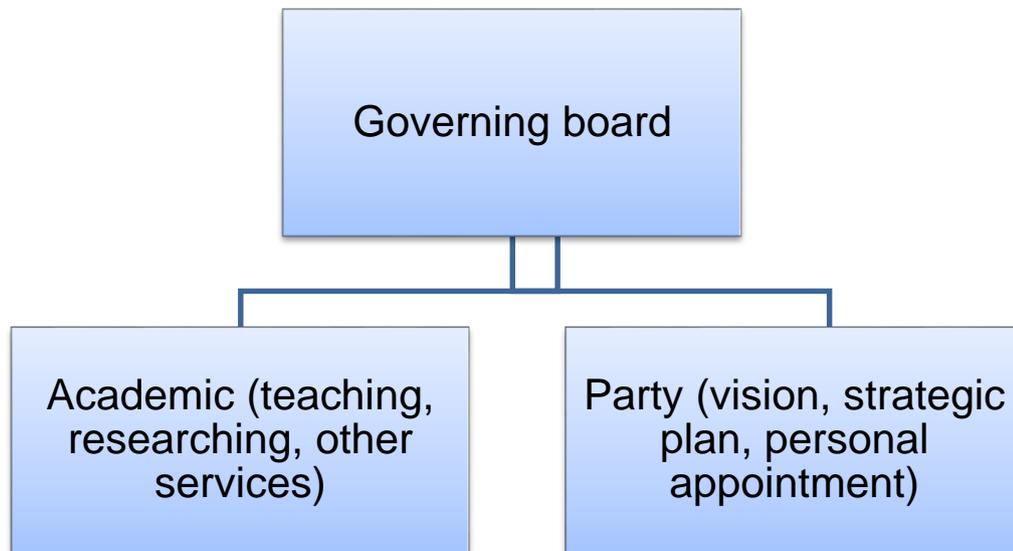


Figure 10: Party’s system and academic system within higher education institutions

The university is run by a combination of the Academic system and the Party system in which the former has the role of managing and the latter of leadership. Political education is compulsory in the foundation years of universities. The duty of learning socialism thoughts and principles are as equally important as building intellectual capacity.

Governance of the higher education system in Vietnam is politically influenced and strongly centralised (Evans & Rorris, 2010; London, 2010). The State controls both the public and the private sector of higher education and exercises its authority through various ministries, of which the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) has by far the most extensive responsibilities. MOET has overall responsibility for the education policy and the operation of the national system, including

- control of student admission regulations;
- administration of the national university entrance examination;
- approval of curricula and training programme content;
- issue of certificates and diplomas;
- regulation of all major decisions about State income expenditure, including the establishment of new institutions.
- oversight of those universities and centrally controlled colleges which report directly to MOET

The MOET allocates enrolment quotas for all higher education institutions and controls the maximum level of tuition fees that higher education institutions may charge. It controls the curriculum frameworks for all training programmes and structures (Hayden & Dao, 2010). VHE retains in the quest for more liberation from the State involvement. Tight (1992) elaborated six specific freedoms associated with institutional autonomy as follows:



Figure 11: Tight's (1992) university freedom

Although there have been changes in the governance of higher education from State control to State supervision (Pham, 2012), all 6 areas of autonomy seen in Figure 11 above remain conditional in the VHE institutions (Dao, 2015).

Another feature in governance of higher education in Vietnam is that there are multiple authorities for the higher education system as in Figure 12. Although the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) is responsible for promulgating regulations and legal documents, other ministries duplicate this role, and there is negligible consultation between ministries, State agencies and provincial governments, about management matters affecting the operational effectiveness of the higher education system (Hayden et al., 2012).

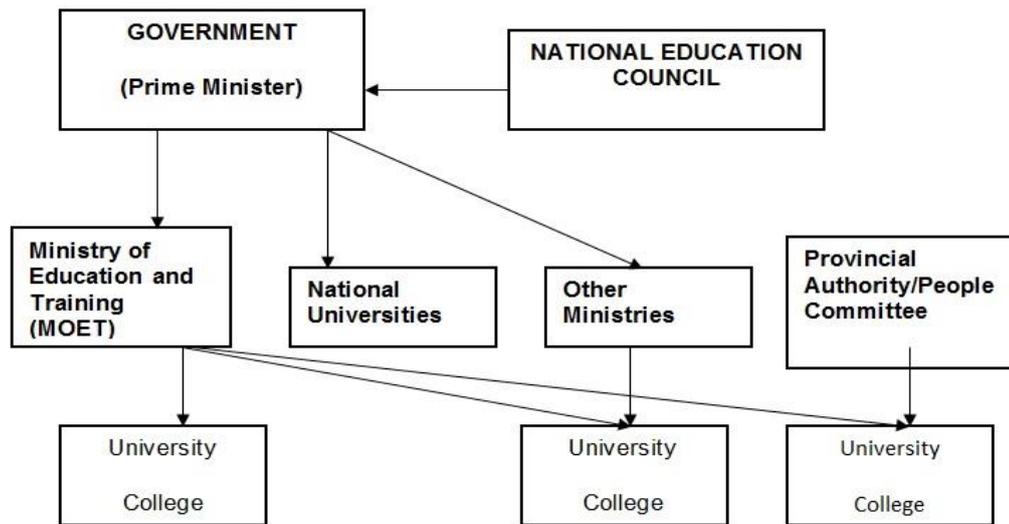


Figure 12 : Governance higher education in Vietnam

2.3.4 Vietnamese culture of Confucian-socialism

Vietnamese culture

Contemporary Vietnamese culture is the combination of the indigenous Vietnamese agricultural culture with the hierarchical Confucianism and the planning economy as the residues from the 1950s in Vietnam. I depict the country's culture using the notion of Vietnamese Confucian Socialism culture (Nghia, 2005) rather than the combination of Buddhism, Confucianism and Taoism (Thêm, 2008). Although both approaches emphasised the role of the native Vietnamese agricultural culture and heritages of Confucianism in the current Vietnamese society, the former views of Nghia (2005) are more relevant to this study for its links with the current political economy in Vietnam (socialist-oriented market economy).

From the early days, Vietnamese people learned to live in harmonisation with nature and the community (Nghia, 2005). This mentality was formed from experiences of the Vietnamese ancestors living along the river delta and frequently coping with natural challenges. Thus, a high sense of community became a measure to harmonise as well as cope with nature. The philosophy, *harmonisation is the best policy*, has been passed on from one generation to another. Confucianism entered into Vietnam after a thousand years of Chinese invasion, from the first century to the tenth

century (see *Chinese influences* above) and become Vietnamese Confucianism. Vietnamese Confucianism has an influential role in life practices (Inglehart, 1997). Vietnamese Confucianism constructed the ideal image of the Gentlemen valuing life-long self-cultivation, holding responsibility for self and society (Pham, 2013). In 1950s, Marxism–Leninism started replacing the Confucian worldview in Vietnamese society in which the Gentlemen’s ideology was replaced by the ideas of Socialist Persons (following the political determination of the Party), People’s Mastery (building the State of the People, for the People, by the People) and Socialist Democracy (Gillespie & Nicholson, 2005).

Residues of Confucianism

Although the upside of Vietnamese Confucianism is the value of education, loyalty of parents, respect for the elderly, its downside is the mind-set of change resistance, high power distance, and placing the value of the community over individual values (Pham, 2013). This practice of thoughts and life is rooted deeply in Vietnamese people, which become the invisible obstacle in developing human resources, doing business, and reforming education. Many generations stay inside their village for their entire lives and believe in the risk and danger of change rather than seeing it as an opportunity (Gillespie & Nicholson, 2005). The current Vietnamese society is an enlargement and extension of the village model of the past: friendly people, reluctance to change and people standing up for community values rather than individual ones. Although globalisation has brought about visible changes in many sectors of the country, huge unseen and unchanged cultural and social practices rooted deep down in the living realities of Vietnamese people are still unknown to all the movement of the global flows outside, into and within Vietnam (Vu, 2014). Hence, beside a Vietnam with a hunger for change and integration, there is another Vietnam with its hesitation and resistance to changes and external influences.

In education, the shadow of Confucianism has caused a passiveness of learning in Vietnamese students (Tran, 2013). The education profession is always considered as the noblest job where teachers are taken for granted as the primary source of knowledge and wisdom (Nguyen & Mcinnis, 2002). Students passively take the knowledge without questioning. The purpose of learning is to memorise what has been said by teachers (Thomas & Inkson, 2004). This style of teaching and

learning has become widespread in the school system and has continued to be present in higher education.

2.4 Chapter conclusion

This chapter provides a conceptual-contextual background for this thesis in which key ideas of globalisation and its manifestation in Vietnamese higher education have been discussed.

Globalisation is understood as not only changes in ideology but also in the social imaginary in which the travelling of different -scapes altered reality and how people imagine their lives. Globalisation is the travelling *from* to the travelling *to*, and what is in *between* them. Globalisation is when what is similar becomes different and what is different becomes similar. Globalisation is the meeting between the local and the global and vice versa. To sum up here, globalisation is multiple, full of complexities, and local and contextual contingencies. Globalisation in this study is specified as a particular case, so its complexities, contingency and contestation can be examined. For Vietnam, globalisation is the total of connections that Vietnam has with the world and that the world has with Vietnam.

As a social imaginary, globalisation signifies the dominance of the neoliberal imaginaries, market principles, and a minimalist role of the state, a deregulated labour market, and individualism. In higher education, globalisation is associated with the ICTs, the deeper engagement with the market, and new principles in governing higher education. Also in higher education, the global template of reforming higher education systems in developing countries includes (1) enhancing autonomy for higher education, (2) promoting competition between and amongst universities, (3) increasing the accountability of universities.

The changes reviewed imply the openness of educational systems to the world in promoting, receiving, reinventing and adapting to unpredictable changes from both sides of the world: global North and global South. Located in the heart of the discussion, higher education in Vietnam is situated in the middle of multiple influences: the country's history, its political economy, and culture. Vietnamese universities are not only under influences of globalisation but also the global model of higher education from the West with the increasing role of the market. However, it is interpreted in the Vietnamese way through the socialist ideology. No matter how open the system is to global tendencies, higher education in Vietnam remains the extension of Vietnamese characteristics, where

the making of its contemporary traits are Vietnamese history, culture, politics, economic desire and the globalised world of higher education. The difficulties in Vietnamese history left important influences on its higher education system that remain until today. It encompasses the Confucianism education-valued tradition but also the preferences for stability, fear of change, and a strong emphasis on theoretical knowledge.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the conceptual-contextual background has been set for this study. In this chapter, details of the methodology employed will be explained. Finlay & Ballinger (2006) demonstrated methodology in the yan-yin model bridging philosophy and research methods as in Figure 13. This model shows the consistency and balance of various elements of the methodology.



Figure 13: Methodology linking philosophy and methods (adapted from Finlay & Ballinger, 2006)

3.2 Research questions and aims

This thesis addresses three research questions:

1. What are the influences of globalisation on the Agenda of reforming Vietnamese higher education 2006-2020?
2. How have the practices of the public universities in Vietnam changed as a result of this Agenda?
3. What are the perspectives of university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders towards reforming higher education in Vietnam?

The aims of this study are summarised as a critical analysis of Vietnamese higher education *from national to global and back* (see Chapter 1, page 16) as in Table 2 below

Table 2: Research aims

The aims	Purposes
VHE- <i>from national</i>	To characterise the national: the distinctive Vietnamese features within the policy, university and reform imaginaries.
VHE-(from national) <i>to global</i>	To understand the manifestation of the global in the policy, university and reform imaginaries: their responses and resistance.
VHE-(from national to global) <i>and back</i>	To widen the discussion on educational policy in Vietnam as well as the comparative studies related to the system of higher education in Vietnam.

In order to realise these aims, I designed this study in two parts: policy analysis and case study (Figure 14).

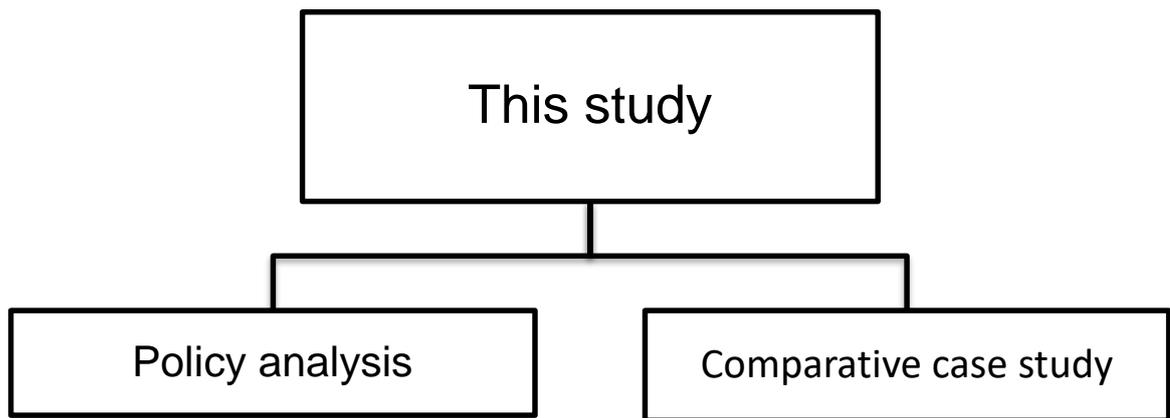


Figure 14: Two parts of the research design in this study

3.3 Philosophical stance

In this study, I take the stance of critical interpretivism (Figure 15) by combining interpretivism with the critical stance in policy sociology to closely analyse the influences of globalisation on policy, university and individual views on reforming higher education in Vietnam.

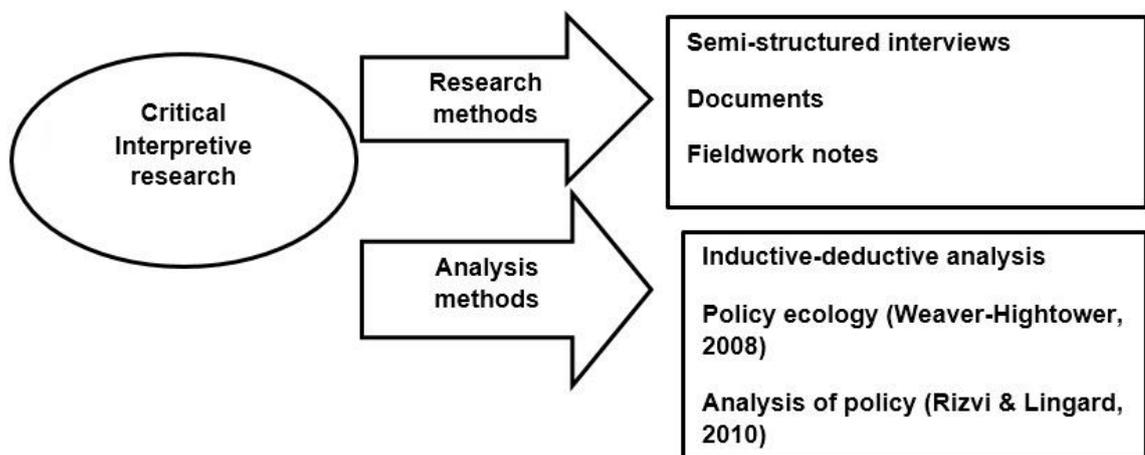


Figure 15: Critical interpretive research paradigm in this study

Miles and Huberman (1994) defined the combinations of epistemology as epistemological integrity. This combination widens the landscape of seeing and understanding for the researcher in

comparison with the single view in epistemological purity. In this study, the complexity of contextual factors of higher education policy in Vietnam, the diversity in perceptions of the participants, and the differences in university types, generate plural forms of realities and views that challenge the single epistemological approach. As such, I decided to combine epistemological stances in which knowledge is obtained through two methods of inquiry. One is from the analysis of policy and another is from the analysis of change in universities and participants' views.

3.3.1 This study: an interpretive research

I constructed this study from the interpretive stance in which I seek to interpret different meanings, ideologies, as well as social practices underpinning the Agenda and its journey to universities. The interpretive nature is reflected in the interpretation of the urgency of changes in the Agenda, in the reinterpretation of this Agenda into the universities context, and the interpretation of this reinterpretation in the perspectives of participants. The interpretive nature is also evident in the narrative accounts of university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders in reconstructing the reform agenda. Thus, knowledge is interpretive and "*in-here*" rather than "*out-there*" or "*elsewhere*" (Crotty, 1998, p.23). The interpretive research enables the openness and flexibility in interpreting the multiple forms of realities that are subject to change and need interpreting rather than measuring (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2010).

This interpretive stance manifests in the understanding of policy as text, discourse, process and social imaginary (Ball, 1993; Gale, 2003; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). The Agenda itself carries within it multiple interpretations in different contexts and by different agencies. I could not analyse the Agenda in relation to other policy texts related to VHE as suggested by Weaver-Hightower policy exists in contingency with a wide range of ecological factors such as history, culture, politics, as well contexts. Furthermore, the interpretive stance allows me to understand multiple influences within the Agenda as "*a play in and play of meaning*" (Ball, 1993, p. 17).

The analysis of policy is one part of this study, in another part is the interpretive paradigm that allows me to understand the contexts within the contexts. In other words, the multiple dimensions of interpretivist reality are supportive for one of my research aims: seeking the multiple facets of the Agenda from the plural views of related insiders. Each insider has a different view towards the policy

problems. In this case, the policy problem is also the answer to the question of “what to reform” in public universities. For example, different participants based on their positions and locations interpreted the question “*In your opinion, what is the motivation of reforming VHE?*” differently.

Furthermore, the reflexive interpretivist feature allowed me to draw on both contextual factors and layers of views, and analyse broader contexts of national and global emergent factors influencing the Agenda. It gave me the space to compare and contrast what was proposed by the Agenda of government with what the participants proposed in their views. Given the fact that data for this study were collected from different groups of leaders within different types of public universities located in different areas of Vietnam, viewing reality as multiple (as in the interpretive paradigm) rather than singular (as in the positivist paradigm) is important. By doing that, I can be open and receptive to a number of perspectives rather than hold to one rigid reality. The openness of this paradigm allows me to adapt to the culture of participants to learn from it. Another reason that makes this paradigm fit my study is its interest in understanding “*why people do what they do and how they do it in certain ways*”, or “*why particular institutions exist and operate in certain ways*” (Bryman, 2015, p.25). These questions guided me during the research journey from the research design and data collection period to the period of data analysis and documenting this thesis.

However, the interpretivist paradigm is appropriate but not sufficient, as the aims of this study go a bit further than interpreting realities by describing them. It also comments on these realities and recommends changes in the voice of an academic. These recommendations are more “*of policy*” (for the purpose of academics) than “*for policy*” (for the use of policy-makers) (Gordon et al, 1977; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). Thus, my paradigm is not only to tell a story and to understand the phenomenon, but to also comment on it. Another explanation for the insufficiency of this approach is the policy-related nature of this study. In addition to understanding policy as text, policy is also a power relation through “*the production of truth and knowledge as discourses*” (Maguire & Ball, 1994, p.24). Drawing on Foucault (1977), Ball (1993) elaborated discourses as

Discourses are "practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak ... Discourses are not about objects; they do not identify objects, they constitute them and in the practice of doing so conceal their own invention" (Foucault 1977 p.49). Discourses are about what can be said, and thought, but also about who can speak, when, where and with what authority. Discourses embody the meaning and use of propositions and words (Ball, 1993, p. 14).

From this definition, Ball (1993) expands Foucault's (1977) definition of discourses with the emphasis on the "*who can speak*" (policy actors) and "*where, when, and with what authority*" (contexts of policymaking).

Thereby, the interpretive paradigm of understanding reality as socially constructed and multiple forms could be methodologically limited. As such, perceiving policy as discourse, I need to take the stance that extends beyond the interpretation of reality. Furthermore, the status of becomingness and unpredictability (Ball, 1993) and change (Heimans, 2012) of policy requires me to go further than the mere acceptance and description of reality. In addition to reading what is written in policy text, analysis of policy is required to read what is unwritten or the silent expression in policy (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). Another requirement is the necessity of "*thinking otherwise in thinking policy*" (Ball, 1993, p.15), which goes beyond what the interpretivist researcher does.

3.3.2 This study: a critical stance in policy sociology

In line with the interpretive paradigm, as a part of the epistemology integrity, I also adopted a critical stance in analysing the Agenda and incorporating changes and ideas of participants on their universities and on reforming Vietnamese higher education. This is a policy study that involves, in the most basic sense, the systematic collection and presentation of information. A useful definition of policy states that it can be seen as "*a web of decisions and actions that allocates values*" (Easton, 1953 cited in Rizvi and Lingard, 2010, p. 17) that gives emphasis to political authority, allocation or implementation processes and the values or ideology underpinning a particular policy (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). Rizvi and Lingard (2010) have argued that each element of this definition has been challenged to some extent by the multiple processes of globalisation whilst Gale (2003) highlighted the question of whose values and how these values are allocated during the policy process. Policy research is a type of research that can provide communities and decision-makers with useful recommendations and possible actions for resolving fundamental problems that policy seeks to address. Research *for* policy provides policy-makers with pragmatic, action-oriented recommendations for addressing an issue, question, or policy problem (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). A policy research effort begins with a social issue or question that evolves through a research process, whereby alternative policy actions for dealing with the problem are developed. For example, in this

study, such social issues include both globalisation and reforming Vietnamese higher education whereby the alternative actions were the participants' perspectives on reforming higher education without mentioning the Agenda as the reference point.

The critical stance in policy research adopted in this study is located within social science and informed by qualitative methods (Ozga, 1987). This policy sociology perspective has been used to highlight the ideologies and processes of policy production, and in relation to challenges within the Vietnamese higher education system. This approach can be contrasted with other policy research traditions which are largely "*technocratic and managerialist in orientation and concerned mainly with the implementation questions*" (Lingard, 1993, p.13). What is important in a policy sociology research perspective is the recognition that "*policy is texts and action, work and deeds; it is what is enacted as well as what is intended*" (Ball, 1993, p. 10). This perspective recognises the competing interests involved in the practices of producing policy, as well as focusing on the language of the actual policy text and what is actually enacted.

This approach also promotes the researcher to "*think otherwise*" (Ball, 1993, p.15) rather than to "think what", "think when", and "think where". Given the nature of this study, it is an understanding of what was before the Agenda and what is after this Agenda, as well as the views of elite participants within public universities, toward a general topic of reforming VHE. Thinking otherwise and having a certain level of suspicion allows me to know more of the easily knowable. Furthermore, the elite participants in this study (university leaders, teacher union leaders, student leaders and retired educational policy makers), the ones with a high sense of self-awareness, are cautious about their images and position. It is accepted that there is a certain level of self-censorship in their interviews. Thus, not all the information is reliable, which requires me to re-check the information and be critical.

Finally, the critical stance that I take does not imply the motivation to challenge reality and bring about immediate changes. Due to the nature of the interpretivist paradigm, I am part of the researched issues: researching myself from what I have researched. By which I mean, the social and political ontology is filtered, primarily, through my world-view. It is a meaning-making and social-reading science. This study is for the purpose of my PhD, as its author I am under no political agenda, however, policy is power and politics-oriented. This means that in the discussion of factors

influencing the reform of VHE, this study includes political contexts and related factors. I support the function of knowledge that is oriented to “*for somebody and for something*” (Leysens, 2008, p.25). The political values of knowledge are not something emphasised in an epistemological sense in my approach. Acknowledging the situatedness of knowledge as well as its nature of cultural and historical contingency is a feature of critical research.

3.4 Policy analysis: analysis of policy and policy ecology

The Agenda was analysed using Rizvi and Lingard’s (2010) analysis of policy and Weaver-Hightower’s (2008) policy ecology framework from the stance of critical policy sociology. These two analysis frameworks are complimentary to each other in specifying the case of the Agenda in reforming higher education in Vietnam for two reasons.

First, in policy ecology, policy is not only defined as texts and discourses but texts and discourses that contribute to its context. Weaver-Hightower (2008) acknowledges the existence of policy in general contexts (economic, political, cultural, social and ideological contexts) forming human society. As such, analysing policy requires the consideration of the contextual and social factors beyond the discourses and texts within policy documents. In analysis of policy, Rizvi and Lingard (2010) considered that the local and national contexts influencing the policies do not exist independently of the global contexts. Thus, Rizvi and Lingard (2010) emphasised the importance of intentional consideration of the global influence in analysing policy.

These approaches will be applied in analysing the Agenda as follows:

- The out-of-policy contexts that existed beyond the policy texts and discourses as suggested by Weaver-Hightower (2008) will be considered
- The in-policy contexts and the in-policy discourses that are globalised as suggested by Rizvi and Lingard (2010) will be considered

Second, Rizvi and Lingard’s (2010) framework shared commonality with Weaver-Hightower’s (2010) policy ecology in the discussion of contextual factors. However, the difference lies in the specificities in each category: context, policy, text, implementation and outcomes. Under these categories, Rizvi and Lingard’s (2010) list of analysis questions on issues regarding the policy itself, the internal

discourses, the implementation and evaluation, were examined in greater detail. The ecology framework suggests the importance of elements within society toward the policy, whilst in the analysis of policy framework emphasises the role of policy towards these elements. In other words, the former framework was about environment to the policy whilst the latter was about the policy towards the environment. By combining these two approaches in analysing the Agenda, they can capture the entire journey by analysing educational policies and embracing both externally-influenced factors and internally-influenced factors.

This commonality and these differences were manifested in the Agenda

- The in-policy contexts are the outcome of the analysis of text and discourses within the Agenda (guided by Rizvi and Lingard's (2010) *Key questions when analysing education policy* (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, p.55)
- The out-of policy contexts are the outcome of the analysis of the social, political, and cultural factors existing externally to the Agenda and the analysis of the environmental factors within the Agenda ecology (guided by Weaver-Hightower's model of policy ecology) in which Weaver-Hightower (2008) argued for the "everything" stance. This "every" factor and person might be explained by the view that in social science as well as in an education policy context "*Everything is related to everything else*" (Easter, 1954 cited in Weaver-Hightower, 2008, p.155).

However, one element that both approaches fail to convey in analysing the policy with an extended timeline (as in the Agenda) is the situational feature. In particular, the continuity of political influences and support will not remain the same for the policy with extended timeframe. The involvement of political influences and support has a crucial role in the feasibility of this type of policy. Thus, the global and national influences as well as other ecological factors might all be secondary to the political support for policies with extended timeframe.

3.4.1 Analysis of policy

Rizvi and Lingard (2010) pointed out that policy research is conducted for a range of purposes making a distinction between analysis of policy and analysis for policy. The former tends to be academic and exploratory in nature, and the latter is typically conducted for the development of

policy. Both types of analyses have political influence, and the practical implication of this distinction is that they involve different theoretical and methodological boundaries and commitments.

Policy analysis must involve asking the following questions:

- Who is doing the policy research?
- What is the purpose?
- What is the context?

In addition to having different purposes, policy research deals with a range of different foci from how policy problems are constructed and framed to how policies are implemented. The authors provide a helpful framework for critical inquiry in approaching policy analysis. The first question, *Who is doing the policy research*, emphasised the positionality of the analysts, which include the place where the analysts speak from, their epistemology, ontology and methodology chosen to examine the policy. The second question, *What is the purpose*, is associated with the above explanation of doing analysis of policy or for policy. The third question, *What is the context*, is linked to the *Key questions in doing analysis of policies* that were developed by Rizvi and Lingard (2010, p.55). These questions are categorised under three groups: *Contextual Issues*, *Policy and Textual Issues*, *Implementation and Outcomes*. Under each category, a number of questions are set as a suggestion for the analysts to consider.

This framework also highlights the importance of considering issues around the context of policy conceptualisation and the development and adoption in the analysis. They enumerate a number of contextual considerations which include looking at where the policy originated, which local and global actors have been instrumental in establishing a policy agenda for it, and why the policy has been adopted at a particular point in time. As for studying the policy itself, proposed questions include analysing how the policy has constructed the problem which it intends to solve, which interests are reflected in the policy texts and how they have been negotiated, and whether the nation has used globalised discourses to justify the enactment of the policy (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). They note that it is important to consider both production and implementation.

3.4.2 Policy ecology

In policy ecology, Weaver-Hightower (2008) emphasises the interrelated factors of complexity within the policy environments. He acknowledged internal elements within a policy from social, political, economic, cultural, and religious contexts.

A policy ecology consists of the policy itself along with all of the texts, histories, people, places, groups, traditions, economic and political conditions, institutions, and relationships that affect it or that it affects. Every contextual factor and person contributing to or influenced by a policy in any capacity both before and after its creation and implementation is a part of a complex ecology (Weaver-Hightower, 2008, p. 155).

The diversity and complexity of factors and their interrelated nature in the policy ecology required the analyst to contextualise it in a broader context. In other words, there is a contingency between the national factors within a global context. The context of reforming higher education in Vietnam needs to be considered under the broader context of the world and other relevant global factors. These elements are helpful in unpacking the complexity within the life of a policy: from the people involved in the policy making process, to different actors that the policy is delivered to and from, to their nature of co-existence during this process, to the implementation contexts and the implementation itself. However, in order to fully cover each of these factors, the analyst might be at risk of overstating the contexts and external factors influencing the policy. To sum up, the ecology framework facilitates the understanding and analysis of externally-influenced factors rather than the intricacy inside the policy.

3.5 Case studies

The second part of this study uses multiple case studies. Yin (2014) defined the case study as an inquiry that involves the investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context. From this definition, he also elaborated that the case study is the study of particularisation rather than generalisation. Merriam (1998) further categorised case studies into: cases chosen for the primary interest in the case (intrinsic case) or the interest in the case is secondary to other interest (instrumental case) and multiple cases.

In this study, each university is not only an instrumental case but also an intended place of policy implementation (a site) for the two following reasons. First, each of the three universities is a case because of my interest in the study of the particularisation of institutional changes in relation to the Agenda. Also each university is a case for the purpose of researching the research question on 'how

the practices of public universities have changed as a result of this Agenda'. Second, each university is also an intended place of policy implementation (a site), particularly in relation to how the Agenda is interpreted differently.

The three universities are multiple case studies for their commonalities in researching the Agenda. These three universities are illustrations of three types of public universities in Vietnam under the management of the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET). They are linked together as three cases and three sites enabling me to investigate the route of the Agenda in public universities. Therefore, these three universities are three individual cases of multiple case studies.

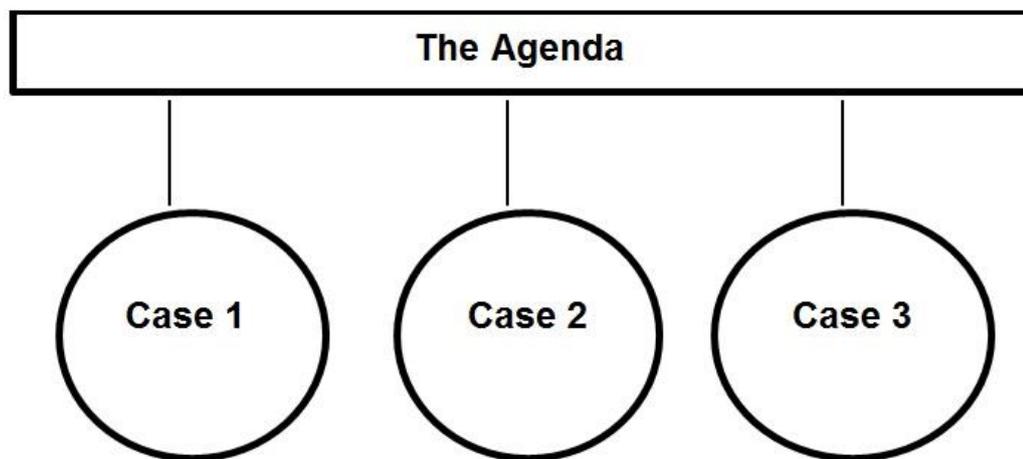


Figure 16: Three cases under the Agenda

Three cases in this study are tied together under the same context of the Agenda as in Figure 16 above. The cases chosen for the study are restricted within the practice or implementation of a policy. In this study, each university chosen is one case. Each case is an integrated system examined from the inside and the outside. The inside approach includes interviewing the participants, fieldwork notes and the researcher exploring into the culture and atmosphere of these chosen universities. The outside approach is the case context, documents and information I obtained about the university as secondary data. All these collected data are situated within the boundary of the university as a case.

Multiple case studies are compatible with my study for (1) its particularisation, (2) its flexibility, and (3) the purposes of the research questions.

First, case studies match with my critical interpretive stance in extending the researched phenomenon in its natural settings and its particularisation capability. A case study is emphasised by Merriam (1998) as the study of particularisation. This feature is in line with my interest in unpacking the particular manifestation of the Agenda in each university context. In other words, among the aims, there is one: collecting the particular before adding them into the bigger picture of higher education in Vietnam.

Second, case studies allow me to be flexible in coping with the unplanned situation in the fieldwork. A case study has been identified by Bryman (2015) as offering flexibility in data collection as well as providing diverse data sources. He also emphasised that this strength allows the richest understanding possible which is helpful in case interpretation and cross-case comparison (Bryman, 2015).

Thirdly, case studies are appropriate when the researcher seeks the answers for the “how” and the “what” in research questions and investigates the case in its real context (Yin, 2013). In other words, case study is the study of the “how” and of the “what” in a particular situation/context. I designed this study with both how and what in the research questions.

Three universities (3 cases) in this study formed multiple case studies. Choosing multiple cases instead of a single case requires the necessity to explore multiple facets of a certain phenomenon that might be implemented differently in different places. Using a single case in this study is not sufficient to convey the various aspects of the Agenda when it becomes practice in different universities. Therefore, employing multiple cases is necessary. The same Agenda would be interpreted differently in different types of public universities. Accordingly, each site might be the subject of an individual case whilst the study as a whole would employ multiple cases.

3.6 Research Samples

Samples in this study include the choice of three public universities and participants in each of these universities. This sampling process was based on my experiences and mainly purposive. I followed the question “*who or what is likely to provide the best information?*” (Denscombe, 2014, p. 17). The sampling was also allocated based on my priorities, research timescale, feasibility and accessibility.

Samples comprised the selection of public universities (case selection) and participant selection. In three cases (CCU, STU, and UEMR), the participants (university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders) were:

1. Presidents/Rectors
2. Head of human resources department
3. Head of training department
4. Head of research department
5. Head of international relation department
6. Head of teacher union
7. Head of student union

However, a number of emergent situations came up. In this study, sampling emerged during the research in the fieldwork which required my flexible response. This is one of the actual situations that emerged in my fieldwork when I was introduced to a member of the network by a participant. That person requested an interview immediately after the phonecall, as he had no more availability left for the whole month. Therefore, without being responsive and flexible, I could have lost an informative interview with relevant information and insights.

3.6.1 Case selections

The three universities chosen in this study are public universities. They are the major source providing higher education for Vietnamese people. For example, as demonstrated in Chapter 1 and 2, despite the State's encouragement of expanding the private higher education, the enrolment rate from 2005 to 2015 has never been over 15% compared to the public higher education enrolments. Although there has been an emergence of private universities, these institutions only accounted for 20% of the national total (Hayden & Khanh, 2010). They remain a second priority to public universities (Hayden et al., 2012). Another reason that makes private universities under represented is the social prejudice in Vietnam that private universities are secondary to public universities. There are a number of factors that make private universities less popular with Vietnamese students such as higher tuition fees, low training quality, insufficient academic staff and social discrimination against qualifications gained from private universities. In addition, the incomplete legal framework for the operational

mechanism is another challenge that Vietnamese private universities are now facing. Therefore, public universities are targeted as the sites of investigation for this study.

The three universities chosen for this study are:

1. The Capital City University (CCU)
2. Science and Technology University (STU)
3. University of Economics as University of Economics, the University of Middle Region (UEMR)

For ethical reasons, each university was referred to by pseudonyms and were selected for their differences in:

1. Organisation structure
2. Disciplines and research
3. Location

These three universities are among three different types of public universities in Vietnam: regional universities, key universities and regular universities (without being in national, regional, or key university groups). All three universities chosen are under the management of MOET. The “regular” university is in the group of universities that traditionally offer mono-disciplined programmes. These three categories are explained as follows:

1. *Regional universities or universities of the country's major economic zones (UEMR)*: This is the title given to universities located in the important economic zones of the country. They were established in 1993. They are multiple disciplinary universities located in the important cities and provinces across Vietnam and under the governance of MOET.
2. *Key universities (STU)*: This is entitled as one of the 18 key universities in Vietnam categorised by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) in Circulation No.1269. Compared to regional universities, the majority of key universities are smaller in scale.
3. *Regular universities (CCU)*: These universities are those not categorised into the two groups of universities above. They are usually the mono-disciplinary universities resembling the Soviet model of higher education, established in the 1950s when the country was North-

South divided and received major support from brother socialist countries including the Soviet Union.

These universities would possibly provide an overall picture of different types of public universities in Vietnam with different levels of autonomy and importance. Although there has been a wide debate in Vietnamese society on the criteria of ranking universities within the country, these universities are known as the most desirable for Vietnamese students. They are amongst the top universities in Vietnam according to a ranking web of universities (Webometrics, 2016).

Another criterion for case selection is the difference in the disciplines and research. According to Becher and Kogan (1992), the academic disciplines and research can be categorised into hard/soft and pure/applied. Using this category, the three chosen universities can be categorised as follows.

Table 3: Major disciplines of three public universities in this study

Universities	Disciplines/Fields	Categories
CCU	Foreign languages	Soft and applied
STU	Science and technology	Hard and applied
UEMR	Economics	Soft and pure

The final selection criteria of these sample cases are their locations, spreading from the North and the Middle of the country. These universities are located from the North to the Middle region of Vietnam, representing the country's differences in location and cultural features. CCU and STU are located in Hanoi whilst UEMR is based in Danang. The North and the Middle of Vietnam portray the strong influence of the Confucian and Soviet model of higher education, while Southern Vietnamese education has a more Western influence (Hayden & Thiep, 2007).

Table 4: Three universities in this study

Features	CCU	STU	UEMR
Types	Regular university	Key university	Regional university
Established year	1959	1956	1975
Location	Hanoi	Hanoi	Danang

3.6.2 Participant selections

Initially, I planned to recruit three groups of participants: university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders as in Figure 17 (below). However, coming to the fieldwork there were two emergent groups: retired senior policy-makers and retired university presidents, which added in opportunistic interviews to this study. Although these emergent participants are now retired, they were the Policy Panel that developed the Agenda. It is possible that they know more about their fields than their contemporary counterparts. Despite being retired, they were the real insiders with invaluable information about the Agenda. This means that they were added to the existing participants of this study comprising rectors/presidents, heads of the functional departments, heads of teacher unions and student leaders.

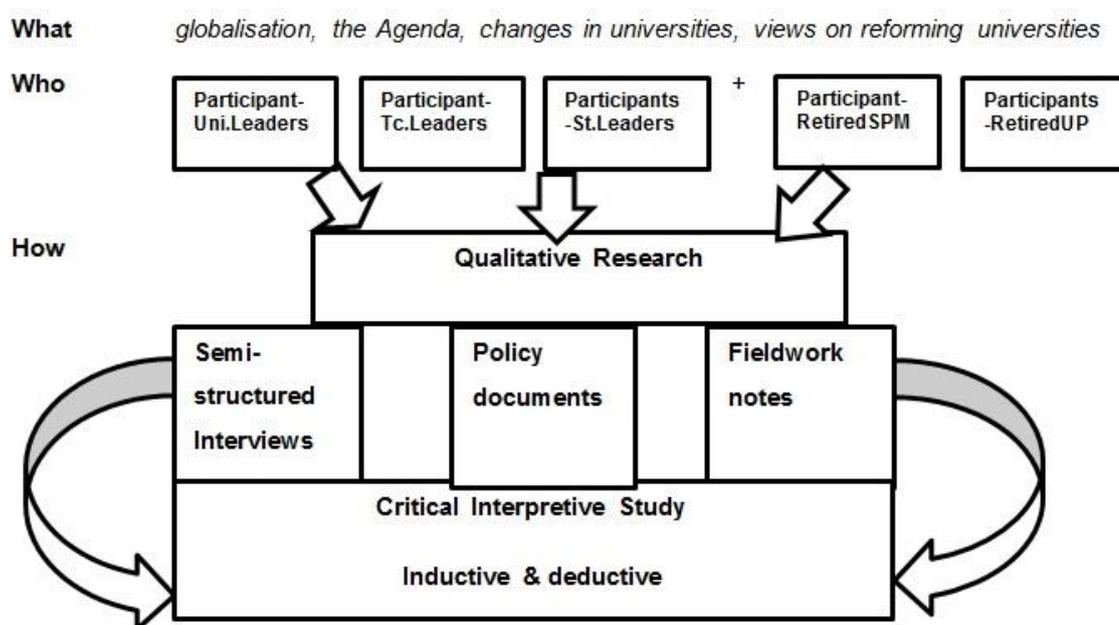


Figure 17: Designing this study

In Article 14 of Law on Higher Education and University Regulations (Circulation 70/2014/QĐ-TTg), the functional departments/bodies have the duty of advising and supporting rectors/presidents in managing, synthesising, and proposing opinions and organising tasks according to the function and duty given.

A part of this study is about the changes within these universities in the context of the Agenda; as such targeting the department heads is a strategy to understand these specialised departments and changes happening within them. Approaching them is another way of listening to the university rectors/presidents in a more specialised way. The departments chosen in this study are

1. Department of Training
2. Department of Research and Technology
3. International Relations
4. Human Resources

However, these department heads, as well as the university rectors/presidents, might not have the same views in interpreting changes and reforming universities as the representatives of lecturers and students. That is the reason why two more groups of participants were chosen:

1. Teacher Union
2. Student Union

One of the functions of the Teacher Union is to represent the lecturing staff of universities. The Teacher Union within each university belongs to the Vietnamese General Confederation of Labour. However, funding for the operation of the teacher union also comes from the university where it is based. These participants' groups contributed to the various voices within public universities in each chosen case. They are all leaders in their working environments and have detailed understanding and experience in dealing with their universities development strategies as well as the key education policies from the Ministry of Education and Training.

Furthermore, student leaders were selected for this study although in 2005, when the Agenda was enacted, they were still at their senior or junior high school. They are the representatives of the student community in their universities. As student leaders, they have a certain level of knowledge about their own universities and Student Union policies. Therefore, what they said as either a student or as a student leader are both valuable for the purposes of this study. Student Unions in most universities in Vietnam are operated under the guidance of the Ho Chi Minh Communist Youth Union. These two agencies are comparable to the law-making (Ho Chi Minh Communist Youth Union) and law-implementing agencies. Members for both organisations are students. In administrative

procedure, the Secretary of the Ho Chi Minh Communist Youth Union is a member of the university staff but leaders of the Student Union are students.

3.7 Research Methods

This study employed three research methods: semi-structured interviews, fieldwork notes and policy documents. Although there are differences in their forms and content, they all facilitated the collection of rich qualitative data and they complement each other. What I failed to collect from the interviews could be compensated by the sources of documentary information.

3.7.1 Interviews

In this study, I chose a semi-structured interview approach as the means of research method for its flexibility as well as effectiveness in gaining insights into changes in universities as well as reforming higher education in Vietnam (VHE).

Actual interviews in this study

From 5 November 2015 to 15 January 2016, I went to Vietnam to do my fieldwork in the proposed universities in Hanoi and Danang. Guided by the proposals within the Agenda and the analysis of policy (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010), 22 semi-structured interviews were conducted with different participants from three different types of public universities, six unscheduled interviews happened emergently. The data collection journey was filled with big and small discoveries where I was treated as both an insider and outsider in different universities. I started at CCU, a “regular” university located in the West of Hanoi then travelled to the “key” university (STU) near the city centre. In the middle of December, I travelled to Danang, a city in the middle of Vietnam, to visit the “regional” university (UEMR).

I first contacted these universities and participants via emails, telephone and by office-door knocking. All the participants were emailed with attachments of an introductory letters from the President of my university in Hanoi and my supervisors from the University of Huddersfield, a description of the study, and a consent form. Four participants responded and arranged the time for interviews. For the rest of the participants, I approached them via phone calls and visiting their offices. Being leaders, most of the participants were busy and could only spare about half an hour for one interview. In some

cases, the deputy heads were the substitute participants for the department heads because they refused to participate/ they had no time/ they were newly retired. One interview was on Skype as the department head was overseas. Another interview with a student leader was via email. All the other interviews were face-to-face.

Before each interview, I asked for permission to record the interviews for research purposes (using anonymous names with a generic professional position). All the participants are leaders, including student leaders. In a way, they are all elite participants who are in close proximity to power and familiar with giving speeches and interviews (Bozoki, 2011). They easily recognised who they were talking to and from this observation were able to direct what they wanted to talk. Most of them asked to see the questions prior to the interview and negotiated the duration of the interview. However, information gained from all these interviews was relevant and useful, including both policy-makers and policy-implementers.

Distribution of interviews in each university

Among three universities, CCU allowed me full access to necessary institutional documents via the CCU's Department of Administrative Organisation whilst there was a limited access to the same resources in STU and UEMR. Each of the STU's and UEMR's documents is required to be approved and signed by their presidents before sharing to the related individuals and agencies.

Table 5: Accessing three universities

University	Participated/Refused	Notes
CCU	Fully participated	With full access to necessary institutional documents
STU	Participated	With moderate access to necessary institutional documents
UEMR	Participated	With moderate access to necessary institutional documents
HCMIU University	Refused	Refused

Table 6: Three participative universities

Universities	Disciplines/Fields	Duration of fieldwork	Established in
CCU	Foreign languages	11/11 -27/11/2015	1959
STU	Science and technology	27/11-7/12/2015	1956
UEMR	Economics	21/12-31/12/2015	1975

Amongst three groups of participants, I was only allowed access to the university president at STU. He agreed to carry out the interview whilst he was signing a number of documents. The interview was brief as the president refused to comment on the Agenda as well as to give his opinions on the current system of higher education in Vietnam. He was newly appointed as the university president having been in this position for about 4 months at the time of the interview.

Interviews with the retired elites

In addition to these proposed participants, there were two emergent groups of retired participants who are experts in higher education, as well as senior policy makers as in Table 7.

Table 7 : Emergent and opportunistic interviews

Participants	Former title	Date	Duration	Number of interviews
Retired senior policy maker 1	Head of higher education department, Ministry of Education and Training	16/11/2015	60 minutes	2
		17/11/2013	30 minutes	
Retired senior policy maker 2	Deputy head of higher education department, Ministry of Education and Training	16/11/2015	50 minutes	2
		30/11/2015	30 minutes	
Retired president of STU	The newly-retired President of STU	30/11/2015	70 minutes	2
		02/12/2015	50 minutes	

The first retired senior policy-maker is a well-known expert in higher education research in Vietnam. He was recommended to me by the Head of the Human Resource Department at my university in Hanoi. After this expert interview, I was introduced to the second retired senior policy-maker who used to be his deputy and shared similar opinions about reforming higher education. Interviewing these experts provided an invaluable source of information for me on the formation of the Agenda. They were the key members in the Policy Panel that developed the Agenda. The third participant in this group was well-known within his university for being a reform-minded leader and supporting autonomy for university. There were two interviews with this retired university president focusing on both his university and reforming VHE in general.

Interviewing these three retired experts has a number of advantages. For example, they are the ones who have time for professional self-reflection, thus their views after their entire careers are unique. Another advantage includes their availability and suitability. They are easier to access and can speak freely without constraints compared with the non-retired participants. However, they are people with a high sense of self-awareness with or without being retired, the possibility of providing information to maintain their name should be considered (Walford, 2011).

In addition, I was introduced to a named researcher on Vietnamese culture and a retired Minister of the previous Ministry of Science Technology and Environment who is known in the media for his critical views on VHE. However, the conversations with him were more about the humanistic philosophy of education and the problematic issues for Vietnamese learners in approaching education than about the focus of this study. Therefore, these conversations might be used as supplementary sources for the main groups of participants chosen.

Regarding the participation of university insiders, there is no similarity in the number of participants among cases. This could be a challenge for the cross-case comparison. Different participation in each university can be seen in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Actual participants in three universities

Participants as proposed	CCU	STU	UEMR
Presidents/Rectors	Refused but agreed to share documents	Refused but agreed to talk while he was signing documents and only answered relevant questions	Refused because of being fully occupied with meetings
Head of human resources department	Refused	Refused	Refused
Head of training department	Participated	Refused	Participated
Head of research department	Participated	Refused	Participated
Head of international relation department	Participated	Participated	Participated
Head of teacher union	Participated	Participated	Participated
Head of student union	Participated	Participated	Participated

As proposed in the case study section, the use of cases in this study is a part of understanding the policy agenda, the “what is after” the Agenda. In other words, the second research question that this study seeks to answer is the outcome that the Agenda has brought about in changing the practice of public universities. Thus, the insufficient and inconsistent participation among cases can be compensated for by the use of secondary resources such as documents and information on the university websites.

Details of each interview

Details of the interviews carried with each participant in each university are illustrated in three tables (Table 9, Table 10 and Table 11) below.

Table 9 : Actual interviews in CCU

Participants		Date	Duration	Notes
University president		N/A (sharing institutional documents if necessary)		
Head of	Teacher Union	11/11/2015	33 minutes	
	Student Union	13/11/2015	35 minutes	University staff
	Student Union	20/11/2015	Email answer	Student
	Student Union	13/11/2015	25 minutes	Ho Chi Minh Communist Youth Union
	Training Department (deputy)	14/11/2015	60 minutes	on behalf of the newly-retired department head
	Scientific Research	17/11/2015	30 minutes	
	International Relations	27/11/2015	40 minutes	Skypes

Table 10 : Actual interviews in STU

Participants		Date	Duration	Notes
University president		27/11/2015	25 minutes	Answering while signing documents
Head of	Teacher Union (deputy)	07/12/2015	35 minutes	
	Student Union	1/12/2015	30 minutes	
	Training Department	N/A		
	Scientific Research	N/A		
	International Relations	18/12/2015	35 minutes	
	International Relations (deputy)	7/12/2015	40 minutes	

Table 11 : Actual interviews in UEMR

Participants		Date	Duration
Rector		N/A	
Head of	Training Department	21/12/2015	41 minutes
	Teacher Union	22/12/2015	30 minutes
	Research Department	23/12/2015	35 minutes
	International Relations	23/12/2015	35 minutes
	Student Union	24/12/2015	30 minutes

3.7.2 Fieldwork notes

Fieldwork notes include participant observation notes and general notes about each university. These notes are unstructured and mainly based on what I felt important and sensed as relevant to the analysis stage. They are considered as unofficial methods as I planned to use them as the supplementary evidence for analysing interviews and universities as cases. These notes are unstructured and include a range of issues from slogans and announcements in the university buildings, time and space of the interviews, especially how I got the interview, to the impressions of the participants, students, local people inside and outside the campus and the emotional journey while talking and listening to each participant.

3.7.3 Documents

A further research method employed in this study to collect data was the use of documents. Data in documents are used in the same manner as data from the semi-structured interviews. These documents include government and institutional policy documents that I collected during the fieldtrip from the universities. Compared with the interview method, the documents have the benefit of being ready for analysis without the time-consuming process of transcription.

3.8 Data analysis

In this study, data analysis refers to the analysis of

- the semi-structured interviews
- documents
- fieldwork notes

- cases

The purposes of the analyses are to find out

1. What are the influences of globalisation on the Agenda of reforming higher education in Vietnam 2006 -2020?
2. How have the practices of the public universities in Vietnam changed as a result of this Agenda?
3. What are the perspectives of university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders towards reforming higher education in Vietnam?

Under these questions, this study seeks to understand context, people, and interactions: *how context influences the reform, how people see the reform, how various actors are involved in the reform.* Data not only helped me to describe the situation but also to gain an insight into the practices. I approached the analysis using both the *explanatory manner* (guided by the research questions) and the *exploratory manner* (guided by the data) and both deductive and inductive approach (Denscombe, 2014). In particular, data analyses were drawn on using framework analysis including both policy analysis (analysis of policy and policy ecology) and the theoretical framework. However, this framework was used as the guideline, rather than a fixed model as it can be modified to accommodate the emergence of unexpected themes.

3.8.1 Language of analysis: Vietnamese and English

Data for this study, both the interview data and policy documents, are in Vietnamese whilst the entire research is documented in English. This poses challenges for analysis due to the link between language and the rigour of qualitative research (Van den Berg, 2008). I chose to keep Vietnamese as the language of analysis in both texts (policy, institutional documents, and other related texts) and interview language. After the interview transcription, they are all textual documents. However, the interview transcription also conveys other unwritten impressions and reflections from the fieldwork. Keeping Vietnamese at the initial period of analysis is important. As a Vietnamese researcher, Vietnamese language enables me to be able go beyond what is written in the texts and explore their connotations, their etymologies as well as the impressions attached to certain words, or phrases which came up during the interviews and the repetition of texts in policy documents. Doing so enables

me to link them together in a systematic manner. In this way, the originality and authenticity of the Vietnamese data can be ensured. As such, the analytical openness in qualitative research can be maintained (Smith, Chen, & Liu, 2008).

The translation option might enable the uniformity of data under the condition that data were translated by one person and that the glossaries are used in a systematic manner from the beginning to the end of the data translation process. However, such a condition might be challenged, given the wealth of information from interview transcriptions as well as the time required for translation. Another consideration is that translation is never innocent given the multiple layers of meaning in Vietnamese words as well as the expressions used in policy documents and the language used in the interview. Translation might be the quick-fix solution in giving Vietnamese concepts certain English word choices rather than taking them as they are in the middle of the data. Although the analysis outcome was written in English, the process leading to such an outcome has filtered the key concepts in a systematic and structured manner.

Another issue is the matter of accuracy of translated concepts, in particular key concepts in policy documents. For example, the rhetorical message of the role of the Party, the State and the People in higher education reform in a number of Vietnamese policy documents was translated as “*career*” as in Table 12 whilst it will convey more of its overall meaning if it is translated as “*responsibility*”. Although in Vietnamese text, the literal meaning of the concept “*sự nghiệp*” is career, the translated version of reforming higher education as a career does not seem to make sense. However, this “*career*” translated version is widely in use in international media sources and English translated versions of Vietnamese policy documents.

Table 12: Example on the accuracy of a translated concept

Vietnamese text example	English translated examples
“ <i>Đổi mới</i> giáo dục đại học (higher education reform) là (is) sự nghiệp (the career) của (of) Đảng (the Party), Nhà Nước (the State) và Nhân Dân (the People)”.	Translated version 1 – Higher education reform is the career of the Party, the State, and the People. Translated version 2 – Higher education reform is the responsibility of the Party, the State, and the People.

3.8.2 Words that are typical to Vietnamese

There are a number of Vietnamese words that cannot be translated directly into English. Examples of these are the words with cultural and historical etymologies typically belonging to a certain context and locality. As such, the direct translation might easily lead to misunderstandings. Take the multiple-meaning words, for example. Their translation can only convey one meaning while the intended meanings might be different. Thus, by maintaining data in the original language, the wealth of data can be preserved that enhances the diversity in what is discovered. One specific example for this study is the translation of the term *Đổi mới*. Although *Đổi mới* means “Reform” in nature, it has been used in Vietnamese language literally as “Renovation”. According to the explanation of one participant in this study, the connotation of the word “Reform” is the complete change of realities that implied the inappropriateness of what had been done before. Using the word “Reform” is synonymous with the eradication of seeds growing from the past, whilst “Renovation” is used with a more past-respectful implication.

3.8.3 Use of metaphors

Another characteristic of the Vietnamese data in this study is the frequent use of metaphors. According to Vu (2007), the Vietnamese have the habit of using the tangible to name the intangible via the use of the metaphor. For example, the abstract notion of “nation” is called “land-sea” in Vietnamese. In this study, the metaphor was used widely from students, to teachers and university leaders in expressing their views. Universities were compared with football players on the field, whilst the referees are the Ministry of Education and Training and other related ministries. Motivation for students was compared with “*the fuel for a motorbike*”.

STU's university president:

The government give the Ministry of Education and Training the authority as the referee, the one who can whistle in the stadium. But now, there are so many referees in addition to the Ministry of Education, a number of other Ministries are also referees such as the Ministry of Health, Ministry of Construction, and other Ministries. The Ministry of Education only has the authority of shaping the regulations of the games but not to terminate the other players that violate the laws.

Retired policy maker:

Let's think about public universities as children living under a common roof and the regulations and governance on these universities as the ceiling. With time, these children grow taller and the ceiling stops them from standing tall. Then one day, each child decides to dig a hole on the ceiling so they can stand up properly.

3.8.4 Quotations displayed in English

Identifying quotes to display in the final narration is an important part of analysing qualitative data.

This process goes with the translation of policy text and transcribed interview data from Vietnamese to English.

From the initial stage of getting familiar with the data (in Vietnamese) to the stage of getting themes (in English) and selecting the narrative quotes to present in the report (translating quotes from Vietnamese to English), the analysis (of interviews and cases) happened in 6 stages of thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998) as follows

1. Familiarisation with the data
2. Getting initial codes
3. Searching for themes
4. Reviewing themes
5. Defining and naming themes
6. Producing the report

Step 1- Familiarisation with the data
Prior to transcription: Familiarising myself with the interview data happened right at the moment of the interviews. I memorised impression on the time, place, space and other related issues.
After transcription: I re-read the transcribed documents and linked key information with the above impressions.

Step 2- Getting initial codes

I categorised participants' voices, views and commitments in three groups of (1) Vietnamese higher education system and policy (2) their universities (3) reforming Vietnamese higher education in general.

Step 3- Searching for themes

I wove together individual sets of initial codes for each interview and grouped commonalities together. This process was straightforward as the data came into three sets of participants (1) university leaders and retired senior officers, (2) teacher union leaders, (3) student union leaders. Themes on the system and policy were drawn from the first participant group, themes on individual universities by their relevant insiders and themes for the reform topic by all participants

Step 4- Reviewing themes

I examined the significance of themes toward the identified structure: which narrations have more potential than others. This step focused more on group (3) topic on participants' views on reforming Vietnamese higher education in which views of participants of three universities and the retired senior officers were linked together into a coherent narration with regard to leading, teaching and learning. However, there are cross-comments in which leaders comment on students and vice versa.

I selected quotes for narration and translated them into English.

Step 5- Defining and naming themes

On-going analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story that the analysis is telling, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.

An example of group 1: Higher education system and policy → Theme 1- In-policy contexts + quotes, Theme 2 – Out-of policy contexts + quotes

An example of group 2: The three universities: University of Capital City (CCU) → Theme 1- University name change + quotes, Theme 2 – CCU's identity + quotes, Theme 3 – Linking to the Agenda + quotes

An example of group 3: Reforming higher education → University leaders: Theme 1- Mass higher education + quotes, Theme 2-Curriculum in need of change + quotes, Theme 3-Conditional autonomy + quotes.

Step 6- Producing the reports

The final chance for analysis in which the most vivid accounts were chosen to be displayed and translated into English.

3.8.5 Analysis processes

One of the advantages in analysing data in this study is the clear categorisation in its research design. The policy idea travelled from the top-down system context, to the context of universities and the context of individuals within each university. In searching for themes from policy data, interview data and fieldwork notes, three key concerns anchored the processes including (1) Globalisation, the Vietnamese system of higher education and the Agenda related issues, (2) Changes constructed by participants in their universities and linking these changes to the Agenda, and (3) Opinions of participants regarding reforming Vietnamese higher education. This clear categorisation can be seen in Table 13.

Table 13: Data and data analysis

Research questions	Data	Analysis method
Globalisation and the Agenda	-Theoretical resources -Agenda document -Other related policy documents	<u>Literature analysis</u> Appadurai's (1996) vernacular globalisation Policy as text, discourse and process (Ball, 1993;Gale, 2003) <u>Policy analysis</u> Rizvi and Lingard's (2010) globalising educational policy and analysis of policy Policy ecology (Weaver-Hightower, 2008)
Changes in universities and the Agenda	-Interview data -Agenda document -Institutional documents -Other related policy documents	<u>Case analysis</u> CCU, STU, UEMR <u>Thematic analysis</u> 22 semi-structured interviews
Views on reforming higher education in Vietnam	-Interview data -Institutional documents -Other related policy documents	<u>Thematic analysis</u> 22 semi-structured interviews

Thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998) used in this case was combined with the notion of language of descriptions (Bernstein, 2000 cited in Ashwin, 2012) in analysing data. Bernstein explained the analysis process as the interactions between the internal language of description (language of theory and literature) and the external language of description (language of the outcome of the data analysis) (Ashwin, 2012). The thematic way of analysis in my study involved a dialogue between the external and internal languages of description, anchored by my stance as in Figure 18. In this thesis, such dialogues are between the Agenda in Vietnamese language, voices of participants and the globalising discourses of reforming higher education in the world.

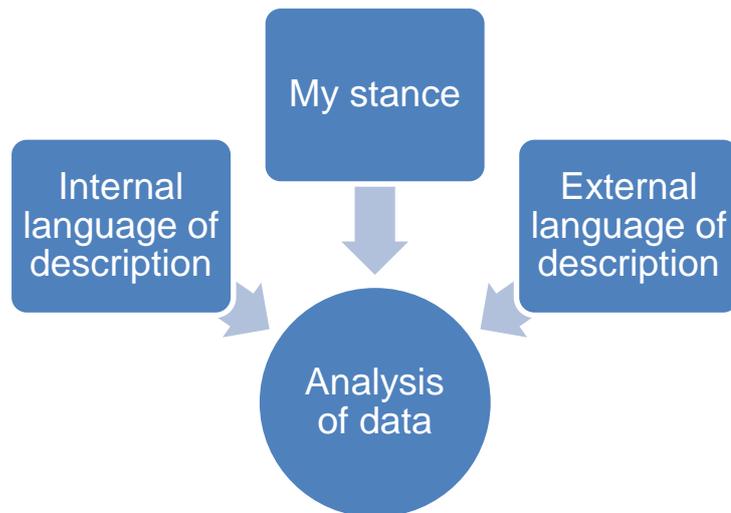


Figure 18 : Analysis of data

This language of description has some systematisation and structure beyond what is contained within raw data. This structure is shaped through being systematically analysed. In this case for my study, the shape is guided clearly by (1) the policy context, (2) the university context (3) the individual context. In which, (1) data related to the policy to generate insights regarding the Agenda, the system, and other issues related to why that Agenda, why the time, what for, as well as what came before and after. Whilst, (2) for the university context, data include the construction of changes from the views of participants regarding changes in their universities and the same case is for (3). In (3) the individual contexts, each participant brought out their own view on reforming higher education in Vietnam.

In this study, in addition to the combination of the internal and external languages of description and my position, the process of data analysis aims to look at the way in which participants constructed changes in their institutions and the system. In particular, it points to the Vietnamese practices and how these practices can take global forms. In analysing the data, the Vietnamese styled globalisation was researched through the examination of the manner in which Vietnamese forms reflect global practices. The purpose is to contribute to developing a new concept where global practices become mediated and take Vietnamese forms.

3.9 Positionality

In this study, I am positioned as both an insider and outsider in the Vietnamese context; this is my position as a lecturer at a public university on leave as a full-time PhD student. As pointed by Rizvi and Lingard (2010), one of the important features of the analyst of policy, as well as the duty of a critical interpretivist researcher, is reflexivity (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992). It is the way in which the researcher positions him/herself before carrying out the analysis of policy and the analysis of data. In addition to the role of theory and using theory, making it clear about the positionality of the researcher and how it influences the analysis is a necessity. It brings out a clear picture for the reader to know the other side of the communication. As an insider, studying and teaching in CCU, over the years, I was an undergraduate student and then became faculty member in this same university. This enables me to experience being a student and being a teacher in a public university in Vietnam. As such, bits of social imaginary on university, from learning to teaching as well as leading are somehow inside me. In 2012, I received a scholarship from the Vietnamese Government to study for a postgraduate qualification in Brisbane, Australia. Four semesters as a postgraduate student allowed me to learn and reflect more on higher education: at home and in Brisbane. Although I do not have experience as an education leader, the views I brought here are the combination of being a university student in Vietnam and overseas and of being a university teacher in Hanoi. Three years carrying out this study as well as the fieldwork where I interviewed leaders of public universities make me no less an insider than any insiders in this area. However, if I had had hands-on experience of practising policy as well as participating in other related research projects prior to this study, the number of analysis and interpretation accounts would have been more diverse.

For Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992), reflexivity entails the systematic exploration of the unthought thoughts that “delimited the thinkable” (p.10) during the process of doing social research. In this study, my position as both the insider and the outsider influenced the way I interpreted and analysed the data as what I read and understood was influenced by my “social origin”, “position”, and “intellectual bias”. In my case, it is the position of being a Vietnamese female lecturer in a public university in Vietnam and the critical interpretive stance I adopted.

Throughout this study, my personal awareness was a starting point. Being aware of myself as an insider, however, I am an outsider in relation to the issues of practising policy as well as

understanding changes at the macro-level of the system of VHE. Whilst this might be seen as a limitation, my position also carries benefits in giving me the critical distance to analyse and interpret changes and policies.

In being reflexive, I also questioned the findings in this study in a similar manner to the way that I have questioned the work of other authors, both Vietnamese and non-Vietnamese. For example, at the beginning of this study, I thought that there would be a gap between the Agenda reform scenarios and the participants' reform scenarios as they are the product of people in power (the Agenda as a system-based policy) and people without power (university insiders). I also thought that globalisation might have come up in the Agenda as an imperative and as a part of the policy context of formation rather than being intertwined in the reform solutions. With these pre-assumptions in my mind, I readdressed the writing of my findings and ensured a more critical standpoint that related more specifically to the research questions.

3.10 Ethics

The first step in making this study possible was to obtain ethical approval from the School of Education and Professional Development at the University of Huddersfield in 2014 (see Appendix 1). I understood the Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (BERA, 2011) would be embedded and became a point of reference in designing and conducting this study. Another ethical issue that I kept meeting during the entire research journey was the research practice in my home country, as this study was about Vietnamese higher education. On the surface, people might argue for the Ethical Guidelines (BERA, 2011) as an ethical life-jacket imported into the Vietnamese context, but at its core, the commonality and universality of research make things possible. More importantly, ethics is always universal and defined as how people conduct themselves morally. It is the rule of conduct, conformity of principles and codes. In conducting research, besides thinking ethically, another requirement for the researcher is to research ethically during all the stages: from planning, to data collection and data analysis. In Vietnam or in the UK, ethical guidelines are more than the list of “dos” and “don’ts” but embedded into the integrity of the researcher. In other words, good scientific practice is not only ethically embedded but also an outcome of the researcher’s integrity- doing things right even if nobody is watching. In these principles, the study should do no harm to the participants and

the researchers, and should be respectful of “*the person, knowledge, democratic values, the quality of educational research, and academic freedom*” (BERA, 2011, p.1) and reflect good (scientific) practice. Thus, it is morally important for researchers to bear in mind these principles and anticipate any possibility during the study (Creswell, 2002). In this study, I adhered to research ethics, which outlined the need to respect and keep the data confidential. Whatever the nature of the data collection method, the self-esteem and self-respect of the subject should not be violated. As far as possible, there should be no misinterpretation or distortion in reporting of the data. These issues were particularly pertinent to my study, given the restrictions regarding public statements that are in place for faculty staff in public universities in Vietnam. Three key issues that are ethically important in this study include ethics in securing the interviews, using policy documents and anonymising institutions and participants.

3.10.1 Ethics in securing the interviews

Ethical issues in securing the interviews included four issues: approaching participants, the actual interview, the places of interview, and the position of power.

Firstly, prior to the fieldwork, I obtained the introductory letter from the President of my university in Hanoi and the letter from the supervision team at the University of Huddersfield and emailed each participant details of this study. However, most participants responded to ask for a discussion in person before joining this study. Apart from CCU, I was awaiting an answer from two other universities and their participants before heading back to Vietnam for data collection.

Secondly, three groups of participants (university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders) in three universities (CCU, STU, and UEMR) have busy time schedules, so most of the interviews were about 30 minutes. However, some participants offered second interviews. The most unexpected event in the fieldwork is the fact that participants did not know about the Agenda. As such, interview questions had to be altered to fit the new situation. Another unexpected event was the opportunistic interviews with the retired policy makers who were directly involved in the enactment process of the Agenda. The wealth of information they gave was tremendously helpful, giving me an insight into unknown information. Finally, signing the consent form was refused by some participants because for them, if they agreed to participate then this could be seen as the oral

consent. Thus, they could not see a need for a consent form. One last thing to consider is that the time that I collected data for this study was during the time that significant changes were made in the leadership of the three universities, due to retirement and new recruitment. In many cases, the deputy person was a replacement for the interview rather than the department leaders. In the case of STU, the newly retired university presidents participated in the study and gave out a number of useful points in terms of decentralisation, privatisation and internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam.

Thirdly, apart from the cases of two retired policy makers, other interviews took place in the participant's office. The level of criticality of the information and answers might be constrained due to their current positions as well as the location of the interviews.

The final ethical issue to consider is the power relationship between the participants and myself. By which I mean there are questions to ask and not to ask. For example, the current president of STU emphasised that *"if you ask me questions about STU and I can answer, I will do but if the question is about the current system of higher education, I don't think I will do"*. He is also the one who emphasised *"Why do you need to study about this Agenda? Recently there have been a number of new and interesting policies that might need more attention than the Agenda"*.

3.10.2 Ethics in using policy documents

Ethical issues are also considered in citing policy documents. The Agenda was publicly accessible on the government website whilst other institutional documents that I collected from each university were approved by their Department of Administration. I got advice from the president of my university in Hanoi about the sayable, citeable and the thinkable in using the policy document in policy analysis. The permission from my university in Hanoi was considered as the gatekeeper before undertaking the fieldwork.

3.10.3 Ethics in anonymising institutions and participants

In this study, the names of policy documents remain whilst names of universities and participants are kept confidential. According to the Ethical Guidelines, one of the first ethical issues is the assurance that the research is harm-free to the participants. All the participants were informed about the research and made their own decisions about joining the study. I made sure that the interview audio

files were kept private and only used for the purpose of data analysis for this study. All the participants would be informed about the purpose of the study and their role as the participants. They could withdraw at any time. The Guidelines were an important reference and helpful in guiding the ethical conduct of the study.

3.11 Chapter conclusion

This methodology chapter has outlined the approaches to the data collection methods and analysis that were used to explore the research questions driving this study. I collected data through targeted semi-structured interviews, including some interviews with the elite participants and through a document analysis of the major and pertinent policy documents and the Agenda. This chapter covers a wide range of issues related to methodology from my philosophical standpoint of critical interpretivism to the research methods that I used in this study. I also emphasised the issues of doing data collection in cross-cultural context where the language barrier is unavoidable and provided examples of translation issues in analysing data. Thus, bearing in mind the issues of translations, the difference between the reality and policy, as well as my positionality as the researcher is important in the following empirical chapters (Chapter 4, 5, 6).

Chapter 4 Globalisation and the Agenda

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the answer to the first research question, “*What are the influences of globalisation on the Agenda of reforming higher education in Vietnam 2006 -2020?*” based on the outcome of policy analysis and research related to the VHE. Drawing on the key ideas of Appadurai (1996), Ball (1993), Gale (2003), Rizvi and Lingard (2010), and Weaver-Hightower (2008), the Agenda was analysed from its great expectations, to its ecological context factors and its globalised discourses in reforming higher education. The Agenda texts as well as other policy documents are quoted in their translated version from Vietnamese.

4.2 Reform pathway: great expectations

In 2005, five years after the enactment of the National Education Development Strategy 2001-2010, the Vietnamese Government enacted the Agenda of reforming higher education in Vietnam for the period 2006-2020 to carry out “*the comprehensive and fundamental reform*” of the VHE. It aimed to move the system towards “*achieving the regional and global advanced standard matching with the socialist-oriented market mechanism*” via seven reform solutions regarding the system networks, training processes, development of academic and teaching staff, research, finance, governance, and international integration. However, in the context of this study, only reform targets with a relationship to globalisation will be analysed, so funding reform will not be analysed.

Together with the reforms of the VHE in 1986 and 1993 (see Chapter 1), the Agenda is the continuation of Vietnam moving away from influences of the Soviet model of higher education. The Agenda constructed the scenarios towards a better-developed and internationally-integrated VHE system of quality (in research, teaching and learning), efficiency(in using its resources), unity (in achieving the common goals), equity (equal access for all people) and internationalisation (engaging in the international communities) (Welch, 2010; Hayden at al., 2012). The Agenda is also the continuation of the socialisation policy (a Vietnamese vocabulary for privatisation, see Chapter 2) in a more globally and internationally integrated context where socialisation (or privatisation) of higher education are promoted together with decentralisation and internationalisation.

Unlike the reform policies in 1986 and 1993 that liberated the VHE from the central planning practice of State allocation (from funding, to students' quotas and jobs for graduates), the Agenda was constructed with great expectations of opening the VHE system, not only to the domestic but also the international market. In doing so, the Agenda started bringing flexibility, autonomy and competition to the system. It constructed all the great expectations justified by the national and global contexts. In particular, the Agenda raised the matters of the unmet social demands for higher education alongside the global tendency of lifelong learning. Furthermore, the Vietnamese Government identified consistently in the country's socio-economic development strategies (e.g. the 2011-2020 period) that education development is an indispensable element of economic development.

The Agenda's main objectives are to build the system of VHE by 2020 as

a multi-functional, multi-tiered, multi-owned system; a system with wide coordination; a system with strong and appropriate institutional governance; a system where there is the integration of research and teaching; a system of increased private investment; a system with the mechanism for increasing financial support and achieving equity; a system with international quality standards (Vietnamese Government, 2005).

It aims to

to carry out fundamental and comprehensive reform of higher education to meet the demand of industrialisation, modernisation, global economic integration and people's demand of learning. By 2020, Vietnamese higher education will attain regional and global advanced standards, have high competitiveness and will suit the socialist-oriented market mechanism.

This aim reflects the acknowledgement of the importance of higher education in increasing productivity and competitiveness as being critical elements in the market mechanism as well as its further integration into the international economy (World Bank, 2014). The target of industrialisation and modernisation was a part of the political rhetoric in the 2000s in Vietnam policy documents. This target was frequently repeated not only in this Agenda but also in the National Education Development Strategy 2001-2010 and the National Socio-Economic Development Strategy 2001-2010. However, the language of the "industrialisation and modernisation" target has not been used in the recent Vietnamese education policies as much as in the beginning of the 2000s, for example Resolution 29-NQ/TW in 2014 on reforming education in Vietnam (VE). Compared with the Agenda's aims, the 2014 VE reform emphasises

standardisation, modernisation, democratisation, socialisation and international integration in education and training; maintaining the socialist-orientation and the Vietnamese characteristics. Toward 2030, Vietnamese education can reach the same level as the regional education system.

The difference between the Agenda VHE reform (2005) and the 2014 education reform policy is the change in the scope of their aims from reaching “*regional and global standard*” to “*the regional standard*”. What remained unchanged is the determination of the socialist-orientation. Another unchanged feature of the educational policy in Vietnam is the repetition of “*educational development is the responsibility of the Party, the State and the People*” emphasising the correct order (the Party, the State and the People). Using Gale’s (2003) concept of the who (is involved) in policy producing, a quick answer in the case of the Agenda in particular and the VHE policy in general, might be “*the Party, the State, and the People*”. However, the generic of the Party, the State and the People as well as the ambiguity in their specificities might cause confusion for the non-Vietnamese. Interpretation of the sequence “*the Party, the State and the People*” can either be understood as

- the ideology of the Party, the policy of the State, and outcomes of policy implementation for the People
- the leadership of the Party, the management of the State, and the participation of the People.

This rhetorical pattern is a distinctively Vietnamese element in educational policy reflecting the political imprint in the national educational development strategies. This pattern with the grand terms of the Party, the State and the People also resonates with Ball’s (1993) argument on the messiness and ad hocery nature of policy as text.

Other reform targets toward 2020 are summarised in Table 14 below :

Table 14: Examples of Agenda's targets as numbers

Agenda's targets as numbers toward 2020	Actual number in 2005
450 students per 10,000 persons	150
20% students enrolments at research-oriented higher education institutions	8%
80% in teaching-oriented institutions	92%
1:20 for teacher/student ratio	1:30
25% revenue from research and development activities	less than 2%
40% enrolments to non-public (private) higher education institutions	about 13%

These targeted numbers in Table 14 above demonstrated the purpose of system expansion by 2020. At the institutional level, the Agenda proposed to implement reformation of management, curriculum content and training methods, as well as promoting international cooperation.

Some of the other targeted numbers of the Agenda can be demonstrated in Figure 19.

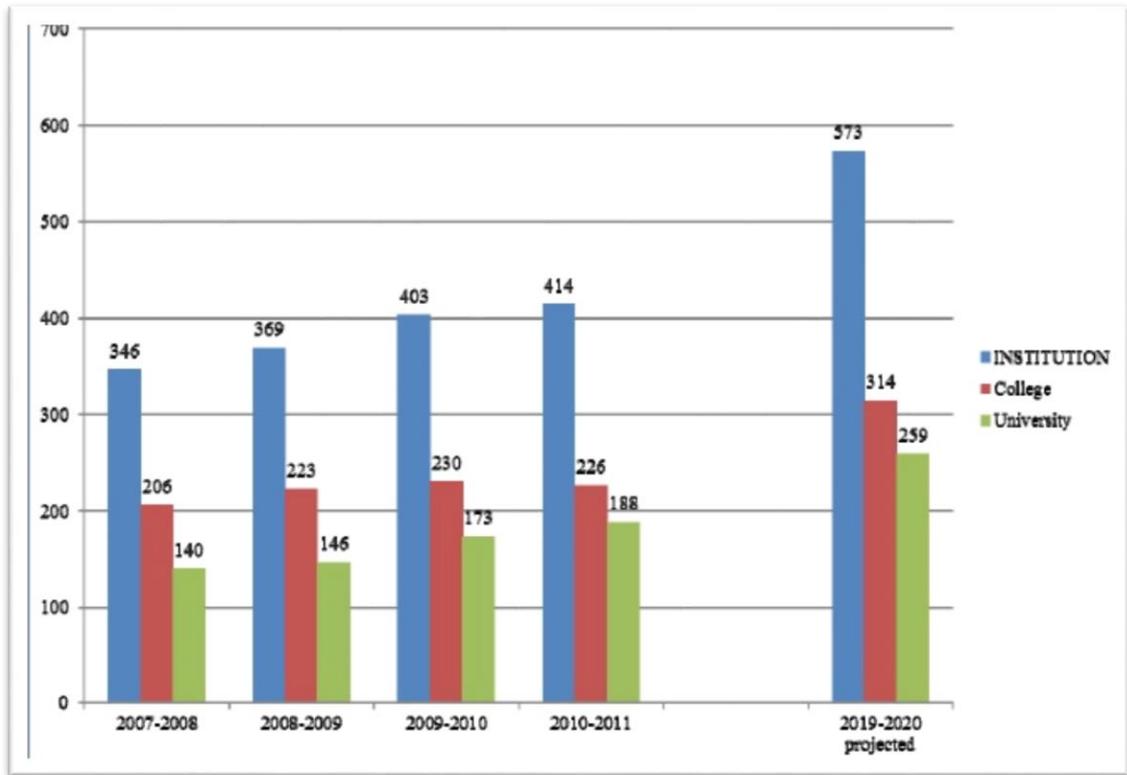


Figure 19: Numbers of projected higher education institutions by 2020 (adapted from Vang, 2012)

To achieve these projected numbers of higher education institutions, a wide range of new types of higher education institutions was established. For example, adding to the majority of institutions under the management of Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) and other ministries, there have been recently universities and colleges of the provincial level under the Province's People Committee, of the State Enterprises, and of the private companies. The booming of new types of institutions has led to the reality that there are many newly-established universities and colleges existed only in name without the actual operation as well as the capacity to recruit students (Pham, 2013).

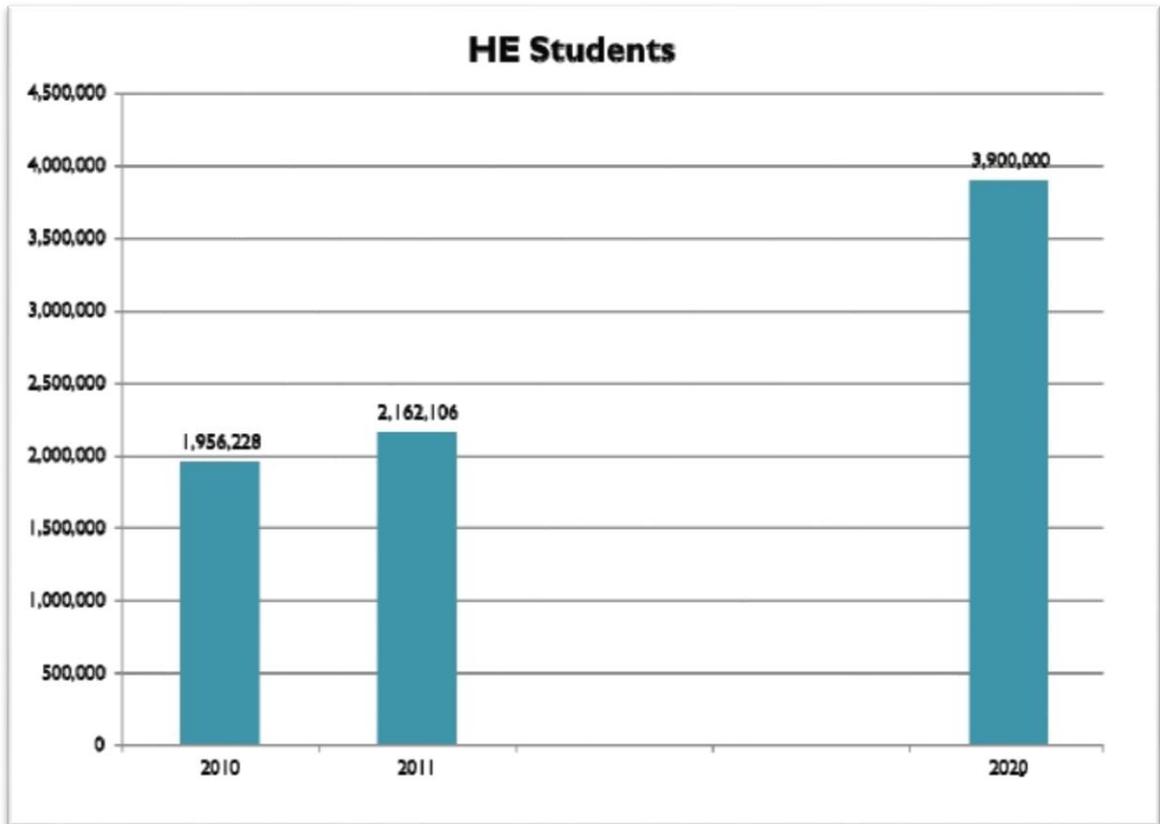


Figure 20: Numbers of projected higher education students by 2020 (adapted from Vang, 2012)

Following the increase in numbers of institutions, another target is to increase the numbers of students to 3.9 million in 2020, which was almost double the number of enrolments in 2010 and 2011. This target is rather ambitious given the analysis of the unmet demand of parents and students for higher education in these years (Harman, Hayden, & Pham, 2010). According to the General Statistics Office of Vietnam (2017), the total enrolments in 2016 was about 1.7 million (see Figure 15), reduced by about 4 thousand less than 2015's enrolments. Thus, reaching the rate of 3.9 million enrolments in the next three years (2020) is rather an infeasible task.

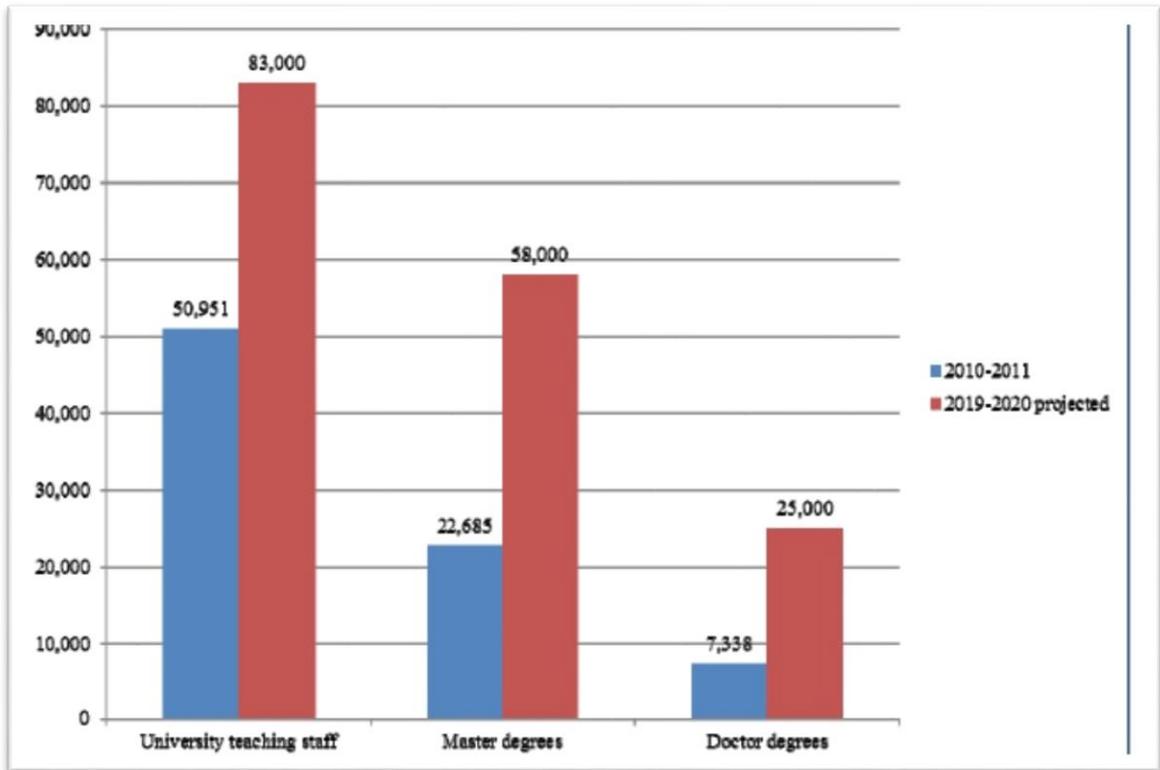


Figure 21: Numbers of academic staff needed for universities by 2020 (adapted from Vang, 2012)

Going alongside with the increasing numbers of higher education institutions and student enrolments are the increase in the staff needed for the system expansion. Following these targets is the enactment of Project 911 (Decision No. 911/QĐ-TTg) investing the State's budget on training doctors for VHE. The Project aims to achieve the target of 25,000 trained doctors by 2020 in the forms of overseas doctoral training, sandwich doctoral programmes, and in-country doctoral training. However, one problem with the targeted numbers of academic staff (teaching staff, master and doctoral holders) is not only how to achieve these targets but also how to utilise the trained resources once their qualification is completed.

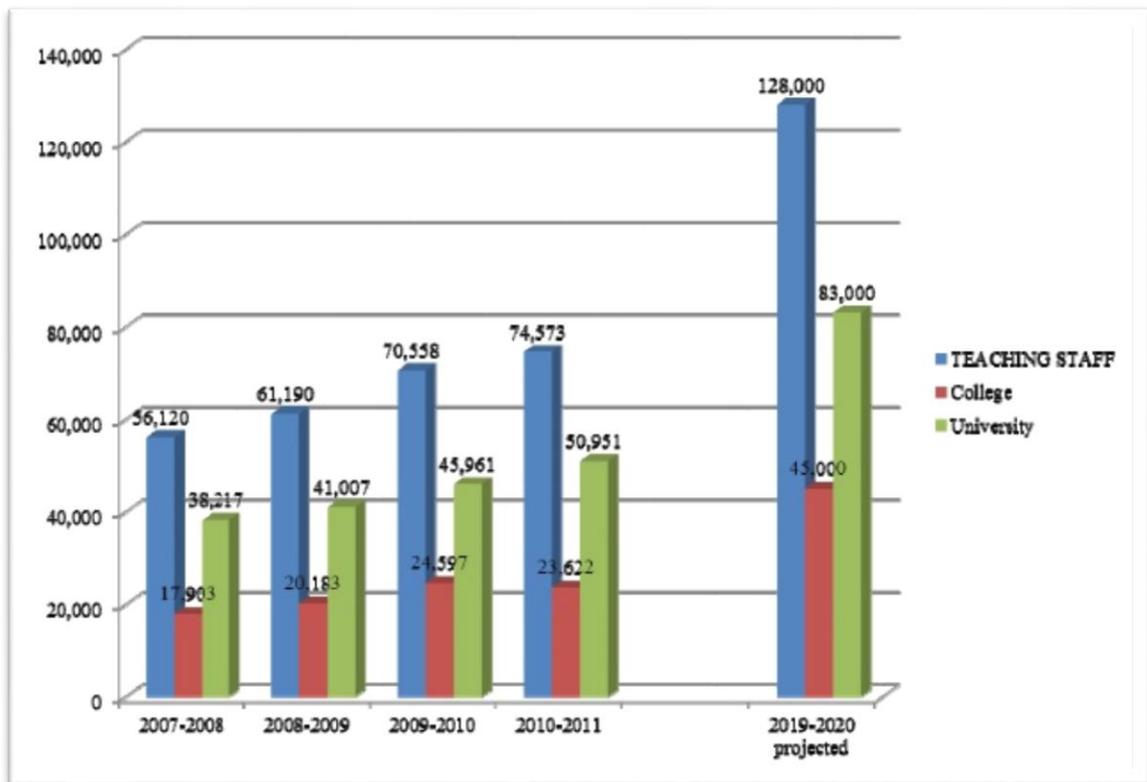


Figure 22 : Numbers of teaching staff needed for higher education by 2020 (adapted from Vang, 2012)

The teaching profession in education and higher education has been receiving social attention as well as Government encouragement. For example, since 1998, in Decision 70/1998/QĐ-TTg, students in education universities and colleges receive fee-waivers to pursue their teaching profession. In society, teaching is a well-respected profession. However, it remains underpaid and overworked according to the 2014's report of the Vietnam Education Foundation (Vietnam Education Foundation, 2014).

The Agenda's great expectations for the VHE is reflected in the way the Agenda text was structured. The entire document is divided into 5 main parts: the urgency of reform, the general guidelines, reform targets, reform solutions and implementation. The reform targets and solutions accounted for the major text of the Agenda whilst the implementation was brief, including (1) to establish the VHE reform committee, (2) to build the detailed plan, (3) to allocate funds, and (4) to identify the duty of the State agencies involved.

Thus, the reform pathway overemphasised the destinations but underemphasised where the system was at the moment of the enactment. The Agenda was detailed on what to reform (reform targets and solutions) but rather silent on how to realise them (implementation). This feature makes the Agenda look like a wish list rather than a set of integrated goals tempered by reality and integrated by strategy. Given the situation of Vietnam, a country that is starting from such a low resource and infrastructure, realising the transformation of its higher education in the timeframe of 14 years is challenging and ambitious, without mentioning a number of difficulties that the system needed to tackle before embarking on the reform agenda, e.g. the system's issues in leading, teaching and learning as well as building research practices, as analysed in Chapter 2.

When referring back to this thesis' aim of characterising the distinctive features of the VHE and how these features match with the neoliberal globalised ideas of educational policy, the Agenda's great expectations is among such characteristics . In other words, reforming VHE in the Agenda proposed details of what to achieve (ontological specificity) but was unclear about how to achieve it (epistemological ambiguity). The Agenda's practicality would be influenced by such intentional ambiguity in its implementation.

4.3 Contextual and ecological factors

If the Agenda's great expectations propose what the VHE system aspired to become by 2020, the Agenda's contextual factors anchored these expectations to the system, national and global contexts. These factors are not only visible in the Agenda's text as an initial acknowledgement of the role of the global trends in higher education in reforming VHE but also become the reform solutions. However, the in-policy context is not sufficient to understand the intricacy and complexity of the policy as it exists in relation to the economic, political, cultural, social and ideological contexts. Thus, Weaver-Hightower (2008) suggests that analysing policy requires the consideration of the contextual and social factors beyond the discourses and texts within policy documents. Such beyond-policy context includes both national and global factors (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). Adding these two accounts together, the contexts analysed here include both the in-policy context and the beyond-policy context. Quotes displayed are the translated Agenda text.

4.3.1 In-Agenda contexts: recognition of globalisation

In the policy text, the context is part of the justification for the “*necessity and urgency*” (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p.2) of reforming VHE. It entails both international and national contexts. Ball, Maguire and Braun (2012) argued, “*Policy creates context but context also precedes policy*” (p.19) to emphasise the context in the policy as both what happened before it and what happened after it. The context seems to be perfectly justified with the significant changes in the world and how the VHE located itself within this transformation.

We are continuing our country higher education reform in the special international and national context. The breakthrough in science and technologies, specifically information, and communication technology, is moving human kind into the knowledge economy. The vibrant global trends are on-going in the world [...] Higher education in the world is under rapid development in the tendency of massification, marketisation, diversification and internationalisation” (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p. 1).

Two main ideas are noted for consideration here: the knowledge economy and global trends. First, a knowledge economy is another manifestation of the *Đổi mới (reformation)* dream (see Chapter 1) although when the country reaches the development level of a knowledge economy, the political embeddedness will make it become a socialist-oriented knowledge economy rather than merely a knowledge economy. It is projected to be the extension of the current socialist-oriented market economy. Second, the recognition of the global trends of higher education has an important meaning for the Agenda as it marked the initial reception of what Appadurai (1996) has called “globalisation from above” where the tendency of massification, marketisation, diversification and internationalisation (UNESCO, 2003) were justified as a part of Agenda’s formation context. Thus, globalisation from above, in this case, has a role of not only a precondition and context but also a justification for the reformation of VHE. After the two previous reforms of higher education (the 1986 reform and the 1993 reform, see Chapter 1), the VHE experienced these global trends but cautiously and moderately where the universities have been liberated from the central planning culture and initially been moving toward the market mechanism. For example, massification is carried out based on the enrolment quotas allocated annually to each university and college. Despite the ongoing increase in student enrolments (see Chapter 2), in Figure 23 and Figure 24, from 2011 to 2016, the total number of students in the whole country decreased from about 2.2 million to about 1.7 million

compared with the total population of about 85 million to about 92 million respectively. Thus, the student population accounts for more than 15 % of population, which is moving towards a mass system as the categorisation of Trow (1972).

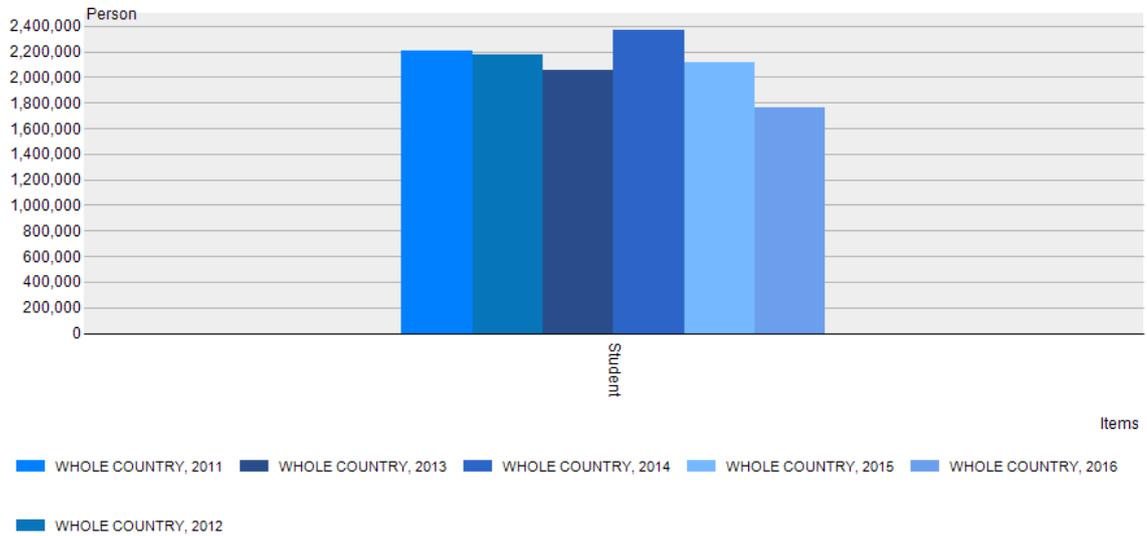


Figure 23: Numbers of students in the whole country (Vietnam) from 2008 - 2016

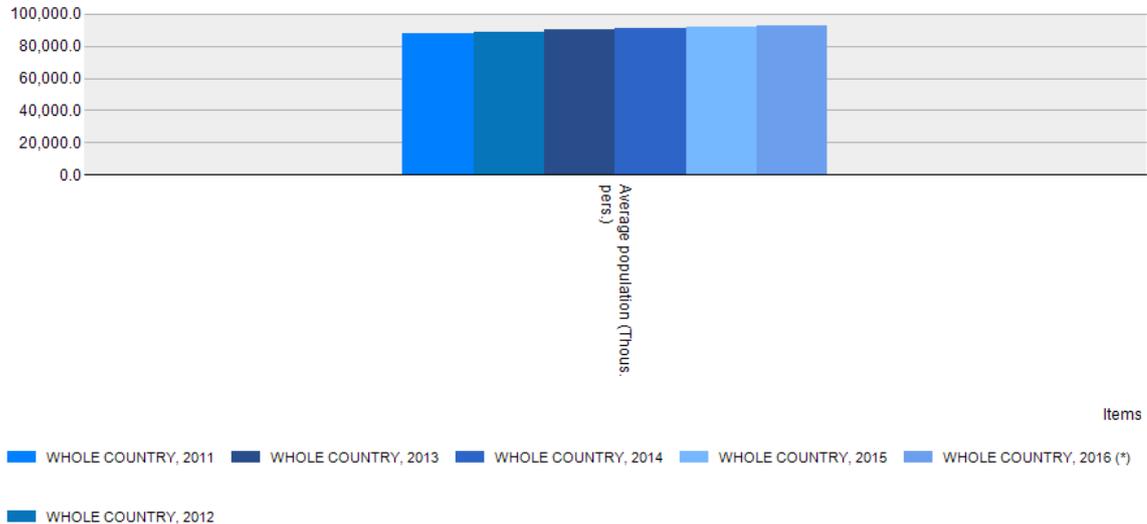


Figure 24: Population of the whole country (Vietnam) from 2011-2016

However, Dao (2015) has argued that VHE remains elite but perhaps, his account of the VHE system as elite is to imply that there is the unmet demand for higher education in Vietnam.

Teaching, learning, research and other services of universities continued to be under the State's control. These global trends were identified as "*a previously never-existed opportunity*" (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p. 4) for Vietnamese students to "*get access to the giant source of information. Cross-border education increases the opportunities for Vietnamese people to have more chances of international education*" (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p.4). The global trends in the Agenda also include the positioning of the VHE system in relation to other countries' systems in the region, referring to the Association of Southeast Asia Nations (ASEAN) by expressing concerns of being left behind compared with other countries in ASEAN.

Unlike the 1986 and 1993 VHE reforms, in the 2005 Agenda the global trends were adopted and adapted extensively into the Vietnamese context. However, by the year 2005, private higher education continued to be presented as non-public and until now privatisation remains described as socialisation. Three higher education policies of reforming VHE in 1986, 1993 and 2005 conveyed the shift in recognising the international roles in Vietnam. This recognition was reflected in the country's Political Report issued every 5 years in the National Party Congress, by counting the frequent appearance of 4 words (four concepts) in the Political Report, "*the West*", "*the International*", "*reactionary*" and "*international reactionary*", as in Table 15.

Table 15 : Frequency use of certain words in the Political Reports from 1986 to 2016

Nation Congress (No.)	Frequency use of the concepts/ words in the Political Report			
	<i>“The West”</i>	<i>“The International”</i>	<i>“Reactionary”</i>	<i>“International reactionary”</i>
Congress VI (1986)	1 word	43 words	9 words	4 words
Congress VII (1991)	2 words	46 words	3 words	
Congress VIII (1996)		28 words		
Congress IX (2001)		34 words		
Congress X (2006)		38 words		
Congress XI (2011)		49 words	2 words (specified in social evils in the country)	
Congress XII (2016)		79 words		

From this table, the Party’s perception on the matters of external relations changed from seeing *the West* and *the International* with the connotation of *reactionary* and *international reactionary* (in the years 1986 and 1990s) to the disappearance of this cautious connotation and highly frequent use of the word *“the international”*. The Agenda was enacted in the time between Congress IX and Congress X when the international content was no longer seen as a threat to the Party’s policies (*reactionary and international reactionary*). More than that, the global and international context was recognised as an element of the Agenda’s context of formation.

Another in-Agenda context justifying reforming VHE is the national situation:

After 20 years of “Đổi mới” and 5 years of implementing the Strategy for Education Development 2001-2010, national higher education developed significantly in the training scales, process and methods; being at the initial stage of restructuring the system; reforming the curriculum; and mobilising social resources for the system development (Vietnamese Government,2005, p.2).

The national context started with achievements of the VHE system from 1986 until 2006. In addition to the increase in training rates, the socialisation policy of education (see Chapter 1) was expressed in its full terms as mobilising social resources for the system. This is another way of saying increasing the participation of the non-State area (private sector now) in higher education.

The achievements are followed by the weaknesses of the system that are contextualised at the beginning of the document as the motivation for system reform:

However, these above achievements have not yet reached the level of stability, being systematic and substantial, and remain incapable of meeting the requirements of the causes of industrialisation and modernisation of the country, demands of learning among people, and the requirements of international integration in the new period. (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p.2).

It seems that “*the requirements of the causes of industrialisation and modernisation of the country*” and “*the requirements of international integration in the new period*” are the major driving forces towards the reformation of higher education. These requirements are, on the one hand, for the sake of the country and, on the other hand, contextualised against the global context where the country is positioned in the involvement of the international community. In view of this, the motivation for reform was identified as the tool for economic development towards “*industrialisation and modernisation*” as well as “*international integration*” despite the rhetoric and ambiguity of the policy language.

Another justification for the necessity to reform VHE is a list of the shortcomings of the system:

The weaknesses and inappropriateness in governance mechanisms, system structure, the training discipline structure, network of higher education, the training processes, method of teaching and learning, teaching and academic staff, educational management staff, the efficiency in using resources and the negative phenomenon in examinations, issuing qualifications and other educational activities should soon be overcome (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p.2).

Throughout the Agenda, the text was presented in the form of lists as the above list of system shortcomings as well as the reform solutions. The advantage of the form of lists is the efficiency in naming the phenomena but insufficiency of detailed elaborations. In the case of the reformation of the higher education system, each of these points might be shown as a separate reform.

Another important trait of the in-Agenda context is its duty of conveying the political priority of the Party and the State. For example:

The Party and State have always considered education and training and scientific technology as the top national policies. Development of education and training is the background and motivation for the cause of modernisation and industrialisation and is the pre-condition to developing human resources (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p.3).

This priority was expressed in other policy documents prior to the Agenda. For example, in the Education Development Strategy 2001- 2020, the duty of developing education in general and higher education in particular was highlighted:

The Party, the State and our people are increasingly valuing the role of education and investing more in the cause of developing education, which requires the renovation and further development of education to fulfil the increasing demand for people to obtain the skills necessary for occupation as well as personal development (Vietnamese Government, 2001, p.14).

In addition to the political support for reforming higher education, another motivation identified in the Agenda is the shift in the country's economic structure:

The dramatic shift in the economic structure of the country in the transition time to the market economy, leading to the requirement of transforming the structure of higher education in Vietnam (qualification structure, industry structure, regional structure) (Vietnamese Government,2005, p.2).

In summary, the in-Agenda context conveys the global and national context that sets the background for the reform. It also included the achievements and shortcomings of the system as a part of the justification for the urgency of the reform. In the process of allocating values in the Agenda, the political role of the Party and State maintains a consistent thread.

4.3.2 Beyond-Agenda context: continuity of ecological factors

The beyond-policy contexts are examined via a consideration of the policy ecological factors (Weaver-Hightower, 2008) in which justification for the urgency of reform did not come directly from the policy text but beyond it. These beyond-policy contexts are multiple layers of interrelated things in the policy ecology. As argued by Weaver-Hightower (2008, p. 155), “*Every contextual factor and person contributing to or influenced by a policy in any capacity both before and after its creation and implementation is a part of a complex ecology*”. This “every” factor and person might be explained by the view that in social science as well as in the education policy context “*Everything is related to everything else*” (Easter, 1954 cited in Weaver-Hightower, 2008, p.155). In this sense, the beyond-policy contexts might include any factor out of “*all of the texts, histories, people, places, groups, traditions, economic and political conditions, institutions, and relationships that affect it or that it*

affects" (Weaver-Hightower, 2008, p.155). In the Agenda, the beyond-policy contexts are historical, cultural and political factors influencing the justification for the need of the Agenda.

Historical factors: residue from Soviet model

Historical influences are among the factors contributing to the need for the reform of the current system. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the current system of VHE is the continuity of the influences from Chinese Confucian education, to French Colonial education, Soviet education and higher education since reunification in 1975. However, the residue from a model based on Soviet higher education has long-lasting impacts and continues in the contemporary VHE system in both organisation and content. This model came into Vietnam in 1954 under the central planning economy model. Despite a significant departure from this model after the VHE reforms in 1986 and 1993, its residues remain in the current system of higher education in leading, teaching and learning and the capability of doing research in university (Hayden et al., 2012).

First, in leading, the typical features of the central planning model in managing higher education are the over-reliance of the universities on State planning. All aspects of the higher education system were centrally planned, including the student quota, the training budget, training programmes and the assignment of graduates to employment. One of the consequences of central planning governance in higher education is the mentality of "*nobody cries for the death of the common father*", as suggested by the retired educational policy maker. This mentality refers to the lack of responsibility in contributing to the communal development and the overreliance on the others. Another consequence in governing VHE is the practice of granting permission between universities and their governed ministries. Autonomy was understood as "*to be allowed to do something*" rather than "*to have the right to do something*". In the Agenda appendix, higher education governance in Vietnam was considered as "*being no different from what it used to be in the central planning economy*" (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p. 25).

Second, in teaching and learning, the Soviet model of higher education was typical by teaching-focused universities with the emphasis on theory. Universities were generally called institutes and were mono-disciplinary, except in the case of the larger polytechnics of natural sciences and social

sciences (Hayden et al., 2012). This model makes higher education an extension of general education rather than as a place of producing new knowledge and disseminating it.

Third, in capability of doing research, the Soviet model of higher education was known for the absence of research in universities. Conducting research was the responsibility of the research institutes, which often existed independently outside universities. This model was imported into VHE, which continues to be the major cause for the weaknesses of research capability in VHE (Hayden et al., 2012).

Cultural factors: Residue of Confucianism

Another element of the ecology that contributed to the necessity for the Agenda's enactment is the cultural residue, especially the influence of Chinese Confucianism education on VHE. A part of the Vietnamese social imaginary of education (as mention in Chapter 2) is the tradition of valuing education and higher learning. Over the country's history, this imaginary changed from seeing schooling as a place to learn how to read, write and calculate money to seeing school as a preparation for entering university. This imaginary becomes so pervasive that university somehow becomes a uniform dream among young people and their parents. There is nothing wrong in the tradition of valuing the education and higher education of Vietnamese people. However, the dramatic increase in the higher education participation rate raised the issues of misbalancing the professional structure within society or the tendency of "*so many teachers but so few workers*". Most Vietnamese families do not hesitate to invest in their children's education and especially higher education (Kim, 2002). For them, higher education brings their children opportunities to escape poverty, low-income agriculture jobs, have a better future and gives a family status (Linh, 2010). On the one hand, the family investment in higher education and the culture of valuing higher learning are favourable conditions for the VHE system to expand. On the other hand, this tendency leads to an imbalance in economic structure where university graduates are unemployed. For example, in 2016 the total number of unemployed graduates with higher education qualifications reached an alarming rate of 218,000 unemployed graduates (Ministry of Labour Invalids and Social Affairs, 2016). As such, this tradition should be continued but with a critical eye from parents and students in their decision to choose a university.

Another residue of Confucian education is the teacher-centred approach in teaching and learning. It not only has influences in the teaching but also in learning practices (Hang et al., 2015). Teachers are taken for granted as the primary source of knowledge and wisdom (Nguyen & McInnis, 2002). Students passively take the knowledge without question. The purpose of learning is to memorise what was said by teachers (Thomas & Inkson, 2004). This style of teaching and learning has become widespread in the school system and is continues to have a place in higher education. This residue is among the major barriers in reforming VHE's teaching and learning, according to Ngoc and Harman (2010).

Political factor: the socialist-oriented market economy

Political features of socialist-oriented market economy and its role in education and higher education is another factor in the ecology of the Agenda. The Vietnamese political economy is the combination of the market economy and the socialist orientation. First, the market economy is defined as “*the economy with multiple forms of possessions and economic sectors*” with their “*equal role under the Law and Constitutions*” (Article 54, Consitution of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam, p7). Second, the most important factor in understanding Vietnam's socialist-orientation is the leadership role of the Party (Truong, 2015).

This half socialist, half market model has its meaning in higher education. In particular, it is reflected in the Agenda:

Reforming higher education is the responsibility of the entire people under the leadership of the Party and management of the State. The State shall intensify the investment for higher education, concurrently promote socialisation [privatisation] and create a favourable condition for the organisations, individuals and the entire society participating in developing higher education (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p.3).

As analysed in the beginning of this Chapter, the political rhetoric of the Party, the State and the People was a part of every educational policy in Vietnam. This rhetoric identifies the involvement of Gale's (2003) policy actors in the policy process as Party's leadership, State's management and policy for the People. This policy process, e.g. Agenda's process, was underpinned by the duality of the market economy and the socialist orientation to allocate these two conflicting values.

Despite their absence in the Agenda text, these ecological factors have an important role not only in justifying the need for VHE reformation but also in being aware of the place where the system was and is standing. If reformation in VHE is seen as a pathway where the great expectations are the destination, these ecological factors partly contributed to understanding the starting point or the “*form*” of VHE prior to its “*re-form*”. They are a part of the intangible power on the ongoing impact in the development of VHE.

4.4 Manifestation of globalisation from above within the Agenda

If recognising the influences of the global trends of higher education in the Agenda context is the initial reception of the Appadurai’s (1996) globalisation from above, the Agenda’s reform solutions mediated these global trends and altered them into the particularities of the reforming VHE. Five reform solutions (privatisation, internationalisation, decentralisation, reforming teaching and learning, integrating teaching with research) was analysed as an illustration of Appadurai’s (2001) concept that global facts take local forms. These reform solutions showed the presence of globalisation in the Agenda and reflected the policy shifts in reforming higher education: moving from an inward to an outward system, from the State-controlled system to the State-supervised system, from the State-owned system to the multiple-owned system.

4.4.1 *Multiple-owned system and promoting non-public higher education*

One of the targets of the Agenda is to expand the current system of VHE via the expansion of the non-public investment in higher education. The key target is that by 2020 40% of the total enrolments will be in the non-public VHE. The Agenda is also projected to achieve the target of 25 % of revenue from universities and colleges of research and training services linked to the industry sector.

This target is one of the pragmatic approaches in the Agenda to allow non-State sectors to provide higher education. It marked the beginning of the rise of non-public higher education and contributes to the socialisation policy in higher education via mobilising resources of different individuals, agencies and enterprises to provide higher education (Le, 2006). The non-public VHE enrolments expanded significantly over the years, see Figure 25.

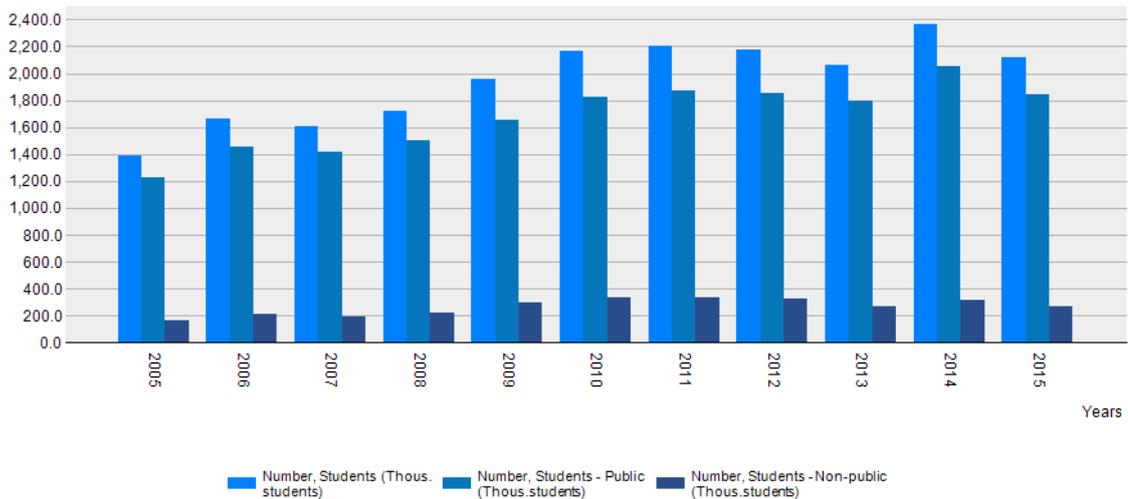


Figure 25: Changes in student enrolments from 2005 to 2015

Within ten years (2000-2010), non-public higher education institutions increased by 61 whilst public institutions increased by 175 (GSO, 2017). In 2010, non-public universities and colleges accounted for 14.5% of total enrolments. These enrolments stabilised over the years and never reached 20%. In 2015, non-public enrolment in higher education was 271,100 out of 2,118,500 total enrolments, about 12.7% (See Figure 25).

Although private higher education institutions have proven to be an effective alternative means of increasing access to higher education (Varghese & Martin, 2013), it might not be the case for VHE. First, it is public prejudice over private education as well as private higher education that makes students and parents see public universities and colleges as secondary to public ones (Hayden & Khanh, 2010; Huong & Fry, 2002). Non-public higher education is associated with lower quality compared to public higher education as well as the place for students of weaker academic capability. There is a wide belief among Vietnamese society in the priority of public university qualifications and prejudice against the private ones in applying for jobs. Second, non-public institutions encounter a lot of difficulty in attracting students and recruiting academic staff (Hayden & Khanh, 2010). In addition, non-public higher education establishments are at a disadvantage when competing for State attention, which regards public institutions more favourably. There are no State subsidises for

non-public higher education institutions whilst public establishments receive 70% sponsorship (Hayden & Khanh, 2010).

Before 2005, non-public higher education was the term for semi-public, people-founded forms of higher education. Ownership of VHE at that time was still only non-public and public. It was not until the year 2006 (following the Agenda) in *Decision No.8/2006/QĐ – TTg*, dated August 9, 2006 as a part of the roadmap to diversify forms of ownership of higher education institutions that the government acknowledged the forms of public and private ownership in which semi-public or people-founded can be considered as public or private institutions. At the same time, followed by Decision No.8, for the first time in Vietnam, the corporations started establishing universities. The FPT Corporation established FPT Private University, offering specialised information technology training programmes (*Decision No. 8/2006/QĐ-TTg*, dated August 9, 2006). In 2007, another form of ownership in higher education was recognised: foreign-invested institutions (whether foreign owned, or formed through cooperation or as a joint venture) (*Decision No. 121/2007/QĐ-TTg*, dated July 27, 2007). In addition to diversify forms of VHE ownership, the Agenda also proposed reform solutions to increase enrolments in private sectors as follows:

To transform semi-public higher education institutions and a number of public higher education institutions into non-public (now private) ones;

To improve the model of community colleges and formulate a regulation on continuing training from colleges to universities, and consolidate open universities;

To encourage the establishment of higher education institutions in big groups and enterprise;

To study the organisational model and adopt specific plans to merge higher education institutions into scientific research institutions in order to closely associate training with scientific research, production and business (p.9).

These are the methods to increase the non-public (private) universities proposed in the Agenda. The Agenda also targeted the duty of attracting public investment into university, “*The State will enact supportive policies to promote the domestic and foreign investment in higher education to assure the lawful benefits in both material and spirit* (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p. 9). However, the level of private investment in the public VHE remains very limited (Hayden et al., 2012). There are hardly

any effective mechanisms to encourage private investment in public universities. Although scholarships are provided by some large employers, these are limited in availability and they focus mainly on areas of high demand, such as information technology, finance and banking. This means that there is a strong need to encourage more collaboration between higher education providers in Vietnam and employers.

4.4.2 Reforming solution on international integration

In the Agenda, international integration is the final reform target and solution aimed at developing foreign ties, increasing interaction with foreign partners and increasing integration through selective adoption of foreign ideas and practices.

As articulated on Table 15 on the changing language towards “*the international*” throughout the Political Reports of the National Congress from 1986 to 2016, the international in the Agenda became a reform solution in which an extensive international cooperation was proposed ranging from establishing strategic plans on international integration to cooperation in teaching, learning and researching with the international partners.

The specific aims include:

- To formulate a strategy on international integration and raise the cooperation capability and competitiveness of VHE in the implementation of international commitments;
- To organise teaching and learning in foreign languages, especially using foreign languages as the medium of instruction, mainly in English;
- To improve the quality of some research projects distinctive to Vietnam in order to attract international researchers;
- To reach agreements on equivalent diplomas and training programmes with other higher education institutions in the world;
- To encourage various forms of high-quality training cooperation, and exchange of lecturers and experts with foreign countries so as to continue the State Scholarship scheme, sending lecturers to universities in developed countries for postgraduate research in key universities;
- To encourage overseas Vietnamese lecturers to give lecturers in Vietnam and to increase the number of foreign students in Vietnam;

- To encourage study at home under foreign training programmes and to adopt an appropriate consultancy and management mechanism to help Vietnamese students studying overseas to choose study disciplines, subject and schools, and achieve good study results and high efficiency;
- To create a mechanism and favourable conditions for investors and prestigious higher education institutions in the world to open education institutions in Vietnam or start providing joint training programmes with Vietnamese higher education institutions;
- To establish a legal framework allowing universities in other parts of the world to invest 100% funding. Supervise and examine the training of foreign universities in Vietnam, including online programmes.

These targets can be categorised into two purposes: bringing the world to VHE (English as medium of instruction, importing curriculum, visiting lecturers, attracting foreign investment) and bring VHE to the world (sending faculty staff overseas for training and joint-research programmes). As argued before in Chapter 2 and elsewhere in this thesis, the Vietnamese private higher education is often seen as lower status compared to the public one, when the Western universities set up their campuses as well as carry out the joint-training programmes, these international programmes remain considered as secondary to the long-established public institutions' ones. They are only accessible for a small number of wealthy students, often in the big cities in Vietnam. In addition to the above aims, throughout the Agenda documents, the notion and purposes of international integration has been touched on from the beginning of the document to the end. Similar to increasing private investment in VHE, international integration is seen as a means to expand the current system of VHE.

4.4.3 *Increased autonomy for university*

The reforming solution in enhancing participation of private investment into higher education as well as intensifying international integration not only facilitates the expansion of higher education but also challenges the traditional model of governing higher education in Vietnam. Governance of higher education in Vietnam is criticised as being unchanged since the 1990s (Vietnamese Government, 2005) where the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) is the decision-making agency and

manages most universities in the system. Although there have been a number of changes in managing higher education via granting autonomy for some public universities, university autonomy remains conditional autonomy where universities are regulated to certain directions from the MOET (Dao, 2015).

In the Agenda (2005), the objective of reforming governance is considered as, “*reforming governance towards increased autonomy for universities and increased accountability and competitive capacity of universities*”. The specific aims include:

- Complete the legal framework, including the enactment of the Law on higher education
- Establish a University Council at higher education institutions
- Increase research on higher education management
- Develop the Institute of Education Management
- Granting autonomy for public higher education institutions
- Establish the quality insurance centres

Followed these targets, the Law on Higher Education was enacted by the 13th Session National Assembly, 2013. Based on the Law on Education (38/2005/QH11), Law on Higher Education has become an important legal basis regulating activities in the field of higher education.

Central to the governance reform are the issues of autonomy for public universities, especially the establishment and function of the university council. The Agenda only touches on the concept of the university council without going into details of the organisation of the council. In 2010, the University Charter, *Decision No. 58/2010/QĐ-TTg* regulated the structure of the Council of between 15 to 31 members including three groups:

- Previous members of the Academic and Party Board
- Elected members (Administrative and academic staff representatives)
- Invited members (Representatives from external agencies such as the State and economic corporations)

In the history of VHE development, the function of all the councils, including the university board or the faculty board are consulting (Hayden & Thiep, 2007). In some universities, the name “university

council” exists but it is more about the administrative purposes. In the traditional Academic and Party Board, the highest authority is centralised within the hands of the Rectors. The university council, therefore, is considered to be the tool for transparency and democracy in which the power will be distributed rather than centralised (Thiep, 2006). Members of the university council are ones with equal roles rather than the hierarchical and bureaucratic. Committing to establish and operate university council to institutional management is considered as an important step towards reforming VHE governance (Hayden et al., 2012).

Another content in relation to reforming governance is the attempt to redefine the State involvement in institutional autonomy:

To separate appropriately and effectively between the State management and the assurance of autonomy for the higher education institution.

To promote the activeness of the higher education institutions in the cause of the reform.

Governing VHE is a complicated task. Redefining the role of the State in managing university systems is an important and challenging task to achieve. As Rosser (2016) argued in the neoliberal higher education reform agenda transferring part of the government’s authority and responsibility to institutions of higher education is a crucial part of the reform. This transferring process goes along with decentralising and redefining the role of the State over the universities. In the case of Vietnam, the changes in governance of higher education were marked by the transition from State control to State supervision (Pham, 2012).

4.4.4 Reforming learning and teaching

Among the many objectives and responsibilities stated in the Agenda, targets on teaching and learning are:

To develop the curriculum that supports research and has a strong applied/professional orientation;

To upgrade training materials and methodologies by introducing a diversity of learning styles, interactive teaching modes and application of ICTs to learning and teaching;

To improve the quality of master’s and doctoral degrees;

To develop a new policy on teachers' terms and conditions of employment to ensure equitable workloads and opportunities for professional development;

To develop lecturing staff with high moral and ethical standards, acceptable political ideology, high professional qualifications and modern teaching methods.

Teaching in VHE institutions continues to be conducted mainly in a traditional way. The lecturers present the material verbally to students and students write down what they hear. Discussion is rarely used as a means of instruction or of learning. According to Hang et al. (2015), this is a part of the Confucianism residues in learning and teaching in VHE.

4.4.5 Enhancing integration of research with teaching

The residue from the Soviet model of higher education has weakened the research capability in universities in Vietnam. The Soviet practice separated the mission of research into individual research institutes that existed independently outside the universities. These practices made people mostly see university as the place to teach rather than the place to do research. The Agenda aims to achieve an international standard system and so enhancing the research capability is crucial. In 2005, the Agenda set a target that by 2010 at least 25% of all lecturers should have a doctoral qualification, and that by 2020 the proportion should be at least 35%. By 2011, only 14.4% of all lecturers in universities had a doctoral qualification (Hayden et al., 2012). The Government has launched a significant initiative to train an additional 25,000 PhD candidates by 2020, but a target of 35% by 2020 remains ambitious. Even where universities in Vietnam do conduct research, it is limited in scope and there is a modest output of papers published in international journals. The number of lecturers who spend time on research is small, and links between research institutes and universities are seldom formal in nature. The processes employed to fund research are predominantly bureaucratic (Harman, 2010). According to Quang, the retired policy maker in this study:

More competitive research funding processes are required, and these need to encourage research partnerships across the VHE system including both universities and colleges so that there will be a stronger commitment to interdisciplinary research.

4.5 Discussion

Globalisation imports the global trends of higher education into the context, content, and the social imaginary underpinning the Agenda. The influence of globalisation on the Agenda is indirect but

significant. First, trends of privatisation, decentralisation and internationalisation were not only justified as an element in the Agenda context but also present in the Agenda's reform solutions. The Agenda was an example of how the neoliberal imaginary of reforming higher education was received and reinvented into the VHE context. Each of these reform solutions has its different way of "*being global facts taking local forms*" (Appduarai, 1996, p.126) where there is a balance between the market element and the element of the socialist-orientation. However, the Agenda was criticised for its ontological and epistemological imbalance between the "what to reform" and the "how to reform". Particularly, its reform solutions were emphasised without mapping out detailed methods of how to achieve them.

Underpinning the presence of the global trends in the Agenda is the shift in values with priority given to market commitment. There is a global convergence in policy thinking and methods in reforming higher education moving from State management to being regulated by market principles. Compared to the VHE reforms in 1986 and 1993, the Agenda is embracing neoliberal values manifested in its globalising features where reform solutions aim at moving from an inward to an outward system (international integration), from the State-controlled system to the State-supervised system (increasing autonomy); and from the State-owned system to the multiple-owned system (multiple forms of ownership). The Vietnamese ideology commitment is repeated in the rhetorical mantra of the Party, the State, and the People, which sets the background for the neoliberal imaginary reform solutions. This combination was a perfect reflection of the country's current political economy (socialist-oriented market economy) with the long-term vision of socialism but temporary experience of the market economy. This model was justified by the Party as creating the precondition for the process of transitioning to socialism. In the Agenda, the strong ideology to adhere to was given as the umbrella context for setting the scene for the neoliberal reform solutions.

Ultimately, making sense of what is global about the Agenda is a part of understanding what is going on inside the Agenda in particular and the VHE reform policy in general. The interconnection between the global and national factors inside the Agenda can be expressed by emphasising either the national (beneath the national differences run the global similarities) or the global (beneath the global similarities run the national differences). These global similarities require constant mediation in order to be compatible with the specificity of the national context. Thus, what I want to emphasise in this

chapter is the selective importation of globalisation, in particular neoliberal imaginaries of reforming higher education, in the Agenda. In this importation, the encounter between globalisation from above (global trends, discourses and practices) and globalisation from below (ecological factors of history, culture and politics) manifested themselves within the Agenda.

Such importation is the competing priority between globalisation from above and globalisation from below, between the hunger for changes by importing global methods into reforming VHE and the change-resistance of what is rooted in the country's history, culture and political ideology. The act of embracing the global implied trust in the global process and also in the hidden aspiration of wanting to be the same as the global others. However, translating the global aspirations into reality, the ecological factors of history, culture and ideological matters are barriers to implementation. They are neither good nor bad factors but they are factors that are of importance in making sense of the "form" of the VHE system before embarking on its "re-form", either to create changes by building the new (learning from the global trends) or by removing the old (altering the ecological factors of history, culture and politics).

However, the interactions between the "form" and the "re-form", change-readiness and change-resistance, between the global and the Vietnamese, between the "whys" of global importation and the "where" of the policy enactment become essential in understanding the Agenda's reform solutions and aspirations. This feature unpacks another side of the Agenda: its capacity to connect the global reform imaginary with the continuity and hybridity of the past, the present and the future of the system. Linking this trait to the aim of this study, the Agenda's journey of travelling from national to global and back is located in these aforementioned interactions. However, underpinning these interactions is the conflict between what is global and what is national about the Agenda. For example, the privatisation policy was replaced by the socialisation of education to match with the country's political environment of determination to transition to socialism. This is what is most Vietnamese about Vietnam as well as about reforming VHE, altering the nature and method by which the global influences are manifested in the policy (in this chapter) and institutional changes (in the following chapter). Thus, the presence of the global influences is not as powerful as these Vietnamese features. The ideology commitment is not just something symbolic but anchored into the

practices of VHE as in the contextual review of the VHE system (Chapter 2), analysis of the Agenda (this chapter) as well as the institutional changes (Chapter 5) and reform imaginaries (Chapter 6).

To sum up, this chapter unpacks the way in which the Agenda responds to and resists globalisation. It concludes that globalisation has been received and reinvented into the Agenda by the adoption of the global trends in reforming higher education, i.e. decentralisation, privatisation and internationalisation. The Agenda's great expectations reflect the determination of the Vietnamese government in achieving a system of the global advanced standard at the same time as maintaining the Party's ideological commitment. As such, what is global about the Agenda is present but less powerful than what is national about it. However, what is global and what is national in the Agenda is not the entire concern in this study, another element in critically understanding the Agenda is its presence in the universities, in particular public universities, as I will discuss in the following chapter.

Chapter 5 Changes in public universities and the Agenda

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the answer to the second research question (*How have the practices of public universities changed because of the Agenda?*). It is structured by linking changes in three public universities, the Capital City University (CCU), Science and Technology University (STU) and University of Economics – The University of Middle Region (UEMR), with changes proposed in the reform targets and solutions in the Agenda. Data were drawn on institutional policies, interviews with three groups of leaders (university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders) in CCU, STU and UEMR. Pseudonyms for participants and their institutions have been used for ethical reasons.

5.2 How changes were constructed

Most participants answered the question of changes in their universities as, “*There have been many changes*”, or, “*so many things have changed*”. However, only a few of them elaborated these changes in detail and with examples. For some participants, changes were analysed but for others, changes were mostly listed and seen as something new, something publicly recognised. For example, the name-change of CCU, the establishment of the Centre/School of International Education in all three universities, the initiative of the Reading Group in UEMR. These above centres are in charge of the international training programmes between Vietnamese and overseas universities. Participants were aware of change in their institutions but not of the policy that was underpinning or driving the changes. The analysis focus is more about searching for changes viewed by participants within these universities rather than examining changes that have already taken place and how people responded to them. As such, the narratives in this section are about changes coming from within the universities as in the study of Slowey (1995) rather than about the changes from the top (Weil, 1994).

However, speaking of changes, within a university as an organisation, there have always been the measurable and non-measurable changes that are constant from one day to the next in the workplace of a university. It might be the visible and measurable changes, for example, Tight (2013) sees the most obvious change in higher education as the trend towards larger institutions (as

measured by student enrolments). However, there is continuity of change in the scholarship and volume of teaching, researching and service to the community that is brought into the university, especially in the context of the global flow of ideas, people, technology, media and money (Appadurai, 2011) imported into universities. The university is no different from other locations nowadays with the circulation of space and place. It exists in the place of local and space of global (Aminy, 2002). Changes seen by participants are the combination of the places where they speak from, based on local location (locally) and the space of their profession (globally). As such, there is always the global factor in the accounts of participants, given their leadership positions. Many of them received or obtained their education in the developed world outside of Vietnam. That is used to explain the fact that there is the tendency among participants to compare their current practices in the local location with the practices in other locations that they are familiar with.

Public institutional changes constructed in this study are the positive changes. These positive accounts are evidenced in the way they reflected on changes as a “*real opportunity*” for being able to self-govern, “*the expansion of our cooperation in both width and depth*” in international cooperation, and as “*our unique achievement*” for achievement in the institutional research database. Another evidence is the enthusiasm of participants in thinking about the new autonomy for their universities. Their optimistic comments are opposite with Dao’s (2015) analysis of changes in VHE system as “*imbalanced*”, “*superficial*” (p.757). He criticised changes are mainly about the expansion of buildings, facilities and computers than on the core matter of governance, training and research quality. In this study, three public universities (CCU, STU, and UEMR) are all well set on their journey to reform and improve their training quality, establishing a research culture, expanding links with their international partners as well as the national industries.

5.3 Practices of public universities

Among a number of ways and theories to define practice, in certain policy settings, practice is understood as “*the movement of policy ideas to, in and between the policy settings*” (Heimans, 2012, p.11). However, in the context of this research question, practice is attached to the place of implementation of the Agenda rather than to be understood as the practice of the policy. In other words, “*practices of public universities*” refers to all the accounts given by participants in constructing

their account of changes in their institutions. There are two issues needing consideration: *what has happened and how participants have interpreted it*. Participants' accounts could relate to any of the elements related to the resource, environment, connectivity and output used by Williams, de Rassenfosse, Jensen, & Marginson (2013) as the criteria to measure the quality of the national higher education system. Practices of public universities in this context did not follow any pre-identified formats but were guided by the Agenda's reform targets and solutions.

5.4 An unexpected finding

An unexpected outcome was the realisation that the Agenda is unknown to 17 participants in this study despite their individual professional positions as head of training department, head of international relations, head of the research department, head of teacher union and student union. Four people who know about the Agenda include two senior policy-makers of MOET and STU's former and the current president. In speaking about the Agenda, the current STU's president "*I think the Agenda is good, but even if there was no such Agenda, our university still needs to change.*" One of CCU's participants mistook the Agenda for the National Foreign Language Project 2020 (Decision No. 1400/QĐ-TTg). As such, a part of the data collection was adjusted to establish if the participants were aware of the Agenda by asking them if they ever attended any seminar or workshop on reforming higher education towards 2020.

As a result, there is no direct answer to the research question, "*How have the practices of public universities changed as the result of the Agenda?*" As such, this question is answered indirectly via changes viewed by participants and how these changes relate to the Agenda as in Figure 26 below.

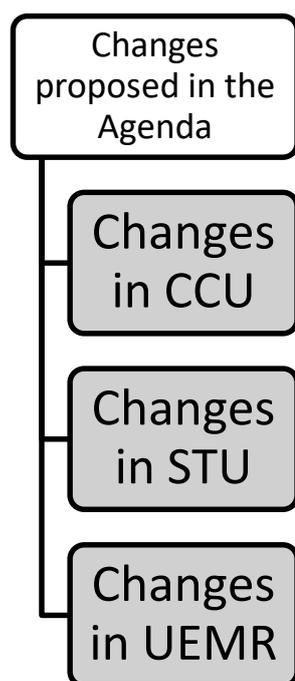


Figure 26: Conceptualisation of changes in this chapter

In other words, the above research question is divided into two sub-questions as below:

1. How and to what extent universities are changing, from the accounts of the participants?
2. How and to what extent does the Agenda influence these change processes, linking the accounts of change from participants to changes proposed in the Agenda?

Exploring such processes of change within the university in order to understand the dynamics of change would give an insight into what happens within the university and how this relates to changes proposed in the Agenda. Using the views of participants and further analysis, the possible explanation for the reason why the Agenda become a symbolic policy was explained by the discontinuity of the political support, its top-down features, and its continuity as an important point of reference.

5.4.1 *Discontinuity of political support*

One source of explanation is from Quang, the retired policy-maker of MOET. Quang had an important role in the Policy Panel that developed the Agenda. He was the head of the higher education department, MOET for more than 10 years. Being asked for comments on the Agenda becoming

symbolic, Quang argued for the discontinuity of political support turning the Agenda into an unknown policy:

Ten years on, the old houses have been repainted many times [...]. From the formation of the Agenda up to now, there have been four different Ministers of Education and Training. Each of the leaders has their own ambition of marking their tenure imprint by focusing on their priority policies. The Agenda, perhaps, was the product of such imprint ambition.

The first point that Quang addressed is the issue with the extensive timeframe of a decade. Different policy landmarks must have replaced the previous ones. Second, what Quang meant by “*tenure imprint*” is the deliberative political purposes of leaving a new and different landmark by the later coming powerful actors. Quang emphasised the situational feature of the policy that makes it become the tool enabling the temporary political attention rather than creating the long-term impact for the system of VHE. Policies like the Agenda became an instrument to gain the political spotlight.

Although the Agenda reflects the shifting values in the making of the reform policy, it is a short-lived policy serving the short-term determination, possibly as a tool to seek a political imprint in VHE. Quang’s important explanation for the fact that the Agenda become a symbolic policy is the absence of the strong domestic political support. His explanation resonates with Rosser’s (2016) argument for the importance of the dominant political and social elements in ensuring the success of the neo-liberal higher education reform agenda in the developing countries (Rosser, 2016).

He also added another comment: “*Perhaps, it can be said that our country must be ranked first in producing policies but is the worst one in implementing them*”. Although there is no other evidence to support this claim, given it is an opinion of an elite participant like Quang, it is worth thinking about the implications.

5.4.2 Top-down policy features

Another possible explanation is that Agenda itself is a top-down state-led reform policy, which might be “*not appropriate for handling changes since system-based policies always overlook the characteristics, dynamics and needs of the individual institution*” (Fumasoli & Stensaker, 2013, p. 2).

In the Agenda, a number of reform targets and solutions are tailored to the system achievement rather than individual universities. Targets, for example, of getting 40% enrolments in non-public

(now private) higher education institutions and completing the legal mechanism for private investment in VHE, have not much to do with public universities like CCU, STU and UEMR.

Many changes in universities happen on a daily basis with or without the top-down reform policy as in the case of the Agenda. According to Subotzky (2010) a number of factors (such as social institutions, social actors, interactions between universities with society and government) have more important roles in making changes happen than generally intended in top-down policy. Majone and Wildavsky (1978) criticised the top-down or forward-mapping policy as:

In most policies of interest objectives are characteristically multiple (because there are many things they want, not just one) conflicting (because we want different things), and vague (because that is how we agree to proceed without having to agree on exactly what is to be done) (Majone and Wildavsky, 1978 cited in Trowler, 1998, p. 104).

What Majone and Wildavsky (1978) critiqued for top-down policy was evidenced in the Agenda in terms of it being multiple targeted and epistemologically ambiguous (being unclear on the implementation methods). First, referring back to the Agenda analysis in Chapter 4, targets and solutions that are proposed in the Agenda is in the form of multiple lists. The Agenda is detailed in what to achieve but rather ambiguous on how to achieve this.

5.4.3 An important point of reference

Despite being an unfinished reform policy, the Agenda does not completely disappear. What it proposed and articulated has become an important point of reference for future policies and the academic research on VHE. According to Viet, a retired policy-maker of MOET, “*For all the educators, policy makers in education, they all know that Agenda is the deepest and the most well-written policy in higher education*”.

Table 16 : Key policies followed the Agenda's reform solutions

Time	Policy	Content
2005	The Agenda - Resolution 14/2005/NQ-CP	The Agenda of reforming higher education in Vietnam 2006-2020
2006	Decree No.75/2006/NĐ-CP	Recognition two types of ownership of VHE institutions “public” or “private”
2007	Decision No. 121/2007/QĐ-TTg	Recognition three types of ownership of VHE institutions “public” or “private” and “foreign”.
2008	Decision No. 1400/QĐ-TTg	The National Foreign Language 2008-2020 Project
2009	Circular No. 09/2009/TT-BGDĐT	Three public disclosure policy in VHE institutions in terms of operations, resources, and incomes and expenses
2010	Decision No. 911/QĐ-TTg	The PhD Training Project 2010-2020
2010	Directive 296/2010/CT-TTg	Reforming higher education governance 2010- 2012
2010	Decision No. 58/2010/QĐ-TTg	The University Charter
2012	Law No.08/2012/QH13	Law on Higher Education
2014	Resolution 77/NQ-CP	University Autonomy Project

Table 16 illustrates the major policies that were enacted following what was proposed in the Agenda from 2006 to 2014 in terms of diversifying VHE ownership (policies in 2006 and 2007), internationalisation via the language policy (policy in 2008), developing academic staff (policy in 2010), and reforming higher education governance (policies in 2009, 2010, 2012 and 2014).

5.5 Changes in practice of three universities

Three universities are selected for their differences in terms of organisation, structure, disciplines and research as well as their geographical locations. They are three different types of universities: regional university (UEMR), key university (STU) and multiple-disciplinary public expanded from the single disciplinary model (CCU). Most importantly, they are all under the management of MOET. From the perspectives of participants, each university with their unique features experienced different changes.

5.5.1 CCU

Name change

One of the milestones mentioned by most of the participants of CCU is its name-changing event as a part of the multiple-disciplinary expansion of CCU. Hoang, CCU's teacher-union head considered the name change as the transformation of CCU:

I have been teaching in this university, until now [November 2015] for... 26 years. It, obviously, is a long time since my graduation in Russia. I have to say that there are so many changes but the real transformation is the move from Foreign Languages University to the Capital City University.

She emphasised that there have been two major implications with the name changing event:

First, it is the expansion from the single disciplinary university to the multiple one so that the training can meet the social demand. Second, it makes our university unique for the use of English as the language of instruction.

Another account that elaborated on CCU's name change is from Ton, head of CCU's scientific research department. He shared a similar view but placed more emphasis on the expansion of the disciplines rather than the event of name changing:

The name-changing is something in the outside but the meaning is the mark of the expansion in training scope of our university, from mono-disciplinary to the multiple disciplinary. [...]We not only use English as the medium of instruction but also Japanese for the Computer Science study for example.

Changing the name from Foreign Languages University into the Capital City University is the strategic achievement of CCU, especially when it comes to searching for new partnerships in the process of international integration. These potential partners will no longer see CCU as the University of Training Modern Languages but as a university with its strength in internationalisation of its training programmes. The final analysis related to the name change is the strategic approach in taking the name Capital City University. Among a number of universities in the capital city, there is only one university that has the capital in its name - CCU.

CCU's identity

Another change is the conceptualisation the Westernised culture of CCU as CCU's identity. It was mentioned by the student leaders, training department head and teacher union head as another

landmark of the contemporary CCU. Although this concept has not been formalised in the university website or movements of CCU's students, CCU's identity lies in the institutional pride that CCU's participants have for their university. CCU has a unique environment that people can feel from their first encounters with the university. It has been compared to a multi-cultural environment as the result of the foreign languages training as well as the presence of foreign students on CCU's campus. CCU's students are in the advanced position compared to students in other universities in Vietnam for their foreign languages competence and their major expertise.

The identity refers to the openness in learning, interaction between students and teachers and even in the way students dress and express themselves. CCU's identity was mentioned fondly and proudly by Dinh, head of the training department:

Our students are well-achieved and active and I am very proud of them. I guess if you visit other universities you can see clearly how different our students are compared to students from other universities. In our language, language of CCU, we call it CCU's identity.

Sharing a similar view about the atmosphere of openness and modernity, Minh, one of CCU's student leaders:

I like the atmosphere of our university, especially the environment of openness and flexibility. Being CCU's student, I have many chances to participate in activities outside CCU, to volunteer for international events in Hanoi and to improve work-readiness skills while there are no such opportunities for my friends in other universities.

Thuy, CCU's student union president, affirmed activeness and modernity as the key component of such an identity:

Our students are very middle-class compared to ones from other universities, in this city as well as in the country, from the way they dress, talk, network with each other to the way they participate in student activities. I guess it is because they know foreign languages and can directly access foreign sources, which makes them become more open, friendly as well as forward-thinking.

Dinh used the term CCUers to refer to both students and staff of CCU for their dynamism:

I think that these are something to create the CCU typical features; as such the CCUers are more active. Students in other universities might question the manner of CCU's students of being relaxed.

Dinh elaborated on the uniqueness of CCU coming from the adoption of the foreign factors, particularly, teaching and learning foreign languages:

The atmosphere is not similar to other places. It is international, multicultural, multiple languages. Thus, the culture is more open, democratic, equal, and not restricted by the prejudice.

Dinh went on to give an example of the teacher and students relationship in CCU as “*the crystal-clear relationships*” because “*students can express their opinion and they are quite equal to teachers but rather than the traditional nature of students and teacher relationship*”. In addition to the crystal clear adjectives, another one that Dinh describes is “*more human-natured*”. Such an account makes me reflect on the robotic practices in many Vietnamese classrooms where students uniformly answer “yes” or “no” to the teacher rather than individual answers. Perhaps, the “*more human natured*” that Dinh implied is the friendliness of teachers in CCU environment which encourages students to talk rather than to remain silent. Such an environment makes the fear of teachers disappear in students or at least less than in other environments. Students perceive themselves to be active participants in a class rather than actors expected to achieve a formal script.

5.5.2 STU

Cradle for the Vietnamese qualified scientists and technicians

STU has long been recognised as the cradle for Vietnamese qualified scientists and technicians.

The uniqueness of STU, according to STU's former president Trong, is reflected in three features:

First, I always believe that in Vietnam, no technical university is better than STU. Second, STU graduates have an almost 100% employment rate and continue to win the highest evaluation from the business and research community. Thirdly, STU stays at the top of universities.

However, another opinion of STU's leader is that STU no longer has monopoly position as the only university in the country that has the high quality engineering graduates:

Previously, STU was the only university in Vietnam training technicians and engineers. After a while, there was the separation of University of Mining and Geology, University of Civil Engineering, University of Communication and Transport. They used to be departments of STU. The change is that STU used to have the monopoly over the entire industry in Vietnam but now things have changed.

In addition to the ending of engineering monopoly, STU is also under competition from other universities offering the same major training and research:

The third issue is that STU is located in the emergence of many universities as well as international cooperation projects in other universities in 2009-2010 that created a wave of competitiveness.

STU Research strength and international cooperation

STU aims at utilising its research strength in both domestic and international markets. According to the current STU's president:

In Vietnam, the contribution of the university is the contribution to the Vietnam society via its applied research for manufacture for boosting the economic development of the country. However, for the international community, they do not care about the achievement that your university gained in Vietnam but what your institution brings into the common development of international science. As such, for STU to stand and stand firmly, it needs these two legs. First, STU needs to focus on delivering the goals of Vietnamese education policies whilst also maintaining and developing its research profile in the world. I believe that STU has achieved both.

The expansion of research in STU started with changes in the approach to engineering training. Thanh, deputy head of STU's international relation department explained the changes in the philosophy of training engineers from the Soviet style to the American style:

Our philosophy in training engineers no longer followed the model of the former Soviet Union. In the recent years, we followed American and Dutch models for the standard training engineers, for example, the ABEST [Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology] model. We do not completely follow this model but get significant influence from it.

Thanh distinguished the specialised training focus in the Soviet model with the tendency of synthesis training in the American model for students in STU:

In the past, following the Soviet model, training for engineer is deeply specialised in one specific area such as metallurgical engineers, chemical engineers so that after they graduate they can immediately work at Thai Nguyen steel plant and lead copper smelters factory. The training purpose was to supply the human resources for such factories.

It is the difference in learning to make one thing skilfully in the past from learning to understanding the principles of the whole machine and combine details together:

What is different from before is that they used to teach you, all your life, to know how to make one thing. For example, all your life, you learn how to make the screen of the iPhone. In the past, the training for engineer is specialised in single thing. Now, it is the time of synthesis of knowledge and solving problems.

Together with the changes in the training philosophy and process, international cooperation is considered as crucial role for the expansion and development of STU, according to STU's former president. The process of cooperation and integration increased in both quantity and quality:

The cooperation brings both direct and indirect influence. At the first stage, the capacity of cooperating to run joint activities was weak, it developed in both depth and width. Examples can be seen such as more training models, more training programmes that are useful for STU to improve their current ones.

This expansion created the new department dealing with international cooperation in association with the department of international cooperation:

There has been a significant transformation. It used to be that all the jobs related to international cooperation were done by the department of international cooperation, such as scientific research, student exchange, or opening new training with cooperation with foreign universities. Now, there are so many jobs that this department only cannot complete them all.

However, according to Phu, head of international cooperation department, there are four obstacles in this process including language barrier, the equivalence of the credit system in Vietnam with that in European countries, funding and the issues of institutional autonomy.

5.5.3 UEMR

As university member

Compared to CCU and STU, UEMR has its unique operation as one of five university members under the University of Middle Region. According to Van, training department head:

As the university members, there are operations related to two or three sources of information. The first source is from the Middle Region University to the university members such as UEMR then second source is from the UEMR to the departments and faculties. In addition, the third source of information is among the departments of member universities. In other words, there are three sources of information circulation within our model of Middle Region University.

According to Van, this type of operation allows university members to have commonly-used resources:

The advantage is the use of the common-used resources within university members. For example, teachers of UEMR teach the courses of Marxism, Leninism and Law for all university members of the Middle Region University or teachers of University of Education teaches Maths, and Computing for University of Technology. In my opinion, such common-used resources are one of the biggest advantages of the Middle Region University.

However, Van also raised the concerns on the common misunderstandings about UEMR:

The role of regional university goes beyond a university of a province. Regional university is the representative for the entire region of the middle and highland of the country that is at higher level of influence than the provincial universities. However, people still think that our university is the university teaching economics in this province.

The relationship between the Middle Region University and UEMR can be compared with Mother University and Child University, which has been criticised for double-layers of management. For example, each department of UEMR is required to report to both UEMR and the Middle Region University management boards.

Building research culture

Research is the top priority in UEMR. According to UEMR's Annual Report, 2014:

UEMR has 90% of academic staff participating in doing research, each year, there are at least 10 articles, and presentations in the international journal and conferences including from 1 to 3 articles in the ISI, SCL, ABDC, Scopus journal (p.9).

In 2013, UEMR started publishing Journal of Economic Studies quarterly. The journal is the academic space for staff to publish research as well as learn from each other. The promotion of staff engagement in doing research became an initiative of UEMR via a series of research projects and the international joint research project.

In 2015, UEMR started the Theory Reading Group in order to engage teaching staff in exchanging and discussing information on theory, research and contemporary issues of the economic science, business and management of Vietnam and the world. It is also expected to be a channel for research at the department level and the university level to disseminate the outcomes. The reading group includes the resident members and the visiting members and is voluntary among academic staff. This reading group meets once every 2 months. Participation in the reading group is calculated as research time. Those present in the reading group will receive 50 hours of research credit plus a certificate from their respective deans.

Lien, deputy head of the research department, raised the priority that UEMR has for the early career academic staff:

We have the priority to promote early academics into research, as we believe this will give them a real opportunity to carry out their own research independently as a member of staff rather than as a student. However, for the research project at the regional university level or the State level, the bid will be for the more competent ones.

UEMR is also among the first universities in Vietnam with the complete database of its researchers:

Currently, the National Foundation for Science and Technology Development (NAFOSTED) is building the database of Vietnamese scientists with publications in either Vietnamese or other languages. However, UEMR has already completed such a database for our own researchers.

International cooperation

Similar to STU and CCU, international cooperation is the emphasis of UEMR on its journey of development. Linh, deputy head of the international cooperation department said:

I always believe that international cooperation is the bridge so that the international academic community recognised the role and position of our university. As such, UEMR established the centre for international education working closely with the department of international cooperation to carry joint projects in training, research and exchanging academic staff and students.

In the past, most of international cooperation tasks were granted to UEMR from the regional university. Since the appearance of the centre for international education, UEMR actively searched for its partnership with other universities and started running training cooperation:

I can see that the centre is operating independently. It is running the joint training programmes at the undergraduate level via exchange and transfer programmes, depending on the demand of the students and what is available in the centre.

These cooperation programmes enable UEMR to generate more revenues as well as create professional opportunities for academic staff. Different from CCU and STU, UEMR is located in the middle region of the countries where opportunities for academic staff to increase their income is not as potential as universities in Hanoi.

5.6 Linking to the Agenda: Governance

5.6.1 The Agenda

In the Agenda (2005), the objective of reforming governance is considered as, “*reforming governance of higher education toward increase autonomy for university, increase accountability and competitive capacity of the universities*” (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p 31). The reform solutions aim at granting more autonomy for public universities, emphasising establishing and operating the university council in replacement for the traditional management of the Academic and Party committee within a university.

5.6.2 Three universities

All three universities experienced changes in their governance with more autonomy (STU in 2012, CCU in 2014 and UEMR in 2016) and the operation of the university council. To link this new autonomy with the Agenda, there was not a direct reference to it. However, participants in three universities were not completely happy with this new autonomy.

In STU, according to the head of international cooperation department, autonomy is compared with “*old wine in the new bottle*”. He suggested:

The practice of autonomy for university is something newly formed and has not been well practiced yet. For example, STU already got the autonomy, from MOET, autonomy in offering qualification for STU that means rather than asking and waiting for permission as in the past, now there is no need of permission but you have to report so that people know what you are doing.

The time of STU's data collection was the time that the university had its newly-elected university council. This council was seen as an important change in managing STU. Tien, head of teacher union expressed:

The main change in terms of autonomy for STU is the appearance of the university council. I understand that the university council is to supervise if the president fulfils his tasks or not. Each year, the president brings about some strategies which will be voted through the university council and submitted to the National Assembly.

While for CCU, the University Autonomy Project, (short name for *Resolution 77/NQ-CP*) was mentioned in most of the interviews as important news and an opportunity for the university. In 2014, CCU was among the group of four pilot universities to implement this project. Followed the University Autonomy Project, *Decision 377/QĐ-TTg* of the Government on piloting the autonomy mechanism, specifically for CCU was also enacted in which CCU had more autonomy in academic and research, human resources and finance. However, there is the ceiling regulation on the adjustment of increasing tuition fee for CCU. According to Ton, head of research department:

In terms of finance, CCU has the autonomy to increase the tuition fee under the ceiling level of MOET. This put the public universities like CCU in the dilemma of funding: cutting down State funding but limiting the sources generating tuition fees.

The Autonomy Project is the fresh change for CCU and was received enthusiastically among administrative staff of CCU. Hoang considered the gain of autonomy as the second most important turning-point for CCU after this name changing in 2006:

The second turning-point for CCU is that our university has already reached the level and the training quality that the State, the Government, last year [2014] signed the Decision allowing CCU as autonomous university, not only in finance but also in many other facets.

Such implementation is emphasised in the Annual Report of CCU in the Staff Conference that summarised operation of CCU in the academic year of 2014-2015 and the tasks for 2015-2016:

The academic year of 2015-2016 is the year of significantly important duty for the university in the process of constructing and developing the organisation [...] with the key tasks of implementing the strategic plan of the University President Tenure 2015-2020 and Decision 377 QĐ-TTg of the University Autonomy Project (p.1).

However, not all participants agreed on the promising change that the autonomy project can bring about for CCU. Ngoc, head of the international relation department, saw the new autonomy as “another brick on the wall”:

Every year, the university only receives a small support of the expenditure for maintenance of infrastructure. The full autonomy means, such allowance from the State no longer exists and CCU has to self-raise the income to pay for staff and teachers' salary.

In December 2016, UEMR was added as the next university into the University Autonomy Project and received its own agenda in implementing autonomy in Decision 25/33/ QĐ-TTg of the Government. However, as its typical structure, autonomy of UEMR continues to be regulated by the mother university, the Middle Region University.

The new regulation in granting autonomy for public universities including the three universities in this study was just the new practice for universities. In addition, as stated by a participant in this study, becoming autonomous universities was a real breakthrough for the future development of these three universities, regardless of the complexity of the autonomy in VHE context. Universities are free to set their own fees but only up to a government legislated maximum. This might be projected to make a number of universities into having budget deficits.

Thus, despite the fact that the Agenda is unknown to the participants and that it might have become a symbolic policy, granting autonomy for public universities is initially and steadily realised as in the changes in CCU, STU and UEMR in terms of implementing the University Autonomy Project.

5.7 Linking to the Agenda: International Cooperation

5.7.1 The Agenda

In the Agenda (2005), the objectives of reforming international cooperation is expressed as, “links with increasing the competitiveness of the higher education system in the process of international cooperation” (Vietnamese Government, 2005, p.32). The Agenda proposed international cooperation

in wide ranges of activities for VHE from research, teaching and learning to attracting foreign investment into building foreign-owned universities in Vietnam as well as different forms of providing higher education. An important policy priority of the Agenda is its openness to international cooperation.

5.7.2 Three universities

International cooperation in these three universities has expanded in both quantity and quality. Although there is a different level of commitment in each university towards this process, international cooperation is seen as opportunity for the universities to benefit academically, financially and also contribute to the internationalisation of Vietnamese universities. Linking to the objectives in the Agenda of international cooperation, CCU, STU and UEMR are all veering themselves toward multiple dimension cooperation from joint training to long-term and short-term research projects. What these universities achieved in their international cooperation is not outside of the Agenda boundaries but is inherent with each university. Their strengths and weaknesses when it comes to the integration are different. For example, the foreign language barrier, specifically English proficiency, is considered as the difficulty for both STU and UEMR in international cooperation, whilst CCU with their strength in languages encounters other issues such as strategies to recruit students for these programmes and the methods to compete with similar joint training programmes of other universities.

International integration among these three universities include (1)- joint-training for undergraduate, Master degree and sandwich PhDs; (2) Professional development for academic and teaching staff in universities in foreign countries in research, curriculum building, and university management; (3) Inviting Professors from foreign country universities, including Vietnamese overseas Professors to give lectures; (4) Establishing joint-research projects; (5) Encouraging staff in Vietnam to have publications in the international academic journals. However, one point to emphasise is that the international cooperation that three universities experiences are mainly, what de Wit (2011) coined, “*internationalisation at home*” (p. 242) or importing the international practices and curriculum into Vietnam. What actually happened is either the coming of new programmes from overseas as well as

a certain amount of participation of international lecturers coming to deliver lecture or research project based in Vietnam with the participation of foreign partners.

Motivation

All three universities acknowledge the benefits of this process in terms of improving the quality in training and research. According to the head of International Cooperation Department, STU:

In the past, we came to international cooperation for the sake of training human resources as well as asking for infrastructure support. However, for now, the purpose is to enhance training and research cooperation. [Phu]

In UEMR, this process is seen as the opportunity for capacity building:

I think the main motivation is for capacity building. Many aspects in capacity building are beneficial for our academic staff in teaching and doing research. It is also an opportunity for students to experience the new learning environment. [Linh, head of international cooperation department]

In CCU, international cooperation was seen as enabling students to experience the international standard of higher education without travelling overseas, which avoids the risk for young people living alone in another country:

The motivation for these programmes came from the in-country demands. Lot of parents want to pay for their children to have international standard education but not all of them can afford to send their children overseas. Some parents feel more secure for their children to stay in Vietnam rather than travelling overseas. [Ngoc, head of international cooperation department]

Furthermore, Ngoc stated the purposes of cooperation but not dependence on the foreign university name to run international cooperation programmes:

What the university wants is an opportunity for its staff to learn and improve. Through the joint training programmes, our university can learn from the curriculum, the training methods, and the working styles [...].Steadily, we can cooperate with them, rather than to lean on their names.

All three universities come to international cooperation as looking for practical partnerships from the developed world, practical pedagogy and the international standard projects. In this process, students, academics, and managers in the Vietnamese side requires learning their languages, mostly English. Although in CCU, there are centres for Thai, Italian, Japan and Spanish, cooperation

remains at the beginning level. In all three universities, an increased number of students enrol for the international cooperation programmes, or joint programmes between their universities and foreign universities. The ultimate purpose is to acquire international standard higher education in Vietnam. These programmes imported the classes where English is used as the medium of instruction of Vietnamese teachers to Vietnamese students. This practice is conceptualised by Archer and Matheos (2013) as Englishisation, in this context Englishisation for Vietnamese students. Archer and Matheos (2013) problematise these Englishisation classes for the English competence of both teachers and students. The whole process becomes the “*on-going experimentation*” with “*the serious deterioration of the quality of instruction*” (Fortanet-Gómez, 2013, p.22). Given that teachers are the ones who are qualified to deliver lessons in English, students will leave with half-understood concepts, as they have not come to terms with such notions in Vietnamese.

Barriers

When it comes to internationalisation, the three universities in this study consider it as the looking up process with the number of conditions requiring compromise as the partner in the weaker side. Phu in STU explained that the barriers in cooperation lead to the unequal cooperation in terms of language proficiency, course equivalence, finance capacity and the conditional autonomy:

The first difficulty when it comes to international cooperation is the barrier of foreign languages although STU students have improved the level of foreign languages but cannot compare to students in CCU or other universities with their strength in foreign languages. [Phu, STU]

UEMR deputy head of international relation department shared the same concern on “*the ability of our staff to work in foreign languages such as English and French*”. On the contrary, CCU has the tradition in training foreign languages:

CCU has the strength that was invisible before the diversity of foreign languages in our university, especially English. Such an environment is the evidence for the foreign partners, as such, it does not take long time for CCU to find new partner in joint programmes. [Ngoc, CCU]

The second barrier is equivalency of the credit system:

The second difficulty is the equivalent in the number of credits for students. For example, all the students in the European Union have the same credit system, same courses, same duration of time, but in Vietnam, the credit system is different. Thus, it is not easy to come to term with something in common in such circumstances. [Phu, STU]

In addition to the Englishisation class, the lack of equivalency is another issue for the manager of university to consider whether to localise such practice by using the already-existing credit calculation or to uncritically import the new practice.

The third issue that Phu raised is the changing practice of the contribution to cooperating with Vietnamese universities as Vietnam moves to the low middle-income level:

The third issue is the question about infrastructure. In the past, Vietnam was in the group of the low-income countries, a number of foreign aid programmes came but now Vietnam is in the low middle-income country, aids from other countries reduced or even stopped. [Phu, STU]

Moving into the lower middle-income country has an impact on the way in which universities in Vietnam cooperate with their partners:

This puts the international cooperation in the win-win situation more. We started to have the programmes, in which the foreign partners invest 70% and your university in Vietnam 30% rather than they invested 100% as practiced in the past. In other words, there must be investment from both sides. Given the situation of the low tuition fees of the public universities, limited resources, as such the third issue here I want to emphasise is the finance, or money. [Phu, STU]

The final consideration is the autonomy with regulation on the maximum tuition fee for each autonomous public university:

So far, I talked about the language barrier, credit system, funding and fourth issues is the autonomy. The autonomy in our public university is not fully autonomous like our partner universities. For example, finance autonomy is still restricted by government legislated maximum for tuition fee. [Phu, STU]

Joint training

Developments of these training programmes goes along with the establishment of the international education centre in CCU, school of international education in STU and centre for international

education in UEMR. Using English as medium of instruction, these centres and schools provide not only Intensive English Courses but also offers application support for their prospect students.

Explaining the establishment of school of international education in STU, Thanh referred to the expansion of the training cooperation:

Even in the international cooperation, there has been a significant transformation. It used to be that all the jobs related to international cooperation were done by the department of international cooperation department. But now, there are so many jobs that our department only cannot complete them all.

Due to this cooperation expansion, the research cooperation with a foreign partner was moved to a specific institute within the university, and the training cooperation has been moved to the school of international education. Thus, STU's department of international cooperation becomes the place of getting initial information and then transferred them to the specific institutions within STU:

For example, for any partner that the first time wants to cooperate with STU, they will contact us as the initial place. Or the other way is to send the information to the president and then the president office will send to our department. [Thanh]

In CCU, joint training is seen as not only as profit generation but also professional development for CCU. According to Ngoc, CCU's joint- training programmes are different from those of other universities in terms of staff engagement:

Many of our academic staffs are qualified to teach in these programmes as CCU already has four faculties using English as the medium of instruction. Engaging in these joint programmes offers an opportunity for our staff to learn from academic staff of our partner universities.

With its strength in foreign languages and good name in running joint training programmes, CCU is among the first public universities running joint training with Australia since 1990s.

5.8 Discussion

The initial purpose of examining institutional changes within CCU, STU and UEMR as a result of the Agenda was not fulfilled for one important but unexpected finding of the Agenda being unknown. Thus, public universities remain intended places of implementation and the Agenda's reform solutions remain policy aspirations.

This finding has a significant impact on the empirical data for both research question 2 and research question 3. It shifted my research intention from critically examining the Agenda as a reform policy in which globalisation (research question 1), public institutional changes (research question 2), and opinions of university practitioners (research question 3) were used as a tool to characterise the designed journey of a policy (the Agenda) in different contexts (formations, practices and individuals' evaluative perspectives) to continue doing so knowing the actuality of the policy as an unfinished agenda. Prior to this finding, research question 3 was "*What are the perspectives of university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders on the Agenda?*". Thus, this finding did not allow me to follow what I planned but took me in another direction in which the diversity of reform agendas was constructed (in the following chapter).

From the previous chapter (Chapter 4) to this chapter, the Agenda was analysed from being a substantive to a symbolic policy. The reasons for its becoming symbolic can be explained by its extended timeframe, being multiple-targeted, epistemological ambiguity, and most importantly the outcome of temporary political attention. Although the Agenda becomes not only a symbolic and unfinished policy, it remains an important point of reference for later policies and research on VHE.

In addition to being aware of the Agenda as an unfinished reform policy, institutional changes of CCU, STU and UEMR were explored from the voices of their participants. These changes are constructed from the reflections of participants' professional satisfaction, excitement, hope and also anxiety with or without mentioning so in their narrations. The three universities are all on the threshold of transformation for change in terms of institutional expansion, enhancement of extensive international cooperation, establishing and strengthening their research culture, and most importantly beginning their new journey as autonomous institutions.

Linking to the Agenda, another important finding is that despite being unknown, institutional changes (in CCU, STU and UEMR) are in line with the reform solutions proposed in the Agenda in terms of VHE system expansion, internationalisation, and granting autonomy for public universities. However, what needs to be emphasised is that these changes came from different sources and policies instead of the Agenda, e.g. the University Autonomy Project. Despite having no direct link between policy aspirations and institutional changes, both shared commonalities of adopting the global trends in

higher education and of altering them into the Vietnamese context. What is global about the reform policy and what is global about the institutional changes are convergent to the point of conveying Vietnamese historical, cultural and political commitment to the country's higher education system.

In Chapter 4, I wrote about what is most Vietnamese about reforming VHE that alters the nature of globalisation manifested in the policy. In this chapter, this feature also has its place at the beginning of the autonomous universities. Although there is no absolute autonomy (Christensen, 2011), the cases of CCU, STU and UEMR suggested multiple layers of strings attached to their new autonomy. These strings came in the form of State regulation to supervise their practices in terms of certain areas such as legislated tuition fees increase and reporting regulations. Another finding noted in this chapter is premature optimism about seeking benefits from the process of international cooperation. The extensive cooperation ranging from exchanges, joint training and research programmes between CCU, STUC and UEMR with foreign universities have brought about tangible benefits in terms of academic resources, finances and staff development. In all three universities, the international education department was set up under different names to organise these activities, mainly joint-training programmes, where Vietnamese universities agreed to organise training, recruiting Vietnamese students, and arranging teaching staff, whilst foreign partner universities agreed to exchange their curriculum. These programmes put Vietnamese universities in an advantageous position and are becoming a lucrative market. Although these programmes in a way insert international voices into the traditional training route of Vietnam, their ultimate aims are to generate revenue from domestic students via borrowing foreign names.

What I conclude from this chapter is that institutional changes in CCU, STU and UEMR happen on a daily basis with or without the top-down reform policy as in the case of the Agenda. Joining the dots between institutional changes and the Agenda's reform solutions underpins the effect of globalisation on the public universities like CCU, STU and UEMR. Thus, these public universities, in addition to being influenced by the Party, the State, the VHE system, are now reacting to global impacts. These impacts bring about both an opportunity bargain and a trap. For example, the opportunity for new autonomous practices were replaced by State funding cuts and joint-training programmes could become a trap by putting public institutions into a race for recruiting students.

Chapter 6 Reform imaginaries

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the answer to the final research question “*What are the perspectives of the university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders on reforming higher education in Vietnam?*”. These perspectives were drawn on the interviews with three groups of leaders in CCU, STU and UEMR using thematic analysis. Participants were asked one interview question about their views on reforming VHE but in different forms as below:

In your opinion, what should we do to reform VHE? or

In your opinion, what are the motives for reforming VHE? or

In your opinion, what are the causes of the reform of VHE? or

In your opinion, why does VHE have to reform?

The purpose is to see how the policy problem of the Agenda (reforming VHE) was re-constructed in the eyes of those who are not in an official policy-making role. Their accounts are diverse with contrasting views of people in different positions of influence and authority. The themes from the interviews on the policy reconstruction are presented in the three different categories of managerial position (university leaders), teaching positions (teacher union leaders) and learning positions (student leaders). In constructing their views on reforming VHE, global trends of higher education were reconstructed by participants using their own languages and experiences typical not only to their institutions but also to the VHE culture. Each narrative will be seen as an individual versions of reform agenda adding to the collective views of the social imaginary of reforming VHE or reform imaginary. Pseudonyms for participants and their institutions have been used for ethical reasons.

6.2 General observations

6.2.1 Institutional constraints

The first observation is the issue of the institutional constraint that each participant might encounter in expressing their views on a particular phenomenon related to their universities or the entire system. Trowler (1998) pointed out that most academics are strongly constrained by the context of their institutions. In this case, the perspectives of different leaders were influenced by their roles within

their institutions. Perhaps due to this constraint these participants developed their views inconsistently and self-contrastingly during the interviews, e.g. their silence in critiquing their own institutions but their outspokenness about the issues facing the entire system that their institution is a part of. This impression is what I came to terms with after a number of interviews when participants' self-contrasting opinion can be expressed as:

I have nothing to complain about my university where I have been working for years [...] but if you asked me about the necessity of reforming of the system of university, well, I have many things to say.

6.2.2 Overwhelmed by the question

Another impression was the surprised reactions of participants when asked, “*In your opinion, what are the motives for reforming VHE?*” For example, Xuan, CCU's general secretary of the Ho Chi Minh Communist Youth Union (HCYU), when asked this question, hesitated “*Well, [...] I need time to think about it? Can you come back later?*” Xuan has been the secretary of CCU president for 5 years. His position as the highest leader of the HCYU means he is responsible for the political activities of students within the framework of the Union, in preparation for joining the Party. Additionally, his second position as the secretary of CCU president allows him to accumulate different views of CCU as well as the entire system through academic and administrative seminars. Thereby, his silence on the topic was one of the memorable impressions during the fieldwork. His hesitation might be explained either by him never having thought about it, or him being worried about saying something that was not considered the right issue in relation to reform. Another example is Thuy, the president of CCU student union. Thuy acknowledged that the question overwhelmed her and saw herself as if she were the Minister of Ministry of Education and Training. Thus, the problems of the Agenda reforming VHE exist beyond the routine thinking of the participants, even the ones in leadership positions.

6.3 Social imaginary in reforming VHE

The perspectives of participants are linked together by their collective views on reforming VHE which conveys their experiences, expectations, and their identification of problematic university practices. They are simply their views on the *what*, the *why* and the *how* of reforming VHE. Each narrative is an element of a social imaginary of reforming VHE. In this chapter, Taylor's (2004) social imaginary

is understood as the way in which these three groups of leaders (university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders) constructed their collective views on reforming VHE.

In this time of globalisation, the dominant social imaginary is not only argued for by its presence in the educational policies (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010) as in the case of the Agenda in Chapter 4, but also in Gale and Parker's (2015) market-based forms of aspirations. One such imaginary is the aspiration to pursue self-maximisation that has different meanings and opportunities for students, teachers and leaders. These aspirations are situated within not only their own identification but also by how this is perceived within the social ambience (Sellar, 2013) such as their professional contexts and constraints. In particular, students' aspirations for higher education are shaped by how they imagine themselves fitting in with others (Gale & Parker, 2015). This is also the case for teachers' and leaders' aspirations, in this study. In particular, the concerns about autonomy of university leaders, the teaching and research concerns of teacher union leaders, and the matters of what to learn in the curriculum and the practicality of internships of student leaders underline their professional awareness and the demand of bettering their performance and importantly capitalising on these performances.

6.4 Perspectives of university leaders

The first narration in the social imaginary of reforming VHE is the accounts of university leaders. Their accounts explained the need for change starting with the increase in the quantity of students leading to changes in quality, the need for reforming the curriculum, and the governance of VHE. Despite the macro-level of their analysed narratives the detailed examples in their daily language of metaphors and explanations has enabled the complicated issues of reforming VHE to be turned into more easily understood issues.

6.4.1 Expansion with social obsession

The first narrative explaining the need for reforming VHE is the system expansion, especially expansion related to the social obsession for attending university. This expansion was explained by changes in the attitude of young people thinking about university: seeing university as a "*taken-for-granted dream*". The "*taken for granted dream*" was the remark of Quang, a retired senior officer of Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) in elaborating on the university rush of young people. He

also associated the expansion with the new generation of students coming to university as a *must* rather than a *should*:

In the past, not everyone wanted to attend university but now university has become a must for young people. Families, friends and societies all put pressure on young people. The current student generation has become the generation of must-university or must-attending-university students rather than should-university and should-attend-university students as in the past.

From this narrative, Martin Trow's (1972) system expansion of higher education from elite (less than 15% of population as students) to mass (from 16- 50%) and universal (over 50%) was specified in changes in the social imaginary of attending university: from *should-university* to *must-university* within generations of *should-attend-university students* and *must-attend-university students*. From should to must, there is a difference between the self-identification of choice and the external identification of encouragement. This acceleration of seeing university as a compulsory choice is seen as the dominant imaginary among young people. In locating their position between the should imaginary and the must imaginary when entering university, students might easily lose track of their own standpoint when thinking about what and who university is for.

Take Minh, the student leader of Capital City University (CCU) as an example. Being able to attend CCU is so important that she would rather choose to spend one year in her least wanted university waiting to re-take the entrance examination to her most wanted university than not being a student:

CCU is my first choice since I entered high school because it not only has the reputation for foreign languages but, I can also study economics in English. However, when I did the entrance exam I thought I would not pass. I was thinking about studying at a private university for one year while I wait to re-take the entrance exam so that I can get into CCU.

Minh's determination to be a student of CCU is one example among a wide number of students who look at public universities as their first choice. Despite the growing number of private universities or international universities or joint-training programmes with foreign universities (GSO, 2017; Dao, 2015; Harman et al., 2010; Wilkinson & Chirot, 2011), they continue to be secondary to public ones and are among the more luxurious choices for the minority of students from wealthy families (Hayden & Khanh, 2010; Huong & Fry, 2002). Another point from Minh's quote above is that staying in a private university for a year might save them from losing face due to failing the entrance exam to the

desired university. This aspiration is shaped by collective views of must-university from their peers, families and a society that is obsessed with education.

The obsessive dream, among young people, of attending university makes the effort of getting into universities one of the most memorable milestones. It is so memorable that almost everyone could reflect on his or her experience with different stories. For example, there used to be the “*examination preparation oven*” for university examination in the big cities such as Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh. Students referred to this metaphor to describe the density of space and heat in small classrooms with extra numbers of students. The obsessional dream of university amongst young people like Minh makes three years in post-secondary school become three years of preparation for university exams with extra-classes in the evenings and at weekends. Reflecting on his experience in learning for the entrance examination to university, STU’s international relation department head, Phu commented, “*We all studied like buffalos and horses for the entrance exam to universities. Once we got there, we started to slide down in laziness*”. The illuminative imaginary of must-university is urging young people to empty themselves out to pass university entrance examinations. Thus, entering universities is viewed by students as the end of a hard time of examination rather than the beginning of a new journey.

Additionally, it is the social imaginary of a qualification-valued society (Thiep, 2006) and the emphasis on qualifications in job recruitment and promotion (Wilkinson & Chirot, 2011). Thus, according to Viet, MOET’s retired senior officer, there is the mentality among students of “*Learning for the sake of the qualification paper*”. He also raised the social tendency of “*so many teachers (intellectuals), so few workers*”. Viet highlighted that it is time to let young people and their parents know that “*Life not only needs Einstein but also Edison*”. The consequence of the university rush is the practical dilemma of employment where 200,000 graduates were unemployed in 2014 (Ministry of Planning and Investment, 2015).

Perhaps, the university rush is not only the story for Vietnamese students but also for students in other countries getting lost in translating their future aspiration: whether university is a should or a must; a taken for granted dream or the dream that needs thinking otherwise. When students take the

agency to internalise their capacity to aspire, university is still a desired destination but one among many others.

6.4.2 Expansion with demotivation

One of the consequences of the social obsession of chasing the taken-for-granted dream of must-attend-university is the demotivation of students or the “*absence of the fuel for learning*” for some students’ mind-set of “*learning for parents*”, according to Thanh, STU’s leader. As the deputy head of STU’s international relations department cum senior lecturer in faculty of control engineering and automation, Thanh elaborated on the aimlessness of his final year students:

Being a senior lecturer here for many years, I realised a problem like this. In a class of 20 final year students, each of them needs to carry out a research project to be able to graduate. However, almost all of them do not know what to do with their research project: seeing the project as an assignment to pass or seeing it as a part of the experience to directly serve their job seeking after graduation.

In his metaphoric language, the “*do not know what to do*” practices of final year students were compared with the lack of fuel needed to run a learning engine. There might be a number of reasons why final year students are unable to choose their research topics. However, as their teacher, Thanh suggested:

There are usually three choices among my final year students. The first choice is to be excellent and find a scholarship for postgraduate study in developed countries. The second is to be in the average group expecting to make money and work for a company after graduation. Their thesis is a tool they use to link them to the company. The third one is for students calling on the help of parents to look for a job after graduation and paying no attention to the thesis.

Thanh raised the issue of professional aimlessness for STU’s engineering students. STU is one of the top universities in Vietnam for civil engineering. To be recruited to STU, students must have been top in their post-secondary education and have performed well in the entrance examination to the university (usually achieving 80 %+). For STU’s engineering qualification, training time is 5 years. After spending 4 years at STU, rather than choosing a research topic in which they were interested, students asked their teacher to choose for them. It might be fair to link this aimlessness with learning demotivation but it is an alarming reality for students, teachers and leaders to think about the continuity of their students’ choice of the “*do not know what to do*”.

Another explanation for the demotivation of university students is the distribution of knowledge between general education and higher education. Phu, another of STU's department leaders made the following observation:

For a long time, our education system put huge pressures on students in general education for the ultimate purposes of university entrance. In the same way as long-distance running athletes, if you put all the energy and power in the first few kilometres, athletes will find it difficult to maintain the same high speed. The same is true for our students. They already use their early teenage years on stressful exams and exams in the race to get into university. As such, in their late teens and adolescence they no longer find joy and passion in learning and see learning as a boring task and as a coping strategy. In general, students studied a lot during their general education but then started to relax and study less seriously when they came to higher education.

What emerged from his reflection is the consequence of students' attitudes to learning due to the imbalance between the distributions of knowledge from general education to higher education. Higher education is supposed to be a time for students to learn, explore and participate in the process of knowledge generation as well as self-improvement. However, this imbalance set students into the mind-set of studying a lot during their general education and then when they go to university they relax.

Concerns about students' learning come not only from university leaders but also from student leaders, e.g., Quynh from UEMR. Student leaders are the ones with achievement in both academic and social areas and show a high sense of responsibility over the Student Union and the problems that their fellow student friends are facing. Quynh did not know how to explain the cause of this tendency:

As a student, I usually wonder what the reason is that whilst at university, students do not study with passion, or a love of research, or to further the application of technology. Perhaps there might be only a small number of such students. I don't know.

Quynh's observation stopped there by posing a question "I don't know, why?"

6.4.3 Curriculum in need of change

Another reform imaginary is the concerns about the curriculum. VHE's curriculum was criticised for its "imbalance between theory and practice" and "lack of work-readiness and work-preparation skills"

(Vietnam Education Foundation, 2014, p.65). In VHE, the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) is responsible for developing the curriculum and producing materials. All courses and their structures have to follow the curriculum frameworks from the MOET (Harman et al., 2010; Phan et al., 2016). Of three universities in this study, I was able to interview two training department heads and one retired senior officer on curriculum issues. The training department is the department that is in charge of all the issues related to the curriculum and assessment in a university, according to the university charter (Vietnamese Government, 2010). The reform imaginary of curriculum was constructed in terms of its philosophy, inappropriate distribution of general and expert knowledge, and ambiguity of the course requirement criteria.

Curriculum philosophy

According to Quang, the retired officer in MOET, the most critical concern is the continuity of curriculum approach as knowledge transmitting rather than knowledge producing:

The curriculum of our universities is fundamentally designed in the content-based model by transmitting knowledge from this generation to the next. This approach allows learners to learn as much knowledge as possible. For the competency-based approach, the important issue is not about providing knowledge but to practice the capacity of learners to self-research, and to create their own knowledge from shared knowledge.

Quang's critiques shared common views with Phan, Lupton, and Watters' (2016) research on the curriculum from the views of senior administrators, teachers, and students in different universities in Vietnam. Phan and colleagues' study concluded that the VHE curriculum remains understood as product rather than process. The process orientation emphasises the role of the learning experience and participation of students in constructing and challenging teaching content with teachers (Barnett, Parry, & Coate, 2001) whilst the product approach is concerned with the outcomes of assessment. Thus, the curriculum can either be a tool for students to facilitate and map their own knowledge territory or hurdles and challenges for students to jump.

Knowledge distribution

Another reform imaginary of the curriculum is the distribution of general knowledge courses. The department heads in this study had the habit of using the example of higher education in a developed

country to reflect on what was problematic in VHE. Van, UEMR's training department head, compared the curriculum of American universities with those in VHE:

It is also four years but it is four years of real work rather than dividing time for general knowledge courses like in our country. This is the explanation for the weak quality of our bachelors.

The curriculum structure in most universities in Vietnam is the combination of general knowledge and knowledge of the specific major (Phan et al., 2016).

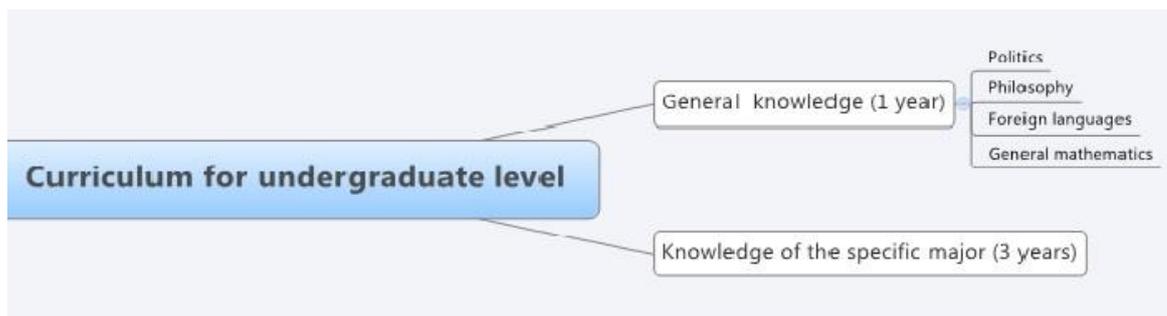


Figure 27: Vietnamese higher education's curriculum for undergraduate level

Four courses of the general knowledge category including *Politics*, *Philosophy*, *Foreign Languages*, and *General Mathematics* take up about one year, equivalent to 30 credits. CCU's deputy head of the training department, Dinh criticised the long-stretching general knowledge courses for the first year as the culprit for the demotivation of students:

In my opinion, the first year has an important role to cultivate and nurture student passion in pursuing their major. Thus, e.g. Arts' students should be taught subjects enabling them to understand the beauty and enjoyment of the Arts, or Maths' students should be learning Maths-oriented subjects rather than subjects of Philosophy, Eastern Concepts and Western Concepts which is very interesting knowledge but not appropriate.

Dinh continued to criticise the curriculum structure for undergraduates as “*being no different from having too much entrée for your meal and no space for the main course*”. Perhaps, this could be another explanation for the demotivation of students at universities because their first “taste” of university learning is subjects with knowledge that they are not yet ready to understand.

Sharing the common view with Dinh from CCU, UEMR's training department head, Van recommended the solution of separating the general knowledge units and converting them into the extra-curricular programme:

I support the view of our curriculum expert that the reason why the curriculum in European countries is designed for three years rather than four years as in our country is that there is no such one year of general knowledge preparation. This knowledge could be designed as extra-curricula, for example, students can study foreign languages anywhere as long as they ensure the quality for graduation.

For the first-year students in Vietnamese universities, these courses take up a large amount of time and most of the students see no benefit in that (Tran et al., 2011). Although both Van and Dinh expressed the concerns of general knowledge courses, Van did not in particular refer the political and ideological courses (Marxism- Leninism, Ho Chi Minh's Thoughts and History of the Communist Party of Vietnam). These courses are privileged in the curriculum as the compulsory course requirements for the foundation year of undergraduate studies and before the final examination for graduation (Nguyen, 2011).

Outcome criteria

The final issue with the VHE curriculum is the ambiguity of the course outcome criteria. According to Van, UEMR's training department head:

Although most universities already publish the outcome requirements of each individual in terms of Knowledge, Skills, Attitude and Competency, these criteria are general and ambiguous. They are more about a part of fulfilling administrative requirements rather than fulfilling the accountability commitments of the university.

He also compared these criteria with the ones in American universities:

Criteria of American universities are very scientific. Evidence can be seen in the requirements that students have to complete particular tasks, and have participated in a research project right from the first year. For the second year, students do the internship in factories and companies and have to have a seminar paper. For the third year, students have to participate in the research of teachers, to learn about how to carry out a research project. For the final year, each student has his or her own research.

However, it would be a challenge for first year university students in Vietnam to participate in the research project from the first year. Part of the explanation is the cultural habit of learning in general

education in Vietnam where students learn in a spoon-fed fashion, rote memorising, and trying to be a cloned version of what is said by teachers (Phuong-Mai, Terlouw, & Pilot, 2005). Another reason is the difference in the aspect of Vietnamese society and American society within which universities are located. University is part of the society and all aspects of the society (the philosophy, culture, value system, political system, social system and economic system) have a significant bearing on the orientation and characteristics of the governance process within the universities (Hussin, 1995).

6.4.4 Governance

Another reform imaginary from university leaders is the issue of governance. Aspects of reforming governance were reconstructed in terms of granting autonomy to universities, the operation of the university council, and the practice of conditional autonomy.

Autonomy

First, university autonomy was the term frequently mentioned by participants with the link to an expectation of transformation in universities' governance. Viet, senior officer in MOET considered institutional autonomy as the crucial factor in reforming VHE:

Our system of higher education remains in the transitional process from a central planning model to a more market-oriented one. Without giving more autonomy, of course under the clear roadmap, certainly Vietnamese universities cannot be reformed or complete their mission given the fierce competition in a time of globalisation.

Coming from such a background, not all universities have enough expertise and resources to know how to deal with the autonomy that they have (Hayden & Thiep, 2007). This is the point raised by Trong, STU's former president:

The picture of the higher education system in Vietnam is similar to different children in a family. Two parents have 10 children of different ages: 2, 3, 12, etc and 25 and 26. If they are compared to different universities in our system, how can the 2-year-old child handle the autonomy without knowing how to put pants on? Thus, we can only give autonomy to the ones who are capable of taking control of their lives. In the same way for universities, we need to choose the ones that can exist without getting support from others and give them the autonomy.

Given the reality of the different types of universities, and different agencies managing different types of universities, not all are on the same page with regard to the willingness and ability to exercise

autonomy. Institutional autonomy requires conditions of confidence and trust (Hayden & Thiep, 2007). If the State is to proceed quickly with the granting of autonomy to higher education institutions in Vietnam, then it must be able to have trust in the decision-making structures of these institutions. In addition, there should be not so much of a gap between the real autonomy granted to universities and the formal autonomy that the universities have.

In 2014, *Resolution No. 77/NQ-CP* (or University Autonomy Project) was enacted, which granted an extended level of autonomy and accountability in teaching and research, governance and personnel, and finance. Commenting on the University Autonomy Project, Quang the retired senior officer:

As you know, at the moment, our country is in heavy public debt and the Government is running out of money. The core of piloting autonomy for universities, in addition to reasons such as reforming governance models, is that there is a scarcity of money in the State. As such, giving autonomy to universities is dealing between the State and universities: I will give you autonomy under the condition that you do not take my money any more.

CCU in this study was chosen to implement the University Autonomy Project, starting from 2015 when data for this study were collected. Most of the participants in CCU looked at the University Autonomy Project more as an opportunity than as a challenge.

University council

Two senior officers of MOET and STU's former president emphasised the role of the university council in operating autonomy, especially in reducing the power of the university rector.

The university is run by the combination of the Academic system and the Party system. However, the common practice in most universities gives the power to their rectors as both leader of Academic and Party. As such, too much power and authority are put under one person. The introduction of the university council is to separate the governance of university from the singular mechanism of the university rector. The role of the university council has become debatable as it is argued that universities have already got the Party committee and there is no need for a university council.

In explaining the difference between the mechanism run by one single individual (university rector) and the one with community power (university council), STU's former president, Trong distinguished between taking risks and creating changes versus playing safe and maintaining order:

As an organisation, university is always in need of change. However, change always goes together with risk. If the head of such an organisation is a single individual, risks are associated with losing their chair [position] as the leader. As such changes are less welcome, whilst if the head of such an organisation was a community of people, they dare to cope. As such, the main influence of the university council is to create change rather than to maintain order.

From this view, Trong wanted to compare between the accepting-risk-approach to the fearing-of-risk approach in two frameworks of governing universities. Supportive for the role of the university council, Phạm (2013) compared the difference between the traditional council of rectors and the university council in the same way as the difference between management and leadership, and between *doing the right things* and *doing things right*.

Conditional autonomy

Second, conditional autonomy is a new governance paradigm in which the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) and the Vietnamese Government, step by step, lose their control over three areas of institutional autonomy (in terms of academic, finance and staff). Liberating universities from the State-centric management has been a part of the Government agenda identified in the Agenda in 2005 (Hayden & Thiep, 2007) as well as the University Charter in 2010. Since 2010, the governance model has been reformed from State control to State supervision (Pham, 2012). However, from policy to practise, the stagnation of theory and reality is not always clear.

Granting autonomy for university is compared with the act of "*liberating for universities*" according STU's president. In his account, "*public universities are no different from children living in the house where the ceiling is too low to stand tall*". One of the consequences of the previous paradigm of governance is the passive practice of waiting for the permission of the MOET, or "*All things wait for MOET*" (Madden, 2014, p.190). University autonomy has been proposed and placed into practice in the Agenda in 2005, university charter in 2010 and the University Autonomy Project in 2014. However, the real autonomy given to public universities in Vietnam remains conditional (Dao, 2015) changing from the asking-giving paradigm to the reporting practice.

Autonomy also means cutting down the State funding for universities and imposing the restriction of a maximum tuition fee:

However, in terms of finance, you have the autonomy to increase the tuition fee under the ceiling level of MOET. This gave public universities like STU a funding dilemma: cutting down State funding but limiting the sources generating tuition fees.

Such is the similar case for CCU. CCU was selected among four public universities for the University Autonomy Project from 2014-2017. However, there is the ceiling regulation on the adjustment of increasing tuition fees, according to a CCU's senior leader:

In fact, CCU had financial autonomy since 2008, meaning it no longer got the financial support of the State and the university self-raised the income to pay for staff and teachers' salary. Every year, the university only receives a small support for expenditure for maintenance of the infrastructure. Full autonomy means such allowance from the State no longer exists.

In this case, universities like CCU are free to set their own fees but only up to a government legislated maximum. This might mean that a number of universities have budget deficits.

The quest for enhancing university autonomy in the social imaginary of university leaders reflected institutional demands of self-governance for self-maximisation. The university leaders hoped their management model was shifting from the passive waiting for permission to the active self-designing institutional strategy. The conditional autonomy for public universities is the distinctive governance character of Vietnamese higher education reflecting the political imprint in educational management.

6.5 Perspectives of teacher leaders

The reform imaginary of teacher union leaders was analysed from the interviews with representatives of CCU, STU and UEMR. They have a similar journey of being promoted to a leadership position from being senior teachers in their faculties or departments. Thus, they are leaders and teachers at the same time. Reforming VHE is considered as “a necessity to keep up with other countries in the ASEAN region” because the current system is “a big disappointment” to the public. Their narratives unpacked the difficulties for university teachers in teaching, doing research and balancing professional and domestic life.

6.5.1 “Teaching workers”

On the surface, the “teaching workers” concept reflects an overload of teaching and low salary but underneath it implied the burnout of teachers as well as the repeating act of teaching. The teaching-

focused practice in Vietnamese universities is partly the consequence of the residue from modelling Soviet higher education in the 1950s in Vietnam. In this Soviet model, universities were teaching-oriented while research was carried out in the independent institutions outside universities (Hayden & Thiep, 2010). The teaching overload can be seen in the regulation for teaching hours (*Decision 64/2008/QD/BGDĐT*) in which the regulated number of hours for university teachers is 40 per week, 1,760 per year with 900 for teaching, 500 for research and 360 for other professional activities. Most of the teachers at university see themselves as the ones who teach rather than the ones who do research.

Commenting on the low income of teachers in public universities, UEMR's teacher union leader, Thu explained:

Just think about this reality: for a two-year-old child in kindergarten, the fee for a month is 3 million Vietnam Dong-VND (about £100) while for a public university student, the same amount of money is enough for the tuition fee of the entire semester of 5 months in public universities.

For some teachers, working at the university is not the only source of income. Being in their academic profession helps them gain respect and status within their community, which is favourable when doing other work alongside being “teaching workers”. For others, the official salary from their teaching is the only source of income:

Certainly, the ability to be able to survive on the salary of public university teachers is excessively difficult. So many teachers are focusing on teaching to get more pay, as the teaching hours mean money. Whilst doing research is an activity that comes after.

That means after meeting the requirement of the teaching hours, and getting their income for the month, academic staff will start to think about whether or not they should register for research.

Teachers see themselves as “teaching-workers” as teaching means making money while doing research is more about voluntary choice. As such, some teachers decided to teach extra hours to earn more income.

6.5.2 “A silent business”

A silent business was what was described by UEMR’s teacher union head referring to the lack of networking in sharing ideas in the academic community. For her, doing research is “*a silent business*” where each individual knows what they are going to do or they are keen on doing without having a connection with others in the community. This feature of the environment restricted the teachers as researchers in sharing their ideas and strengthening the community. While in STU, Tien had a positive outlook on the role of research amongst the academic community in his university. What he saw as problematic is the investment in promoting good research for academic staff. In CCU, the approach to doing research has improved as pointed by CCU’s teacher union leader when describing the change “*from doing research for appearance sake to the more applicable and practical orientation*”.

According to Harman and Ngoc (2010), doing research becomes a less favoured part of a university teachers’ role, such that a number of them agree to teach extra hours to compensate for the required research hours. This might be explained by the mind-set of the Vietnamese people in thinking about schooling and higher education as a means of social mobility (Linh, 2010) but not as a place to do research. As such, in the social imaginary of teachers, doing research somehow becomes secondary to teaching.

Another element of the “*silent business*” in doing research is the absence of research culture in public universities in Vietnam. Lien, UEMR’s research department head opened:

In overseas countries, I see that there is promotion and media for sharing research results amongst academic communities. However, in our country, the process is the opposite; people keep their research to themselves without sharing with others. I think it is a kind of trait that belongs to Vietnam because most people are afraid of being critiqued. I think it is a trait even for the Vietnamese studying overseas, as actively sharing information is almost non-existent.

Lien agreed on the silent dimension but for her, doing research is a right rather than a duty. In other words, it is something voluntary rather than compulsory:

I still think doing research is something voluntary. Because when we teach, we are fixed to a timetable. For example, at 7 am you have to be in your class, which means regardless of being tired or not, you have to be there at that time. However, it is not the same with research, if you do not like research, you do not have to do it.

As such, when teachers come to do research it is an act of choice rather than being pushed:

In my university, the entire process of doing research is voluntary, from the registering of the research, choosing the subject, and carrying it out until the time you defend it. It is voluntary during the entire process. I think, what comes after being voluntary is independence.

The final point raised by Tien in STU is the lack of a statistic database for research activities. It has been argued that a better statistical collection for higher education will make a big difference in research activities in universities in Vietnam (Harman & Ngoc, 2010).

In foreign languages (like CCU), teachers are more teaching-oriented due to the on-going demand of studying English (Le Ha, 2003). Hoang reflected on the changes in approaching research:

Compared to the years before 1989, most research was done for appearance purposes. There were no research evaluating criteria. Although most of us got good training in Russia and other Eastern European countries, when we came back to Vietnam, we were assigned to mainly teach. Nevertheless, later on, the orientation of research is more application-orientated.

The social imaginary of teacher union leaders in reconstructing higher education depicts their struggles in teaching, doing research and gaining professional satisfaction. These narratives suggested the necessity to alter the current realities of “*teaching workers*” and of research as “*silent business*” into the more fulfilled realities.

6.5.3 “Billions of responsibilities”

In another account, the teacher union leader in the Capital City University (CCU) raised the challenging issues for female teachers in balancing between the professional duties and family duties. In her words, such duties are “*billions of responsibilities*”:

In our university, 70% of teachers are female and we go to work like men. Therefore, for us, there is the pressure of going to work and raising children. Now, most of the families have two children. We go to work, pick up children, take care of children and husband and fulfil duties with the in-laws.

In her account, CCU's teacher union leader used a series of verbs from "go to work", "pick up children", to "take care of children and husband" and "fulfil duties with the in-laws" to picture a typical day of a female teacher working at university and taking care of their families.

In addition to the teaching overload, low income and family responsibilities, challenges for teachers in doing research was voiced as another account needing to be tackled in reconstructing Vietnamese higher education:

I have to say, Vietnamese women have many, billions of responsibilities. Therefore, I have to say, all these obstacles prevent us from participating in doing research. Even if I wanted to, there is little time, passion and enthusiasm available to do so.

6.6 Perspectives of student leaders

The social imaginary of reforming VHE from the views of student leaders was constructed from the interviews with leaders of the student union in CCU, STU and UEMR. Both CCU and UEMR have a member of staff as president of the student union while the STU has a student as student president. Explaining these differences, Thuy, CCU student union's president, pointed to the issue of experience and time structure for students. There is the requirement for experience and particular knowledge about the structure and activity of the student union, which the first and the second-year students fail to have. It is only when students are about to graduate that they reach an appropriate level of understanding. In CCU, Thuy is a permanent member of staff in the position of leading the CCU student union. Each faculty within CCU has their own student leader. Minh, a third-year student, the student leader of CCU's Business Administration Faculty, also joined this study via emailing her answers to the interview questions. In UEMR, the student union has a member of the academic staff as president who commented in an unofficial conversation about his position in the student union as "the self-renewing job" where he is voluntarily involved. Quynh, vice president of UEMR's student union, was invited to speak as the representative of the academic staff president. STU students study for 5 years to be engineers therefore, they stay at their university longer than students at CCU and UEMR. As such, the student leader is a student rather than staff.

Being student leaders is a feature that makes them stand out amongst a wider number of students. The positions they hold make them stand up for something bigger than their own version of student

life. As such, their voices as students are the combination of students in plural form rather than student in singular form. Despite the differences in age, gender, and studying major, these student leaders have one thing in common and that is their passion for their unions. Another commonality amongst the three student leaders is their connotation trait of being role-models for other students academically and socially. They are students with achievements and popularity. The final point shared amongst the student leaders regards a time-constraint when they need to balance time for their study and time for Union activities as well as for other social and personal arrangements.

Their social imaginary of reforming VHE is divided into realities (both problematic and positive) and expected realities (or the solutions) in their universities. Differing from the views of senior educators (university leader and faculty leaders), for students, what matters most to them are their studies and their lives in university. Their concerns reflect the mismatching between university and reality ranging from the need for better facilities (lecture room), the issues of curriculum (repeated subjects, internship, balance between theory and practice) to the consideration of maintaining “*the Vietnamese characteristic*” in reforming university and integration with the world.

6.6.1 From the internet café to the lecture room

The first account raised by STU’s student union president, Thanh, was the problem of “*the resource-related issues*”:

The issue, in my opinion, is resource-related. The environment is not so good. For example, the lecture room, it contains about 200 students for a lesson in the middle of hot summer days, without air-conditioning. Can you imagine the feeling when sitting in such a class?

He also compared the lecture room with the air-conditioned internet café about having access to the internet and the cooler air. However, they did not suffer in silence. The issue was raised directly with their lecturer. In response to their complaint, their teacher said:

This cannot compare with what we suffered in our time. Studying on a hot summer day like this without air-conditioning is nothing. You all now are still much happier than we were in our day.

The way the teacher responded to students is a typical example of using past experience to explain the current situation. The slow-changing pace inside universities is not only in its facilities (classrooms without air-conditioning), but also in the way teachers think and respond to students.

6.6.2 Research, subjects and internship

In contrast to Thanh's "resource-related issue", other student leaders brought forth their expectations in terms of doing research, subjects in the curriculum, and internships. In CCU, Minh raised the issue of promoting students to do research:

In addition, there should be favourable conditions for students to participate in research, and knowledge taught should be close to reality. The university should have more academic competition for students doing research. Such competition should be participated in by all students, or the idea of setting up research clubs.

For Minh, the role of scientific research should be emphasised in the university curriculum and as such, the subjects that are of no use for students after graduation should be replaced by research-related activities:

In order to reform, universities should reduce the number of subjects that are not related to reality, these are the subjects that students will not use within 5 to 10 years after graduation. In return, time for these courses should be used in researching, applying, and experiencing key ideas in the entire programme.

Another concern of the student leader in UEMR is the inappropriateness of some courses in the curriculum. According to Quynh, the curriculum emphasises theoretical knowledge leading to "a pile of theories in our heads". Minh in CCU made a similar comment:

Higher education now, in my opinion, is outdated and fails to meet the demand of the labour market. For example, knowledge taught is either far from reality or difficult to apply to work after graduation. In learning, theories are understandable but when it comes to application, things are different. Students do not know about working in real life. As such, there is the phenomenon of beautiful transcription but insufficiency of working skills

Amongst the four points that Minh made above, three of them are the consequences of the advancement of ICTs where there has been a mismatch between the traditional curriculum and the online resources. How can the education system, as well as the curriculum within universities, be in the same race with the ongoing change of internet information? What is important in the university

atmosphere is the intellectual space for students to achieve their self-realisation process. University is not just a place for students to have access to updated knowledge or to be equipped to meet the demands of the market, it is a place of hope and inspiration as attending universities went from being the hope of some families to being the hope of most families (Marginson, 2016).

The issues with the curriculum are not only seen by university leaders but also by student leaders. According to Quynh, the repetitive content in the curriculum should be replaced by work-readiness courses:

There are many repetitive courses. I learned three to four courses which were almost the same. What is the point in learning the same content many times? I think the time and the cost of organising those courses would be better used for courses on work-readiness skills.

The curriculum structure made students question the reasons for why certain subjects should be there:

Do you know that we are learning Advanced Mathematics? My teacher said if we use this formula, we could calculate the speed of atomic reaction. Moreover, I wondered, I am a marketing student, why do I need to learn this?

Finally, the problems viewed by students are not only resource-related, research-promoted, major-related approaches, but also the realistic purpose of internship. Quynh commented on the “*decoration purposes*” of the internship experience that she had:

Although we spent time doing the internship in companies that our teachers introduced, when I was there, all they asked me to do was to boil the kettle and make tea for the staff in their department.

6.6.3 Teaching, learning and students’ politics of silence

The third account of reforming VHE is the narratives in teaching, learning and lecture discussion culture. CCU’s student leader went on by pointing to the teaching and learning style, “*As a student and student leader, I think, reform should start by changing the way we teach and learn*”. Minh’s opinion resonates with Harman and Bich’s (2010) argument on reforming learning and teaching in VHE.

Thanh, STU's student leader, unpacked the problem of teaching and learning in VHE by his example of the silence of his peers in lecture discussion:

My friends, lots of them, know a lot about the subjects we learn in lectures, but they never raise their hands to talk. Perhaps, I guess, it is the psychology of the Vietnamese people of choosing to be silent. Whoever starts talking will get fingers pointed at them. That is why. In my class, there are many friends who have good knowledge of the lesson but they do not join the discussions with the teacher.

Thanh continued with her analysis that “*remaining silent is remaining a part of the crowd, while talking is about standing out.*” It is the reflection of the hierarchical relationship: student-teacher. Silence is the residue of fear (Smith, 2016). Remaining silent, as Thanh observed, is the fear of being standing out. Raising hands and standing up to join the discussion in the class is a part of the classroom culture in Vietnam's schools and universities. During general education, students are not encouraged to “talk after teachers” (commenting on teacher's views or asking teachers for further elaboration) which implies being disrespectful to teachers. In university, students are encouraged to talk and discuss with teachers in the lesson but the common practice is to join the discussion by raising hands, sometimes standing up, sometimes remaining seated.

Thanh reflected on changes in his hand-raising habits from primary (Level 1), secondary school (Level 2), and post-secondary (Level 3):

In my Level 1, I raised my hand a lot, almost for every lesson and waited for the teacher to call me. Nevertheless, I raised my hand less in Level 2. Moreover, in Level 3, I stopped raising my hand.

He explained the changes in his hand-raising habit in the classroom:

I think, in addition to the reason of worrying about whether other people do not like me, another reason is that we are afraid of being hated by teachers as they are the ones who mark our exams. Sometimes, we reckon that teachers do not want more talk and discussion from us. Therefore, we had better keep silent.

However, according to the account of Thanh, learning in university is not merely in a passive style as Harman and Bich (2010) argued:

In Level 3, the way we learned is teacher-read and student-write but in universities, teacher-speak and student-write-whatever-they-consider-as-important. There is the requirement for self-learning, self-investigating into things. I think that teachers in my university are motivational and a source of inspiration to students.

From Thanh's account, there is the movement from passive learning to active learning. In other words, it is the transformation of the dependent learner to the independent learner with the habit of "self-learning, and self-investigation into things".

6.6.4 "The Vietnamese characteristics"

Thuy, CCU' student union president, raised the importance of maintaining the national character:

I think the cause is the environment of integration that requires us to change. Reforming universities is now a necessity given the current context of our country in the process of international and regional integration. However, one point I think that we should emphasise is to maintain the Vietnamese characteristics during the reform, no matter how much we want to integrate.

She elaborated further on "the Vietnamese characteristics" as "cultural atmosphere of the Vietnamese through customs, tradition, languages and festivals". Thuy is the only participant who brought up the concept of the Viet's character in thinking about reforming universities in Vietnam. The connotation that goes with this concept is a pride and appreciation of the current system. In addition to "the Vietnamese characteristics" in the reforming process, another point added by Thuy is the mobilisation of the entire society under the lead of the State. In other words, Thuy said that reforming should be made into a social movement with the involvement of different classes within society:

Reform cannot be one way; it has to be a thorough procedure at the State level. Obviously, we need to reform, but how to reform, and when to reform. In other words, what is the procedure and when to reform? I guess we need to call for the participation of the entire society.

This point is similar to the point raised by UEMR's teacher union leader, Hong, when she mentioned the synchronisation of different layers of the waves of reform. Hong emphasised the point of the implementation gap in the Agenda where State policy has become unknown to the contemporary practitioners. However, changing the practice of universities is not a matter of calling on and mobilising people in the way the student union operates but by the presence of a thorough practice that takes time and effort.

6.7 Discussion

I wrote this chapter with all the excitement of discovering the real life views of participants, regardless of being leaders, teachers and students, on reforming VHE. These above findings and views of three groups of leaders within three public universities underline one important message: the urgency of reforming VHE is real.

Each narrative account of reforming VHE adds to the entire picture of the VHE system. Thus, in constructing the social imaginary of reforming VHE participants mostly turn to the *what is*, rather than *what ought to be*, or *what is aspired to be*, of the VHE system. In other words, in asking about changes and expected changes, participants answered by referring to the continuity and the unchanged VHE system that their universities are a part of. On the other hand, the Agenda focuses more on the great expectation of what the system aspired to be without being aware of the standing point of where the system is.

The narrative accounts of university leaders, teacher union leaders, student leaders and the contributory narratives of retired educational policy makers matched with the analysis of the reform policy and institutional changes in the “form” of the system that are anchored by Vietnamese historical and cultural factors and ideological commitment. This “form” conveys a strong adherence to change resistance in contrast with the change-willingness from each account in this chapter. To this end, one argument is that the system and institutional already-existing practices together with the political commitment in VHE altered the global similarities into VHE particularities. These slow changing and unchanged characteristics become a source of either opportunities or challenges for the future aspiration of the system. Opportunities include maintaining what is most Vietnamese about Vietnam in the process of globalisation and selectively importing the global success model in reforming higher education into Vietnam. However, there might also be the risk of adding more of the same into the reform process.

When thinking of VHE reform as the pathway going *from* one place *to* a destined place, the reform pathway that this study has constructed is from participants’ reform imaginaries to the reform policy’s (the Agenda’s) aspirations. Midway between these imaginaries and the policy aspiration are the realities and practices captured in this chapter from both positive and negative angles. The positive

angle underlies the societal respect for higher education, e.g. the taken-for-granted dream of young people to attend universities, and the respect and status that university teachers receive from their community. Other evidence of the positive outlook is the diversity of the narrative accounts in this chapter that imply an important message: reforming VHE is the common concern of both participants (university leaders, teacher union leaders, student leaders and retired policy makers) and society. The less positive angles include the accounts that criticised what is unchanged that should be changed in leading, researching, teaching and learning. First, in leading, the autonomous universities are at the centre of the reform imaginary of university leaders. Granting autonomy for public universities is emphasised as the pivotal decision and practice not only for each individual university but also for the system to be more independent and less reliant on the State. This does not mean all universities are eligible to be autonomous, thus the enactment of the University Autonomy Project. The university council is considered an important tool to utilise the new autonomy by replacing the traditional mechanism of the rector board (*"of doing the right things"*) with the new mechanism of universities (*"doing the things right"*). Regardless that the new autonomous universities are criticised for their conditional autonomy, this is a significant step for Vietnamese public universities. Second, in research, the reform imaginary of teacher identified research as the *"silent business"*. Unlike teaching, with a fixed timetable, doing research is *"voluntary"* but *"silent"* because of the absence of a sharing culture within the research community. Third, in teaching, female teachers are trapped in between the professional requirement and domestic duties of *"billions of responsibilities"*. Except for the respect of being a university teacher, the professional position does not seem to be satisfactory for the ironic identity of *"teaching workers"*. Finally, in learning, some courses in the curriculum were criticised by student leaders as *"a pile of theories"* and failing to prepare them with work-ready skills. They also reflected on the continuity of the teacher-student culture from general education to universities where students chose the politics of silence for fear of being disliked by teachers.

These narratives are vivid examples of the grassroots globalisation or the globalisation from below (Appadurai, 2000) in which reforming VHE was internalised based on what remained unchanged, thus what should be changed. Depicted in descriptive, evaluative and critical accounts, these reform imaginaries fulfilled this thesis' aim of characterising what is Vietnamese about VHE (from national) before the selective importation of globalisation (to global) and localising these globalised influences

(and back). The way in which each participant came up with different versions of reform agenda implied the incompleteness and messiness of the policy. In particular, people who do not have the authority to make policy are in the position to reconstruct it in their own terms.

Notwithstanding that participants do not know the Agenda (the policy), this study continued towards exploring the policy problem (reforming VHE). Thus, between the policy and the policy problem, there is close proximity in which the policy in its official name and enactment number is something that belongs to the people of authority whilst the policy problem is something that belongs to all the people. This adds an implication on the process of problematising policy problems where there should be the participation of the people at the lower level of power. If using the rhetorical order of the Party, the State and the People, the Agenda and what it entails are the property of the Party and the State whilst the policy problem of reforming VHE is the concern of the People (e.g. the participants in this chapter).

Chapter 7 Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

I started this thesis with the reformation dream and the globalisation optimism about the VHE context. This thesis concludes here where the key findings and research aims will be revisited at the same time as the discussion of the significance, the implications, future directions, and limitations of this study.

In Chapter 2, the conceptual-contextual integration in reviewing literature enabled me to see the divergent and convergent points between global concepts and practices and Vietnamese contexts. From this review, my analysis of contemporary VHE conveyed the continuity of the old and introduction of the new in its practices. Such is the combination of the distinctive Vietnamese and the hybrid global in both policy and university. In Chapter 3, I outlined my philosophical position of critical interpretivism and how my positionality influenced the interpretation and analysis of data. I also argued for the use of the external language of description (language of literature) and the internal language of description (language of data) in analysing the Agenda, institutional changes, and the narratives for change.

My research findings will be summarised in the Table 17 below as well as the key themes related to the research questions. After this, a discussion of Vietnamese-styled globalisation, reforming higher education in Vietnam, the Agenda's aspirations (policy aspirations), public institutional changes (changes constructed by participants), and reform imaginaries will follow.

Table 17 : Documenting research questions and their findings

Research questions	Key findings
<p>What are the influences of globalisation on the Agenda of reforming higher education in Vietnam 2006 -2020?</p>	<p>There is an indirect but significant influence of globalisation as outlined in Chapter 4. This influence contributed to the conceptualisation of the Vietnamese-styled globalisation in this chapter (see Conceptual contribution section in this chapter). The Agenda was criticised for embracing great expectations for the system reform but being unbalanced between the “what to reform” and the “how to reform”.</p>
<p>How have the practices of the public universities in Vietnam changed as a result of this Agenda?</p>	<p>Three public universities are discussed using their pseudonyms (CCU, STU, and UEMR) in Chapter 5. Participants (university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders) in these universities do not know the Agenda. The Agenda is analysed as an unfinished and symbolic reform policy because:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - in addition to the great expectations, the “what” and “how” are unbalanced, - extended timeframe (2006-2020), - being multiple-targeted, - epistemological ambiguity, - being the possible consequence outcome of temporary incentive for political attention. <p>Institutional changes of CCU, STU and UEMR were constructed from the reflections of participants’ professional experiences. These changes include</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - institutional expansion, - enhancement of extensive international cooperation, - establishing and strengthening their research culture, - most importantly beginning their new journey as autonomous institutions. <p>They <i>are in line with</i> the Agenda’s reform solutions in terms of system expansion, internationalisation, and granting autonomy to public universities. These changes <i>came from different sources and policies</i> instead of the Agenda.</p>
<p>What are the perspectives of university leaders, teacher union leaders and student leaders towards reforming higher education in Vietnam?</p>	<p>Participants constructed the social imaginary of reforming VHE. Their narratives on the problematic matters of the current practices within public universities in Chapter 6.</p> <p>University leaders <u>Student quality</u>: The expansion of universities with social obsession about education and where attending university is seen as a compulsory <i>must</i> rather than an advisory <i>should</i>. Expansion also goes along with student learning demotivation. <u>Curriculum</u>: The current curriculum approach should be modernised to competency-based emphasising the process of learning and teaching. Another issue with the curriculum is the way in which the foundation courses are distributed in the fashion of “<i>Having too much entrée and leaving no space for the diners to enjoy the main courses</i>”. <u>University autonomy</u>: The new autonomy remains conditional where freedom of finance, human resources and academics are supervised by the State.</p> <p>Teacher union leaders <u>Overwork of teachers</u>: Teachers described their profession as “<i>teaching-workers</i>”.</p> <p>Student leaders <u>“Vietnamese characteristics”</u> was the student leaders’ account of maintaining tradition and national interest in reforming higher education. <u>Mismatch between university and reality</u> in terms of infrastructure, content of the subject as well as the professional-life preparation issues of learning, curriculum and the practicality of internship.</p>

7.2 Overview of the thesis

Situated in the context of reforming VHE in the case of the Agenda, three public universities, and three groups of leaders (university leaders, teacher union leaders, and student leaders) as well as Vietnamese historical, cultural, political, and socio-economic developments, this research aims to critically analyse VHE from national to global and back

- VHE- *from national*: To explore the national manifestation or the distinctive Vietnamese features within the policy, university and reform imaginaries
- VHE-*to global*: To consider the manner in which the policy, university and reform imaginaries embody new global practices, i.e. their responses and resistance
- VHE- *and back*: To widen the discussion on educational policy in Vietnam as well as the comparative studies related to the system of higher education in Vietnam.

Using the critical interpretive paradigm, this thesis also draws on the work of Taylor (2004), Appadurai (1996), Ball (1993), Gale (2003), Rizvi and Lingard (2010), Weaver-Hightowers (2010) (see Table 20: Conceptual-Contextual framework, p.184). In methodological terms, it consists of policy analysis, comparative case studies and thematic analysis. Data includes policy documents, 22 semi-structured interviews, and my fieldwork notes. The purpose of exploring VHE from national to global and back has been fulfilled. The first (exploring the national manifestation) and the second aims (considering the manifestation of globalisation in the national policy and universities) were expressed through the Agenda analysis (Chapter 4) and construction of public institutional changes (Chapter 5). The third aim was fulfilled in the reform narratives expressed through the participants' account of reforming VHE (Chapter 6). These narratives were conceptualised as elements of a social imaginary of reforming VHE by weaving together the individual reflections.

7.3 Key ideas of the study

Each element in the thesis title, "*Globalisation and reforming higher education in Vietnam: policy aspirations, public institutional changes, and reform imaginaries*", is a key idea of this study.

7.3.1 Vietnamese-styled globalisation

Globalisation can now be specified into Vietnamese-styled globalisation manifested in policy and universities. At the start of this thesis, globalisation is understood as the global flows of people, technology, money, media, ideology (Appadurai, 1996), as the interconnectness and interrelatedness of the world (Held & McGrew, 2003), and as social imaginary (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010).

Table 18: Globalisation then and now in this study

At the start of this thesis	At the conclusion of this thesis
Globalisation as the global flows	Globalisation as Vietnamese-styled globalisation
Globalisation as interconnectedness and interrelatedness	=
Globalisation as social imaginary	Globalisation + Vietnamese Confucian socialism

Vietnamese-styled globalisation is the way in which globalisation (at the start of this thesis) was adopted and adapted into VHE context where the (most) distinctively Vietnamese features altered the globalisation (at the start of this thesis). This requires us to rethink the way in which globalisation was understood. These features brought the Vietnamese Confucian socialism into the policy as both advantages (a culture of valuing education) and disadvantages (State dependence on the higher education institutions). However, at its core, Vietnamese-styled globalisation remains globalisation. Despite being received and reinvented, responded and resisted and being present but not powerful, globalisation is and has been there, in the policy and public institutional changes. This analysis resonates with the analysis that a socialist-oriented market economy is still a market economy.

Using Appadurai's vernacular globalisation, Vietnamese-styled globalisation is the encounter between globalisation (from above) and Vietnamese Confucian socialism where globalisation becomes the mediation between the global discourse, practices and values and the strong adherence of the Vietnamese historical, cultural and political elements.

Some examples that illustrated the Vietnamese-styled globalisation are in Table 19.

Table 19: Vietnamese-styled globalisation

Global concepts and practices	...take Vietnamese forms
Privatisation	Socialisation policy (see Chapters 1 and 2)
(Seeing education as) public goods and as private goods	(Seeing education as) an element of ideology and culture revolution to (seeing education as) “ <i>investment in education is investment in development</i> ” (Chapter 1)
(Expansion of higher education enrolment) from elite to mass	(Expansion of higher education enrolment) from generation of <i>should-attend university</i> students to generation of <i>must-attend university</i> students (see Chapter 6)
University autonomy	Autonomy as conditional under the supervision of the State or line-ministries (see Chapters 5 and 6)
Internationalisation higher education	As a means to achieve the reform targets (see Research Implications below)

The question is what Vietnamese-styled globalisation does for public universities such as CCU, STU and UEMR. Based on the findings in this study, the appeal of this globalisation type includes

1. Opportunities to generate more revenue, e.g. from the international cooperation programmes
2. Having freedom to operate as business-like institutions, leading to more revenue
3. Being at the risk of competing with other institutions

However, the challenge of being competition is not a concern for long-established public universities like CCU, STU, and UEMR. Every year, there are more students enrolling into these three universities than they can accommodate (Dao, 2015). Thus, Vietnamese-styled globalisation appears to be beneficial for public universities in Vietnam.

7.3.2 Reforming higher education in Vietnam

Higher education in Vietnam has witnessed radical changes in its organisation, governance, teaching and learning, and internationalisation since “*Đổi mới*” in 1986 (Hayden et al., 2012; Vietnam Education Foundation, 2014; Welch, 2010; World Bank, 2016). However, the urgency of reforming VHE remains the key concern expressed in policies and research. The system is criticised for its shortcomings, partly due to the residues from the Soviet model of higher education. Despite two

previous reforms of VHE in 1986 and 1993, removing Soviet influences has continued to be a time-consuming process. In 1986, significant changes in the system of VHE as the consequence of the country's economic reform. The actual reformation of the system started in the 1990s with the establishment of multiple-disciplinary universities in the major cities in Vietnam, e.g. Vietnam National University-Hanoi and Vietnam National University-Ho Chi Minh City. In 2005, the Agenda was enacted aiming at creating a breakthrough transformation of the system towards 2020. Now, more than three decades after *Đổi mới*, the higher education system remains protected or trapped between the country's socialist-orientation and marketisation, which has contextualised VHE reform in this study. Thus, reform comprises both changes and continuities where the continuity alters the scope and nature of change. In particular, changes did happen but were mediated by not only the global effects but also the unchanged commitment of VHE. In other words, standing between changes and continuity is the already-existing practices and commitment that are distinctively Vietnamese.

Reforming VHE was identified in the system context (Chapter 2), system aspirations (Chapter 4), and issues facing the system that were constructed by insiders in the three public universities (Chapter 6). This thesis analyses both the starting point of the system and its future scenarios where the historical, cultural and political influences (in Chapter 2) and the narratives of reform imaginaries (in Chapter 6) identify the "form" of VHE needing to be "re-formed".

7.3.3 Policy aspirations

In the thesis, the emphasis on reform solutions was replaced by a focus on policy aspirations because the Agenda is unknown among three groups of leaders in CCU, STU, and UEMR. Aspiration for change is not merely wants, needs, preferences, and expectations but it should be future-oriented (Appadurai, 2004) and carries a market-based connotation (Raco, 2009).

The Agenda proposed the reform pathway towards 2020 where VHE would reform its key areas of system expansion, governance, teaching and learning, research, funding, international cooperation. These aspirations reflect a shift in values where different methods to generate revenues for the system were adopted as a replacement for the State sponsor. My findings showed the selective importation of the global trends of higher education into the context of VHE in the Agenda where privatisation, decentralisation, internationalisation were altered into the Agenda's reform solutions of

system expansion, initiation of autonomous universities, extensive international cooperation as well as improvement of teaching, learning and research. Taking Appadurai's (2001) concept that global facts take local forms, the Agenda employed the global mobility of the privatisation policy as the reform solution to expand the VHE system towards 2020. The Agenda also proposed reformation of governance by completing the legal frameworks of VHE, granting autonomy to public universities, and establishing the university council. Reforming governance has become the globally convergent trend aimed at steadily lifting the university's dependence on the State out in order to increase the university's flexibility. The Agenda adopted and promoted privatisation, internationalisation and marketisation and this was not seen as in conflict with the already-existing values of the socialist State but as the solution to serve the socialist-transition of Vietnam.

The influence of globalisation on the Agenda demonstrated global convergence in policy thinking and policy methods in which higher education has been moving from State management to being regulated by market principles. However, such global convergence does not come with a global formula for reforming higher education in each divergent context. Rather, there is an ongoing mediation between the global methods and roles of the ecological factors of Vietnamese history, culture and politics as in the case of the Agenda. Another policy implication of this study's findings is the role of political support for the continuity of policy implementation. However, the Agenda becomes a symbolic policy because it is unknown among the current practitioners in three public universities (CCU, STU and UEMR). In addition to the Agenda's ontological and epistemological imbalance, the possible reasons why the Agenda becomes a symbolic policy are its extended reform timeframe, multiple targets, and most importantly the outcome of temporary political attention. Notwithstanding that it is an unfinished policy, the Agenda became an important point of reference for the future policies and research on VHE. This important finding about the Agenda led me to take a turn in my research direction: from the initial intention of exploring the place of the Agenda's implementation via changes in institutional practices of CCU, STU, and UEMR to these intuitional changes and their indirect links to the Agenda's reform aspirations.

7.3.4 Public institutional changes

Two important changes in CCU, STU, and UEMR that have indirect links to the Agenda are the start of the autonomous practices and expansion of international cooperation.

Firstly, in governance, all three public universities experienced changes in their governance, which are within what was proposed in 2005 in the Agenda. However, the autonomy that is granted to STU, CCU and UEMR is conditional. The conditional autonomy is the new governance paradigm in which the Ministry of Education and Training and the Vietnamese Government lose their control step by step over three areas of institutional autonomy: academic, finance and staffing. Liberating universities from State-centric management has been a part of the Government agenda identified in the Agenda in 2005 (Hayden & Thiep, 2007) as well as the University Charter in 2010. Since 2010, the governance model has been changed from State control to State supervision (Pham, 2012). However, the actual freedom for public universities retains oversight by the State. Granting autonomy to the university is compared to the act of “*hands freeing for universities*” according to the president of STU. In his account, public universities are no different from “*children living in the house where the ceiling is too low to stand tall*”. One of the consequences of the previous paradigm of governance is the passive practice of waiting for permission from the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET), or “*All things wait for MOET*” (Madden, 2014, p.190). University autonomy has been proposed and put into practice in the Agenda in 2005, University Charter in 2010 and the University Autonomy Project in 2014. However, the real autonomy given to public universities in Vietnam remains conditional (Dao, 2015).

Secondly, international cooperation in these three universities has expanded in both quantity and quality. Although each university has different commitments towards this process, international cooperation is seen as an opportunity for the universities to benefit academically, financially and contribute to the internationalisation of Vietnamese universities. Linking to the objective in the Agenda of international cooperation, CCU, STU and UEMR are all turning themselves toward multiple dimension cooperation from joint training to long-term and short-term research projects. What these universities achieved in their international cooperation is not outside of the Agenda boundaries but is inherent within each university. Their strengths and weaknesses when it comes to integration are different. For example, the foreign language barrier, specifically English proficiency,

is considered as the main difficulty in cooperation for both STU and UEMR whilst CCU, with their strength in languages, encounters other issues, such as the diversity of international students coming to their campus. All three universities acknowledge the benefits of this process in terms of improving quality in training and research. In UEMR, this process is seen as an opportunity for capacity building whilst participants from CCU considered the process has mostly benefited the students and parents in Vietnam who expect the international experience of higher education without travelling overseas, which avoids the risk for young people living alone in another country.

These three universities are all on the threshold of transformation for change in terms of institutional expansion, enhancement of extensive international cooperation, establishing and strengthening their research culture, and most importantly beginning their new journey as autonomous institutions. These changes have their root in different policies; however, they are within the Agenda's reform solutions. Public institutional changes happen on a daily basis with or without the top-down reform policy as in the case of the Agenda. Joining the dots between institutional changes and the Agenda's reform solutions underpins the effect of globalisation on public universities like CCU, STU and UEMR. Thus, these public universities, in addition to being influenced by the Party, the State, the VHE system, are now under the impact of Vietnamese-styled globalisation. This impact brings about both an opportunity and a trap, e.g. new autonomous practices were replaced by a cut in State funding and joint-training programmes put public institutions into a race for recruiting students.

7.3.5 Reform imaginaries

Reform imaginaries or the social imaginary of reforming VHE is formed by combining the social imaginary with the individual narratives of university leaders, teacher union leaders, and student leaders. These perspectives not only illustrate the way in which globalisation takes local forms but also the way in which globalisation gets into the mind-set of each individual.

Contrasting with the Agenda's great expectation of what the system aspired to be in the future, the reform imaginaries were constructed from the view that present practices of VHE needed to be changed based on their professional experiences. For university leaders, their reform imaginaries were concerned with the consequences of system expansion linking to changing attitudes of students seeing university as a compulsory *must* rather than an advisory *should*, and to their learning

demotivation. If university is seen as the taken-for-granted dream among young people and as a social obsession then there is no space for students to internalise their aspirations for the future but to rush to university.

Another consequence of system expansion is the need for a changed approach to the curriculum which is considered as being theoretical-oriented and concerned with inappropriate knowledge distribution. The current approach in VHE is for the curriculum to be content-based more than competency-based. This approach emphasises the product or the outcome of the curriculum more than the process of learning and teaching as in the competency based approach. Another issue with the curriculum is the way in which the foundation courses are distributed in the fashion of "*Having too much entrée and leaving no space for the diners to enjoy the main courses*" as suggested by Van, head of UEMR training department.

The most important aspect of the reform imaginaries of universities leaders is their concerns about conditional autonomy where autonomous universities continued to be regulated under the State supervision, e.g. the legislated tuition fees and frequent reporting practices. This autonomy is a change from the "*permission granting approach*" to the "*reporting approach*" or from State control to State supervision.

For teacher union leaders, their reform imaginaries were constructed according to their professional duty of teaching and doing research in which they are placed in the dilemma of being "*teaching workers*" and fulfilling "*billions of responsibilities*" where doing research is "*a silent business*". However, the social imaginary of respecting teaching professions helped them gain respect and status which enabled them to have an extra job alongside working at universities. For student leaders, reforming higher education was specified from the smallest account of infrastructure to the important issues of work-readiness skills' absence in the curriculum. They raised the issues of the mismatch between university and reality in terms of infrastructure, content of the subject as well as the professional-life preparation.

7.4 Contribution to knowledge

This study provides a critical and interpretive analysis of the Agenda of reforming VHE 2006-2020, public institutional changes, and the reform narratives in relation to the influences of globalisation. It

addresses the national matters of reforming higher education in Vietnam with globalisation optimism (as argued Chapter 1) in offering the various reform solutions. This study is important for its capacity to contribute new knowledge about reforming higher education in the Vietnamese context. It will add to the academic knowledge about the selective and critical adoption of the global methods in reforming the national system of higher education. In particular, the role of the national factors of Vietnamese history, culture and politics embedded in policy and public universities is decisive in making the reform either a process of change or continuity. The contribution of this thesis was constructed in the divide between Vietnamese and English, between *researching* policy and *practising* policy, between the macro topic of globalisation and reforming VHE and micro scope of a PhD research and, importantly, between the one and the multiple interpretations of realities, theories and data. Given these above divides, this study is original in its contribution to theory in the conceptualisation of the impact and enactment of globalisation in Vietnam and how it is understood in higher education.

7.4.1 Theoretical contribution

Vietnamese-style globalisation refers to the way in which global practices and discourses take Vietnamese form. This concept illustrates the co-existence of the Vietnamese style and the globalisation in policy and practice of VHE. In particular, how national ecological factors (history, culture, and politics) both responded to and resisted globalisation. This concept pushes the globalisation discussion further because it shows how Vietnam, a country in the Global South, is not just constrained in the policy process due to globalisation but uses its agency to reinvent it. Thereby, the globalising process becomes the competing priority between the Vietnamese imaginary (which rhetorically prioritises the political commitment to socialism with other matters being secondary) and the global (which prioritises the economic). This process similarly serves to challenge the old practices drawn from Vietnamese Confucian Socialism and develop newer global methods and discourses, which are nevertheless set within the Vietnamese imaginary. This concept also demonstrates that globalisation not only has its place in neoliberal societies but also in a society with a strong political commitment to socialism like Vietnam. In the non-Vietnamese context, this concept can be used in the contexts where certain national commitments (political, ideological, and religious) are more important than economic demands. No matter how appealing the globalisation concept

might be for the potentiality of the neoliberal agenda, such influences are secondary to the national commitment.

7.4.2 *Researching higher education policy in Vietnam*

This thesis is the first study that has closely investigated the Agenda of reforming VHE 2006-2020 using policy analysis and comparative case studies. The finding that the Agenda is not known among current practitioners of three public universities is a significant contribution marking the gap between system policy and institutional priority. Another implication is the difference in researching policy between the insiders and the outsiders. Perhaps, if this study was designed by insider policy-makers, they would have known in advance about the *becoming symbolic* of the Agenda. However, joining the dots between the Agenda, the dominant global imaginaries, its manifestation in institutional changes, and reform imaginaries of the three groups of leaders in public universities is a novel and original contribution.

Findings from this study can contribute and create significant steps forwards to researching educational policy in general and higher education policy in particular in Vietnam. Doing research of policy (for academic purposes) remains reasonably new in Vietnam where policy research is mostly research for policy (for policy-making purposes) funded by the Government agencies and international organisations. Thus, this study of policy can be helpful in providing key insights on matters related to the research for policy research. For example, specificities in analysing the Agenda aspirations and public institutional changes can be resonated and expanded in future higher education policy research in Vietnam, researching either of policy or for policy.

7.4.3 *The review of conceptual framework*

Another contribution that this study can contribute is the conceptual and contextual combination in reviewing the literature. In particular, global concepts and practices were reviewed using Vietnamese specifications as detailed in Table 20.

Table 20: Conceptual-contextual framework

Conceptual concepts	How I used them	Contextual manifestation
Taylor's social imaginary	Reform imaginaries	Specific narratives, e.g. conditional autonomy, teaching-workers and must-attending university
Appadurai's vernacular globalisation	Receiving globalisation from above (global trends of higher education) but retaining globalisation from below (ecological factors of history, culture and politics)	Vietnamese-styled globalisation
Ball's policy as text and discourses	Textual and discursive dimension of policy with its stable appearance but messy and incomplete and carrying power	Agenda as an unfinished and symbolic reform policy
Gale's the who and the how in realising policy	Seeing policy as processes in which different actors are involved at different times and have a different say in the policy	Leadership of the Party and management of the State
Rizvi and Lingard's globalising education policy	Seeing the local and national context of policy without being independent of global context.	Roles of national and ecological factors of residues from history, traditional culture, and ideological commitment
Weaver-Hightower's policy ecology	Seeing policy context beyond what is claimed in the textual body of policy where every ecological factor has its impact on the policy	as decisive factors of reform as a process of changes or continuity

At the centre of the conceptual framework is Charles Taylor's social imaginary concept where Appadurai's (1996) vernacular globalisation, Ball's (1993) and Gale' (2003) elaboration of policy, and Rizvi and Lingard's and Weaver-Hightower's approach to policy analysis can all be related to social imaginary.

Social imaginary is the focal concept in this study not only for its interplay with policy and theory but also for its collectiveness and non-eliteness. The former features are of importance for the early career researchers, like me, whose background is not social science. The reason is that social imaginary provides an alternative to theorise my findings in this study (as in Figure 28). For example,

each participant's narrative account presented in Chapter 6 is an element of a reform (social) imaginary within this study. Thus, in each community or society, there are different elements and terms in its own social imaginary with the contextual, historical, cultural and ideological contingency. On the contrary, although theories are characterised by being stable, coherent, and consistent (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005), there is the (Global) North-South division in their origins in which “*not all Northern theories are read as universal*” (Lingard, 2015, p. 29).

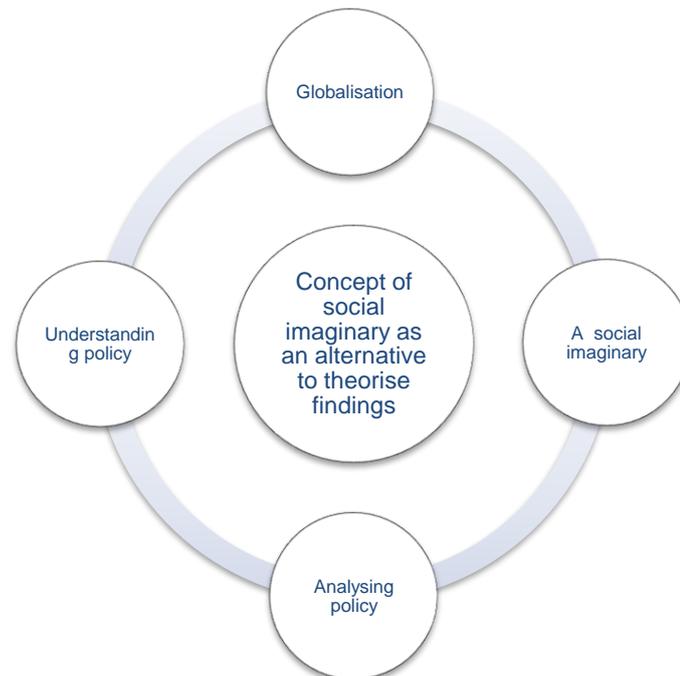


Figure 28: An alternative to theorise findings

The second element in the conceptual-contextual combination is Appadurai's (1996) global flows of influences, practices, values and localities in the concept of vernacular globalisation. Vernacular globalisation is the ongoing process of localising globalisation from above and globalising globalisation from below. The interplay between the process of localising and globalising is a part of the social imaginary stretching through this study exploring what is global and national in the reform policy and public universities. Despite this capability, vernacular globalisation is rather overarching and does not provide a deep analysis of the nature of the global-national relationships. Other authors in making sense of globalisation are Rizvi and Lingard's (2010) globalising education policy. They argued for the forces behind globalisation processes that have transformed education policy and that

each country with their uniqueness in the global positionality and national indigenous factors such as culture, history, politics and economy will experience globalisation differently (Lingard & Rizvi, 2010). Rizvi and Lingard (2010) also elaborated further how countries in the global South are often more constrained due to the forces of globalisation from above (Lingard & Rizvi, 2010) like the regional and international organisations. Rizvi and Lingard's analysis of globalisation and globalising education policy provides a substantial conceptual framework for this thesis. However, one minor issue is that the dominance of global capitalism and market principles have their differences in the socialist-oriented educational and higher educational policy environment in Vietnam in which the matters of ideology commitment have never been treated as secondary.

The third element includes different interpretations of policy and policy analysis. As suggested from the Table 20, policy is understood as text, discourses (Ball, 1993) and process (Gale, 2003) and in this study, the textual and discursive interpretation of the Agenda has been evidenced by its becoming an unfinished and symbolic Agenda where the rhetorical actors of the Party, the State and People are evidenced but the actual authoritative actors are absent. Via the case of the Agenda, enacting certain policies at certain times within their power is a way for politicians to utilise their temporary influence to leave their achievement marks.

Finally, there is the contribution of Weaver-Hightower's policy ecology and Rizvi and Lingard's analysis of policy. In policy ecology, Weaver-Hightower (2008) emphasises the interrelated factors of complexity within the policy environments. He acknowledged internal elements within a policy from social, political, economic, cultural, and religious contexts. In analysing policy, he suggests seeing the policy context beyond what is claimed in the textual body of policy where every ecological factor has its impact. Rizvi and Lingard (2010) enumerate a number of contextual considerations which include looking at where the policy originated, which local and global actors have been instrumental in establishing the policy agenda and why the policy has been adopted at a particular point in time. They suggested seeing the local and national context of policy without being independent of global context. In the case of the Agenda, the role of national and ecological factors of history, traditional culture, and ideological commitment are considered as decisive factors making reforming VHE into a process of change or continuity.

7.4.4 Policy research method

The research methods of using qualitative methods with empirical data from semi-structured interviews and policy documents and for academic purpose is quite new in conducting policy research in Vietnam. This method contributes to researching education policy in Vietnam using perspectives and qualitative data as Ozga (1999) suggested, there is the combination between “*the macro-analysis of the education system and education policies*” and micro accounts of “*people’s perceptions and experiences*” (Ozga, 1999, p. 217). The flexibility of the qualitative approach enables a study like this to be possible despite the unexpected turn in the research direction. For example, although participants do not know about the Agenda (the policy), this study continued towards exploring the policy problem (reforming VHE). Thus, between the policy and the policy problems, there is a close proximity in which the policy is in its full name and the enactment number is something which belongs to the people in the upper level of power whilst the policy problem is something which belongs to all the people. If using the rhetorical order of the Party, the State and the People, the Agenda and what it entails are something of the Party and the State whilst the policy problem of reforming VHE is something of the People. Using qualitative methods in researching policy as in this study provides a methodological contribution to conducting policy research in Vietnam.

7.5 Research implications

This thesis touches on a number of issues at system and university level and individuals’ perspectives on what should be changed and reformed in VHE. As argued previously, in the process of opening up to the world where Vietnam is integrating into the world and the world is coming to Vietnam, together with a Vietnamese hunger for change and integration, there is another slow-changing Vietnam that falls back on its indigenous features such as the change-resistant mentality of the Vietnamese people. If the government is serious about creating “*comprehensive and fundamental change*” as the Agenda proposes, issues on institutional autonomy, curriculum content, empowering teachers, and the social imaginary of universities, should be taken seriously.

Firstly, autonomous universities are an important step toward reforming governance in VHE. However, it should be pushed further rather than following the State planning autonomy. Granting more autonomy to universities is one of the key elements of good governance (Clark, 1986).

Explaining this causal relationship between autonomy and good government, Clark (1986) pointed to the space for innovative behaviour. As such, top-down regulations should be general enough so that there is space for universities or institutions to practise their autonomy. However, autonomy for universities does not come without strings attached (Christensen, 2011). These strings could be in the form of steering and controlling instruments in which there are regulations for different university activities. Thereby, universities are subject to the accountability compliance and reporting regulations (Vidovich & Currie, 2011). Although there have been changes in the governance of higher education from State control to State supervision (Pham, 2012), real autonomy given to public universities in Vietnam remains conditional (Dao, 2015). Renovation of governance in higher education will require abandoning the management style of asking-giving (Wilkinson & Chirot, 2011) between universities and their line-ministries. This asking-giving style promoted the practice of “*All things wait for MOET*” (Madden, 2014, p.190) in the governance body within universities.

Secondly, curriculum content should be updated and modernised towards practical and work-readiness skills. As suggested by participants in this study, general knowledge units in the foundation year should be blended with courses on their study major. During this study one student leader complained that courses contained “*a pile of theory*”. To address this, courses on political theory and ideology could either be delivered via different methods or offered as non-compulsory units. Given the changing nature of our time, the mismatch between curriculum content and real-life information is a universal concern.

Thirdly, reforming VHE should emphasise the role of teachers and empower their profession financially, academically and inspirationally. University teachers are not “*teaching workers*” as commented by CCU’s teacher union leader. Another part of their professional duty is to produce knowledge in addition to delivering it. For teachers, it is not an advisory should but a compulsory must to participate in research. Their contribution to the academic community is not a silent business.

Finally, changing the social imaginary towards attending university is necessary and important, in particular the view of young people and their parents that there is no alternative to university. This cognitive change is not an easy task to achieve as the university dream is not only socially intrinsically motivated (evidenced in Vietnamese culture of valuing higher learning) but also individually

extrinsically motivated (evidenced in the obsessive dream of universities and the empty purpose of gaining personal and family status).

This implication derives from the questions found in the insight and aspirations of participants in this study regarding reforming VHE. These questions are

- Why university leaders see the expansion of higher education as coinciding with the reduction of student quality and their demotivation in learning at university?
- Why teacher union leaders raised the issues of teachers burning out and labelling themselves as workers?
- Why, after winning their place at university, some students appeared to lose the motivation to study?

If there is a non-compulsory subject called Vietnamese philosophy of education in the school curriculum, it will bring an opportunity for students and parents to revisit as well as re-educate themselves about the purpose of education. By re-educating people of the value of education and higher education, we can capitalise on the potential of the Vietnamese people. The purpose is to add more views in the social imaginary of Vietnamese people on education as well as higher education to raise their awareness that attending university is not the only choice to capitalise their future. Importantly, university is a place for students and academic staff to map their intellectual territories and pursue knowledge.

7.6 Limitations

I concluded this thesis knowing there are a number of limitations in the topic, research design, diversity of data, and who I am as the researcher.

The first limitation is the macro nature of researching globalisation and the Agenda of reforming VHE (2006-2020). Due to the aims of “*comprehensive and fundamental reform of VHE by 2020*” of the Agenda, a number of concerns were brought into the study at the same time rather than focussing on a deep analysis of a specific concern. This feature influences the way in which I review the literature as well as empirical findings. In other words, the topic of this research aims at constructing

the general picture of VHE from national to global and back without being able to convey all the features of the system.

The second limitation is the research design. A part of this study explores the institutional changes in relation to the Agenda where three public universities were initially seen as the place of policy implementation. The institutional sampling was limited by the selection of three public universities. This small number decreased the level of possible generalisations of the findings although initially these public universities were selected as instrumental cases to understand the multiple interpretations of the state-led reform policy (the Agenda). However, this intention was altered into closely exploring the policy problem (reforming VHE). Thus, rather than institutional changes being seen as a tool to understand the Agenda, they became equally important and brought about an original exploration of reform imaginary as well as their links in relation to the Agenda. Within the three public universities, the participation of the three groups of leaders is not the same (with only full participation of CCU's participants). I decided to approach the groups of leaders with the assumption that they are the ones in the position of understanding the Agenda, as such only one participant for each group. Several opportunistic interviews occurred during the fieldwork, but increasing the number of participants might have provided me with more valuable data for this study. However, the practical consideration of time and resources did not allow me to extend it.

The third limitation is the diversity of data which was limited to interview and policy analysis as the major sources although I developed a journal and fieldwork notes during data collection. Given the short period for data collection, I did not have enough time to develop systematic institutional observations in terms of operation of administrative departments as well as engage in some professional meetings.

The final limitation is myself as the researcher. Although I have been teaching in a public university in Hanoi, education policy for me remains *a-not-yet-practising* status. Without hands-on experience of the policy process and managerial experience, it is difficult for me to identify what is written and unwritten and what is known and what is unknown in the areas of education policy in the VHE context. Having experience as the insider of policy process would have helped me to widen my views rather than only seeing things from the fieldwork and literature analysis. In addition to the absence of

experience in practising policy, this study is limited by my language competency where I am attempting to bridge the differences between Vietnamese and English and vice versa.

7.7 Suggestions for further research

This small-scale thesis has contributed new knowledge about the way in which reform policy, public institutional changes, and individual perceptions received and responded to the global practices in the context of Vietnam. Findings from this thesis can help contribute and create a foundation for the future studies related to the topic of reforming Vietnamese higher education. For example, two important findings in this study are first the Agenda as an unfinished and symbolic policy and second the continuity of public institutional changes without direct links from the state-led reform policy (the Agenda). Linking these two findings suggests the objective realities for the educational policy makers in Vietnam to keep in mind that in the long run, reform policy should be more informal and informed rather than formal and prescribed. As suggested by Ball (1993), policy provides the ongoing process of interpretation and reinterpretation, of contextualisation and recontextualisation.

As the role of higher education has more implications for the country's social and economic development in the future than the past, prioritising and allocating resources and autonomy for universities and colleges are important for the long-term success of the reformation of VHE. Building on the findings of this study and the aforementioned limitations, further research could be undertaken as follows:

- Exploring globalisation of the private and international universities in Vietnam and comparing those with public universities, to see if these institutions have similar or different concerns (regarding autonomy, curriculum and internationalisation);
- Expanding findings in the analysis in Chapter 6 into a systematic and cross generation of Vietnamese people on their social imaginary of university (their shared understanding on matters related to universities) to help Vietnamese education policy makers, students and parents, as well as international agencies and organisations for future cooperation
- Exploring the way in which the higher education system of countries in the Global South respond and resist the global reform agenda where VHE is a case among others in comparative studies

This study creates a sound basis for the significant steps forward in understanding the social perceptions of reforming VHE as suggested in Chapter 6. These voices extend the policy process to those at the lower level of policy-making authority. They imply the changing nature of institutional practices that are impossible to be tackled by one system-based and top-down policy. As such, taking an ecological policy approach is beneficial in understanding the Agenda not only from its generic aims and its selective global hybridity but also in inserting narrative voices of the participants in constructing institutional changes and reconstructing the policy problem of reforming VHE. This resonates with Weaver-Hightower's (2008) suggestion that the policy process is the ongoing contribution of those at the top and bottom levels.

7.8 Concluding remarks

The thesis demonstrates how Vietnamese-styled globalisation is manifested in the reform policy and university practices. It is not explicit with regard to the good or bad of this globalisation but focuses on the process of competing priority between the new global and the old Vietnamese practices.

7.8.1 Globalising Vietnamese-styled globalisation

Vietnamese-styled globalisation in higher education is the act of positioning the system and the policy in the globalised and globalising world of educational policy and practices. Although Vietnamese-styled globalisation is globalisation, it is specified into Vietnamese context where globalisation is not yet globalised but retains globalising. The present continuous tense of the verb "to globalise" is to refer to the priority of VHE in maintaining and preserving the country's ideology of socialist-orientation, which influences governance and operation of VHE. Under such circumstances, higher education institutions will not simply swim in their freedom but learn to know where to locate themselves, not only by extending the national interests and integrating into the international community but also by fulfilling their political commitments. This is among the VHE system's distinctive features that makes this thesis original by understanding the allocation of neoliberal values in the Vietnamese socialist-orientation context. Vietnamese-styled globalisation is unique as in theory the economic is secondary to the political but this order starts to change in practice.

7.8.2 The system intricacy

Understanding the globalising practices in policy and public universities is a part of understanding the intricacy of what is taking place inside the system. Thus, this study's aim is to understand the VHE system from national to global and back via the case of the Agenda and three public universities.

The first intricacy is the matter of governing the VHE system. Throughout this thesis, the issues with governing VHE go along with the quest for institutional autonomy where the current autonomy is critiqued for its feature of being conditional, for example, the reporting duty and the State legislative regulations on increasing tuition fees. However, these accounts were mostly constructed by university leaders who are obviously receiving direct and immediate benefits from the autonomous model for public universities. Prior to the University Autonomy Project, autonomy has been understood as both a right (to have the right to do something) and a duty (to be allowed to do something), as suggested by the leader of CCU. This leader also explained the institutional flexibility in reinterpreting government regulations to fit their institutional context that "*Laws of the King are not as powerful as the Customs of the Village*" and that "*there are things that universities can do as long as they do not violate the law*". Autonomy is not something novel and first-hand that public universities have never experienced. However, conditional autonomy is necessary and important in the context that public universities have been over-reliant on the State's prescriptions for a long time. The conditionality is a way that the State protects these universities and allows them to practise their expertise and gain experience from running their own organisation using their own autonomy.

Secondly, internationalisation of VHE is another reform target that is welcomed in the Vietnamese context where most Vietnamese people have little experience or knowledge of life outside their own surroundings and hold foreign cultures in high regard. Madden (2014) explained for this mentality "*foreign made is better than domestic*" (Madden, 2014, p.200). Under this circumstance, internationalisation is more about the moderate participation of the international outputs into Vietnam such as joint training, research projects, and exchange programmes rather than receiving international students into VHE institutions. However, these international programmes, compared to the ones of public universities, remains secondary with the initial choices of parents and students being for the public universities as illustrated in Chapter 6. Thus, expanding the VHE system via

increasing private universities and international joint training programmes might not be as feasible as expanding public universities.

Thirdly, in teaching and learning, the example of the student leader in UEMR “*choose to be silent*” partly reflected the teaching and learning culture in VHE. This account is on the same page with the “*silent business*” of teacher leaders in raising the matter of research in universities. Such politics of silence is the reflection of fear, in particular the fear of being critiqued. The politics of silence is a part of the existing culture where students dream of having a place in university but are too shy to speak (see Chapter 6 – Student leaders’ accounts), too aimless to know what they want in their final year (see Chapter 6 – University leader’s accounts), and more seriously, rushing to universities but with the danger of being unemployed at the end of their course.

The Vietnamese government will encourage universities to accommodate more students in the years to come to meet the target in the Agenda by 2020. It is easy to have more students in universities than to create more jobs for graduates, thus, the temporary solution to please a university obsessive society is to have more students. However, as suggested by the retired policy makers, “*life does not need Einstein but also Edison*”. It is time to be practical about the university dream of young people, their parents and society.

7.8.3 Dream and reality

This study starts with the dream of reforming VHE and the optimism of globalisation, yet it ends with the reality of policy and national complexity. The great reform expectations remain expectations. Still, changes did happen at university level, through mediation of global effects and the country’s unchanged commitments. Reform comprises both changes and continuities, and standing between them are the existing practices that are the indispensable elements of the current distinctive VHE.

References

- Aminy, A. (2002). Spatialities of globalisation. *Environment and planning A*, 34(3), 385-399.
- Anh, P. N., Thang, M. Q., Co, N. N., Hien, V. Q., & Thinh, L. V. (2015). *Ho Chi Minh Thoughts - Tư tưởng Hồ Chí Minh*. Hanoi: National Politics Publishing House - Nhà Xuất Bản Chính Trị Quốc Gia.
- Appadurai, A. (1996). *Modernity at large: cultural dimensions of globalization* (Vol. 1): U of Minnesota Press.
- Appadurai, A. (2000). Grassroots globalization and the research imagination. *Public Culture*, 12(1), 1-19.
- Appadurai, A. (2004). The capacity to aspire. *Culture and public action*, 59-84.
- Archer, W., & Matheos, K. (2013). *Globalization and Englishization of Higher Education: Looking Back to a Distant Precedent, Looking Forward to Some Practical Implications*
- Ashwin, P. (2012). How often are theories developed through empirical research into higher education? *Studies in Higher Education*, 37(8), 941-955.
- Asian Development Bank. (2010). Vietnam: Preparing the Higher Education Sector Development Project. *Asian Development Bank*.
- Ball, S. J. (1993). What is policy? Texts, trajectories and toolboxes. *The Australian Journal of Education Studies*, 13(2), 10-17.
- Ball, S. J. (1998). Big policies/small world: An introduction to international perspectives in education policy. *Comparative Education*, 34(2), 119-130.
- Ball, S. J. (2012). *Politics and policy making in education: Explorations in sociology*: Routledge.
- Ball, S. J., Maguire, M., & Braun, A. (2012). *How schools do policy: Policy enactments in secondary schools*: Routledge.
- Becher, T., & Kogan, M. (1992). *Process and structure in higher education* (Vol. 10): Routledge.
- BERA. (2011). Ethical guidelines for educational research. *British Educational Research Association*.
- Bernstein, B. 2000. Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity: theory, research and critique. Rev. Ed. Oxford: Rowman and Littlefield Publishers.
- Bourdieu, P., & Wacquant, L. J. (1992). *An invitation to reflexive sociology*. University of Chicago press.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Sage
- Bozoki, A. (2011). Elite interviews. *Eurosphere*. Retrieved March 15, 2016, from http://eurospheres.org/files/2011/04/10_Bozoki_Elite-interviews.pdf
- Bryman, A. (2015). *Social research methods*: Oxford University Press.
- Bui, Q. V. (2016). Report of the Minister of the Ministry of Investment and Planning on the 12th Party National Congress *Report of the Minister of the Ministry of Investment and Planning on the 12th Party National Congress*. National Assembly of Vietnam.
- Carney, S. (2008). Negotiating policy in an age of globalization: Exploring educational "policyscapes" in Denmark, Nepal, and China. *Comparative Education Review*, 53(1), 63-88.

- Carnoy, M. (1999). Globalization and educational reform: what planners need to know, the United Nations Educational. *Scientific and Cultural Organization, Paris*.
- Carnoy, M., & Rhoten, D. (2002). What does globalization mean for educational change? A comparative approach. *Comparative Education Review, 46*(1), 1-9.
- Christensen, T. (2011). University governance reforms: potential problems of more autonomy? *Higher education, 62*(4), 503-517.
- Central Intelligence Agency. (2017). The World Factbook: Vietnam. Retrieved January, 2017, from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/vm.html>
- Centre Committee of Communist Party of Vietnam. (1993). *Resolution 04-NQ/HNTW of National Congress VII on Youth activities in the time of Đổi mới*. National Congress VII.
- Centre Committee of Communist Party of Vietnam. (2014). *Resolution 29-NQ/TW of National Congress XI on Reform education in Vietnam. Nghị quyết 29 về đổi mới giáo dục và đào tạo* National Congress XI.
- Clark, B. R. (1986). *The higher education system: Academic organization in cross-national perspective*: Univ of California Press.
- Clark, B. R. (1998). *Creating Entrepreneurial Universities: Organizational Pathways of Transformation. Issues in Higher Education*: ERIC.
- Communist Party of Vietnam. (1991). *The proposal of building the country in the socialist-transition period - Cương lĩnh xây dựng đất nước trong thời kỳ quá độ lên chủ nghĩa xã hội*. Hanoi: The Truth Publishing House - Nhà xuất bản sự thật.
- Communist Party of Vietnam. (2015). *Collection of the National Congress Reports of the Communist Party of Vietnam's Reports - Tuyển tập văn kiện đại hội Đảng toàn quốc*.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*: Sage.
- Cunningham, S. (1998). Technology and Delivery: Assessing the Impact of New Media on "Borderless" Education. *Australian Universities' Review, 41*(1), 10-13.
- Currie, J. K., & Newson, J. (1998). *Universities and globalization: Critical perspectives*: Sage publications.
- Dao, K. V. (2015). Key challenges in the reform of governance, quality assurance, and finance in Vietnamese higher education—a case study. *Studies in Higher Education, 40*(5), 745-760.
- De Wit, J. H. (2011). Globalization and Internationalisation of Higher Education. *RUSC. Universities and Knowledge Society Journal, 8*(2), 77-164 (ESP) pp. 241-325 (eng).
- Denscombe, M. (2014). *The good research guide: for small scale research projects* (Vol. Fifth). Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Easton, D. (1953). *The political system*, New York: Knopf.
- Evans, K., & Rorris, A. (2010). Optimising the Impact of Vietnam's Higher Education Sector on Socio-Economic Development *Reforming higher education in Vietnam* (pp. 167-181): Springer.
- Finlay, L., & Ballinger, C. (2006). *Qualitative research for allied health professionals: challenging choices*: John Wiley & Sons.
- Folk, R. (1993). The making of global citizenship. *Global visions: Beyond the new world order, 39*.
- Fortanet-Gómez, I. (2013). *CLIL in higher education: Towards a multilingual language policy* (Vol. 92): Multilingual matters.
- Foucault, M. (1977). *The order of things: an archaeology of the human sciences*. London: Routledge.
- Fumasoli, T., & Stensaker, B. (2013). Organizational studies in higher education: A reflection on historical themes and prospective trends. *Higher education policy, 26*(4), 479-496.

- Gainsborough, M. (2010). Present but not powerful: neoliberalism, the state, and development in Vietnam. *Globalizations*, 7(4), 475-488.
- Gale, T. (2001). Critical policy sociology: historiography, archaeology and genealogy as methods of policy analysis. *Journal of Education Policy*, 16(5), 379–393.
- Gale, T. (2003). Realising policy: The who and how of policy production. *Discourse: studies in the cultural politics of education*, 24(1), 51-65.
- Gale, T., & Parker, S. (2015). To aspire: a systematic reflection on understanding aspirations in higher education. *Australian Educational Researcher*, 42(2), 139. Doi: 10.1007/s13384-014-0165-9
- Gillespie, J., & Nicholson, P. (2005). The diversity and dynamism of legal change in socialist China and Vietnam. *Asian Socialism and Legal Change*, 1.
- Gordon, I., Lewis, J., & Young, K. (1977). *Perspectives on policy analysis*: Public.
- General Statistics Office of Vietnam (GSO). (2017). Changes in number of students in higher education from 2000-2015. Retrieved from *General Statistics Office of Vietnam* http://www.gso.gov.vn/default_en.aspx?tabid=782
- General Statistics Office of Vietnam (GSO). (2017). Changes in number of Vietnamese universities from 2000-2015. Retrieved from *General Statistics Office of Vietnam* http://www.gso.gov.vn/default_en.aspx?tabid=782
- General Statistics Office of Vietnam (GSO). (2017). Total students in public and non-public higher education institutions. Retrieved from *General Statistics Office of Vietnam* http://www.gso.gov.vn/default_en.aspx?tabid=782
- General Statistics Office of Vietnam (GSO). (2017). Numbers of Vietnamese non-public higher education institutions from 2000-2015. Retrieved from *General Statistics Office of Vietnam* http://www.gso.gov.vn/default_en.aspx?tabid=782
- General Statistics Office of Vietnam (GSO). (2017). Higher education enrolments in VHE from 2011-2015. Retrieved from *General Statistics Office of Vietnam* http://www.gso.gov.vn/default_en.aspx?tabid=782
- General Statistics Office of Vietnam (GSO). (2017). Number of public and non-public higher education institutions in Vietnam from 1998- 2017. Retrieved from *General Statistics Office of Vietnam* http://www.gso.gov.vn/default_en.aspx?tabid=782
- Gulson, K. N., Lewis, S., Lingard, B., Lubienski, C., Takayama, K., & Webb, P. T. (2017). Policy mobilities and methodology: a proposition for inventive methods in education policy studies. *Critical Studies in Education*, 1-18.
- Ha, N. N., & Vui, C. T. T. (2015). Socialization in education and healthcare in the market economy of Vietnam -Xã hội hóa giáo dục và y tế trong nền kinh tế thị trường ở Việt Nam. *Vietnamese social sciences journal- Tạp chí Khoa học xã hội Việt Nam*, số 11(96) - 2015, 11(96), 28 -34.
- Ham, C., Hill, M. J., & Pollock, F. (1988). *The policy process in the modern capitalist state*: Royal Victorian Institute for the Blind. Tertiary Resource Service.
- Hằng, N. V. T., Meijer, M. R., Bulte, A. M., & Pilot, A. (2015). The implementation of a social constructivist approach in primary science education in Confucian heritage culture: the case of Vietnam. *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, 10(3), 665-693.
- Harman, G. (2010). The research role of Vietnam's universities *Reforming higher education in Vietnam* (pp. 87-102): Springer.
- Harman, G., Hayden, M., & Nghi, P. T. (2010). Higher education in Vietnam: reform, challenges and priorities. *Reforming higher education in Vietnam* (pp. 1-13): Springer.

- Harman, G., Hayden, M., & Pham, T. N. (2010). *Reforming higher education in Vietnam: Challenges and priorities*: Springer.
- Harman, K., & Bich, N. T. N. (2010). Reforming teaching and learning in Vietnam's higher education system *Reforming higher education in Vietnam* (pp. 65-86): Springer.
- Harris, S. (2007). *The governance of education*: A&C Black.
- Harvey, D. (2007). *A brief history of neoliberalism*: Oxford University Press, USA.
- Hayden, M., Pettigrew, A., Meek, L., Ryan, N., Harman, K., Harman, & Le, N. D. C. (2012). Master Plan for Vietnam's Higher Education System. Southern Cross University, Australia.
- Hayden, M., & Thiep, L. Q. (2007). Institutional autonomy for higher education in Vietnam. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 26(1), 73-85.
- Hayden, M., & Van Khanh, D. (2010). Private higher education in Vietnam *Reforming higher education in Vietnam* (pp. 215-225): Springer.
- Heimans, S. (2012). Coming to matter in practice: Enacting education policy. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 33(2), 313-326.
- Held, D. (1999). *Global transformations: Politics, economics and culture*: Stanford University Press.
- Held, D., & McGrew, A. G. (2003). *The global transformations reader: an introduction to the globalization debate* (2nd Ed.). Cambridge: Polity.
- Hennink, M., Hutter, I., & Bailey, A. (2010). *Qualitative research methods*: Sage.
- Ho Chi Minh. (1995). *Hồ Chí Minh toàn tập-The collection of Ho Chi Minh* (Vol. IV). Hà Nội- Hanoi: Nhà xuất bản Chính Trị Quốc Gia - Publishing House of National Politics.
- Ho Chi Minh. (2000). *Hồ Chí Minh Toàn Tập -The entire collection of Ho Chi Minh* (Vol. 10). Hanoi: Nhà Xuất Bản Chính Trị Quốc Gia The National Political Publisher.
- Huong, P. L., & Fry, G. W. (2002). The emergence of private higher education in Vietnam: Challenges and opportunities. *Educational Research for Policy and Practice*, 1(1-2), 127-141.
- Inglehart, R. (1997). *Modernization and postmodernization: Cultural, economic, and political change in 43 societies* (Vol. 19): Cambridge Univ Press.
- International Trade Administration. (2016). *Vietnam 2016 Top Markets Report: Education Country Case Study*. Department of Commerce, US.
- Kieu, H. (2017). Reconstruction higher education in Vietnam. *Adult Education for Inclusion and Diversity*, 268. Retrieved from http://www.docs.hss.ed.ac.uk/education/creid/NewsEvents/74_ii_SCUTREA2017_Proceedings.pdf#page=278
- Kim, R. Y. (2002). Ethnic differences in academic achievement between Vietnamese and Cambodian children: Cultural and structural explanations. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 43(2), 213-235.
- King, R., & Bjarnason, S. (2003). *The university in the global age*: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Knight, J. (2008). Higher education in turmoil. *The Changing World of Internationalisation. Rotterdam, the Netherlands: Sense Publishers*.
- Kynäslahti, H. (1998). Considerations on eduscape. *Media education publication*, 8, 151-161.
- Lamb, H. B. (1972). *Vietnam's Will to Live*: Monthly Review Press.
- Le Ha, P. (2003). *Teaching English as an international language: Identity, resistance and negotiation* (Vol. 7): Multilingual matters.
- Le, T. K. (2014). *Lịch sử Việt Nam từ nguồn gốc đến giữa thế kỷ XX - History of Vietnam from Origin to the Middle of the 20th Century*. Hà Nội-Hanoi: Nhà Xuất Bản Thế Giới - The World Publishing House.

- Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2005). *Practical research: planning and design*: Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Leysens, A. (2008). *The critical theory of Robert W. Cox*: Routledge.
- Lingard, B. (2013). It is and it isn't: vernacular globalization, education policy, and restructuring. In B. Lingard (Ed.), *Politics, policies and pedagogies in education: The selected works of Bob Lingard*: Routledge.
- Lingard, B. (2015). Thinking About Theory in Educational Research: Fieldwork in philosophy. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 47(2), 173-191. doi: 10.1080/00131857.2013.793928
- Lingard, B. (1993). The changing state of policy production in education: Some Australian reflections on the state of policy sociology. *International Studies in Sociological of Education*, 3(1), 25-47.
- Linh, N. T. T. (2010a). Commercialising higher education: lessons from Vietnam. *Pacific-Asian Education Journal*, 22(1).
- Linh, N. T. T. (2010b). Commercialising higher education: lessons from Vietnam. *Pacific-Asian*, 22(1), 45-56.
- Loc, N. (2006). Viet Nam's Education in the Transitional Period. *Viet Nam's Education in the Transitional Period*. Retrieved 25th September, 2013, from http://www.apecknowledgebank.org/resources/downloads/06_hrdwg1_057.pdf
- London, J. D. (2010). Globalization and the governance of education in Viet Nam. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 30(4), 361-379.
- London, J. D. (2014). Politics in contemporary Vietnam *Politics in Contemporary Vietnam* (pp. 1-20): Springer.
- Luke, C. (2001). *Globalization and women in academia: North/west-south/east*: Routledge.
- Luke, C. (2005). Capital and knowledge flows: Global higher education markets. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 25(2), 159-174.
- Madden, M. (2014). Walking the line: quality assurance policy development and implementation in Việt Nam. *Higher education*, 67(1), 91-104.
- Maguire, M., & Ball, S. J. (1994). Researching politics and the politics of research: recent qualitative studies in the UK. *Qualitative Studies in Education*, 7(3), 269-285.
- Majone, G., & Wildavsky, A. B. (1978). Implementation as evolution, in J.Pressman and A.Wildavsky (Eds) *Implementation*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Marginson, S. (2013). Emerging higher education in the post-Confucian heritage zone. *Higher education in the global age: Education policy, practice and promise in emerging societies*, 89-112.
- Marginson, S. (2016). The worldwide trend to high participation higher education: Dynamics of social stratification in inclusive systems. *Higher education*, 72(4), 413-434.
- Marginson, S., & Considine, M. (2000). *The enterprise university: Power, governance and reinvention in Australia*: Cambridge University Press.
- Maringe, F., & Gibbs, P. (2008). *Marketing higher education: Theory and practice*: McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*: Sage.
- Ministry of Labour Invalids and Social Affairs. (2016). Annual Report on Unemployment Rate. *Annual Report of Ministry of Labour Invalids and Social Affairs*.

- Ministry of Planning and Investment. (2015). Vietnam 2035: Toward Prosperity, Creativity, Equity, and Democracy. *Ministry of Planning and Investment and The World Bank Policy Research Paper*.
- Ministry of Education and Training. (1997). Review and Assessment conducted in 10 year of renovation in Education and Training. In G. a. d. Report. (Ed.). Hanoi: Ministry of Education and Training.
- Mok, K. H. (2008). When Socialism Meets Market Capitalism: challenges for privatizing and marketizing education in China and Vietnam. *Policy Futures in Education*, 6(5), 601-615.
- Naidoo, R. (2011). Rethinking development: Higher education and the new imperialism. *Handbook on globalization and higher education*, 40-58.
- Nghia, P. D. (2005). Confucianism and the conception of the law in Vietnam. *Asian socialism and legal change: The dynamics of Vietnamese and Chinese reform*, 76-90.
- Nghiem, D. V. (2010). Perceptions of the Party on education and training since *Đổi mới* - Một số quan điểm cơ bản của Đảng về giáo dục - đào tạo trong thời kỳ *Đổi mới*, in D. V. Nghiem (Ed.), *The Communist Party of Vietnam :80 years of establishment and development*. Communist Party of Vietnam Centre Committee: National Politics Publishing House, Hanoi
- Nguyen, H. H. (2015). Việt Nam không bị đồng hóa 1000 năm Bắc Thuộc - Vietnam went through 1,000 years of Northern Colonization without being assimilated. *Nghiên Cứu Quốc Tế - International Relation Studies*.
- Nguyen, H. T. (2010). *Marketization of higher education in Vietnam in the era of neoliberal globalization: policy and practice*. Faculty of Education-Simon Fraser University.
- Nguyen, T. K. Q. (2011). Globalization and higher education in Vietnam. *Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 23(1/2), 117.
- Nguyen, V. T., Dinh, X. L., Ngo, D. T., Nguyen, V. H., Ngo, Q. D., & Nguyen, D. Q. (2015). Development History of the Communist Party of Vietnam - Lịch Sử Đảng Cộng Sản Việt Nam. Hanoi: National Politics Publishing House
- Nguyen, V. T., Pham, V. S., Phan, Q. P., Vu, T., Doan, D. H., Doan, & Nguyen, D. Q. (2015). *The basic principles of Marxism and Leninism - Những Nguyên Lý Cơ Bản Của Chủ Nghĩa Mác-Lênin*. Hanoi: National Politics Publishing House.
- Odin, J. K., & Manicas, P. T. (2004). *Globalization and higher education*: University of Hawaii Press.
- Olssen, M., & Peters, M. A. (2005). Neoliberalism, higher education and the knowledge economy: From the free market to knowledge capitalism. *Journal of Education Policy*, 20(3), 313-345.
- Oxford University Press. (Ed.) (2010) *The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (eighth Ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ozga, J. (1987). Studying education policy through the lives of the policy-makers: An attempt to close the macro-micro gap. *Changing policies, changing teachers: New directions for schooling*, 138-150.
- Ozga, J. (1999). *Policy research in educational settings: Contested terrain*: McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Pham, L. (2013). Social structures in the economics of international education: perspectives from Vietnamese international tertiary students. *Globalisation, societies and education*, 11(1), 39-60.
- Pham, P. (2013). Các cơ sở giáo dục trong bối cảnh của nền kinh tế thị trường Universities in the context of market economy. In T. M. L. Nguyen & H. C. Nguyen (Eds.), *Giáo dục đại học Việt Nam: Những vấn đề về chất lượng và quản lý*. Vietnam Higher Education: issues on quality and management. Hanoi: Nhà xuất bản đại học quốc gia Hà Nội. Vietnam National University Hanoi Publishing House.

- Pham, Q. (2007). *Phạm Quỳnh - Tiểu luận viết bằng tiếng Pháp 1922 đến 1932 - Phạm Quỳnh: Collections of Essays in French from 1922 to 1932*. Hà Nội -Hanoi: Nhà xuất bản Tri thức - Knowledge Publishing House.
- Pham, T. L. P. (2012). The Renovation of Higher Education Governance in Vietnam and Its Impact on the Teaching Quality at Universities. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 18(4), 289-308.
- Phan, T. B. (2015). *Giáo dục Việt Nam thời Cận Đại -Education in Vietnam: The Pre-modern period*. Hà Nội -Hanoi: Nhà Xuất Bản Khoa Học Xã Hội -Social Sciences Publishing House.
- Porter, P., & Vidovich, L. (2000). Globalization and higher education policy. *Educational Theory*, 50(4), 449-465.
- Rhoads, R. A., & Torres, C. A. (2006). *The university, state, and market: The political economy of globalization in the Americas*: Stanford University Press.
- Rizvi, F. (2004). Theorizing the global convergence of educational restructuring. *Educational restructuring: International perspectives on traveling policies*, 21-41.
- Rizvi, F. (2017). Globalization and the Neoliberal Imaginary of Educational Reform. Education Research and Foresight Series, No. 20. Paris, UNESCO. <https://en.unesco.org/node/262287>
- Rizvi, F., & Lingard, B. (2010). *Globalizing education policy*. London: Routledge.
- Robertson, R. (1992). *Globalization: Social theory and global culture* (Vol. 16): Sage.
- Robertson, S., & Dale, R. (2008). Researching education in a globalising era. *The production of educational knowledge in the global era*, 19-32.
- Rose, N. (1999) *Powers of Freedom Reframing Political Thought*, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Rosser, A. (2016). Neo-liberalism and the politics of higher education policy in Indonesia. *Comparative Education*, 52(2), 109-135.
- Sahlberg, P. (2016). The global educational reform movement and its impact on schooling. *The Handbook of Global Education Policy*, 128-144.
- Santos, B. d. S. (2002). The processes of globalisation. *Revista Crítica de Ciências Sociais and Eurozine*, 1-48.
- Scholte, J. A. (2005). *Globalization: A critical introduction*: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Scott, P., Gallacher, J., & Parry, G. (2017). *New languages and landscapes of higher education* (First Ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Sellar, S. (2013). Hoping for the best in education: Globalisation, social imaginaries and young people. *Social Alternatives*, 32(2), 31.
- Slowey, M. (1995). *Implementing change from within universities and colleges: 10 personal accounts*: Psychology Press.
- Smith, H. J., Chen, J., & Liu, X. (2008). Language and rigour in qualitative research: problems and principles in analyzing data collected in Mandarin. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 8(1), 1.
- Sporn, B. (1999). *Adaptive University Structures: An Analysis of Adaptation to Socioeconomic Environments of US and European Universities*. Higher Education Policy Series 54: ERIC.
- Stake, R. E. (2013). *Multiple case study analysis*: Guilford Press.
- Statler, K. (2007). *Replacing France: The Origins of American Intervention in Vietnam*: University Press of Kentucky.
- Stubbs, R. (2008). The ASEAN alternative? Ideas, institutions and the challenge to 'global' governance. *The Pacific Review*, 21(4), 451-468.

- Subotzky, G. (2010). Symbolism and substance: towards an understanding of change and continuity in South African higher education. In H. Eggins (Ed.), *Globalization and reform higher education*. The Society for Research into Higher Education: SRHE.
- Taylor, C. (2004). *Modern social imaginaries*: Duke University Press.
- Thêm, T. N. (2008). *The Fundamental Elements of Vietnamese Culture -Cơ sở văn hóa Việt Nam*: Hanoi Education Publishing House - Nhà Xuất Bản Giáo Dục Hà Nội.
- Thiep, L. (2006). *Reflections on governance of universities in the market economy*. Paper presented at the Managing Institutions of Higher Education: New Perceptions, Vietnamese and International Experiences, National Institution of Education Management.
- Thomas, D. C., & Inkson, K. (2004). *Cultural intelligence: People skills for global business*: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Tight, M. (1992). Institutional Autonomy. In R. C. Burton & N. Guy (Eds.), *the Encyclopaedia of Higher Education* (pp. 1305 -1313). Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Tran, T. T. (2013). Is the learning approach of students from the Confucian heritage culture problematic? *Educational Research for Policy and Practice*, 12(1), 57-65.
- Trow, M. (1970). Reflections on the transition from mass to universal higher education. *Daedalus*, 1-42.
- Trow, M. (2000). From mass higher education to universal access: The American advantage. *Minerva*, 37(4), 303-328.
- Trowler, P. R. (1998). *Academics Responding to Change. New Higher Education Frameworks and Academic Cultures*: ERIC.
- Truong, T. D. (2015). Puzzling on the socialist-oriented market economy in the revised Constitution of Vietnam - Bản thảo thể chế kinh tế trong dự thảo Hiến pháp *Vietnam Economy Times*. Retrieved June 12, 2015, from <http://vneconomy.vn/thoi-su/ban-khoan-the-che-kinh-te-trong-du-thao-hien-phap-20130321100442894.htm>
- UNESCO. (2003). Reports on Trends and development in higher education in Europe. In UNESCO-CEPES (Ed.), *Reports on Trends and development in higher education in Europe*. The World Conference on higher education (1998-2003).
- Vallely, T. J., & Wilkinson, B. (2008). Vietnamese higher education: Crisis and response. *Memorandum: Higher Education Task Force, Harvard Kennedy School*.
- Van den Berg, H. (2008). Reanalyzing qualitative interviews from different angles: The risk of decontextualization and other problems of sharing qualitative data. *Historical Social Research/Historische Sozialforschung*, 179-192.
- Vang, N. X. (2012). *Vietnam-the land of opportunities*. Paper presented at the Going Global 2012, British Council.
- Varghese, N., & Martin, M. (2013). Governance reforms and university autonomy in Asia. *Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning*.
- Vidovich, L., & Currie, J. (2011). Governance and trust in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 36(1), 43-56.
- Vietnam's Government Portal, S. (2015). Vietnam: the introduction. Retrieved 31 May, 2015, from <http://vanban.chinhphu.vn/portal/page/portal/English>
- Vietnam Education Foundation. (2014). Observations on the Current Status of Higher Education in Agricultural Sciences, Civil Engineering, Computer Science, Electrical Engineering, Environmental Sciences, Physics, and Transportation and Communication at Selected Universities in Vietnam *Vietnam Education Foundation*.
- Vietnamese Government. (2005). *The Agenda of reforming higher education in Vietnam 2006-2020*. Vietnamese Government Portal, Library of Legal Documents

- Vu, N. C. (2007). Các khó khăn trong dịch và phương pháp khắc phục The difficulties in translating and their solutions. *Ngôn ngữ & Đời sống Languages and Life*, 8(142).
- Vu, T. (2014). Persistence amid Decay: The Communist Party of Vietnam at 83 *Politics in Contemporary Vietnam* (pp. 21-41): Springer.
- Walford, G. (2011). Researching the powerful. *British Educational Research Association online resource*. Accessed on, 13(07), 2012.
- Waters, M. (1995). *Globalization*. New York: Routledge.
- Weaver-Hightower, M. B. (2008). An ecology metaphor for educational policy analysis: A call to complexity. *Educational researcher*, 37(3), 153-167.
- Webometrics. (2016). Vietnam. *Asia*. Retrieved 13th April, 2016, from <http://www.webometrics.info/en/Asia/vietnam>
- Weil, S. W. (1994). *Introducing change 'from the top' in universities and colleges: 10 personal accounts*. London: Kogan Page.
- Welch, A. (2013). Ho Chi Minh meets the market: Public and private higher education in Viet Nam. *International Education Journal: Comparative Perspectives*, 8(3).
- Welch, A. R. (2010). Internationalisation of Vietnamese higher education: Retrospect and prospect *Reforming higher education in Vietnam* (pp. 197-213): Springer.
- Wildavsky, B. (2015). Why should we care about global higher education? In D. Araya & P. Marber (Eds.), *Higher education in the global age* (pp. 45 -49): Routledge.
- Wilkinson, B., & Chiro, L. (2011). Beyond the Apex: Toward a System Level Approach to Higher Education Reform in Vietnam. *New School, the Harvard Kennedy School*, 150.
- Williams, R., de Rassenfosse, G., Jensen, P., & Marginson, S. (2013). The determinants of quality national higher education systems. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 35(6), 599-611.
- World Bank. (2008). Vietnam: Higher education and skills for growth *Washington, DC: The World Bank*.
- World Bank. (2013). Vietnam: Achieving Success as a Middle-income Country *World Bank*. Retrieved 31st May, 2015, from <http://www.worldbank.org/en/results/2013/04/12/vietnam-achieving-success-as-a-middle-income-country>
- World Bank. (2014). Vietnam - Higher Education Development Policy Programme. *Washington, DC: World Bank Group*.
- World Bank. (2017). World Bank Database: Vietnam. From <http://data.worldbank.org/country/vietnam>
- World Economic Forum. (2011). Global Competiveness Report 2011-2012. *WorldEconomicForum*.
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: design and methods*. Los Angeles, California: SAGE.
- Yin, R. K., Bennett, N., Glatter, R., & Levacic, R. (1994). Designing single-and multiple-case studies. *Improving Educational Management: Through Research and Consultancy*, 135-155.

Appendices

Appendix 1 – Ethical Approval

SEPD-SGEG-29Jan15-M9

Unconfirmed

**The University of Huddersfield
School of Education and Professional Development
Minutes of the School Graduate Education Group Meeting
29 January 2015**

Present: Prof Robin Simmons, Dr Ian Rushton **In attendance:** Virtual Meeting

SEPD-SGEG-29Jan15-M9 RESEARCH PROPOSAL SUBMISSION

4.1 STUDENT NAME/AWARD - Hieu Kieu

Main Supervisor: Prof James Avis
Title: The influence of globalisation on higher education policy: Vietnam higher education policies and changing practices within public universities

4.1.1 Ethics

Reviewers' comments on how adequately ethical issues have been addressed in the proposal, and advice (if any):

- We suggest that there is a need to consider ethical issues and challenges, as the research goes forward and the thesis begins to take shape. At the moment there is a short discussion about practicalities and codes of practice but there will also be conceptual and theoretical perspectives to engage with.

Is ethical approval granted? YES

Please resubmit within 3 months of the date of this feedback for ethical approval to be re-considered. N/A

4.1.2. Recommended action: (reviewers please tick relevant action)

The proposal is approved in full and should be stored in the Student Record.

Any amendments should be completed and submitted within the indicated timescales from the date of this document. Use the submission form and annotate accordingly re the focus of your amendments. N/A

Robin Simmons and Ian Rushton
29th January 2015.]

Appendix 2 –Introductory Letters to Participants (English-Vietnamese)

University of
HUDDERSFIELD
Inspiring tomorrow's professionals

September 2015

2013
THE AWARDS
AWARD WINNER
UNIVERSITY OF THE YEAR

To [REDACTED]
[REDACTED]

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that [REDACTED] is a full-time doctoral student in the School of Education and Professional Development at the University of Huddersfield.

Her research is concerned with the globalisation and higher education polices in Vietnam. She is particularly interested in the Higher Education Reform Agenda and its implementation in four universities. She is planning to conduct her fieldwork from November 2015 to January 2016 and will utilise a range of research methods.

Her research proposal has been vetted by the School of Education and Professional Development's Research Committee and has been granted ethical approval.

We would be grateful if you would provide her with access so that she can conduct her research.

With many thanks

Best regards



Prof James Avis HNC, Bsc hons, MA, Phd, PG Cert Ed (Pcet), Fellow HEA

Tháng 9 năm 2015

Gửi tới [REDACTED]

Tôi gửi thư này xác nhận có [REDACTED] nghiên cứu sinh Tiến sĩ tại Khoa Giáo Dục và Phát Triển Nghề Nghiệp tại trường Đại học Huddersfield.

Đề tài nghiên cứu của cô Hiếu liên quan đến toàn cầu hóa và chính sách giáo dục đại học ở Việt Nam. Cô Hiếu cụ thể muốn đi sâu phân tích Đề án Đổi Mới Giáo Dục Đại Học và việc thực hiện đề án trong bốn trường đại học công lập ở Việt Nam. Cô Hiếu dự định sẽ thu thập thông tin cho đề tài nghiên cứu từ tháng 11 năm 2015 đến tháng 1 năm 2016 và sẽ sử dụng một số phương pháp nghiên cứu có liên quan.

Đề tài của cô Hiếu đã được Hội Đồng Nghiên Cứu khoa Giáo Dục và Phát Triển Nghề Nghiệp, trường Đại học Huddersfield phê chuẩn và chấp thuận về các yếu tố liên quan đến đạo đức nghiên cứu.

Chúng tôi sẽ rất biết ơn nếu quý Thầy tạo điều kiện cho phép cô Hiếu được tiến hành thu thập thông tin nghiên cứu.

Chúng tôi xin chân thành cảm ơn.

Trân trọng,



James Avis

Giáo sư James Avis HNC, Bsc hons, MA, Phd, PG Cert Ed (Pcet), Fellow HEA

Appendix 3–Introductory Letters to University Presidents (English–Vietnamese)

Hanoi, 11th November 2015

To Professor [REDACTED] President of University [REDACTED], and the Management Board of [REDACTED]
[REDACTED] would like to extend our greeting to President of University [REDACTED] and introduce Ms. Hieu Thi Kieu, MEdSt, senior lecturer of [REDACTED].

Currently, she is doing PhD in School of Education and Professional Development, University of Huddersfield, UK on globalisation and the policy of higher education reform in Vietnam with the focus on the reform Agenda (2006 -2020).

She would like to get access to your university and collect related data for this research project. She would provide details of her timeline for data collection in your university. Her scheduled time for data collection is until the end of January 22016 (01/2016).

[REDACTED] would like President [REDACTED] to support her and create a favourable condition for Ms. Hieu Thi Kieu to collect data for her research.

Thank you very much.

On behalf of President [REDACTED] of [REDACTED].

BỘ GIÁO DỤC VÀ ĐÀO TẠO
TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC [REDACTED]

CỘNG HOÀ XÃ HỘI CHỦ NGHĨA VIỆT NAM
Độc lập - Tự do - Hạnh phúc

Số: 2071 [REDACTED]
(V/v giới thiệu cán bộ là NCS Tiến sĩ
đi nghiên cứu thực tế
và lấy thông tin nghiên cứu)

Hà Nội, ngày 11 tháng 11 năm 2015

Kính gửi: PGS. [REDACTED]
Ban Giám hiệu Trường [REDACTED]

Trường Đại [REDACTED] xin gửi tới PGS. TS Hiệu trưởng và Ban Giám hiệu trường [REDACTED] lời chào trân trọng và xin giới thiệu:

Thạc sĩ Nguyễn [REDACTED] sinh ngày [REDACTED] là giảng viên Ngôn ngữ Anh của [REDACTED]

Hiện nay, [REDACTED] là nghiên cứu sinh Tiến sĩ, tại Khoa Giáo dục và Phát triển Nghề nghiệp, Trường Đại học Huddersfield, Vương quốc Anh.

Thạc sĩ [REDACTED] đang thực hiện đề tài liên quan đến toàn cầu hóa và chính sách giáo dục đại học ở Việt Nam; đi sâu phân tích về đổi mới Giáo dục Đại học và việc thực hiện tại bốn trường đại học công lập của Việt Nam.

Chi tiết về nội dung thu thập thông tin, dữ liệu nghiên cứu, ThS [REDACTED] sẽ báo cáo cụ thể bằng văn bản khi liên hệ công tác với Quý Trường và mong được tạo điều kiện và giúp đỡ.

Thời gian nghiên cứu và đi thực tế lấy thông tin, dữ liệu: Đến hết tháng 01/2016.

Trường [REDACTED] kính đề nghị PGS và Nhà trường tạo điều kiện giúp đỡ Thạc sĩ [REDACTED] thu thập thông tin, dữ liệu phục vụ đề tài nghiên cứu của mình.

Xin trân trọng cảm ơn.

Nơi nhận:

- Như trên;
- Lưu VT, TCCB.



Appendix 4 – Research Information for Participants (English-Vietnamese)

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Kieu Thi Hieu, lecturer at the International Education Centre, Hanoi University since 2008. Now I am a Phd student of School of Education and Professional Development, the University of Huddersfield, United Kingdom under the supervisor of Professor James Avis and Professor Lyn Tett.

I am writing this letter to express my keen interest in collecting data in your university for my research project on globalisation and changing the higher education development policy in Vietnam, illustration via the Agenda of reforming Vietnamese higher education using the cases of three public universities (Hanoi University, Hanoi University of Science and Technology, Danang University of Economics).

The purpose of the study is to look into the change of the policy and the changes within the university in implementation the Agenda and the recommendation for the further reform. Data for the research will be collected in the forms of the institutional documents and the in-depth interviews with the university leaders, representative of the teacher union and students' leaders. The transcription from these interviews will be sent back to your university for your verification before it is used for data analysis purposes. The findings from the data analysis will be sent to you for feedback before being published. Your confidentiality will be protected.

I am hoping to ask you some question on the Agenda of reforming Vietnamese higher education, Resolution 14/2005/NQ-CP for my research project.

I include here the document of Resolution 14.

Thank you very much.

Thông tin về đề tài nghiên cứu

Đề tài nghiên cứu: Toàn cầu hóa, thay đổi chính sách thay đổi phương thức hoạt động: minh họa và so sánh bốn nhóm trường đại học công lập ở Việt Nam

Kính gửi

Tôi tên là Kiều Thị Hiếu, hiện đang là nghiên cứu sinh tiến sĩ chuyên ngành Giáo dục tại trường Đại học Huddersfield, Anh Quốc. Tôi đang thực hiện đề tài nghiên cứu tốt nghiệp trong lĩnh vực toàn cầu hóa và thay đổi chính sách phát triển giáo dục đại học ở Việt Nam, minh họa qua Đề án *Đổi mới* Giáo dục đại học Việt Nam và việc triển khai đề án ở ba nhóm trường đại học công lập (Đại học Quốc Gia, Đại học Vùng, Đại học Trọng Điểm, và Đại học Đa Ngành). Mục tiêu của đề tài nhằm tìm hiểu những thay đổi trong chính sách phát triển đại học nói chung và những thay đổi trong các trường công lập nói riêng từ sau khi triển khai Đề án *Đổi mới* giáo dục đại học.

Dữ liệu cho đề tài bao gồm việc kết hợp phân tích chính sách và phỏng vấn chuyên sâu. Người tham gia phỏng vấn bao gồm lãnh đạo trường, trưởng các phòng ban, thư kí công đoàn, chủ tịch hội sinh viên. Mỗi cuộc phỏng vấn sẽ kéo dài không quá 1 tiếng đồng hồ.

Kết quả của đề tài nghiên cứu sẽ có thể được in ấn và phát hành. Thầy/Cô có thể tìm hiểu những thông tin này bằng cách liên lạc trực tiếp với người thực hiện đề tài hoặc các giáo sư hướng dẫn. Tuy nhiên những thông tin mà Thầy/Cô cung cấp cũng như thông tin cá nhân của Thầy/Cô sẽ được giữ bí mật tuyệt đối. Xin cảm ơn sự cộng tác của các Thầy/Cô. Để biết thêm thông tin về đề tài nghiên cứu, xin vui lòng liên hệ người nghiên cứu tại địa chỉ:

Cô Kiều Thị Hiếu

Nghiên cứu sinh tiến sĩ

Khoa Giáo dục và phát triển nghề nghiệp, Trường Đại học Huddersfield

Điện thoại :+447931016639 Email: hieu.kieu@hud.ac.uk

Appendix 5 – Participant Consent Form (English-Vietnamese)

Research title: *Globalisation, changing policies and practices: cases of the Agenda of reforming higher education in Vietnam and public institutional changes.*

Researcher's Name: Kieu Thi Hieu

Supervisors: Professor James Avis and Professor Lyn Tett

- I have read the Information of the Research and understand the nature of purposes of this study. I agree to participate in it.
- I understand the purposes of this project and my role as the participant.
- I understand that I can withdraw from the project at any stage without any effect on my status at the present and in the future.
- I understand that the information gained from the interview may be published. My participant will be confidential (if there is any agreement related to revealing the personal information, under the agreement of the participant, it has to be permitted by the participant).
- I understand that the interview will be recorded.
- I understand that the data from the interview will be stored in the forms of documents or audios in the recording machine or computer; only the researcher and her examiners can have access to it and the data will only be used for the purposes of the research and not shown to anyone else inappropriately.
- I understand that I may contact the researcher and her supervisors if I require further information about the research and that I might contact the Head of the Research Ethical Committee, School of Education and Professional Development, the University of Huddersfield if I want to complain about the issues related the research

Signed.....(research participant)

Kieu Thi Hieu Postgraduate Researcher School of Education and Professional Development

University of Huddersfield

Participant Consent Form (Vietnamese)-Bản đồng ý tham gia vào đề tài

Tên đề tài: Toàn cầu hóa, thay đổi chính sách và hoạt động: nghiên cứu chi tiết về việc thực hiện

Đề án *Đổi mới* Giáo dục đại học trong ba nhóm trường công lập ở Việt Nam

Tên nghiên cứu sinh: Kiều Thị Hiếu

Tên người hướng dẫn: Giáo sư James Avis và Giáo sư Lyn Tett

- Tôi đã đọc thông tin cho người tham gia đề tài nghiên cứu và nắm được tính chất và mục đích của đề tài này. Tôi đồng ý tham gia vào đề tài nghiên cứu.
- Tôi hiểu được mục đích của đề tài này và vai trò của mình khi tham gia.
- Tôi biết mình có thể rút lui khỏi đề tài ở bất cứ giai đoạn nào và điều đó không ảnh hưởng gì đến tôi trong hiện tại cũng như tương lai.
- Tôi hiểu rằng thông tin thu thập có thể được phát hành, tuy nhiên thông tin cá nhân của tôi sẽ được giữ bí mật tuyệt đối. (Nếu có bất cứ thỏa thuận nào liên quan đến việc tiết lộ thông tin cá nhân của người tham gia vào đề tài này, dưới sự thỏa thuận và đồng ý của người tham gia phỏng vấn).
- Tôi biết rằng cuộc phỏng vấn sẽ được ghi âm.
- Tôi biết rằng thông tin của cuộc phỏng vấn sẽ được lưu trữ dưới dạng văn bản hoặc dữ liệu trên máy tính, máy ghi âm; và chỉ có người nghiên cứu và các giáo sư hướng dẫn mới có quyền xem và sử dụng. Các thông tin này sẽ được sử dụng cho mục đích nghiên cứu và không tiết lộ cho bất cứ ai khác.
- Tôi biết rằng có thể liên lạc với nghiên cứu sinh và các giáo sư hướng dẫn nếu tôi muốn biết thêm thông tin về đề tài nghiên cứu. Nếu tôi có bất cứ phàn nàn gì về việc tham gia của mình vào đề tài nghiên cứu, tôi có thể liên lạc với Trường ban về Đạo Đức Nghiên Cứu Khoa Học, khoa Giáo Dục và Phát Triển Nghề Nghiệp, đại học Huddersfield, Vương Quốc Anh.

Ký tên.....(người tham gia vào đề tài)

Appendix 6 – Policy Documents

Documents used to understand the Agenda

1. Resolution No. 14/2005/NQ-CP, Fundamental and Comprehensive Reform of Higher Education in Vietnam 2006-2020, or the Agenda (in this study), dated 2 November 2005
2. Resolution No. 29-NQ/TW , Fundamental and Comprehensive Reform of Education and Training in order to Meet the Requirements of Industrialisation and Modernisation in the Context of Socialist-oriented Market Economy and International Integration, approved in the 8th Meetings of Central Committee XI, dated 4 November 2013;
3. Resolution 44/NQ-CP, Action Programme in Implementing Resolution No. 29-NQ/TW, dated 4 November 2013.
4. Decision No.70/2014/QĐ-TTg, Regulations of Higher Education, dated 10 December 2014
5. Law No. 08/2012/QH 13, Law on Higher Education, dated 18 June 2012
6. Law No.38/2005/QH11, Law on Education, dated 14 July 2005.

Documents shared by the retired senior policy makers

1. Symposium on Education and Training and Science and Technology, 1998 in Hanoi host by Committee for Overseas Vietnamese, Ministry of Science Technology and Environment and Ministry of Education and Training. The symposium are the combination of the recommendations of the Vietnamese intellectual and academic overseas on reforming education and training in Vietnam, year 1998.
2. Symposium on Vietnam Higher Education, in Ho Chi Minh City Hanoi host by Committee for Overseas Vietnamese and Ministry of Education and Training. The symposium is the combination of the recommendations of the Vietnamese intellectual and academic overseas on reforming higher education in Vietnam, year 1994.

Documents collected from Hanoi University (HANU) – or the University of Capital City (CCU) in this study

1. Decision No.377/ QĐ-TTg, Approving the Pilot Project on Reforming Operation Mechanism of Hanoi University 2015-2017, dated 20 March 2015

2. Annual Academic and Staff Meeting Report of Hanoi University 2015-2016, dated 10 November 2015
3. Decision No. 1288/QĐ-ĐHHN, Regulations on Research and Information Technology, dated 03 September 2013

Documents collected from Hanoi University of Science and Technology (HUST) – or the University of Science and Technology (STU)

1. Ordinance No.859/KH-DHBK-HCTH, Strategic Plan for 2015-2020, dated 3 November 2015
2. Annual Report of Teacher Union of Hanoi University of Science and Technology Year 2014-2015, dated 10 July 2015

Documents collected from The University of Danang, University of Economics (DUE) – University of Economics, University of Middle Region (UEMR)

- Danang University of Economics: 40 years of establishment and development, Danang Publishing House, November 2015

Appendix 7 –Interview Questions for Each Participant- English

Questions for university rectors/ presidents

Part 1: General Information

1. How long have you been in your current leadership position?
2. During this time as a leader, which achievement that you are personally most proud of?
3. Among the missions in your university website, which one is the main priority? Why?
4. What is the uniqueness of your university compared to other ones nationally and regionally?
5. What does your university aspire to become? What challenges this aspiration?

Part 2: Opinions about the Reform Agenda

1. In your opinion, what are the factors that have driven the Reform?
2. In your opinion, what are the impacts of the Reform Agenda to the actual practices of your university? (Probing about the proposals in - University governance and management,- Attaching research with teaching, - Attracting private investment , - Enhancing international cooperation, - Funding for university, - Increasing the training quality)
3. In your opinion, which of the proposals in the Reform Agenda – have/has strongest impact to your university – are/is most strongly supported by your university – have/has brought opportunities for your university – are/is difficult for your university to realise?
4. In your opinion about the further reform, is the further reformed needed? If yes, what are your recommendations about - How should the system be organized and managed? – How should it be funded? – How can its quality be improved ? - How can access to university be widened? - How can the relationship between research and teaching be strengthened? – How can private sector investment be increased?

Ask for the documents on

1. Your university's structure
2. Your university's mission statement
3. Other related institutional documents

Questions for the Head of Training Department

Part 1: General information

(Part 1 is similar for all participants with the exception of the students' leader)

1. How long have you been in your current leadership position?
2. During this time as a leader, which achievement that you are personally most proud of?
3. Among the missions in your university website, which one is the main priority? Why?
4. What is the uniqueness of your university compared to other ones nationally and regionally?
5. What does your university aspire to become? What challenges this aspiration?

Part 2: Opinions about the Reform Agenda

1. In your opinion, what are the factors that have driven the Reform?
2. In your opinion, what are the impacts of the Reform Agenda on the training practices of your university?
3. One of the proposals in the Reform Agenda is to renovate the training practices (with the focus of - renovating the learning method, - using more ICTs in teaching and learning, - renovating the assessment method), can you tell me more about the implementations of this proposal in your university context?
4. In your opinion, which of the proposals in the Reform Agenda – have/has strongest impact to your university – are/is most strongly supported by your university – have brought opportunities for your university – are/is difficult for your university to realize?
5. In your opinion about the further reform, is the further reformed needed? If yes, what are your recommendations about - How should the system be organised and managed? – How should it be funded? – How can its quality be improved? - How can access to university be widened? - How can the relationship between research and teaching be strengthened? – How can private sector investment be increased?
6. How are the academic programmes structured at your university? In your opinion, what have been changed in the programme structure so far?

7. Is your university running programmes using English as the medium of instruction? If yes, can you tell me more about these programmes? In your opinion, what are the benefits of these programmes? What about the difficulties in running such programmes?
8. Same as question 7 for joint training programmes with overseas universities?

Ask for the documents on

1. Number of programmes for official students under the quota of Ministry of Education and Training every year? Programmes for distant learning students? Programmes for in-service students? Programmes for second degree students ?Programmes for joint training students ?
2. Other related documents on Training in your university?

Questions for the Head of International Relations Department

Part 1: General information

(Part 1 is similar for all participants with the exception of the students' leader)

1. How long have you been in your current leadership position?
2. During this time as a leader, which achievement that you personally most proud of?
3. Among the missions in your university website, which one is the main priority? Why?
4. What is the uniqueness of your university compared to other ones nationally and regionally?
5. What does your university aspire to become? What challenges this aspiration?

Part 2: Opinions about the Reform Agenda

1. In your opinion, what are the factors that have driven the Reform?
2. In your opinion, what are the impacts of the Reform Agenda on the international relations strategy of your university?
3. One of the proposals in the Reform Agenda is to internationalise training programmes and to attract foreign investment into Vietnamese university; can you tell me more about the implementations of this proposal in your university context?

4. In your opinion, which of the proposals in the Reform Agenda – have/has strongest impact to your university – are/is most strongly supported by your university – have/has brought opportunities for your university – are/is difficult for your university to realize?
5. In your opinion about the further reform, is the further reformed needed? If yes, what are your recommendations about - How should the system be organised and managed? – How should it be funded? – How can its quality be improved? - How can access to university be widened? - How can the relationship between research and teaching be strengthened? – How can private sector investment be increased?

Ask for the documents on

1. Information on international relations of your university with other foreign partners and organisations?
2. Any related documents on International Relations of your university?

Questions for the Head of the Research Department

Part 1: General information

(Part 1 is similar for all participants with the exception of the students' leader)

1. How long have you been in your current leadership position?
2. During this time as a leader, which achievement that you personally most proud of?
3. Among the missions in your university website, which one is the main priority? Why?
4. What is the uniqueness of your university compared to other ones nationally and regionally?
5. What does your university aspire to become? What challenges this aspiration?

Part 2: Opinions about the Reform Agenda

1. In your opinion, what are the factors that have driven the Reform?
2. In your opinion, what are the impacts of the Reform Agenda on the research activities of your university?

3. In your opinion, which of the proposals in the Reform Agenda – have/has strongest impact to your university – are/is most strongly supported by your university – have/has brought opportunities for your university – are/is difficult for your university to realise?
5. In your opinion about the further reform, is the further reformed needed? If yes, what are your recommendations about - How should the system be organized and managed? – How should it be funded? – How can its quality be improved? - How can access to university be widened? - How can the relationship between research and teaching be strengthened? – How can private sector investment be increased?

Ask for the documents on

1. Your university documents on participation into research of lecturers and students? the university allocation of funding and resources for research? criteria for the evaluation of the research outcome? Sharing research information and outcomes among academic communities?
2. Other related documents on the research activities of your university?

Questions for the Head of the Organization and Administration Department

Part 1: General information

(Part 1 is similar for all participants with the exception of the students' leader)

1. How long have you been in your current leadership position?
2. During this time as a leader, which achievement that you personally most proud of?
3. Among the missions in your university website, which one is the main priority? Why?
4. What is the uniqueness of your university compared to other ones nationally and regionally?
5. What does your university aspire to become? What challenges this aspiration?

Part 2: Opinions about the Reform Agenda

1. In your opinion, what are the factors that have driven the Reform?
2. In your opinion, what are the impacts of the Reform Agenda on organising and recruiting staffs in your university?

3. One of the proposals in the Reform Agenda for the entire system of higher education is to reach 40% of Master holders, 25% of Phd holders toward 2020; will this proposal be feasible for your university? What are the current qualification distributions of your university?
4. In your opinion, which of the proposals in the Reform Agenda – have/has strongest impact to your university - are most strongly supported by your university – have brought opportunities for your university – are difficult for your university to realise?
5. In your opinion about the further reform, is the further reformed needed? If yes, what are your recommendations about - How should the system be organised and managed? – How should it be funded? – How can its quality be improved? - How can access to university be widened? - How can the relationship between research and teaching be strengthened? – How can private sector investment be increased?

Ask for the documents on

1. Information of number of staff (administration, academics, and managers)? ratio of teacher-student? Number of Master, Phd holders, Associate Professors and Professors?
2. Other related documents on recruitments, professional developments and promotions?

Questions for the President of Teacher Union

Part 1: General information

(Part 1 is similar for all participants with the exception of the students' leader)

1. How long have you been in your current leadership position?
2. During this time as a leader, which achievement that you personally most proud of?
3. Among the missions in your university website, which one is the main priority? Why?
4. What is the uniqueness of your university compared to other ones nationally and regionally?
5. What does your university aspire to become? What challenges this aspiration?

Part 2: Opinions about the Reform Agenda

1. In your opinion, what are the factors that have driven the Reform?
2. In your opinion, what are the impacts of the Reform Agenda on the Teacher Union activities?

3. In your opinion, which of the proposals in the Reform Agenda – have/has strongest impact to your university – are/is most strongly supported by your university – have brought opportunities for your university – are/is difficult for your university to realize?
4. In your opinion about the further reform, is the further reformed needed? If yes, what are your recommendations about - How should the system be organised and managed? – How should it be funded? – How can its quality be improved? - How can access to university be widened? - How can the relationship between research and teaching be strengthened? – How can private sector investment be increased?

Ask for the documents on

1. Information of participants of lecturers into the Teacher Union? Missions of the Teacher Union and expectation of the Teacher Union?
2. Other related documents?

Questions for the students' leaders

Part 1: Information about students' leaders and activity of Student Union

1. Can you tell me something about yourself as a student? Why did you choose to study at this university? Which year are you in? What is your impression?

Why do you want to be students' leader?

2. As a students' leader, what are your duties? Can you tell me about the current activities and programmes of student union at the moment? Which one are most enjoyable to you and why?

Part 2: Opinions about the Reform Agenda

3. In your opinion, what are the factors that have driven the Reform?
4. In your opinion, is there any impact from the Reform Agenda on Student Union? If yes, can you tell me more about it?

5. In your opinion, which of the proposals in the Reform Agenda – have/has strongest impact to your university - are most strongly supported by your university – have brought opportunities for your university – are difficult for your university to realise?
6. In your opinion about the further reform, is the further reformed needed? If yes, what are your recommendations about - How should the system be organised and managed? – How should it be funded? – How can its quality be improved? - How can access to university be widened? - How can the relationship between research and teaching be strengthened? – How can private sector investment be increased?

Ask for the documents on

Related documents to the Student Union

Appendix 8 – Interview Questions for Each Participant-Vietnamese

Câu hỏi cho hiệu trưởng

Phần 1: Thông tin chung

1. Thầy đã ở vị trí lãnh đạo trường được bao lâu rồi?
2. Trong thời gian làm lãnh đạo, thành tích gì của trường làm cho thầy đáng tự hào nhất?
3. Trong số những sứ mệnh ở website của trường, sứ mệnh nào đang được nhà trường ưu tiên nhất?
4. Trường có gì đặc biệt so với các trường khác trong nước và khu vực?
5. Tâm cỡ mà trường mong muốn đạt được trong tương lai? Để thực hiện được điều có những trở ngại gì?

Phần 2: Ý kiến về và Đổi mới

1. Theo thầy, đâu là động lực thúc đẩy Đổi mới ?
2. Theo thầy nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học có tác động gì đến hoạt động thực tế của trường? (Các tiêu chí về - Quản trị nhà trường,- Gắn nghiên cứu với giảng dạy, - Thu hút đầu tư của tư nhân,- Tăng cường hợp tác quốc tế, - Hỗ trợ tài chính, - Tăng cường quyền tự trị trong nhà trường, - Nâng cao chất lượng)
3. Đề xuất nào trong nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học - tác động đến nhà trường nhiều nhất - cơ hội nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học mang lại cho trường – được nhà trường ủng hộ nhất- thách thức để hiện thực hóa nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học
4. Ý kiến của thầy về việc tiếp tục cải cách -Tổ chức hệ thống - Cấp kinh phí -Cải thiện chất lượng đào tạo -Mở rộng tuyển sinh - Mối quan hệ giữa giảng dạy và nghiên cứu - Tăng đầu tư ở khu vực tư nhân

Hỏi xin thầy các tài liệu về

1. Cấu trúc nhà trường
2. Sứ mệnh
3. Và các tài liệu nội bộ có liên quan

Câu hỏi cho trường phòng đào tạo

Phần 1: Thông tin chung

(Sử dụng câu hỏi cho hiệu trưởng)

1. Thầy đã ở vị trí lãnh đạo trường được bao lâu rồi?
2. Trong thời gian làm lãnh đạo, thành tích gì của trường làm cho thầy đáng tự hào nhất?
3. Trong số những sứ mệnh ở website của trường, sứ mệnh nào đang được nhà trường ưu tiên nhất?
4. Trường có gì đặc biệt so với các trường khác trong nước và khu vực?
5. Tầm cỡ mà trường mong muốn đạt được trong tương lai? Để thực hiện được điều đó có những trở ngại gì?

Phần 2:

1. Theo thầy, đâu là động lực thúc đẩy Đổi mới ?
2. Theo thầy nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học có tác động gì đến hoạt động đào tạo của trường?
3. Một trong những mục tiêu của nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học , là Đổi mới phương pháp đào tạo (-trọng tâm vào trang bị cách học, - sử dụng CNTT vào giảng dạy và học, Đổi mới phương pháp đánh giá), việc triển khai Đổi mới phương pháp này ở trường ta như thế nào rồi?
4. Đề xuất nào trong nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học được nhà trường - tác động đến nhà trường nhiều nhất -cơ hội nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học mang lại cho trường - được nhà trường ủng hộ nhất-thách thức để hiện thực hóa nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học
5. Ý kiến của thầy về việc tiếp tục cải cách -Tổ chức hệ thống -Cấp kinh phí - Cải thiện chất lượng đào tạo -Mở rộng tuyển sinh -Mối quan hệ giữa giảng dạy và nghiên cứu - Tăng đầu tư ở khu vực tư nhân
6. Các chương trình đào tạo của trường được cấu trúc như thế nào? Theo thầy, cấu trúc chương trình này có gì thay đổi trong thời gian qua. Mục tiêu đào tạo hướng tới của trường là gì?

7. Trường có triển khai các chương trình giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh không? Theo thầy những khó khăn và cơ hội khi triển khai các chương trình này là gì?
8. Trường có hợp tác đào tạo với nước ngoài không? Khó khăn và cơ hội là gì?

Hỏi xin thầy các tài liệu về

1. Số lượng các chương trình đào tạo chính quy? Từ xa? Văn bằng 2? Chuyên ngành bằng tiếng Anh? Hợp tác quốc tế?
2. Các tài liệu có liên quan đến Đào tạo ở trường?

Câu hỏi cho trường phòng hợp tác quốc tế

Phần 1: Thông tin chung

(Sử dụng câu hỏi cho hiệu trưởng)

1. Thầy đã ở vị trí lãnh đạo trường được bao lâu rồi?
2. Trong thời gian làm lãnh đạo, thành tích gì của trường làm cho thầy đáng tự hào nhất?
3. Trong số những sứ mệnh ở website của trường, sứ mệnh nào đang được nhà trường ưu tiên nhất?
4. Trường có gì đặc biệt so với các trường khác trong nước và khu vực?
5. Tầm cỡ mà trường mong muốn đạt được trong tương lai? Để thực hiện được điều đó có những trở ngại gì?

Phần 2:

1. Theo thầy, đâu là động lực thúc đẩy Đổi mới ?
2. Theo thầy nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học có tác động gì đến chính sách hợp tác quốc tế của trường?
3. Một trong những mục tiêu của nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học , là quốc tế hóa các chương trình đào tạo và thu hút các đầu tư nước ngoài vào trường đại học Việt Nam, việc thực hiện mục tiêu này của trường như thế nào?
4. Đề xuất nào trong nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học được nhà trường -tác động đến nhà trường nhiều nhất -cơ hội nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học mang lại

cho trường - được nhà trường ủng hộ nhất-thách thức để hiện thực hóa nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học

5. Ý kiến của thầy về việc tiếp tục cải cách -Tổ chức hệ thống -Cấp kinh phí - Cải thiện chất lượng đào tạo -Mở rộng tuyển sinh-Mối quan hệ giữa giảng dạy và nghiên cứu - Tăng đầu tư ở khu vực tư nhân

Hỏi xin thầy các tài liệu về

1. Thông tin về hợp tác quốc tế của trường với các tổ chức cơ quan.
2. Các tài liệu có liên quan đến Hợp tác Quốc tế ở trường?

Câu hỏi cho trường phòng nghiên cứu

Phần 1: Thông tin chung

(Sử dụng câu hỏi cho hiệu trưởng)

1. Thầy đã ở vị trí lãnh đạo trường được bao lâu rồi?
2. Trong thời gian làm lãnh đạo, thành tích gì của trường làm cho thầy đáng tự hào nhất?
3. Trong số những sứ mệnh ở website của trường, sứ mệnh nào đang được nhà trường ưu tiên nhất?
4. Trường có gì đặc biệt so với các trường khác trong nước và khu vực?
5. Tầm cỡ mà trường mong muốn đạt được trong tương lai? Để thực hiện được điều có những trở ngại gì?

Phần 2:

1. Theo thầy, đâu là động lực thúc đẩy Đổi mới ?
2. Theo thầy nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học có tác động gì đến hoạt động nghiên cứu của trường?
3. Trường có chính sách gì khuyến khích giảng viên và sinh viên tham gia vào nghiên cứu? Ngân sách cho nghiên cứu? Xây dựng văn hóa nghiên cứu? Chia sẻ thông tin nghiên cứu, kết quả nghiên cứu? Phổ biến và thương mại hóa kết quả nghiên cứu?
4. Đề xuất nào trong nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học được nhà trường -tác động đến nhà trường nhiều nhất -cơ hội nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học mang lại

cho trường - được nhà trường ủng hộ nhất-thách thức để hiện thực hóa nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học

5. Ý kiến của thầy về việc tiếp tục cải cách -Tổ chức hệ thống -Cấp kinh phí - Cải thiện chất lượng đào tạo -Mở rộng tuyển sinh -Mối quan hệ giữa giảng dạy và nghiên cứu - Tăng đầu tư ở khu vực tư nhân

Hỏi xin thầy các tài liệu về

1. Thông tin về hợp tác quốc tế của trường với các tổ chức cơ quan.
2. Các tài liệu có liên quan đến Hợp tác Quốc tế ở trường?

Câu hỏi trường phòng tổ chức hành chính

Phần 1: Thông tin chung

(Sử dụng câu hỏi cho hiệu trưởng)

1. Thầy đã ở vị trí lãnh đạo trường được bao lâu rồi?
2. Trong thời gian làm lãnh đạo, thành tích gì của trường làm cho thầy đáng tự hào nhất?
3. Trong số những sứ mệnh ở website của trường, sứ mệnh nào đang được nhà trường ưu tiên nhất?
4. Trường có gì đặc biệt so với các trường khác trong nước và khu vực?
5. Tầm cỡ mà trường mong muốn đạt được trong tương lai? Để thực hiện được điều có những trở ngại gì?

Phần 2:

1. Theo thầy, đâu là động lực thúc đẩy Đổi mới ?
2. Theo thầy nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học có tác động gì đến hoạt động tổ chức cán bộ và tuyển dụng giảng viên của trường.
3. Một trong những mục tiêu của nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học cho hệ thống đại học của Việt Nam là 40% giảng viên có bằng Thạc sĩ, 25% có bằng tiến sĩ đến năm 2020, con số này theo thầy có khả thi cho trường ta hay không? Con số hiện nay là bao nhiêu?

4. Đề xuất nào trong nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học được nhà trường -tác động đến nhà trường nhiều nhất -cơ hội nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học mang lại cho trường được nhà trường ủng hộ nhất--thách thức để hiện thực hóa nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học
5. Ý kiến của thầy về việc tiếp tục cải cách -Tổ chức hệ thống -Cấp kinh phí - Cải thiện chất lượng đào tạo -Mở rộng tuyển sinh -Mối quan hệ giữa giảng dạy và nghiên cứu - Tăng đầu tư ở khu vực tư nhân

Hỏi xin thầy các tài liệu về

1. Thông tin về số lượng cán bộ nhân viên trong nhà trường. Tỷ lệ giảng viên-sinh viên? Phân bổ giảng viên có bằng Ts, Ths? Số lượng Giáo sư, phó Giáo sư?
2. Các thông tin khác về tuyển dụng và khen thưởng?

Câu hỏi cho thư kí công đoàn

Phần 1: Thông tin chung

(Sử dụng câu hỏi cho hiệu trưởng)

1. Thầy đã ở vị trí lãnh đạo trường được bao lâu rồi?
2. Trong thời gian làm lãnh đạo, thành tích gì của trường làm cho thầy đáng tự hào nhất?
3. Trong số những sứ mệnh ở website của trường, sứ mệnh nào đang được nhà trường ưu tiên nhất?
4. Trường có gì đặc biệt so với các trường khác trong nước và khu vực?
5. Tầm cỡ mà trường mong muốn đạt được trong tương lai? Để thực hiện được điều có có những trở ngại gì?

Phần 2:

1. Theo thầy, đâu là động lực thúc đẩy Đổi mới ?
2. Theo thầy nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học có tác động gì đến hoạt động của công đoàn trường?
3. Đơn vị đại diện cho giảng viên và nhân viên trong trường, các hoạt động của công đoàn? Mục tiêu trong thời gian tới? Nguyện vọng?

4. Đề xuất nào trong nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học được nhà trường -tác động đến nhà trường nhiều nhất -cơ hội nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học mang lại cho trường - được nhà trường ủng hộ nhất-thách thức để hiện thực hóa nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học
5. Ý kiến của thầy về việc tiếp tục cải cách -Tổ chức hệ thống -Cấp kinh phí - Cải thiện chất lượng đào tạo -Mở rộng tuyển sinh-Mối quan hệ giữa giảng dạy và nghiên cứu - Tăng đầu tư ở khu vực tư nhân

Hỏi xin thầy các tài liệu về

1. Thông tin tài liệu về số lượng công đoàn viên? Hoạt động của công đoàn?
2. Các thông tin khác về tuyển dụng và khen thưởng?

Câu hỏi cho chủ tịch hội sinh viên

Phần 1: Thông tin chung

(Sử dụng câu hỏi cho hiệu trưởng)

1. Em có thể nói về bản thân mình? Em học trường này được bao lâu? Tại sao em chọn trường này? Suy nghĩ của em về trường như thế nào?
2. Là lãnh đạo sinh viên, nhiệm vụ của em là gì? Các hoạt động của hội sinh viên hiện nay? Hoạt động nào em hứng thú nhất và vì sao?
3. Mục tiêu của hội sinh viên trong thời gian tới là gì?
4. Theo em, em có đề xuất chính sách gì từ nhà trường để trong thời gian tới đáp ứng nhu cầu của sinh viên?

Phần 2:

1. Theo thầy, đâu là động lực thúc đẩy Đổi mới ?
2. Theo thầy nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học có tác động gì đến hoạt động của hội sinh viên?
3. Đề xuất nào trong nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học được nhà trường -tác động đến nhà trường nhiều nhất -cơ hội nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học mang lại

cho trường - được nhà trường ủng hộ nhất-thách thức để hiện thực hóa nghị quyết 14 về Đổi mới giáo dục đại học

4. Ý kiến của thầy về việc tiếp tục cải cách -Tổ chức hệ thống -Cấp kinh phí - Cải thiện chất lượng đào tạo -Mở rộng tuyển sinh-Mối quan hệ giữa giảng dạy và nghiên cứu - Tăng đầu tư ở khu vực tư nhân

Hỏi xin thầy các tài liệu về

1. Thông tin về hội sinh viên?
2. Các tài liệu có liên quan

