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PROMOTION OF HUMAN RIGHTS BY PROVIDING EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE DISADVANTAGED WORKERS IN ASEAN

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Abstract

The promotion and protection of human rights is a key political principle of ASEAN and the ASEAN member states have made efforts to safeguard human rights and freedom of all ASEAN citizens, including the disadvantaged workers. This paper examines the ASEAN countries’ commitment and labour policy to promote equal employment opportunities for women, the elderly and persons with disabilities. The findings of this study would provide better insights to the issues of human rights in the labour market among ASEAN countries. It can serve as a resource for researchers, practitioners and policymakers for policymaking in ensuring that disadvantaged workers are not excluded from being able to fully enjoy their right to work as their participation in the labour market could in turn be one of the solutions to reduce high unemployment rate suffered in some ASEAN countries.

Key words: Disadvantaged workers, gender equality, aging society, persons with disabilities, ASEAN

Introduction

The promotion of human rights, freedom democracy and rule of law is a key political principle of ASEAN. ASEAN member countries have made efforts to safeguard human rights and freedom of all ASEAN citizens including disadvantaged workers (ASEAN, 2018a). In this context, the leaders of the ASEAN member countries adopted the ASEAN Human Rights Declaration (AHRD) in 2012 and the fourth general principle of the AHRD clearly declared, “The rights of women, children, the elderly, persons with disabilities, migrant workers and vulnerable and marginalised groups are an inalienable, integral and indivisible pars of human rights and fundamental freedom” (ASEAN, 2013a). More importantly, ASEAN leaders have endorsed and affirmed the clause of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) on

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\textsuperscript{1} This study was conducted as part of the Jean Monnet Center of Excellence project (Project Number: 586907-EPP-1-2017-1-MY-EPPJMO-CoE). The empirical analysis is conducted by using EViews. The data and EViews code are available at https://sites.google.com/site/fumitakafuruokawebpage2/home/paper-12
the economic, social and cultural rights and declared in the AHRD, “Every person has the right to work” (ASEAN, 2014).

In order to promote basic human rights of the vulnerable groups, ASEAN came up with specific plans for women, the elderly and persons with disabilities. First of all, ASEAN decided to set up the ASEAN commission on promotion and protector of the rights of women and children (ACWC) in 2010. There are two inter-related objectives for the ACWC. The first objective is to promote and protect human rights of women and children. The second objective is to achieve gender equality and empowerment of women (ASEAN, 2018b). ACWC released a progress report in 2019. In the report, the ACWC officially expressed its serious concern about gender inequality in ASEAN countries. For example, there is a persistent gender gap in economic participation among ASEAN countries. This is basically due to the gender gap in human capital investment and labour market discrimination. Another problem in the labour market is that women tended to dominate vulnerable employment, such as part-time employment, temporary employment and informal employment.

Secondly, there is an increasing awareness that ASEAN countries have faced some problems related to the ageing society such as sustainability of public pension system or lack of young workers. In order to cope with this problem, ASEAN adopted the ASEAN strategic framework on social welfare and development in 2015. In this framework, ASEAN will make efforts to “promote regional cooperation initiative to support ASEAN countries to be well-prepared for the ageing society”. More significantly, ASEAN has promoted the idea of “productive ageing”. ASEAN declares that one of the main objectives in its strategic plan for the social welfare is “healthy, active and productive ageing is promoted in an enabling and supportive environment” (ASEAN, 2015).

Thirdly, ASEAN countries made serious commitment on the promotion of the disability rights by ratifying the UN Convention on the rights of persons with disabilities (CRPD). In other words, ASEAN countries would “recognise the rights of person with disability to work, on an equal basis with other”. It also means that ASEAN countries would recognise the rights of a person with disabilities to “the opportunity to gain a living by work freely chosen or accepted in a labour market”. The ratification of the CRPD also would induce ASEAN countries to “safeguard and promote the realisation of the right to work” and “to prohibit discrimination on the basis of disability” (United Nations, 2006).

Despite its importance, the promotion of equal employment opportunities for the disadvantaged workers is still an overlooked topic pertaining labour market. Thus, this paper examines how ASEAN countries have made efforts to promote employment for women, older people and persons with disabilities. There are two research questions in the current study. The first research question is: what is the current status of employment among the disadvantaged workers in ASEAN countries? The second research question is: what is the main labour policy to promote employment for them?

This paper consists of five parts. Following this introductory part, the second section explains the main characteristics of labour markets in the ASEAN countries. The third section discusses the promotion of gender equality. The fourth section explains the promotion of productive ageing by providing job opportunities for the elderly. The fifth section discusses the promotion of employment among persons with disabilities. The final section consists of the conclusion.

**Labour market condition and unemployment in ASEAN**

The conditions and situations of a labour market could be examined by the relationship between unemployment and inflation rates. For example, the unemployment rate indicates a balance
between labour supply and demand. If labour supply is largely greater than labour demand, there would be a higher unemployment rate. The unemployment rates in ASEAN countries for the period of 1995 to 2017 are depicted in Figure 1 and the main indicators of unemployment are reported in Table 1. As Figure 1 clearly indicates, two ASEAN countries, namely Brunei and Indonesia, suffered from high unemployment problem. The average unemployment rate in Brunei was 6.3 percent between 1995 and 2017. The country’s unemployment rates were around 5 percent from 1995 to 2008. Its unemployment rate jumped up from 6.8 percent in 2012 to 7.7 percent in 2015 and increased further to 9.3 percent in 2017. Indonesia’s unemployment rate increased from 3.9 percent in 1995 to 5.4 percent in 1998 and increased further to 6.0 percent in 2000. The unemployment rate declined further to 7.9 percent in 2005. The labour market condition in Indonesia showed some improvement after 2010. Its unemployment rate decreased from 5.6 percent in 2010 to 4.3 percent in 2013, and further to 4.1 percent in 2017. Among the ASEAN countries, Malaysia, Philippines and Singapore have moderate unemployment rates and their average unemployment rates are around 3 percent. Malaysia’s unemployment rate increased slightly from 3.1 percent in 1995 to 3.4 percent in 1999 and increased further to 3.6 percent in 2004. Its unemployment rate increased again from 3.0 percent in 2012 to 3.1 percent in 2015, increased slightly to 3.4 percent in 2017. By contrast, the unemployment rate in the Philippines decreased from 4.0 percent in 2007 to 3.6 percent in 2010 and declined further to 2.5 percent in 2017. Similarly, Singapore’s unemployment rate decreased from 5.8 percent in 2009, to 4.1 percent in 2010, before settling at 3.9 percent in 2017. It is interesting to note that unemployment rates in five countries in mainland Southeast Asia are lower than in the other ASEAN countries. The average unemployment rate in these countries are lower than 2 percent. The unemployment rate in Cambodia decreased from 1.5 percent in 2005 to 1.3 percent in 2009, and further to 1.0 percent in 2017. In Lao, its unemployment rate was constantly lower than 1 percent in the 2010s. In the case of Myanmar, its unemployment rate slightly increased from 0.9 percent in 2010 to 1.1 percent in 2016 and rose further to 1.5 percent in 2017. Thailand’s unemployment rate decreased from 2.6 percent in 2001 to 1.0 percent in 2009 and decreased further to 0.6 percent in 2017. In the case of Vietnam, its unemployment rate decreased from 2.7 percent in 2001 to 2.3 percent in 2008 and declined further to 1.8 percent in 2017.

Figure 1: Unemployment rates in ASEAN

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2 The quality of data on unemployment rate in the ASEAN countries could be questionable. Firstly, unemployment rate could be under-estimated, especially some new member states, such as Cambodia, Lao and Myanmar. Secondly, there are no standard measurement for unemployment rate among the ASEAN countries. Thus, International Labour Organization (2019) recently reported the problems of measurement for unemployment rates.
### Table 1: Main indicators of unemployment in ASEAN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brunei</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lao</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, labour demand is a derived demand. An increase in the demand of products would cause an increase in labour demand. In this sense, the inflation rate can indicate a balance between product demand and supply. If the money supply is constant and product demand is largely greater than the product supplied, there are higher inflation rates. The inflation rate in ASEAN countries for the period of 1995 to 2017 depicted in Figure 2 and the main indicators of inflation are reported Table 2. As the figure clearly indicates, four ASEAN countries, namely Indonesia, Lao, Myanmar and Vietnam, suffered from high inflation problems. Due to the Asian economic crisis in the end of the 1990s, Indonesia’s inflation rate was 19.9 percent in 1998 and decreased to 5.0 percent in 2001. The country’s inflation rate increased again from 3.5 percent in 2004 to 9.0 percent in 2006. In the case of Lao, inflation rate rapidly increased from 1.9 percent in 1997 to 8.1 percent in 1998 and rose further to 21.4 percent in 1999. The country’s inflation rate increased again from 3.7 percent in 2001 to 5.5 percent in 2002, further to 8.8 percent in 2003. Myanmar’s inflation rate also increased rapidly from 3.8 percent in 2005 to 8.9 percent in 2006 and rose further to 18.7 percent in 2008. The inflation rate in the country increased again from 1.5 percent in 2012 to 5.6 percent in 2014, further to 11.2 percent in 2015. In the case of Vietnam, its inflation rate jumped from 4.5 percent in 2005 to 16.1 percent in 2008, further to 18.6 percent in 2011. Among the ASEAN countries, Cambodia and the Philippines have moderate inflation rate and their average inflation rates are around 3 percent. In the case of Cambodia, its inflation rate increased rapidly from 4.1 percent in 2006 to 19.3 percent in 2008 and decreased to 3.8 percent in 2010. The country’s inflation rate in 2010s were around 3 percent. In the case of the Philippines, its inflation rate increased slightly from 2.4 percent in 2004 to 4.3 percent in 2006 and increased further to 7.0 percent in 2008. The central banks in three ASEAN countries, namely Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand, have successfully managed to keep inflation low. Their average inflation rates are around 3 percent. Malaysia’s inflation increased slightly from 1.9 percent in 2004 to 3.1 percent in 2006 and rose further to 5.0 percent in 2008. Similarly, inflation rate in Thailand increased slightly from 2.2 percent in 2004 to 4.0 percent in 2006, and further to 5.0 percent in 2008. Singapore’s inflation increased from 0.5 percent in 2009 to 2.7 percent in 2010, and further to 5.3 percent in 2011. It should be noted that the problem of the price level in Brunei is not inflation, but deflation.
The country suffered from deflation from 1998 to 1999. In 2002, the price level in the country decreased by 2.2 percent. Brunei suffered again a prolonged deflation from 2014 to 2017.

Figure 2: Inflation rates in ASEAN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brunei</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>-2.2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lao</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>-0.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Main indicators of inflation in ASEAN

Many proponents of neoclassical economics believe in the existence of natural rate of unemployment in the labour market. The natural rate of unemployment could be defined as an equilibrium level of unemployment rate which would be determined by structural labour market imperfections, such as random movement of labour supply or demand, cost of finding a job or cost of moving from one job to another (Friedman, 1968). The natural rate of unemployment could be estimated by an estimation procedure suggested by Ball and Mankiw (2002). A basic relationship between inflation and unemployment could be expressed as (Ball and Mankiw, 2002):

\[ \pi = k - \alpha u \]  \hspace{1cm} (1)
where $\pi$ is inflation rate, $k$ is constant, $\alpha$ is slope parameter and $u$ is unemployment rate. This fundamental relationship could be modified by incorporating expectation. The expectations-augmented relationship could be expressed as (Ball and Mankiw, 2002):

$$\pi = \pi^e - \alpha(u - u^*)$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $\pi^e$ is expected inflation rate and $u^*$ is natural rate of unemployment rate. Under the assumption of adaptive expectations, the expected inflation rate is equal the inflation rate in the past. The adaptive expectations-augmented relationship can be expressed as (Ball and Mankiw, 2002):

$$\pi = \pi_{-1} - \alpha(u - u^*)$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where $\pi_{-1}$ is inflation rate at last period. This equation could be re-formulated to (Ball and Mankiw, 2002):

$$\pi - \pi_{-1} = \alpha u^* - \alpha u$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

For the purpose of econometric estimation, supply shock could be incorporated into this equation (Ball and Mankiw, 2002):

$$\Delta \pi = \alpha u^* - \alpha u + \nu$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $\Delta \pi$ is change in the inflation rate and $\nu$ is supply shock which is an error term in this equation. In other words, natural rate of unemployment rate could be estimated by regressing change in the unemployment rate ($\Delta u$) on unemployment rate ($u$) and an intercept ($\alpha u^*$). The absolute value of intercept divided by slope parameter is the natural rate of unemployment rate.

Table 3 reported the estimated natural rate of unemployment or equilibrium unemployment rate in ASEAN countries. It should be noted that the natural rate of unemployment in five countries in mainland Southeast Asia are less than two percent. It means that these countries would enjoy lower unemployment rates in an equilibrium labour market where their labour demand is equal to their supply. Other ASEAN countries, except Brunei and Indonesia, would have moderate level of equilibrium unemployment rates which are less than 4 percent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Slope parameter ($\alpha$)</th>
<th>Intercept ($\alpha u^*$)</th>
<th>Natural rate of unemployment ($u^*$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brunei</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
<td>8.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>7.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It should be noted that there is a negative relationship between unemployment and inflation. For example, in the economic downturn, there would be a decrease in product demand which might cause a lower inflation rate. At the same time, there would be a decrease in derived demand for labour which might cause a higher unemployment rate. By contrast, in times of economic boom, there would be an increase in product demand which might cause a higher inflation rate. At the same time, there might be an increase in the derived demand for labour which would cause a lower unemployment rate. This negative association between unemployment rate and inflation rate is known as the Phillips curve (Phillips, 1958). In the empirical analysis, there are two main types of Phillips curve, namely the traditional or baseline Phillips curve and the New Keynesian Phillips curve (Staiger et al., 1997; Gali and Gertler, 1999). The baseline Phillips curve could be expressed as (Staiger et al., 1997; Gali and Gertler, 1999):

$$\pi_t = \kappa x + E_{t-1}(\pi_t)$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

where $x$ is economic slack which is measure by a difference between actual output and natural rate of output or a difference between actual unemployment and natural rate of unemployment, $\kappa$ is slope parameter of the Phillips curve, $E_{t-1}(\pi_t)$ is expected current inflation rate. In the empirical analysis, an expected current inflation rate is considered to be equal to a lagged inflation rate or $\pi_{t-1}$. The New Keynesian Phillips curve could be expressed as (Staiger et al., 1997; Gali and Gertler, 1999):

$$\pi_t = \kappa x + E_t(\pi_{t+1})$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

where $E_t(\pi_{t+1})$ is expected future inflation rate. In the empirical analysis, country-specific inflation expectation is not available. So, researchers often use the realised inflation rate in the next period or $\pi_{t+1}$ as a proxy for the expectations of future inflation rate (Levy, 2019). The slope parameter in the Phillips curve (CV) and the New Keynesian Phillips curve (NKPC) in ASEAN countries are reported in Table 4. As the findings indicate, the slope coefficients in the PC are negative in all ASEAN countries, except Singapore, in line with theoretical negative association between lagged inflation rate and unemployment gap. The findings also indicate
that the slope coefficients in the NKPC are positive in only four countries, namely Indonesia, Lao, the Philippines and Thailand, in line with the theoretical positive association between inflation rate in the next period and unemployment rate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Slope parameter (κ) in PC</th>
<th>Slope parameter (κ) in NKPC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brunei</td>
<td>-0.301</td>
<td>-0.404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>-0.077</td>
<td>0.232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>-1.960</td>
<td>-1.592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lao</td>
<td>2.521</td>
<td>1.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>-0.895</td>
<td>-0.963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>-7.172</td>
<td>-10.683</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>-0.568</td>
<td>2.875**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>0.332</td>
<td>-0.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>-0.574</td>
<td>0.163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>-2.986</td>
<td>-4.191*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Phillips curve (PC) and New Keynesian Phillips curve (NKPC) in ASEAN

Notes: * indicates five percent significance level and ** indicates one percent significance level

Figure 3 depicts the time varying slope parameter in Phillips curve (PC) and New Keynesian Phillips curve (NKPC) in ASEAN-5 countries, namely Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand. The time-varying analysis of the PC revealed that there is a flattening of the Phillips curve in the Philippines and Thailand. In the case of the Philippines, the slope parameter of the PC increased from -4.450 in 2013 to -3.847 in 2014, and further to -0.832 in 2017. Similarly, in the case of Thailand, the slope parameter of the PC increased from -1.414 in 2013 to -1.001 in 2015, and further to -0.201 in 2017. There is no flattening of the Phillips curve in Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore. It should be noted that there is no flattening of the New Keynesian Phillips curve in all five ASEAN countries.
Figure 3: Time varying slope parameter in Phillips curve (PC) and New Keynesian Phillips curve (NKPC) in ASEAN-5

**Female workers in ASEAN**

Women in ASEAN have made significant progress in education attainment. Yet, their potential is not fully utilised especially in the workforce. A report from World Bank indicates that labour force participation rate for females above 15 years in ASEAN countries was 61 percent in September 2018, signalling a huge potential for future economic growth in the region (The ASEAN Post, 8 March 2019).

The female labour force participation rate in ASEAN countries as shown in Figure 4 ranges from 45 to 73 percent in 2017. Female labour force participation rate (FLFP) is the lowest in the Philippines (45.4 percent) and the highest in Cambodia (73.4 percent). Except for the Philippines and Thailand, most other countries experience an increase in the FLFP rate.

A low female participation rate represents a stock of underutilised labour where potential human capital in a society is restricted to household endeavours (Hirschman & Aghajanian 1980). In general, employment and earnings can improve women’s bargaining power in the household, which in turn is a tool to improve females and children’s well-being (Klasen & Pieters, 2015).
ASEAN countries are committed to promoting women’s right at the regional and national level. All member states have ratified the Convention on All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) (ASEAN, 2016b:1). The Philippines ratified the Convention in 1981 followed by Lao PDR, Vietnam, Indonesia, and Thailand. In the 1990s, Cambodia, Malaysia, Singapore and Myanmar acceded to the Convention and finally Brunei Darussalam in 2006. However, women continue to face significant barriers to participation in the labour market including the unavailability of reliable and affordable childcare services.

The theory of female labour supply suggests that there is a strong negative correlation between the presence of children in a household and female labour supply. This relationship has been observed in many countries (Del Boca, Pasqua & Pronzato 2005; Francesconi 2002; Mincer 1962; Moffitt 1984; Nakamura & Nakamura 1994; Klasen & Pieters 2015). However, the correlation between fertility and female labour force participation was positive in several OECD countries in the late 1980s (Del Boca & Locatelli, 2006). This change was attributed to changes in work-family policies such as the introduction of parental paid leave and affordable childcare.

This suggests the importance of work-family policies in ASEAN countries. A lack of policies to reduce the potential opportunity costs of children, such as subsidised childcare, parental leave and child benefits may deter women from entering the labour market. In contrast, study in developing country such as Indonesia shows that a higher direct cost of children increases the pressure for women to work (Priebe, 2010). The presence of children may have both a negative and positive effects on maternal work. In view of the demographic transition in the ASEAN region, this transition can be converted into dividends if more women are encouraged to work (United Nations Development Programme, 2016: 56). The availability of quality and decent work for women is therefore important.

Women entering the labour market are disadvantaged in finding quality paid employment, forcing them to look to other sources of income, notably self-employment (OECD-ASEAN, 2017: 17). The self-employment rates for women in ASEAN is high, roughly 50 percent compared to an average of 13% in OECD countries (OECD-ASEAN, 2017). Women-owned
businesses often lag behind male-owned enterprises in terms of size, productivity, and tend to be less profitable, with limited potential for expansion. They operated mainly in services such as catering, tailoring, beauty and food processing (OECD-ASEAN, 2017).

Targeted policies are crucial to drive further progress on women’s entrepreneurial activities including to get better access to markets, finance sources, business support services as well as integration of ICT tools in their business operations (OECD-ASEAN, 2017:19). The 4th Industrial Revolution will change the way of work and threatens the existence of most manual jobs. Therefore, entrepreneurial activities are expected to be the key alternative in empowering women in ASEAN.

**Elderly workers in ASEAN**

ASEAN countries are experiencing rapid population ageing where the percentage of older people has increased. The increasing percentage of older people aged 60 and above shown in Figure 5 shows that most of ASEAN countries will achieve the status of ageing nation by 2030 when 14% of their total population are people aged 60 and above.

![Figure 5: Percentage of older people aged 60+ : ASEAN Countries](image)

This demographic change has led to various consequences on the social, economic and wellbeing of the society. The major repercussion of increasing ageing population on the labour market is its impact on working population: the decline in the share of working age population relative to children and older person. Based on the report by the World Bank, Thailand recorded the highest decline in working age population compared to any other ASEAN countries (World Bank, 2016). In Thailand, the working age population is expected to shrink by 11 percent as a share of the total population between 2016 and 2040 declines from 49 million people to 40.5 million people. The shrinking working age population can be detrimental to the growth of a country. For instance, the increase in the age group of 70-74 in Japan is associated with decreases in the GDP of Japan (Oliver, 2015).
The negative perception of old age among society means that older people may face social exclusion, discrimination, and unequal treatment without adequate protection of their human rights (Chiesa, Zaniboni, Guglielmi, & Vignoli, 2019). Previous literature found that older workers suffer from negative views and stereotype by employers at the workplace resulting to discrimination against older people in employment (Debrah, 1996). Study also showed that the enjoyment of human rights diminishes with age as being old is associated with lower productivity (Van Dalen, Henkens, & Schippers, 2010) and slower to adapt to new technology (McCann & Keaton, 2013). Nevertheless, the challenges brought about by ageing population in ASEAN should not be seen as a burden to the economy and organisation. While old age does not necessarily mean frailty and passive dependency, older people are a valuable asset as they have skills, experiences, wisdoms and knowledge which can be put to use for economic benefit through their continuous participation in the labour market (Vasconcelos, 2018). Despite older people’s potentials and their contribution to the economy, however, in many ASEAN countries, this segment of society still tends to be excluded from the labour market.

Allowing older people to work could ensure their self-sufficiency in old age considering the long retirement duration older people may experience as a result of the increase in life expectancies. Moreover, public transfers are relatively low in many ASEAN countries where, people face insufficient funds leading to greater pressure to finance their consumption during old-age. However, compared to other advanced countries, the statutory retirement age across ASEAN countries are quite low for instance, 55-60 in Cambodia, 57 in Indonesia, and 60 in Brunei, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam (OECD, 2018).

Thus, the increasing number of older people and the preparation for ageing workforce has aroused interest among policymakers with regards to the right of older people in ASEAN specifically in promoting decent work, equal employment and non-discrimination in the labour market. This is in line with the objectives of the Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing (MIPAA), which ensures that people can age with security and dignity through continuous participation in their societies as citizens with full rights. Aligned with MIPAA, 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development has also focus on reducing inequality and reaching all population groups, especially those furthest behind by promoting full and productive employment and decent work for all.

Regionally, ASEAN has established the ASEAN Intergovernmental Commission on Human Rights in 2009 in its effort to promote human rights among the 10 ASEAN countries. As a result, ASEAN Human Rights Declaration was adopted which affirms that human rights belong to every person including older people (ASEAN, 2013b). Older people have the right to a dignified and decent work, to equal opportunity and treatment on the same terms as other workers which includes practices on wages, hours of work, occupational safety and health, recruitment processes, treatment in workplace and inclusion of older people in the decision-making processes (ASEAN Trade Union Council, 2016).

At the national level, several governments introduced legislations pertaining to the right of older persons to equal treatment and non-discrimination. The legislation is listed in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Legislation</th>
<th>Highlight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>Elders Law (2016)</td>
<td>Health and well-being, social pensions, care of older persons, prevention of discrimination and abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Legislation</td>
<td>Highlight</td>
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<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>National Pension Act (2017)</td>
<td>Ensure that income security in old age is guaranteed as a basic human right, and to strengthen the old age pension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Retirement and Re-employment Act</td>
<td>Employees who turn 62 can continue to be employed in the organisation if they meet the eligibility criteria of re-employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viet Nam</td>
<td>Law on the Elderly (2010)</td>
<td>Activities of promoting the elderly's role</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: National legislation pertaining to the rights of older people.

Removal of barriers and obstacles which serve to exclude and discriminate older people in workforce should be practiced among ASEAN countries in promoting employment opportunities for all in ways appropriate to their age and capabilities. Among ASEAN countries, Singapore is on the lead in preparing their ageing workforce with various measures including legislations and programmes for older workers. In Singapore, the minimum retirement age is 62. Based on the Retirement and Re-employment Act, it is a must for employers to offer reemployment to their employee upon reaching 62 of age to continue working until the age of 67. On 1st July 2012, the re-employment age was raised from 65 to 67 for older workers who wish to work. This age-friendly employment policy by eliminating age barriers is both timely and indispensable to be adopted in other ASEAN countries as it could ease the fiscal pressure on pension schemes and health care systems.

Policymakers in ASEAN countries should emphasize in promoting decent work to older people with flexible employment which includes flexible working hours and working condition. This can be implemented in the workplace by providing and matching suitable work scopes with older workers’ potential and physical conditions. Flexible working hours could ensure that older people could work within their health limitations and physical capacity. ASEAN can learn from other countries as such flexible work environment becomes the reason for many individuals in most high-income countries to be able to continue working in old age and attain work enjoyment (Choi, Ospina, Steger, & Orsi, 2018).

A growing number of countries have started exploring various options to encourage older people to keep active in the labour market. The majority of older people in ASEAN countries such as in Thailand, Vietnam and Malaysia are working in agriculture sector, mostly concentrated in rural areas (Adhikari, Soonthorndhada, & Haseen, 2011; Thanh Long & Thi Ly, 2015; Wan Ahmad, Ismail, & Rahman, 2011). Expanding the sectors where older people can work may be an option in ASEAN countries by encouraging various income-generating opportunities for older persons. For instance, Malaysia has introduced the Silver entrepreneurship, a strategic initiative in encouraging older people and retirees to embark into entrepreneurial career (Ahmad, Nasurdin, Halim, & Taghizadeh, 2014). Expanding employment opportunities could increase the income-generating potential among older people thus reducing their vulnerability in the society.

In sum, the greying workforce will pose various challenges especially in the formulation of labour market policies in ASEAN. Many ASEAN countries are still lacking in terms of legislations pertaining to protecting older people’s rights in the labour market. Proper policies,
legislation and mechanism of ensuring equality and promote employment for all should be in place. The opportunity for continued and active participation among older people in the labour market with provisions of viable employment options will ensure that older people can live in dignity, security and with full rights.

Workers with disabilities

On 7 November 2011, ASEAN leaders made a landmark declaration the ASEAN decade of people with disability 2011-2012 in Bali, Indonesia. In this special decade for person with disabilities, ASEAN countries promised to make serious efforts to promote rights and opportunities for the persons with disabilities in all area of its society, including labour market in ASEAN. This declaration is known as the Bali Declaration on the enhancement of the role and participation of persons with disability. There are twenty-five specific clauses in the Bali Declaration. For example, clause 11 of the Bali Declaration proclaims that ASEAN countries shall develop a social service to support the persons with disabilities in the field of employment. Clause 15 of the Bali Declaration emphasize on the need of providing accessibility for public facilities, public transportation and employment for persons with disabilities (ASEAN, 2013).

At same time, ASEAN countries also adopted an action plan for the promotion of rights and opportunities for the person with disabilities in Bali, Indonesia. This action plan is known as the Mobilisation Framework of the ASEAN decade of persons with disabilities. The basic aim for this framework is to promote disability inclusive development in ASEAN countries. There are fifteen specific priority areas in this action plan. For instance, in the third priority area of the Mobilisation Framework, ASEAN countries promised to promote employment and decent work among persons with disabilities. In this priority area, there are five specific action plans for the promotion of employment for the person with disabilities. Firstly, ASEAN countries would promote employment for the person with disabilities in the public sector. Secondly, ASEAN countries would encourage private companies for the employment for the person with disabilities under the name of corporate social responsibilities (CSR). Thirdly, ASEAN countries would create a social network among the persons with disabilities. Fourthly, ASEAN countries would conduct skill development program for the person with disabilities. Finally, ASEAN countries would make efforts to build capacities (ASEAN, 2013).

Besides official ASEAN declaration, some ASEAN countries made serious efforts to promote the employment for the persons with disabilities by enacting laws against discrimination or introducing quota system. Some ASEAN countries have enacted specific law for the persons with disabilities. For example, Philippines enacted a milestone law on the persons with disabilities in 1972. This important law is known as the Act providing for the Rehabilitation, Self-development and Self-reliance of Disabled Person. All kind of discrimination against the person with disabilities are prohibited under this act (O’Reilly, 2003; ILO, 2015). Furthermore, some ASEAN countries introduced a quota system to promote the employment for persons with disabilities. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), there are seven Asian countries that introduced a quota system for the promotion of employment among the persons with disabilities, including two ASEAN countries, namely the Philippines and Thailand (ILO, 2015). For example, Thailand introduced a quota system under the Rehabilitation of Persons with Disabilities Act in 1991. Under the law, a 0.5 percent quota for workers with disabilities was introduced and one disabled worker per 200 workers should be

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3 Nine countries which introduced quota system for persons with disabilities are China, India, Japan, Mongolia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand.
employed in any firm. The tax deduction system is also introduced to promote the quota system (Sumitomo Foundation, 2019).

Conclusion

The promotion and protection of human rights is a fundamental principle of the ASEAN Community. In order to realise this crucial principle, all ASEAN member states have made efforts to promote human rights and freedom of all ASEAN citizens, including the disadvantaged workers. The findings from current study could be summarized into two main facts. Firstly, the unemployment rates in five ASEAN countries, namely, Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, Thailand and Vietnam, are relatively low. By contrast, two ASEAN countries, such as Brunei and Indonesia, still suffer from high unemployment. Under these labour market situations, disadvantaged workers in these countries may face a serious problem of unemployment. Secondly, ASEAN has made serious commitment for the promotion of employment among disadvantaged workers, for example, the ASEAN commission on promotion and protector of the rights of women and children was set up in 2010. In order to promote a concept of “productive ageing”, ASEAN also adopted the ASEAN strategic framework on social welfare and development in 2015. For the promotion of employment for persons with disabilities, ASEAN leaders declared the ASEAN decade of people with disabilities 2011-2012 in Bali Indonesia. Thirdly, individual ASEAN countries also made serious efforts to promote employment of disadvantaged workers. For example, the Philippines enacted an act for self-development and self-reliance of person with disabilities and all kind of discrimination against persons with disabilities are prohibited under this act. Thailand introduced a quota system for workers with disabilities under the Rehabilitation of Persons with Disabilities Act in 1991.

There are two recommendation for policymakers in ASEAN countries. Firstly, some ASEAN countries still suffer from high unemployment problem. The policymakers in ASEAN countries may make concerted efforts to promote employment and reduce unemployment in ASEAN, especially among disadvantaged workers. Secondly, only two ASEAN countries introduced a quota system to promote employment for persons with disabilities. The policymakers in ASEAN countries may consider introducing a systematic and uniform quota system in ASEAN. As this paper focuses on three groups of disadvantaged workers, namely female workers, elderly workers and workers with disabilities future study may consider other groups of disadvantaged workers, such as minority workers or foreign workers. The findings from these studies may offer great insights on employment for all in ASEAN.

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Opinion

FUTURE OF THE GLOBAL SOUTH: SOME CRITICAL FOREIGN POLICY CONSIDERATIONS

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Abstract

Economic downturn, recession of plans and initiatives, systematically ignored calls for a fiscal and monetary justice for all, €-crisis, Brexit and irredentism in the UK, Spain, Belgium, France, Denmark and Italy, lasting instability in the Euro-Med theatre (debt crisis of the Europe’s south – countries scrutinized and ridiculed under the nickname PIGS, coupled with the failed states all over the MENA), terrorism, historic low with Russia along with a historic trans-Atlantic blow with Trump, influx of predominantly Muslim refugees from Levant in numbers and configurations unprecedented since the WWII exoduses, consequential growth of far-right parties who – by peddling reductive messages and comparisons – are exploiting fears of otherness, that are now amplified with already urging labour and social justice concerns, generational unemployment and socio-cultural anxieties, in ricochet of the Sino-US trade wars, while rifting in a dilemma to either let Bolivarism or support Monroeism. The very fundaments of Europe are shaking. Strikingly, there is a very little public debate enhanced in Europe about it. What is even more worrying is the fact that any self-assessing questioning of Europe’s involvement and past policies in the Middle East, and Europe’s East is off-agenda. Immaculacy of Brussels and the Atlantic-Central Europe-led EU is unquestionable. Corresponding with realities or complying with a dogma?

Keywords: EU, Economic downturn, socio-cultural anxieties, Middle east, Brussels

Introduction

Both Islam and Christianity lived in harmony (or at least they successfully cohabitated) for centuries within the MENA proper, notably in Lebanon, Syria Egypt and Iraq. Why then there was no harmonious relationship between Christian Europe and the Middle East? Was Europe opting to demonise the Muslims in order to artificially generate a homogenous European self? No enemy at gate, no unity at home?

This is a story of the past centuries – one may say. Still, absence of any self-reflection on the side of the EU towards its policy in the Middle East today, makes it worth to revisit some of the bleak chapters of European history, and the genesis of its pre-secular and secular thoughts.
Europe came to be known as ‘Christendom’ because its identity was imagined or invented as the Catholic in contradistinction to the Islamic Middle East and to the Eastern (authentic, true or Orthodox) Christianity.4

The Christianity, of course, originated in the Middle East not in Europe. It was subsequently universalised and, by spreading onto peripheral world, Europeanised by the Balkan-born Roman Emperor – Constantin the Great (Edicto de Milan, 313 AD). He himself spent much of his life on Bosphorus and hence, was buried in Asia Minor. Surely, it was by the legal design of this glorious Emperor (fully backed by the Empire’s political elite) that the city of Rome was (re)turned into an administrative periphery, politico-ideological outcast and geostrategic suburbia (by 324 AD). The official seat of Roman Empire including the Roman Senate – by yet another historic edict of 330 AD – became Constantinopolis (Constantinople), and it remained as such until a very end of the Empire, 11 centuries later.

Therefore, the post Roman/Byzantine inauguration of ‘Christendom’ as a pure western culture necessitated sustained intellectual acrobatics – starching the truth away from an elementary geography and historical evidence. Such an inversion by which an ideological and geopolitical periphery presents itself as a centre required considerably emasculation – both, physical coercion and imposed narrative over the extensive space and time.5

This a ’la card creation of Catholic Christendom or to say; Western Ummah, served two vital objectives: domestic and external. Both helped solidification of the feudal socio-economic and politico-military system and based on that of a precolonial European collective identity. Domestically, it served for a coherent sense of selfhood – us vs. them paradigm: Unity, oppression and obedience. Extra ecclesiam nulla salus – no salvation outside the church, following the old Roman rational ‘no world beyond Limes line’, or the modern one: ‘no prosperity outside the EU’. Externally, here was found the ‘moral’ narrative – a justifier for the subsequent military voyages and other forms of organized plunders. Such an image build-up, of course, was coupled with a coercive societal identity – the ‘Dark ages’ for at home, crusaders for abroad.

This is how Europeans started to view the religious conflict as the identifying attribute of the system’s formation, while elsewhere on the globe the interethnic and interreligious coexistence was a traditional modus operandi within and among countries.

By the time of Renaissance, Catholic Europe came to realize that, in order to effectively project itself – to physically and/or mentally colonise overseas territories – it needed either coercion (rarefying and assimilation), labour-camp detention (slavery) or final solution (physical extermination). These strategic dilemmas over the instruments to use, influenced and

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4 Western animosities towards Russia that are constantly here (with some short-lived exceptions during the Metternich post-Vienna congress period, Bismarck chancellorship and Yeltsin dizzy years) are escaping any rational explanation. The only possible logics to find is if going back to the moment of split of the Christian Church, mid XI century. That is the time when the Roman curia decided to compete with Constantinople by organising the invading tribes in Europe for its ‘civilising’ mission (read: geostrategic ends), alongside the parallel process that have started with the Russophones undertaking a similar mission in the norther and north eastern portions of Eurasia. Two parallel ‘civilising’ missions, competing over concept and territories for centuries.

5 Transferring the official seat of the Roman Empire to Bosphorus marked far more than just an event of the peripheral maturity; periphery pressing onto the centre. It meant that – at the peak times of the Milan’s Edict of Constantin the Great – the peripheral power successfully relocated itself closer to the centre; ideologically (metaphysically, religiously) but also geopolitically (physically, geographically). Not to insert itself (like during the subsequent Crusaders), but to transcend. That is a real meaning of the transfer of imperial capital from Rome to Bosphorus once for good. This will be the first and the last such a successful move from Europe, in human history. With this adjustment – past its failed European experiment, Roman Empire returned to its origins; Balkans and the Middle East, which extended the Empire’s life impressively – for over 1,000 years.
dominated European debates of the time. It brought about the conception of the ‘noble savage’ – who could be assimilated, versus the ‘ignoble savage’ who was destined for either labour detention or final solution. That coerce-or-extirminate dilemma of ‘soul salvationists’ even culminated within the pre-Westphalian Christian Ummah. It was best epitomised in the famous Valladolid controversy of 1550, by which Juan Ginés de Sepúlveda’s notion of the ignoble savage faced off against Bartolomé de Las Casa’s view of the noble savage.

In both cases – the claim was offered – the Amero/AfroAsian Natives deserve salvation as they have a ‘strong desire for it’, but the views differed on whether the Natives’ prone wishes exceeded their mental capacity to receive Christianity. Hence, the debates – which were the roots and origins of the later liberal theories as well as the early precursors to the subsequent regime change, humanitarian intervention and preemption doctrines, and to the (onesided ultimatum of) EU Accession criteria – always presupposed the inferiority (and passivity) of the Natives.

Frankly, this remains a constant behaviour in international relations: E.g. views on Libya differed, as they differ today on Syria. However, what is common to all views is; nobody consults the local population and considers what they would like for themselves.6

Legitimizing the imperialism of imagination

In a course of subsequent centuries, the notion of final solution underwent through a sophistication, and was eventually replaced by the combination of cultural conversions/submissions (induced submissiveness), politico-military obedience and socio-economic apartheid. A subtle apartheid (that is easy to deny, but hard to prove) is usually better than the brute genocide (which is traceable and easily quantifiable). At the peaks of imperialism a noble-ignoble savage dilemma was embodied in an implicit and explicit racism. Debate was focused on a question whether the nations’ inferiority can be remedied through the imperial ‘civilizing’ mission, with social Darwinists and ‘scientific’ racists being rather pessimistic, but more forthcoming on possible solutions.7

The so-called central dilemma of liberalism – Is it liberal to impose liberal values on illiberal societies – was of course only an innocently looking tip of the large iceberg, of the tireless othering. This ‘epistemology’ was further soft-embedded in the so-called Peter Pan theory with a romanticised image of the Other as more childishly careless and helpless, than intentionally cruel and barbaric. Foreign remained Other, but ‘became’ rather alluring, promiscuous and exotic. Essentially, the East as a child enveloped in innocence, a derided inferior who would never grow up. This, of course, gave rise to various binary categorisations, the us-vs.-them/either-or listings, in order to manufacture rift and hence to facilitate a decisive and long-lasting differentiation between the constructed West and the East.8

The West as a constructed male vs. the East as a constructed female. A ‘mind-oriented’ west vs. a ‘body-oriented’ east. Phallusoid peninsulas and islands of (Atlantic-Scandinavian) Europe

6 For centuries, it follows the same matrix: doctrinated/induced inferiority, denouncing, attack, marginalization, passivation, plunder, indirect rule, remote control presence. Or, reduced to a binary code formula: victimisation-criminalisation. Namely: humanitarian intervention.

7 E.g. Cecil Rhodes, the 19th century British businessman and the architect of Apartheid, used to say that to be born an Englishman was to have ‘won first prize in the lottery of life’. He is also remembered of the following: “I contend that we are the first race in the world, and that the more of the world we inhabit the better it is for the human race.” Large part of colonial Africa was called after his name – Rhodesia, until rather recently, 1979.

8 Small surprise that the 43rd US President (un)famously claimed: ‘you are either with us or against us’. His father, the 41st US President, viewed the Cold War and summarised its epilogue effectively: ‘We win, they lose’. For the Atlantist’s world all should be Kierkegaardian either-or, a binary choice.
vs. womb-like continental landmass of Afro-Asia; Erective and explosive vs. reflective and implosive; an Omnipresent (ever seafaring and trading) extroverted male vs. humble, handcrafting, waiting female. Masculine, phallusoid, progressively erected temporal linearity vs. periodic menstrual leakages of femininity in regressive cycles of stagnation. Clearly, anything beyond that was deemed inconsequential.

Physical, material, ideological, active, polarizing, determined vs. metaphysical, spiritual, esoteric, atmospheric, inclusive, holistic. No wonder that all operationalized ideologies originated solely in Europe. What else, since no one ever, but Asians revealed any significant religion to the world.⁹ Ideology penetrates, religion embraces.

**AgitProp – Non-stop**

Gradually, the imperial civilizing mission (*Expansion is a path to Security*) got a new form, often under the watchful care of ‘Five Eyes’. It became a moral duty – R2P (*Responsibility to Protect*), as much as the parental duty is to raise their infant child. The handsome, masculine and strong Western *Prince Charming* has one duty – to emancipate his Eastern *Sleeping Beauty*. Giving a ‘kiss’ meant projecting the western physical military presence, Christianity and commerce.¹⁰ Who was/is the Eastern *Sleeping Beauty*?

Rudyard Kipling’s famous 1899 poem, *The White’s Man Burden* offers some answers while describing the Eastern peoples as ‘half-devil and half-child’. “The hate of those ye guard” – Kipling warns and instructs, he describes and invites. In his classic novel of 1847, *Tancred – The New Crusade*, much celebrated British Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli claims “A Saxon race, protected by an insular position, has stamped its diligent and methodic character of the century. And when a superior race, with a superior idea to Work and Order, advances, its state will be progressive...All is race!”¹¹ Quite an intellectual acrobatics for Disraeli himself, who was neither Saxon nor Christian.

Over the period, western Catholic missionaries constituted one of the most powerful and influential lobbying voices for this civilizing mission. It was of course weaponisation of religion, a notorious misuse for ideological purposes. Same like today, fanatics then and there, were identified, manipulated and further radicalised, to say ‘inspired’. In that time Europe, they would have usually got hired as the AGITPROP – an Ideological police by the predatory elites which hid behind the Feudal European states.

Naturally, the justifications were looked upon in any Biblical narrative. E.g. the re-invoking the Genesis story of Noah’s three sons, and interpreting it as the ‘duty’ of Japheth (Europe) to

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⁹ To this end: Inventive, proactive, scientific, rational, disciplined, sell-controlled/self-constraining, sane, sensible, practical, ‘mind-oriented’, independent, and most of all paternal West. The East, of course, was on the opposite side and inferior: imitative, passive, superstitious, lazy, irrational, spontaneous, insane, emotional, exotic, body-oriented, dependent, and above all, child-like. Tall, matured ‘masculinity’ vs. immature and physically underdeveloped ‘femininity’. The masculine phallus of military, industry, technology, shipping and trade that is welcomed, if not heartedly invited, to tap and drill the womb-like dwell of resources, while at the same time seeding the ideological semen of ‘civilization’.

¹⁰ To this very day, most of the so-called Multinational/Cross-continental Trade Pacts are closer to the capitulation agreements (like those that Britain imposed on China after the Opium Wars) than to any fair, balanced and mutually beneficial commercial accords. Their stipulations are regularly kept away from public eyes. When was the last time you have seen one of them publicly available? No wonder, what a popular language of today calls barriers to trade are in fact the remaining socio-economic sovereign rights and other rarefied checks-and-balance instruments of nation’s well-being that these Trade Pacts are derogating. “*By hook or by crook*” – as the *Dutch East India Company* formulated it in its XVII century business model motto.

¹¹ The novel itself is named after the Norman leader of the First European Crusades, that later became the Prince of Galilee, and regent of the satellite Europe’s state on the territory of today’s Syria and Turkey – Antioch.
absorb Shem (Asians) and enslave and colonise Ham or Canaan (Black Africa and Indianos of America). Amazingly, according to Genesis ch.9, verse 27: “God shall enlarge Japheth and he shall dwell in the tents of Shem, and Canaan shall be his servant”.12

(While Europe was to face a holocaust of 30-years War among essentially Rimo-Catholic Christians, “Asians commercial and cosmopolitan cities formed a network of hubs spanning numerous multi-ethnic and multilingual empires” – says Parag Khanna.)

The later Protestant revival infused the next wave of Christian missionaries to force this narrative into the matrix of colonisation as ‘wilful’ implants onto the minds and bodies of overseas peoples. Therefore, James Lorrimer and other architects of that-time political and international legal order divided the world in three segments: civilized White, barbarous Yellow and savage Black. Yellows were ‘fallen people’, inhabiting a terra infantilis, bound to civilize (what will later evolve into indirect rule, with a social apartheid in place). The area occupied by the Blacks, Redbones and Aborigine was a ‘borderless space’, terra nullius just to conquer and settle, since the indigenous have no ‘birthright’ to it (meaning: physical colonisation and direct rule, displacement final solution and genocide).

Even the champion of European rationalism, Max Weber, divinised Europe: “Protestant Reformation and the Protestant ethic it spurred played a key role in facilitating the rise of modern industrial society in Western Europe.” Before him, the world’s most famous egalitarian, Karl Marx – who sow nations and states not as a statistical reality but as a revolutionary cause – was not so enthusiastic in preaching the proletarian revolution beyond the narrow western world. In Marx’s writings, Revolution is reserved for the advanced peoples (that even excludes the eastern European Slavs), and is not meant for those civilisationally behind.

Nevertheless, the unfinished business of ‘salvation of the world’ came back home; to Europe of the 20th century. Hitler’s interpretation of it was: civilized White (Arian) – Central Europe; Yellows (fated for indirect rule, with ‘only’ social apartheid in place) – Atlantic and Scandinavian Europe; Blacks (whose territory is predestined for a physical colonisation by the superior race upon a decisive final solution and genocide) – all Slavic states of Eastern and Russophone Europe.13

Indeed, ever since the 18th century on, European notion that ‘civilization’ was the monopoly of the West, clearly implied that there is no civilization – and therefore, salvation – outside the western model.14 To comply fully with this new myth, the civilizational late comer from the

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12“The poor you will always have with you, and you can help them any time you want. But you will not always have me…” /Mark 14:7-9 (NIV) New International Version/ was a Biblical verse, allegedly spelled out by Jesus from Nazareth. It was among most quoted and misused lines – as to justify Europocentrism, exceptionalism and institutionalisation of inequity which then and there have started its global conquest.

13To illustrate a centuries-long residual climate of jingoism, later conceptualised and postulated as the European ideology of Biologism, let us quote the III Reich’s Biology schoolbook: “The meaning of all life is struggle. Woe to him who sins against this law. Our Führer reminds us: ‘He who wants to live must fight, and he who does not want to fight in this world of perpetual struggle does not deserve to live!’ (Mein Kampf, p. 317) Hence, ‘the world does not exist for cowardly nations’. (Mein Kampf, p. 105).” (For the full quote see appendix: Biology for the Middle School, The 5th Grade Girls; chapter: The Laws of Nature and Humanity, Textbook of 1942)

14 The Spirit of Laws and other writings of Montesquieu were the most decisive influencers on the French revolutionaries, Jacobins and Napoleon himself. In the hands of French revolutionaries, Buonaparte and later his own nephew – Napoleon III, the Montesquieu’s teaching shaped the administrative and legal order of Europe up to this very day. How did Montesquieu see Europe and the world? Well, Montesquieu registered the geographic regularity in prosperity and poverty concentration. His explanation to it was the geography hypothesis: that people in tropical climates tended to be ‘lazy and to lack inquisitiveness.’ Consequently, they didn’t work hard, were not innovative, which ultimately led them to poverty. Montesquieu further speculated that lazy people tended to be
geographic suburbia – actually a remote peninsular northerly extension of the huge Asian continental mass – started calling itself an Old Continent. Historian Toynbee calls it “a secularized version of the primitive Western Christian proposition Nemini salus ... nisi in Ecclesia.” See for yourself how much current debates, sparked by the ongoing refugee crisis, follow the above patterns.¹⁵

**Triangular economy of othering**

Why does our West so vigilantly promote the so-called international trade all over the place? Answer is at hand; the US President George H.W. Bush clarifies: “No nation on Earth has discovered a way to import the world’s goods and services while stopping foreign ideas at the border.”¹⁶

There is a consensus within the academic community what was the critical factor in redefining the world’s periphery – from a sub-permafrost – Europe into the advanced West. Undeniably, it was the extension of its strategic depth westward, to the Americas upon 1492 – a huge continent unreported in the Bible and unknown to Europeans. There is also a consensus over the two factors facilitating the initiation of the age of Grand discoveries. The push effect was the fall of Constantinople, relative decline of the Maghrebian Arabs and the Ottoman technomilitary and demographic threat onto Europe from south and southeast. And, the pull effect was the Ming dynasty inward retreat and to it related dismembering of the superior transoceanic Sino-fleet.

This unleashed the so-called triangular transcontinental trade that incorporated one more previously unknown continent to Europe – (sub-Saharan) Africa. Triangular trade was a brutal instrument imposed by Europeans: Enslaved Africans shipped as cattle to America to dig for gold and silver which was destined for European colonial centres.¹⁷

(Needless to say that soon after American continent has been ‘discovered’, Europeans brutally derogated its indigenous civilisation. Only 100 years later, Americas have suffered loss of 90% of its total pre-colonial population – a final solution in one of its most effective workings. The same went on in sub-Saharan Africa. Far from being an undiscovered prior to the European conquistas, Africa was for many centuries an integral part of the Afro-Asian

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¹⁵ “Even in the wake of the WWII, Western liberals still had a very hard time applying their supposedly universal values to non-Western people. Thus when the Dutch emerged in 1945 from five years of brutal Nazi occupation, almost the first thing they did was raise an army and send it halfway across the world to reoccupy their former colony of Indonesia. Whereas in 1940 the Dutch gave up their own independence after little more than four days of fighting, they fought for more than four long and bitter years to suppress Indonesian independence. No wonder that many national liberation movements throughout the world placed their hopes on communist Moscow and Beijing rather than on the self-proclaimed champions of liberty in the West.” – argues Y.N. Harari (21 Lessons for the 21st Century, page 10).

¹⁶ This deep historical animosity towards the externally induced, forced trade – so foreign to the organic tissue of the nation – is deeply rooted even with the champion of the world’s trade of today: China. Its Communist Party leader – not so long ago – Jiang Zemin in his inaugural speech of 1989, defined entrepreneurs as: “self-employed traders and peddlers who cheat, embezzle, bribe and evade taxation.”

¹⁷ Historian Patrick Manning estimates that at least 8 million people were exported to Americas as slaves from the West Africa alone between 1700 and 1850. To this number, it has to be added at least 30% more that died in in the enslaving related struggles all over the Atlantic coast of Africa from a present-day Mali to Angola. Early French colonial records for the western Sudan; a large swath of western Africa (from Senegal via Mali and Burkina Faso, to Niger and Chad) accounted for over 30% of population being slaves as late as in 1900. Even Liberia – founded for freed American slaves – accounted up to one quarter of its population as slaves or in a slavery-like conditions, as late as in 1960s!
trading and manufacturing system. All that have dramatically changed with the arrival of Europeans. Soon after, they derogated an indigenous socio-political, civilizational and cultural and the demographic structures of Africa beyond the point of reparation.)

Once in Europe, stashes of these precious metals were used to cover massive European deficits created by extensive imports of the cutting-edge technologies, manufactured products, other goods and spices from a that-time superior Asia and the Middle East. Only later, gold and silver will be replaced by the equally powerful but less expensive ‘trade facilitators’ – iron and opium (guns and drugs). For instance in early 1800s, many British MPs and cabinet ministers had shares in the UK narco-companies. Hence, the Narconomics was introduced and imposed as both a powerful strategic deterrent and as a wealth accumulator. (Eg. Still by the late 19th century, some 40 million mainland Chinese were heavy drugs addicts – roughly 10% of population.)

The Afro-America yields were so colossal for Atlantic Europe that many scholars assume the so-called Industrial revolution rather as an evolutionary anomaly than a natural socio-technological process of development, which was primarily pivoting in (Sino-Indian) Asia. In order to illustrate a magnitude (or to validate the so called Schumpeterian creative destruction claim), let us note a following data: Starting from an early 16th century for consecutive 300 years, 85% of the world’s silver production and 70% of the world’s gold output came from the Americas. For the same period, 2/3 of globally manufactured goods were originating from Asia. Notably, while Europe spent unearned, Asia worked.

Further on, during the 17th, 18th and 19th century the role of Black slavery, slave trading, American Black slave-driven production centres and Negro markets, all significantly contributed to Atlantic Europe’s agricultural and industrial ‘breakthrough’ – as we are celebrating it today. In short, it was a wealth of Americas extracted by the enslaved men-power from Africa, and shipped to Europe under the minimal costs, all that for centuries.

This colossal ‘oversea discovery’ reinforced Europe’s path on defensive modernisation (usage of technology for a narrow geostrategic end) – European empires building became a scientific project and the science evolved into an imperial project. For instance, French Dutch and Britons (the so-called second and third round of colonisers) learned one think from Portuguese and Spaniards (the first round of European colonisers) – nobody wishes to pay taxes but likes to invest. Therefore their colonial expansion was primarily conducted as a corporate undertaking (West India company, East India company, WIC, VOC, Mississippi company, etc.).

Hence, it was a magic vicious circle of scientifically erected empires and imperial capitalism: Credits financed overseas discoveries, discoveries led to colonies, colonies made profits (by imported slaves and rarefied locals), profits built trust in tomorrows, and the trust in this shiny colonial tomorrow was translated into ever more credits for the larger corporate undertakings. Small wonder that the exegesis of (Newtonian science and Smith’s) capitalism started blindly to believe in a never-ending and ever-expanding economic growth. The fact that such a ‘faith’

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18 This of course creates a source of everlasting debates between advocates of historical determinism and those who portray human development as a working of historical contingency. Borrowed from evolutionary biologists, the Path dependence or Contingent path of history is a theory originally developed by economists to explain technology adoption process and industrial r/evolution of the West (allegedly) triggered by an incident or anomaly (biological, genetic, cosmic, geo-morphological, climatic, and then anthropo-cultural, socio-political, etc.).

19 Even the US Founding Fathers were slaveholders (5 of the 7 principal ones: Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison and George Washington).

20 E.g. the British East India Company controlled Indian sub-continent with its private army of 350,000 soldiers – considerably more than the British monarchy had at its own disposal. It was only in 1858 that the UK Crown put India under its direct rule. Dutch took Indonesia from the VOC company after 200 years of its corporate rule over the largest world’s archipelago.
contradicts all cosmic laws bothered none in that time Europe – the continent was dizzy and triumphant in its planetary conquest. Le Capitalisme Européen meant expansion – in every possible sense.

Such a rapid shift from a peripheral status to an ‘advanced civilization’ of course necessitated a complete reconstruction of western identity – furthering the weaponisation of religion for ideological purpose. This acrobatics –in return– caused the rift in Europe and enhanced the Continent’s continued split on two spheres: the Eastern/Russophone Europe – closer to and therefore more objective towards the Afroasian realities; and the Western (Atlantic/Scandinavian/Central) Europe, more dismissive, self-centred and ignorant sphere.

While the Atlantic flank progressively developed its commercial and naval power as to economically and demographically project itself beyond the continent, the landlocked Eastern Europe was lagging behind. It stuck in feudalism, and involuntarily constituted a cordon sanitaire – from eastern Baltic to Adriatic Shkoder – against the Islamic Levant/south and the Russo-oriental East.

Gradually, past the 15th century, the idea of ‘Western Europe’ begun to crystallise as the Ottoman Turks and the Eastern Europeans were imagined and described as barbarians. During the 17th and 18th century as the triangular ‘trade’ progressed, Atlantic Europe firmly portrayed itself as the prosperous West that borders ‘pagan/barbarian’ neighbours to its near east, and the ‘savage subjects’ to its cross-Mediterranean south, overseas west, and the mystical Far East. Consequently, we cannot deny a huge role that the fabricated history as well as the ‘scientific’ racism and its theories played in a formation and preservation of European identity construct.21

The Enlightenment was a definite moment in the reinvention of European identity. The quest came along with the fundamental question who are we, and what is our place in the world? Answering that led on to the systematisation, classification of anthropogeographic inversion and – frankly – to reinvention of the world. From the Renaissance to the Enlightenment, a kind of an intellectual apartheid regime was forming.

(This historical anomaly I usually describe as anthropogeographic inversion in which the periphery asserted itself into the center by periferising that core and managing to present itself as a center. Thus, our current geopolitical and ideological core resides in geographic peripheries of the planet. It is in the hands of late developmental arrivals, such as the UK, Scandinavia, Russia, Canada, the US, Japan, Australia, New Zealand, Korea, Singapore, South Africa. To achieve and maintain this colossal inversion was impossible without coercion over the extended space and time. Consequently, it necessitated a combination of physical and metaphysical (hard/coercion and soft/attraction) instruments: Physical military presence of the periphery in the center, combined with a tightly guarded narrative and constructed history. How does my anthropogeographic inversion theory correspond with an institutional interpretation of history? Real anthropogeographic peripheries are certainly a new civilizational arrival – Interference, intrusion and discontinuity is suffered in a core not on edges. (E.g. It is not centrally positioned Syria, Iraq, Iran or Afghanistan intervening in the geographic peripheries, such as the UK, US, Russia, Canada.) Periphery faster coagulates as it is rarely intruded. Center

21 Explaining the notion of the Bantu Education Act of 1954, one of the chief architects of Apartheid the Dutch-born prof. dr. Hendrik Verwoerd, Prime Minister of South Africa, bluntly spelled out the following in his speech of that year: “The Bantu must be guided to serve his own community in all respects (Bantustan). There is no place for him in the European community above the level of certain forms of labour … For that reason it is to no avail to him to receive a training which has as its aim absorption in the European community while he cannot and will not be absorbed there.” (The State Archives, South Africa, National Library)
itself melts and is melted constantly. In the world of our realities; periphery sends, center absorbs.)

The rise of the West was portrayed as a pure virgin birth as John M. Hobson fairly concluded. Europeans delineated themselves as the, only or the most, progressive subject of the world’s history in past, presence and future. At the same time, the Eastern peoples – e.g. Asian as ‘the people without history’ – were seen as inert, passive and corrosive. While the Solar system ‘became’ heliocentric, the sake and fate of our planet turned plain – Europocentric. The world is flat mantra set the stage, turning all beyond Europe into a sanitary corridor, a no-fly-zone.

Ambient, anti-Orient

“The idea of Europe found its most enduring expression in the confrontation with the Orient in the age of imperialism. It was in the encounter with other civilizations that the identity of Europe was shaped. Europe did not derive its identity from itself but from the formation of a set of global contrasts. In the discourse that sustained this dichotomy of Self and Other, Europe and the Orient became opposite poles in a system of civilizational values which were defined by Europe.” – notes Delantry.

Even the English word to determine, position, adapt, adjust, align, identify, conform, direct, steer, navigate or command has an oriental connotation. To find and locate itself opposite to Orient, means to orient oneself.

Feudal Europe had identified itself negatory towards Levant and Islam. It reinvented a historical unity and continuity of Roman Empire (precursor of today’s Euro-MED) into an us-them binary categorisation: The peripheral outcast became thus Rome (Western Empire) and the legitimate successor – who outlived its move to Bosporus for over 1,000 years – became ‘Byzantium’. No wonder, tireless binary categorisation is an essential glue and galvaniser.

Clearly, it was an identity heavily resting on insecurity. Proof? An external manifestation of inner insecurity is always aggressive assertiveness. Is this still alive or even operative? How does it correlate today?

Undoubtedly, (western) Europe owes its prosperity to extension of its commerce and colonial expansion. But let us take a closer look: “The profitability of European colonial empires was often built on the destruction of independent polities and indigenous economies around the world, or on the creation of extractive institutions essentially from the ground up, as in the Caribbean islands, where following the almost total collapse of the native populations, Europeans imported African slaves and set up plantations systems. … We will never know the trajectories of independent city states such as those in the Banda Islands, in Aceh, or in Burma would have been without the European intervention. They may have had their own indigenous Glorious Revolution. But this possibility was removed by the expansion of the Dutch East India Company. … The British East India Company looted local wealth and took over, and perhaps intensified, the extractive taxation institutions of the Mughul rulers of India – coinciding with the massive contraction of Indian textile industry. The contraction went along with the de-urbanisation and increased poverty. It initiated a long period of reversed development in India. (Find the living parallel with a colossal de-industrialisation and de-population of Eastern Europe past its westernisation from 1989 on – op.aut.) Soon, instead of producing textiles, Indians were buying them from Britain and growing opium for the East India Company to sell in China. … The Atlantic slave trade repeated the same pattern in Africa. Many African states were turned into war machines intent on capturing and selling slaves to Europeans…” – noted Acemoglu and Robinson (Why Nations Fail, page 271-273).

All until late XVIII century, the word ‘Byzantium’ was unknown beyond the old-Illyrian name for a small ancient Greek colony of Byzantium. The emperors from Constantinople everybody referred as the Romans. Even the famous codification of Roman law under Justinianus (Corpus Iuris Civilis) – which lawyers celebrate as the origins of modern law and planetary legal systems – physically took place in Constantinople.
Closing Thoughts

Europe repeatedly missed to answer to the East and Middle East through a dialogue (instruments) and consensus (institutions) although having both (via CoE; OSCE’s MPC; EU’s ENP, Barcelona Process, etc.). For the past 28 years, it primarily responded militarily in the MENA (or/and with sanctions, which is also a warfare, a socio-economic one) – via ‘Coalitions of the Willing’. However, for a rapidly economically and demographically contracting Europe, the confrontation does not pay off anymore. While practically still yesterday (by the end of WWII), four of the five largest economies were situated in Europe, today only one is not in Asia. None is in Europe.24

(Likewise, while the US economy contributed with 54% of the world output in 1945, today it hardly covers 1/3 of that share. Hence, Americans are not fixing the world any more. They are only managing its decline. Look at their footprint in former Yugoslavia, Afghanistan, Iraq, Libya, Mali, Yemen and Syria.)

The same way the Islam has started as an exclusive Arab monopoly to be soon after taken over (for good) by the Turks, Persians and southeast Asians (who are today far more enhanced), the same way the Modern age has started with Europe, but is today a planetary undertaking that least resides within its originator. Simply, the Old Continent is not a wealthy club anymore. It is a theater with a memory of its wealthy past. Presently, Asia, Africa, Latin Americas are rapidly self-actualising and learning much more from each other than from the West.

And, Europe? Still to this very day, its national institutions are too quickly turning to culture and identity to explain politics, especially at election times. As simple and convenient as it seems, it is not as accurate as such. All across Europe, the governments repeatedly failed at distributive justice, not on culture or behavioural recognition. Thus, the EU has to learn how to deescalate and compromise. Certain identity cannot be put in line only with its geography. It has to respond to other realities as well. This is in the continent’s best interest, for the sake of its only viable future. Therefore, it is a high time for the Brussels-headquartered Europe to challenge its rigid socio-political choices, and to evolve in its views and actings – for at home and for abroad.

If we are any serious, let us start by answering the following: Is the so-called Russian expansionism or MENA ‘Islamofascism’ spontaneous or provoked, is that nascent or only a mirror image of something striking in front of it? And after all, why the indigenous Europe’s Muslims (those of the Balkans) and their twins, indigenous Christians of MENA (those of Levant) are now two identically slim shadows on a (bulletholes scarred) wall.

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24 The moment of ‘liberal truth’ always comes from Atlantic. Thus, Ana Palacio who served both sides of Atlantic (as the former Spanish Foreign Minister and the former Senior Vice President of the Washington-based WB) – among many others – recently warned the Western Ummah: “After years of handwringing over Obama’s strategic “pivot” to Asia, even as Russia was stirring up trouble in Ukraine, Europe is once again a strategic focus for the US. But the deeper message is far less encouraging. The US is acting because its European partners have not. This divergence is troubling. American engagement is necessary to provide momentum, but it is Europe’s weight that has served as the critical mass required to move the world’s liberal order in a positive direction. From the perspective of the European Union, the latest US security bailout raises the possibility that after more than two decades of growing prominence, Europe will lose its agenda-setting power.”


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Appendix

German Biology Book of 1942 (Biology for the Middle School, For 5th Grade Girls; chapter: The Laws of Nature and Humanity)

We have established that all creatures, plants as well as animals, are in a constant battle for survival. Plants crowd into the area they need to grow. Every plant that fails to secure enough room and light must necessarily die. Every animal that does not secure sufficient territory and guard it against other predators, or lacks the necessary strength and speed or caution and cleverness will fall prey to its enemies… The battle for existence is hard and unforgiving but is the only way to maintain life. This struggle eliminates everything that is unfit for life and selects everything that is able to survive. Mankind, too, is subject to these natural laws, and has won its dominant position through struggle. Our Führer tells us:

He who wants to live must fight, and he who does not want to fight in this world of perpetual struggle does not deserve to live!” (Mein Kampf, p. 317)

Each life form strives to ensure the survival of its species… The number of offspring must be greater than the number of the parents if the species is to survive (law of the larger number of offspring). Each species strives to conquer new territory. Here, too, we can recall the Führer’s words: The goal of female education must be to prepare them for motherhood. (Mein Kampf, p. 460)

These natural laws are incontrovertible; Those who resist them will be wiped out. Biology not only tells us about animals and plants, but also shows us the laws we must follow in our lives, and steels our wills to live and fight according to these laws. The meaning of all life is struggle. Woe to him who sins against this law. Our Führer reminds us: The world does not exist for cowardly nations. (Mein Kampf, p. 105)
THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION: A NETWORKING BASED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

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Abstract

Internationalisation is an important worldwide phenomenon and a major trend in higher education. It is also one of the ways nations react to the impact of globalisation. There are multiple rationales that encourage various national governments, higher education institutions, international organisations and the private sector to proactively engage in educational services across national borders. Internationalisation theories have primarily focused on the internationalisation process in the business and economic dimensions, but since 1980s, it has influenced the structure of education and higher education systems. The network approach emphasises the benefits of developing long-term interactions with foreign markets, institutions and individuals. Networking also provides an important motivation for nations and higher education institutions to enrich international activities and expand their landscape, share best practices as well as transfer knowledge and balance risks. The study explores the Uppsala and network theories of internationalisation and its feasibility for examining networking in the internationalisation of higher education. It provides new insights into how the network model of internationalisation allows the influence of external actors or organisations to impact on the process of internationalisation of higher education. A conceptual framework on networking perspectives in internationalisation, which has the potential to contribute towards achieving internationalisation goals and the enhancing quality of higher education is proposed.

Keywords: Higher education, Internationalisation of higher education, Internationalisation theory, Network theory of internationalisation, Networking in internationalisation

Introduction

Internationalisation is an important worldwide phenomenon and a major trend in higher education. It is a phenomenon that arises from the impact of globalisation and relatively new in the education process. The phenomenon has led to a broad range of understandings and approaches. The globalisation of economies and societies as well as the increased importance of knowledge has influenced the development of the internationalisation of higher education. Substantial efforts have been carried out over the last decade to maintain the focus on internationalisation of higher education (Knight, 2015). Internationalisation is a term that is being used more and more to discuss the international dimension of higher education and, more widely, post-secondary education (Knight, 2004). Multiple rationales encourage various national governments, higher education institutions, international organisations and the private sector to proactively engage in educational services across national borders.
The term ‘internationalisation’ had in the past generally referred to the international movement of firms and multinational companies (Welch & Luostarinen, 1988). In the early 1970s, internationalisation became the main attention of firms to enhance their international operation (Flach & Flach, 2010; Welch & Welch, 1996). Besides that, collaboration with foreign markets and establishment of joint ventures to enhance efficiency in production also became major focuses of firms in the internationalisation process (Johanson & Vahlne, 1990). In terms of education, the word “internationalisation” from the perspective of business or economy is generally interpreted as the participation of the higher education sector in foreign higher education markets, increases in revenue from international students and involvement in multilevel partnerships or networks with foreign higher education sectors for teaching and research purposes (Edwards & Edwards, 2001). Stakeholders involved in higher education development believe that the internationalisation process could enhance networks and relationships between local and international higher education sectors (Jana, Laura, Dana, & Clemens, 2017). Therefore, the internationalisation process of higher education has become an integral part of higher education providers to maintain the reputation, quality of higher education and their visibility in the international arena (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014). Furthermore, the concept of internationalisation of higher education has also been branded as a platform for increasing international students and producing competent graduates who are able to compete and survive in a globalised world (Robson & Wihlborg, 2019).

In the last few decades, the networking perspective in the internationalisation process has developed as an administration instrument for the higher education sector. This is to increase its international involvement due to limitations in resources and finance. As a result, higher education providers and administrators share knowledge, technology, materials in order to stabilise the risks of international expansion (Girdzijauskaite, Radzeviciene, & Jakubavičius, 2018). In the early 1980s, higher education institutions reacted quickly to international opportunities by creating networks for various activities such as student and staff mobility, courses and curriculum development, joint research and organisations. Knight (2007) has cautioned that diversification of higher education systems, language barriers and different cultures might be constraints to sustain and manage the networking in higher education internationalisation. Since the aim of networking in higher education cooperation is to achieve the four rationales of internationalisation, namely the academic, political, socio-cultural and economic, the solution to overcome the barriers should be the focus of higher education providers around the world (Knight, 2008a).

With regard to this, there is a necessity for higher education providers and stakeholders to focus on networking in internationalisation. Networking is a traditional style of relationship, very safe, will reduce risks and is a soft method of internationalisation (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014). Networking in higher education could also serve as a basis for multilevel partnership development and cooperation. Therefore, higher education stakeholders could adopt business type networking to gain more benefits from internationalisation through competition and cooperation (Girdzijauskaite et al., 2018).

In focusing on the network perspective on higher education internationalisation, the key aim of this article is to explore the network theory of internationalisation and its feasibility for networking in the internationalisation of higher education. The article will analyse the networking aspect of the internationalisation theory of the firm to understand the network model of internationalisation as developed by Johanson and Mattsson (1988). The applicability of this network theory for a conceptual framework for internationalisation of higher education
Internationalisation of higher education

In the 1990s, internationalisation of higher education became a key topic worldwide (Teichler, 2004a; Yat & Lo, 2009). In the globalised world, internationalisation of higher education is identified as a reaction to globalisation (Henard, Diamond, & Roseveare, 2012; Altbach 2015). The responses constitute shifting interest from the social to more political and economic rationale, from collaboration to competition and the emergence of new dimensions such as virtual learning and transnational education (de Wit, 2013). The international dimension for higher education began to be nurtured as a principal agenda of higher education providers (de Wit, 2008). The definition and debate on internationalisation of higher education has been of much interest to many scholars in the past few decades (de Wit, 2013; Knight, 1994, 2008b). As a result, in accordance to internationalisation theory, James (2009) connected internationalisation of higher education to “organisational theory, marketing, strategic management, international management and education” (p. 28). Although the description is combined with internationalisation, a specific definition of the term has been identified. In the perspective of higher education, the term “internationalisation” covers a wide range of actions such as international relationships, multilevel partnerships, cooperative courses and projects, cross border education and international branch campuses (de Wit 2013; Knight, 2008; Pinna, 2009).

Definition

Arum & Van de Water (1992) define internationalisation of higher education as various activities, projects and programmes that happen at higher education institutions (Knight 2004a). Knight (1994) introduced a broadly accepted definition of internationalisation of higher education as “the process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution” (Knight, 1994, p. 3). The definition recognises internationalisation as a process and encompasses local and international characteristics (de Wit, 1999). Van der Wende (1997) suggested that internationalisation is “any systematic effort aimed at making higher education responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of societies, economy and labour markets” (p. 20). Paige & Mestenhauser (1999) argued that this definition only stresses the influence of global forces and proposed internationalisation of higher education as “a complex, multidimensional learning process that includes the integrative, intercultural, interdisciplinary, comparative, transfer of knowledge-technology, contextual and global dimensions of knowledge construction” (p. 504). In the same year, an educationist, Wächter (1999), mentioned the importance of teaching and research and included functions of public service in the updated definition of higher education internationalisation.
All these definitions in the early 1990s and late 1990s focused on international activities or programmes in higher education institutions and showed the importance of higher education development. It is arguable whether the institutions of higher learning could achieve the goal of internationalisation without the involvement of stakeholders outside campus, especially the government and its agencies and departments. Beerkens (2004) has identified that the internationalisation of higher education is a regular policy issue that involves many parties from inside and outside campus in developed and developing countries. The argument concurs with the importance of integration and networks between all relevant stakeholders of higher education to internationalise higher education for mutual benefit. Knight (2015) came up with a comprehensive definition of internationalisation of higher education covering all parties including government, stakeholders and institutions. She defines internationalisation as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education” Knight (2015, p. 3). As internationalisation requires a connection or networks between nations and various activities, therefore the term “process” underline the continuing efforts of internationalisation. “International” refers to inter-state or countries’ relationships while “intercultural” deliberates on the existence of various cultures in the nations, communities and higher learning institutions. Lastly, to cover the wide range of higher education activities worldwide, the term “global dimension” is also used. Knight (2015) opines that the three terms complement each other and together depict the richness in the breadth and depth of internationalisation. The definition proposed by Knight (2015) on higher education internationalisation is broadly accepted for scholarly work. The evolution of this definition highlights quite significantly the importance of local and international elements’ integration, which leads to the creation of relationships or networking in higher education. Knight (2013) emphasises that the term “networks” has described the international dimension and integration in higher education since the 1980s. Thus, networking and internationalisation can be refined for higher education internationalisation. However, the operation of the definition and creation of relationships as well as integration through networking needs approaches, strategies and an adequate rationale for internationalisation as the internationalisation process cannot stand on its own.

Approaches to Internationalisation

The vision to achieve the desired internationalisation of higher education varies according to the aims and objectives of nations, higher education institutions and stakeholders (Knight, 2008). The concept of internationalisation itself also consists of numerous techniques and approaches (Ramanathan, et al. 2012). The principles, significance and actions carried out during implementation of internationalisation are known as approaches and may vary according to the period of development stages (Knight, 2004). Besides that, approaches also provide a clear explanation of how internationalisation is recognised and executed. The four main approaches implemented to conceptualise internationalisation are the activity approach, competency approach, ethos approach and process approach (Qiang, 2003). These four approaches are only pertinent to higher learning institutions; therefore, assessment at the national government is necessary (Knight, 1999). Nevertheless, five types of approaches which are applicable at national and institutions levels have been introduced by Knight (2008a). These are the programme, rationale, ad hoc, policy and strategy approaches. Each of these approaches is vital in developing policies and plans to execute an international dimension in higher education and to achieve the aim and mission of internationalisation.
• The programme approach

The programme approach involves budget and money to organise activities, forums, conferences and programmes at the international level. This approach also underlines the importance of exchanges of students and staff and networking in internationalisation for teaching, curriculum development and research cooperation (Knight, 2008a). This approach can be materialised at both national and institutional level and a well-coordinated team is necessary to execute the programme approach (Qiang, 2003).

• The rationale approach

The second approach, the “rationale” approach, is most imperative for national-level higher education internationalisation (Knight, 2008a). Initially, Knight (2008) mentioned that effective rationale approaches are competitiveness, human resources development, strategic alliances, income generation, commercial trade, nation-building, and community development. However, recently scholars adopted four imperative rationales at national and institutional level, which are socio-cultural, political, economic and academic (de Wit, 2002, 2011 & Farina et al., 2015).

• The ad hoc approach

The third approach, the ad hoc approach, refers to quick reactions to the internationally available chances in higher education (Knight, 1999). This is a loose approach as there is no right or wrong direction in choosing the opportunities that are available. Therefore, the national government and institutions participate individually in numerous programmes, projects and activities internationally when obtainable and applicable (Knight 2008a).

• The policy Approach

The policy approach defines the importance of policies which emphasise the significance of the international dimension in higher education (Knight, 2008a). The policies may be established or introduced by various stakeholders such as higher education departments, qualifications agencies, foreign affairs, immigration departments, international trade ministries and other relevant ministries, departments and agencies involve directly and indirectly in higher education development.

• The strategic approach

Lastly, the strategic approach involves tangible actions and plans carried out by national governments, agencies and higher education institutions to execute effectively the process of internationalisation of the higher education. This approach inevitably assists all parties involved in higher education internationalisation to achieve the goal and objectives of internationalisation (Knight, 2008a).

Although these five approaches are applicable at both national and institutional level, Knight (2008a) agreed that institutions may have different guiding principles on internationalisation. Therefore, she recommends five tolerable additional approaches, namely, activity, outcomes, process, cross border and ethos. The important point noted in applying various approaches in higher education internationalisation is the linkages or connection between stakeholders involve in internationalisation activities. Strong networking or inter-connection is considerably required to sustain and maintain the approaches in internationalisation as it brings together all the interested parties to internationalise higher education at national and institutional level (Knight, 2004a).
Strategies for internationalisation

Elements related to internationalisation of higher education are described as mechanisms, facilitators, activities, challenges, factors and strategies (Knight, 1997, 1999; Qiang, 2003; Zolfaghari et al., 2009). The strategies for internationalisation of higher education at national and institutional level are varied and implemented according to needs and objectives (Knight 1997; 1999; Qiang, 2003). At institutional level, operational strategies are used for international integration of research, teaching, services for international students and policies for administration (Zolfaghari et al. 2009). The strategies for internationalisation are generally adopted as a living document or policy statements to encourage active participation of all relevant parties in higher education internationalisation (de Wit, 2013). Consequently, Knight (2015) supports that internationalisation itself can be a robust strategy to enrich international, intercultural and global dimension in teaching and research, knowledge transfer and community services around and within the higher education environment.

Fundamentally, internationalisation strategies are mainly dedicated to inter-institutional agreements, networking in terms of research and teaching, recruitment of international students and establishment of branch campuses and other international activities (Harman, 2005; Knight, 2008a; Shahijan, Rezaei, & Preece, 2016). For instance, Asian countries such as Singapore emphasise internationalisation strategies to improve domestic higher education (Nguyen, Vickers, Ly, & Tran, 2016). In China, the strategy is to export Chinese knowledge and in Hong Kong, the establishment of international networks and attracting mainland Chinese students become the main internationalisation strategy (Pretor Fok, 2007).

Rationale for internationalisation

Various motivations and rationales influence the field of higher education and internationalisation of higher education (Kireçci et al., 2016; Knight, 1997; Rahim & Nizam, 2013). Jiang (2010) has identified that the rationale for internationalisation referred to motivations for assimilating an international dimension into higher education. Knight (2004, 2007) states that a clear set of rationales delivers benefits and estimated outcome from the internationalisation efforts. Knight (1997; 2004) and (de Wit, 2013) put forward four vital rationales for internationalisation of higher education process. These are socio-cultural, political, academic, and economic. There are various other rationales such as international security, economic competitiveness and financial improvement which have been emphasised by scholars, however Qiang (2003) supported that the four rationales as identified by Knight (1997; 2004) and (De Wit, 2013) have major effects for internationalisation of higher education at national and institutional level (Wadhwa & Jha, 2014).

- The political rationale

Firstly, the issues relate to stability, security, harmony, philosophical influence and sovereignty are major parts of the political rationale (Jiang, 2010; Qiang, 2003). De Wit (1998) and Qiang (2003) suggested the involvement of national government, higher education institutions, private sector and inter-governmental organisations should be highly considered to sustain and maintain the political interest of a nation.

- The economic rationale

Secondly, the economic rationale refers to the contribution of skilled graduates for the local and international market by internationalised higher education and income benefit from trade relations and international students (Qiang 2003). For instance, in the United Kingdom higher
education system, international students fees and living expenses generating immediate revenue for the national government and higher education institutions (Chankseliani, 2017).

- **The academic rationale**

Thirdly, the aims and purposes of delivering higher education are represented by the academic rationale (Qiang 2003). Therefore, enhancement of teaching and learning process as well as achieving excellence in research and scholarly activity has become a major focus of this rationale (Jeptoo & Razia, 2012; Qiang, 2003).

- **The socio-cultural rationale**

Finally, the socio-cultural rationale emphasises the imperative of sustaining one’s own national culture and language as well as the importance of understanding other foreign cultures and languages for the benefit of internationalisation. Inter-cultural understanding and a strong national cultural identity are important factors needed for mutual respect, to build a peaceful society and to acquire international skills for global markets (Jeptoo & Razia, 2012; Salas, 2014; Wadhwa & Jha, 2014).

In actual fact, Knight (2008a) and De Wit (1999) stated that the political and economic rationales have become push factors for internationalisation of higher education at national and institutional level. Knight (2008a) asserted that strategic alliance under the political rationale is a significant element that should be stressed by the national government, higher education stakeholders and institutions for international cooperation and multilevel partnerships through networking. Strategic alliances are able to become a cooperative approach (Teichler, 2009) and connect national borders of higher education cooperation as a challenge to globalisation (Wendy, 2006). This element is also strongly backed by the academic rationale (De Wit, 2011). The academic rationale contributes to hindering competition among competitors in the field of higher education by creating strategic alliances (Kehm & Teichler, 2007). Networks play a crucial role in creating a strategic alliance between nations and higher education institutions. According to Knight (2004), networks often have relevant and strategic objectives in internationalisation. Flach & Flach (2010) supported this and stated that networking through internationalisation can strengthen the interaction between the parties involved in the process. Subsequently, a strong relationship in networks will maximise the knowledge of internationalisation and will lower the networks’ complications (Johanson & Kao, 2010). Baturina & Terentyeva (2019) proposed that higher education institutions should identify new types of relationships with external actors or organisation to fulfil the resources limitation, to enhance overall performances and competitiveness of higher education. Therefore, the connection between internationalisation theory, networking in internationalisation and higher education internationalisation are explored to identify a suitable conceptual framework.

**Internationalisation**

In the early 1970s, the international movement of firms and multinational companies is largely known as internationalisation (Welch and Luostarinen, 1988). Welch and Luostarinen (1988) suggested a broadly accepted definition of internationalisation as “the process of increasing involvement in international operations” (p. 36). The definition indicates high participation and creation of connections or networks outside the country. Therefore, a country’s economic, political and social development does not take place in a closed boundary. It also needs to tie in with an international platform. However, Melin (1992) and Welch and Welch (1996) argued that this definition only focused on operations and administrative issues. They recommended
that strategy elements should be linked with internationalisation theory at theoretical and operational levels. Melin (1992) claimed that the internationalisation process at both conceptual and practical levels is complex, diverse and not stable. As a result, he suggested long-term comprehensive research and approaches to fully understand the process of internationalisation.

There are four major internationalisation theories that have been proposed by scholars. These are the Uppsala or process theory, eclectic/economic theory, network theory and international entrepreneurship theory. The four theories have played significant roles in business and firms’ internationalisation (Flach & Flach, 2010). Flach and Flach (2010) have also identified that the internationalisation process has influenced the structure of education and higher education system around the world. Dunning (1980) introduced the eclectic/economic theory and emphasises three important advantages. These are ownership advantages, locational advantages and internalisation advantages (Dunning, 1980) which underline the importance of internal factors such as internationalisation at home, organisation ability, cost incurred (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014; Girdzijauskaitė et al., 2018) and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) (Ruzzier, Hisrich, & Antoncic (2006) as well as localisation (Edwards & Edwards, 2001). Besides that, the international entrepreneurship theory features the importance of integration of entrepreneurs in internationalisation (Ruzzier, Hisrich, & Antoncic (2006). Ruzzier, Hisrich, & Antoncic (2006) claimed that international entrepreneurship theory is more applicable to Small Medium Enterprises (SME), which emphasises the involvement of individual entrepreneurs. Arguably, both theories do not match the approach, rationale and strategy for internationalisation of higher education. As a result, this article explores the Uppsala theory and network theory of internationalisation to conceptualise a framework to support the higher education development as it widely accepted and useful for internationalisation of higher education (Flach & Flach, 2010; Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014; Girdzijauskaitė et al., 2018; Girdzijauskaitė, Radzevičienė, & Jakubavičius, 2019; James, 2009).

Uppsala theory of internationalisation

In 1975, Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul, through their study on four Swedish firms, concluded that firms required incremental steps to internationalise (Johanson and Vahlne, 2009). Two years later, Johanson and Vahlne (1977) advanced their findings and introduced the Uppsala theory of internationalisation. The theory describes the features of the internationalisation process of a firm. The model also focuses on interactive relationships rather than economic benefits (Edwards & Edwards, 2001). In addition to its features, the model stresses the state aspect (market commitment and market knowledge) and change aspect (current business activities and commitment decision) (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977). In terms of higher education internationalisation, the two aspects are applicable as international higher education cooperation is developed stage by stage through risk understanding, opportunities and benefits (Girdzijauskaite et al., 2019). The internationalisation process in higher education will start with mobility of international students and be followed by a more comprehensive commitment such as exchange of staff, knowledge and technology transfer, curriculum and programme development as well as the establishment of international branch campuses (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014). However, Edwards and Edwards (2001) expressed that higher education institutions that adopted the Uppsala model need to embark wisely in incremental steps of internationalisation process by examining the risks and increase experiences before deciding on big commitments such as the establishment of branch campuses.
Girdzijauskaitė et al. (2019) mentioned that the Uppsala model of internationalisation comprises four components to enter foreign markets. These are exporting, licensing production, joint ventures and sole ventures. The term (1) exporting refers to international students studying abroad or pursuing their higher education in different country; (2) licensing production means twinning or franchising programmes such as 1+2 or 2+2 study period (local + abroad); (3) joint ventures and (4) sole ventures refer to establishment of branch campuses either through partnerships or wholly-owned branch campuses (Healey, 2008). It is clear that Uppsala model emphasises the economic perspective. The impact on other rationales for internationalisation such as the socio-cultural, politic and academic is lacking. Girdzijauskaitė et al. (2019) urged that the Uppsala model originally established to explain the internationalisation process in firms, industries and business. Edwards and Edwards (2001) concluded that internationalisation of services sector such as higher education providers may follow different trails to fulfil the rationale for internationalisation to themselves, governments, students and societies. James (2009) also agreed that this model is less appropriate to knowledge-intensive and business service industries including the higher education sector. As such, there is a need for identifying a more appropriate internationalisation theory, which can accommodate the approaches, strategies and rationale for internationalisation. Through recent empirical research, Johanson & Vahle proposed that the re-examined Uppsala theory as a network model of internationalisation is more applicable and can meet the rationale for internationalisation (Johanson & Vahle, 2009).

The network theory of internationalisation

In 1988, Johanson & Mattsson established a network theory of internationalisation by exploring the Uppsala model of Johanson & Vahlne (1977,1990). The network model of internationalisation provides a platform for external or outsiders influences on the internationalisation process of firms or business (Johanson and Mattsson 1988). The connection between two or more businesses is defined as a network and the relationships between the businesses or firms is known as shared players (Blankenburg Holm, Eriksson, & Johanson, 1996). Networking in internationalisation is vital for entering foreign markets and also to strengthen the position of firms or organisation in the market (Johanson and Vahlne 2009). Networking also emphasises the importance of organisation relationships and advantages gained (Girdzijauskaitė et al., 2019). It also allows for continuous learning in the networks (Ruzzier et al., 2006). Networking in internationalisation also provides a valuable platform to gain the information of the existing market through exchanges and communication with existing network members and non-members from outside of the networks. This is an additional feature of the extended version of the Uppsala theory. In the existing model, market knowledge is acquired from experiences in the networks (Johanson and Vahlne 2009). It is confirmed that networking is an avenue for knowledge and market information (Chetty and Campbell-Hunt 2003; Masum and Road 2012; Rastorgueva 2014; Welch and Welch 1996) which allows for international expansion, penetration and strong relationship among partners (Johanson & Mattsson, 1988) as well as international integration (Coviello & Munro, 1997).

In terms of international cooperation, the network is also known as a form of multilateral governance structure. Mori (1999) expressed that in networking, the multilateral governance allows the connected parties to perform and interact freely within the structure and flexibly outside the structure. He also claimed that inter-governmental organisation such as the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) has integrated the network theory for internationalisation process among the members including in higher education cooperation. The relationship between members in the inter-governmental organisations such as APEC, the
Asia Europe Meeting (ASEM) and Organisation for Economic Cooperation Development (OECD) has become closer and it is always based on mutual learning and trust as well as knowledge commitment (Johanson & Kao, 2010; Masum & Road, 2012). The network approach in international cooperation also helps to develop long-term relationships with individuals and organisation worldwide (Hadley & Wilson, 2003). Ruzzier, Hisrich, & Antoncic (2006) stated that networking in internationalisation could be applied to overcome knowledge, technology, resources and trust issues in the international market. The important element featured by the network model of internationalisation is the bridging mechanism (Mtigwe, 2006) which permits continuous internationalisation and allows multilateral influences on international decision making (Johanson and Mattsson 1988; Johanson and Vahlne 1990). Networking in internationalisation is divided into three types of relationships. Firstly, a formal relationship with financial commitment (Rastorgueva, 2014), secondly, an informal relationship with loose contacts between members and relationship with other networks members (Birley, 1985) and finally, an intermediary relationship that relates to influences of third party and indirect connections (Ojala, 2009). There are three vital rationales or motivations for networking in internationalisation. These are resource and knowledge sharing, mutual learning and strengthening positions against competitors in the market (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014). According to Girdzijauskaitė et al. (2019), the existing government to government (G-to G) cooperation between nations will innovate to multilateral partnerships if there are complex activities or actions and multifaceted partners. This process always happens in higher education internationalisation because it involves various activities, projects and programmes amongst several parties internally and internationally. A strong networking between nation and higher education institutions is required to internationalise higher education. Therefore, it could be deduced that the network theory of internationalisation is the most appropriate one to apply to higher education internationalisation at national and institutional level.

**Networking for internationalisation of higher education**

There are multifaceted administration and bureaucracy, vibrant cooperation and vast networking dimensions in higher education sector consisting stakeholders at the ministries, departments, agencies and higher education institutions (Szyszlo, 2016). One of the major factors affecting the internationalisation of higher education is the recruitment of international students followed by the benefits for economic and socio-cultural rationale. International networking plays a crucial role for higher education institutions to work closely with their international partners to increase international students. The bridging mechanism characteristic of networking in internationalisation could become a very useful strategy and approach to increase international students. The market information and penetration tactics are also a valuable tool of networking in internationalisation to achieve the desired international students. The intermediary function of networking has assisted higher education providers to gain information on international students around the world and get them to enrol in higher education institutions (Sarkar & Perényi, 2017).

The nations involved in the massive internationalisation of higher education emphasises the development of policies and action plans for international cooperation in higher education (Kristensen & Karlsen, 2018). Institutional networking between local and foreign higher education institutions is the fastest way to implement the internationalisation approaches and strategies (Mader et al., 2013). Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene (2014) mentioned that, currently, the higher education institutions’ networking in internationalisation is an encouraging type of international cooperation, which creates a pathway to enter the foreign
higher education market. The higher education institutions can also build its international profile through international networking (Girdzijauskaitė & Radzevičienė, 2013) to benchmark the quality of higher education, programmes accreditation and curriculum standard. The multilateral governance structure of network theory is most relevant and appropriate to enhance the international cooperation between higher education institutions. This element allows higher education institutions to build a relationship with its partner institutions directly and indirectly (Mori, 1999). It also creates a strategic and multilevel partnership between partners that can maximise the approach, rationale and strategies for internationalisation of higher education (Kristensen & Karlsen, 2018).

Strategic alliances through networking is an important tool to establish relationships and to gather market information and recent development in the higher education internationalisation worldwide. Alliances play a dynamic role for higher education institutions cooperation and collaboration in the field of higher education and other international activities (Khalid, Ali, Islam, Khaleel, & Shu, 2017) such as student and staff exchanges, consultation and joint research. Strategic alliances under the term networking provide an avenue for sharing of knowledge, technology, best practices and resources as well as equal power (Girdzijauskaitė & Radzevičienė, 2013) to enhance the quality of higher education and produce marketability graduates. The network theory of internationalisation plays an important role in the establishment of foreign branch campuses. Girdzijauskaitė et al. (2019) supported this and stated that the nature of the network theory of internationalisation has the potential to increase the development of branch campuses. The establishment of foreign branch campuses is in line with the network theory of internationalisation characteristics, which emphasises entering foreign markets and strengthening position (Johanson & Vahlne, 2009). The establishment of branch campuses brings benefits for local and international stakeholders. In terms of local stakeholders, it provides opportunities to have international students, scholars, programmes, curriculum and intercultural understanding as well as a venue for local students to pursue their higher education without travelling abroad. Meanwhile, for international stakeholders the branch campuses brings revenue and international collaboration (de Wit, 2013) as well as partnerships with local higher education providers (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014).

**Conceptual Framework**

From the above, it appears that the approaches, rationales and strategies for higher education internationalisation are satisfactorily and substantially supported by the network theory of internationalisation and networking in internationalisation elements and motivations. The approaches, rationales and strategies are also supported by several elements of the Uppsala theory. Therefore, it seems appropriate to propose a conceptual framework as shown in Figure 1 for higher education internationalisation through networking and internationalisation. The conceptual framework suggests that the approach, strategy, and rationale for internationalisation are explained by networking in internationalisation through international expansion, market penetration, international integration, multilateral governance, bridging mechanism, partnership and strategic alliances. The definition of the internationalisation of higher education as proposed by Knight (2015) is sufficiently emphasised by the seven elements of networking. The three important terms of internationalisation of higher education, (1) international, (2) intercultural and (2) global dimension are also reinforced by the definition of network theory of internationalisation that allows for the integration of internal and external forces for internationalisation through networking.
The networking components, expansion, partnerships and strategic alliances could explain and support the approaches to internationalisation (programme, rationale, ad hoc, policy and strategic approach). These components can also assist the higher education system to implement imperative internationalisation activities such as conferences, joint research, curriculum and courses development and staff and students exchanges (Kristensen & Karlsen, 2018). For instance, in the case of Malaysia, the higher education internationalisation at university level has become the bridge between local and international scholars to share their expertise and knowledge for higher education development (Mohd Ismail & Doria, 2012). Sanders (2018) believes that internationalisation of higher education could become a bridge between states, regions and higher education institutions. Meanwhile, market penetration and international expansion are important components of networking that can connect strategy for internationalisation of higher education to increase international students and establish branch campuses abroad (Knight, 2004a). For example, Malaysia encourages foreign institutions to establish branch campuses (Chan, 2013) to fulfil Malaysian students’ demand and to attract international fee paying students from the region (Healey, 2008). Thus, in 2013, eight international branch campuses from Australia and the United Kingdom (UK) were established in Malaysia through the strong networking carried out (Mohd Ismail & Doria, 2014). Girdzijauskaité et al., (2019) stated that the University of Reading from UK developed strong networks with local Malaysian partners and finally established a branch campus in Malaysia.

Consequently, all the seven components of networking in internationalisation are vital in supporting the rationale for internationalisation of higher education. Firstly, international expansion and market penetration relate to economic rationale. The major contribution of these two components for economic rationale are fees paying international students, economy growth, financial incentives and labour market (Knight, 2008a). Secondly, international integration supports the socio-cultural rationale for the improvement of intercultural understanding and maintaining the national cultural identity as well as understanding foreign language (Qiang, 2003). Thirdly, the partnership and strategic alliance components influence the academic rationale for staff and student exchanges, research collaboration, teaching and curriculum and courses development (Wihlborg & Robson, 2018). Lastly, the multilateral governance and bridging mechanism support the political rationale. These two components encourage relationship among nations for trade purposes, inter-institutions agreements and
cross border higher education (Knight, 2008c). For the Malaysian case, networking in internationalisation creates an important alliance for cooperation and collaboration in the field of higher education between nations and between higher education institutions. It also attracts international students to Malaysia (Arokiasamy, 2011). Additionally, it also plays a major role in assisting the Malaysian higher education system to be recognised and become more visible and provides opportunities for twinning and franchised programmes (James, 2009). The Lim Kok Wing University of Creative Technology, for example, has signed an agreement with Curtin University of Australia and offers Australian degrees to their students. This agreement has attracted many international students to study in Malaysia at the Lim Kok Wing University of Creative Technology (Russell, 2015). The Monash University from Australia established a branch campus in Malaysia in 1990 which has helped to generate revenue from tuition fees and research commercialisation (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014). The development of higher education in Malaysia through networking in internationalisation shows that it supports the strategy, approach and rationale for internationalisation of higher education.

The connection between the approach, strategy and rationale of higher education development and the components of networking can be a valuable pathway for comprehensive internationalisation of higher education in nations around the world. The conceptual framework is significant for higher education internationalisation as firstly, it can be used at national and higher education institutions level. Secondly, it is applicable for public and private higher education providers and can facilitate policy and action plans development. Finally, it can assist nations to increase international students and enhance the cross border higher education.

**Conclusion**

The main aim of the article is to explore the network theory and Uppsala theory of internationalisation as well as their feasibility for networking in the internationalisation of higher education. The literature findings illustrate that both theories, the Uppsala and the network theory of internationalisation have employed networking elements for internationalisation (Johanson & Mattsson, 1988; Johanson & Vahlne, 1990). Therefore, there is a strong connection between internationalisation theories and conceptualisation of internationalisation of higher education in terms of definition, approaches, rationale and strategies. The definition of internationalisation of higher education as proposed by Knight (2015) that covers the functions of the national government, higher education institutions and foreign higher education is widely accepted and useful for networking in internationalisation. The approaches, rationale and strategies for internationalisation are supported by the networking perspective in the internationalisation process, which has advanced and been innovated as a management tool for higher education internationalisation (Girdzijauskaité et al., 2018). Thus, the seven elements of networking as suggested in the conceptual framework support networking in internationalisation as well as the approach, rationale and strategy for internationalisation of higher education in the case of Malaysia. The major contribution of the network theory of internationalisation is the establishment of branch campuses and recruitment of international students. Therefore, the network theory of internationalisation can be seen to be feasible and appropriate for the internationalisation of higher education. The proposed conceptual framework will be useful for national governments and higher education institutions to achieve the goal of internationalisation and to enhance the quality of higher education.
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‘NEW REGIONALISM’: ASEAN – REPUBLIC OF KOREA (ROK) PARTNERSHIP IN SOCIO-CULTURAL AND EDUCATION EXCHANGES

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Abstract

ASEAN and South Korea have achieved substantial progress in political and economic relationship since 1989, when they first established a dialogue partnership. In 2010, their relationship further developed into a ‘Strategic Partnership in Peace and Prosperity’. ASEAN and South Korea share a common interest in promoting peace, stability, and prosperity in the region and beyond. ‘New regionalism’ theory has become current interest in regionalism and is undoubtedly one of the important trends in contemporary international relations. This theory focuses more on ‘deep integration’ between countries. ASEAN and South Korea emerged from the same root of colonization and escalated to become the second largest trading partner with its relationship thriving in tourism and educational sector. In this study, I focus on the development of ‘new regionalism’ in ASEAN and Republic of South Korea partnership as well as their regional integration efforts in the area of socio-culture and education. The study contributes to the existing knowledge of regionalism between ASEAN-Korea; the mutual relationship which emerged from economic and political-security into the area of socio-culture and education.

Keywords: ASEAN, Republic of South Korea, socio-culture, education, new regionalism

Introduction

For more than two decades, ASEAN and Korea have strengthened mutual cooperation in various sectors. These two have worked together to enhance regional, political and security and became a part of a family in ARF, APT, ADMM and so on. They have worked together to increase economic sector within the region. ASEAN is now Korea’s second most important trading bloc and Korea’s ODA has become an important development resource for low-income ASEAN member states. Moving forward in socio-cultural and academic exchanges areas, the Korean wave has penetrated the lives of many people in ASEAN, and some five million Koreans that have visited the member states annually. Furthermore, various forms of academic cooperation between ASEAN and Korea are actively being implemented as large numbers of scholars and students are visiting each country and studying to understand the dynamic of these regions.

ASEAN and ROK were colonized by the Japanese in the 19th century. Japan, after winning wars against China and Russia, forcibly annexed Korea and instituted colonial rule in 1910 until the Japan defeat in WWII in 1945. Since then, like all other countries after colonization, ROK began to develop themselves. During the 1960s, Korea was one of the poorest countries in the world with per capita income of less than $100 (Choe & Malarcher, 2011). Korea then
started to carry out its first five-years economic plans that fully utilized its well-educated manpower. Koreans began with highly labour-intensive industries which then restructured its industry to heavy industry in 1970s. In the 1990s, Korean emphasis on high-tech industries which Koreans excel in industries of steel, ships, automobiles, constructions, armaments, electronics and chemicals. In order to fulfill the agenda in becoming an industrialized country, Korea chose an export-driven economic strategy and in almost thirty-five years later. In 1997, Korea’s export had increased 2,480 times, and imports 340 times compared to 1962. Although, Korea have also impacted from the Asian Financial Crisis which occurred in 1997/98, ROK has been advocating a series of comprehensive reform measures in the corporate, financial, and labour sectors to address important difficulties in the economy. Under the leadership of Kim Dae-jung governance and successful negotiation with IMF and foreign debts, Korea has overcome the problems by creating an economic structure suitable for an advance economy. By 2010, ROK became the sixth largest exporters and eighth largest importers. In 2014, ROK GDP reached US$ 28 million and in 2015, ROK GDP ranked thirteenth in the world.

Apart from politically and economically stability, Korea also began to expand its culture worldwide. In the late nineteenth century, Korea was known as the country of morning serenity, a place where everything was static and slow in those days. In the twentieth century, Korea blossomed into an energized and dynamic country. Skyscrapers were built in the cities and towns and modernization began to change its culture and people. Nevertheless, there are still old people, the historians were able to nurture the young generations to preserve their national identities and old traditions which are valuable to the Koreans.

Koreans have established its public-school system as early as AD 372 called ‘Taehak’ in the Goguryeo dynasty. This public-school system continues to exist as “Gughak” during the Silla dynasty, “Gukjagam” during the Goryeo dynasty, and “Seongyungwan” during the Joseon dynasty. Private schools called “gyeongdang” also existed through Goguryeo, Silla and Goryeo dynasties. In Joseon, there were private schools called “seowon” for yangbans and “seodang” for commoners. The current educational system in Korea has been modelled on the American system; preschool followed by six years of primary education and six years of secondary education. Education was made compulsory for children. Thanks to this government effort for which Korea enjoys almost a hundred-percent literacy rate.

This culture in enriching lives with knowledge has become major roles in promoting the political, economy, and socio-cultural for Koreans. Education has served as a means of political socialization by instructing students in knowledge and behaviour patterns and attitudes regarding democratic values and systems and by bringing up political leaders and politicians (the Korean Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, 2003).

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25 In 1960s, Korea had almost no natural resources.
26 The steel industry had been the backbone of Korean economic development. One of the most successful company, Pohang Iron and Steel Company (POSCO) is the leading steel producer in Korea and third-largest in the world that produces 31 million tonnes on steel each year.
27 Seven Korean shipbuilding are amongst the world top ten which produces tankers, containers, cruise ship etc.
28 Korean cars also recognised worldwide. Amongst the top are Hyundai.
29 Yangbans was a traditional ruling class during the Joseon dynasty which they were mainly civil-servants and military officers.
30 Changes begin in middle 1990s
ASEAN-ROK Relations

Historically, both ASEAN countries and Korea share the similar colonization period. Disappointment of the local public due to foreign control of their lands led to nationalist movement which eventually fructified in gaining independence from their foreign masters. The transaction of these periods was a product of WWII and it continued to the end of Cold War, Korean War and lastly the changing in the global system. Referring to Caballero & Anthony (2005), the post-Cold War events showed the critical needs for political security framework particularly in the Asia Pacific region that would assist the region in achieving peace and prosperity in the region. The world system revolves around economic dimension where trading as the primary basis on linkages between countries (Caballero & Anthony, 2005). Now the “new regionalism” needs to be related to the changes in terms of politics, economy, and socio-culture.

Since the establishment of the Dialogue Partnership in 1989, ASEAN-Korea relationship has exhibited a remarkable integration and interdependence. For more than two decades, ASEAN member states and ROK have witnessed a vast improvement of their relationship in many areas. One of the most significant improvement was the establishment of an ASEAN-Korea Centre in Seoul, which was made to foster economic and socio-cultural ties with ASEAN and its member states. Furthermore, ASEAN has now established itself as Korea’s second largest partner in the areas of trade, investment, and construction ((AKC), 2016) and became the top travel destination for Koreans.

Korea has emerged as the new middle-power31 that displays a stable and legitimate foreign policy worldwide through multilateral and cooperative initiatives (Mo, 2016). Middle power countries play a significant role in a wide range of important global issue areas and supports liberal international order with its leadership diplomacy. ASEAN on the other hand showed a tremendous growth in economics, politics, and social since its inception in 1967. ASEAN has open up its door to globalization and became a platform to all major powers in the world to cooperate in political, economic, and social. After the Asian Financial Crisis in 1997/98, ASEAN have seen the importance of cooperation among member and non-members states. ASEAN established organization such as ARF, AKFTA, EAC, APT, ASEAN + 6, APEC of which ROK is one of the members and ROK even signed the TAC in 2004. ASEAN cooperation has been both a goal and a process which are shared by its 10 members in order to became a great nation and recognized world-wide.

Introduction to “New regionalism”

Referring to (Burfisher, Robinson , & Thierfelder 2004), regionalism comes in two waves; the “first wave” or referred as “old regionalism” begins in the first twenty to thirty years after WWII; according to (Söderbaum, 2003) it emerged in late 1940s in Western Europe and spread to regions in the South which later died in late 1960s and early 1970s. This period was primarily seen as a process of economic integration and security alliances, for example SEATO (Southeast Asia Treaty Organization) with its main purpose was for collective defence against communist. Old regionalism has been defined as a ‘theory of co-operative hegemony’ and ‘a planned merger of national economies through cooperation’ with the State as the primary

31 In international relations, a middle power is a sovereign state that is not a superpower nor a great power, but still has large or moderate influence and international recognition. Another definition, by the Middle Power Initiative: "Middle power countries are politically and economically significant, internationally respected countries that have renounced the nuclear arms race, a standing that give them significant international credibility."

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reference point (Gill, 2008). This theory believes that with increased economic and political cooperation between two or more nations, it will likely have high levels on interdependency in economic and political, and that states will not go to war on one another.

‘New regionalism’ is a new phenomenon which took place in late 1980s after the end of Cold War. Referring to (Either, 1998), there are six characteristic of the new regionalism which are;

a) the new regionalism typically involves one or small countries linking up with a large country
b) the small country have recently made, or are making a significant unilateral form

c) the degree of liberalisation and free trade progress are rather smooth and slow
d) the liberalisation achieved is primarily by small countries
e) regionalisation are often ‘deep integration’
f) most of regional arrangement are based on strategic location;

meaning that the countries are mostly neighbours. These characters concluded that regional integration which involves small countries have links with its large neighbour country in order to build “deep integration” between them.

It is also important to recognise that ‘new regionalism’ is characterized by its multi-dimensionality, complexity, fluidity and non-conformity, and by the fact that it involves a variety of state and non-state actors, who often come together in rather informal multi-actor coalitions (Söderbaum, 2003). (O’Malley) also stated that the ‘new regionalism’ is closely related to globalization by enhancing the integration and interaction amongst regions. In layman term, the differences between ‘old regionalism’ and ‘new regionalism’ is that the ‘old regionalism’ had a narrow focus (focus on trade arrangement and security alliances) and is basically towards Eurocentric and ‘new regionalism’ is plural and global, focusing more on ‘deep integration’ between countries.

The relationship between ASEAN-ROK came under various of platforms which showed the commitments towards a successful regional cooperation. There are bilateral and multilateral relationship that came under ARF, APT, EAS, and ADMM Plus which has improved the mutual friendship between these two parties. With diverse issues and discussion brought into the platforms served under ASEAN, ROK has been empowered in their country’s position within the region.

The initial stage of the official relationship between ASEAN – ROK started with the establishment of the Sectorial Dialogue Partnership in 2 November 1989 – where both ASEAN and ROK began concentrating in the areas of trade, investment, and tourism. Both parties continuously expanded towards the development cooperation, transfer of technology, and human resources development (HRD). The signing was done in the presence of the Ambassadors of ASEAN member countries and Dialogue Countries, representatives of the EU and the UNDP, foreign dignitaries, senior officials of the Government of the Republic of Indonesia, distinguished members of the private sectors of ASEAN and the Republic of Korea, as well as the Secretary-General of the ASEAN Secretariat and his staff (ASEAN, 2017). In this partnership, ASEAN-ROK agreed upon setting up an ASEAN-ROK Joint Sectoral Cooperation Committee (ASEAN-ROK JSCC) represented by government officials from both

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32 Deep integration, as defined by Simone Claar and Andrea Nölke, means trade agreements which not only contain rules on tariffs and conventional non-tariff trade restrictions, but which also regulate the business environment in a more general sense. Issues of deep integration include competition policy, investor rights, product standards, public procurement and intellectual property rights.

33 Focusing on European culture or history to the exclusion of a wider view of the world; implicitly regarding European culture as pre-eminent.

34 The Sectorial Dialogue Partnership officially commenced in 1989 between ASEAN and its dialogues partners which includes South Korea, China, Japan, Russia, United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India and European Union (EU).
sides which will facilitate the ASEAN-ROK Sectoral Dialogue Relations agreed area. In July 1991\(^ {35} \), the relationship became a Full Dialogue Partnership at the 24\(^{th} \) ASEAN Ministerial Meeting (AMM)\(^ {36} \) in Kuala Lumpur and in 1997, the partnership elevated to a summit level whereby the cooperation between ASEAN-ROK was led to the development of official mechanism in various sectors.

Since then, the cooperation developed to a signing of the Declaration on Comprehensive Cooperation Partnership at the 8\(^{th} \) ASEAN-ROK Summit on 30\(^{th} \) November 2004 in Vientiane and also adopted the ASEAN-ROK Plan of Action (POA) to implement the Joint Declaration at the 9\(^{th} \) ASEAN-ROK Summit on 13\(^{th} \) December 2005 in Kuala Lumpur. The growth of partnership extended to the establishment of ASEAN-ROK Centre\(^ {37} \) in Seoul in 2009 where this centre was used as an intergovernmental organisation to promote exchanges between South Korea and ASEAN member countries. Its objectives are 1) enhance ASEAN-Korea partnership, 2) promote mutual understanding through, 3) cultural exchange and people-to-people contact, and 4) support ASEAN integration efforts (CENTRE, 2016). This centre organized programme such as ASEAN school tour programme 2017, ASEAN Lecture series 2017, various youth network workshop, and culinary festivals as part of the activities that can strengthen the cooperation among ten member countries and ROK.

**Socio-culture and Education Relationship**

The relationship between ASEAN-ROK came under various platforms which showed the commitments towards a successful regional cooperation. There are bilateral and multilateral relationship that came under ARF, APT, EAS, and ADMM Plus which have improved the mutual friendship between these two parties. With diverse issues and discussion brought into the platforms served under ASEAN, ROK has been empowered in their country’s position within the region.

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\(^{35}\) This is the second meeting of the ASEAN-ROK JSCC on 11\(^{th} \)-12\(^{th} \) June 1991 in Seoul which was attended by delegations from ASEAN member countries and ROK. The meeting was to review the previous cooperation projects and also to enhance the area discussed (the development cooperation, transfer of technology and human resources development).

\(^{36}\) AMM established in 1967. It an annual meeting with ministers and it has both formal / informal meeting and retreats in between.

\(^{37}\) The ASEAN-Korea Centre was established as an intergovernmental organization with the aim to promote exchanges among Korea and the ten ASEAN Member States. It was officially inaugurated in 13 March 2009, the year which marked the 20th anniversary of the Dialogue Partnership between ASEAN and Korea in accordance with the Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) signed at the 11\(^{th} \) ASEAN-Republic of Korea (ROK) Summit in November 2007, and entered into force in December 2008(CENTRE, 2016).
to-people contact, and 4) support ASEAN integration efforts (CENTRE, 2016). This centre organized programme such as ASEAN school tour programme 2017, ASEAN Lecture series 2017, various of youth network workshop, and culinary festivals as part of activities that can strengthened the cooperation among ten member countries and ROK.

The history of socio-cultural exchanges between ASEAN-ROK countries cannot be easily reconstructed because of a lack in historical records (before the WWII). Thus, this study will highlight the significant changes which are divided into three phases that can help compare socio-cultural ties between ASEAN-ROK in each period of interest and allow a comparison of how these have changed and developed over time.


This phase was important for both ASEAN and ROK as they engaged in an official partnership and ROK began a Dialogue Partnership with ASEAN in 1989. ROK became a full Dialogue Partner in 1991 and the ASEAN-ROK partnership elevated to summit level in 1997. Official socio-cultural exchanges between ROK and ASEAN were initiated by KOICA. After KOICA was established in 1991, the Conclusion of Agreement on Korea Overseas Volunteer (KOV) with five ASEAN countries was signed over the period until 1997; the Philippines, Indonesia, Thailand, Myanmar, and Vietnam. This attempt was followed by an increase in the ASEAN-Korea Special Cooperation Fund (SCF) which has been launched in 1993 with its aim to intensify ASEAN-ROK cooperation. Its annual fund was one million until the figure doubled in the third year. The funding was mainly used for cooperation in the economic sector until the fund was separated and renamed as the Future Oriented Cooperation Fund (FOCF) in 1996. The FOCF used to enhance people-to-people exchanges between ASEAN-ROK, including youth exchanges, journalist exchanges, as well as cultural and art exchanges. In this phase, the people of ASEAN did not have much information on ROK, and vice versa. This was due to the fact that official cooperation was not yet established. The agenda of ASEAN-ROK was mainly carried out by these two governments. Therefore, there were not much socio-cultural changes in this period. The most significant achievement in this phase was the official interaction at government level that was established by ASEAN and ROK. This official tie became a platform supporting further socio-cultural exchanges in the years to come.

b) Development phase: 1999-2008

Korean wave is a key word to describe in this phase. The expansion of Korean dramas gained a lot of popularity in Southeast Asia countries after 1999. Hallyu, along with the rapid economic development of ASEAN countries has contributed to the increasing numbers of tourists for both ASEAN and ROK. Government efforts to foster socio-cultural ties between two sides also continued. ASEAN-ROK elevated their relationship to a Comprehensive Cooperation Partnership in 2004. During the fifteenth year of ASEAN-ROK anniversary, the Korean Cultural Center was opened in Hanoi for the first time in Southeast Asian country. The Center aimed to promote Korean culture and facilitate cultural exchanges overseas. In this development phase, ASEAN-ROK relationship became more robust and well-developed. The interaction was not only carried out by the government, but the society has also assisted in promoting each other’s culture. The ASEAN people learn modern culture of Korean through Hallyu and caused ASEAN culture to slowly evolve in Korean people.

c) Consolidation phase: 2009-present

In this phase, ROK became a Strategic Partner of ASEAN and established a number of prestigious institutions to enhance socio-cultural cooperation with ASEAN. The effort begins with the establishment of AKC which was established in 2009. AKC is an international
organization established under agreement between ASEAN-ROK countries with aims not only to enhance the ASEAN-ROK partnership but also to promote mutual understanding between ASEAN and Korean societies by encouraging people-to-people exchanges. Korean Culture Centers for ASEAN countries additionally opened in Jakarta in Indonesia and Taguig City in Philippines in 2011, and also Bangkok, Thailand in 2013. Funding by FOCF increased in 2010 and ASEAN-Korea Cooperation Fund (AKCF) begin to operate with seven million USD annually in 2015 (MOFA - Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012). Numerous seminar and forum underlining socio-cultural exchanges between ASEAN-ROK have been funded by the government, including the ASEAN-Korea Culture and Art Forum (since 2010) and the Seminar on Korea-ASEAN Socio Cultural Partnership (since 2014). With these efforts, the socio-cultural exchanges become more dynamic and the number of visitors between two sides also increased which shows the importance of the relationship to continue stronger and stable.

‘New regionalism’ theory in Socio-cultural and Education ASEAN-ROK

ASEAN-ROK today have seen a long standing of more than two decades of a cooperative relationship. There has been huge progress in economic ties – with ASEAN now being Korea’s second largest trading partner and investment destination. Socio-cultural exchanges between both sides such as tourism, pop-culture, and food have been equally blossoming (AKC, 2015). The first diplomatic partner of Korea within Southeast Asia was Philippines in 1949, followed by Thailand and Malaysia in 1960, Indonesia in 1973, Myanmar and Singapore in 1975, and Brunei in 1984 (Korean Ministry of Foreign Affairs 2011). Early diplomatic relations were accompanied by treaties to promote socio-cultural cooperation and people-to-people exchanges including cultural agreements, agreements for air services, scientific and technological cooperation agreements, and agreement on visa waivers (MOFA - Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012). The first establishment of diplomatic partner with Philippines, Thailand, and Malaysia did not result in any socio-cultural and people-to-people changes. The relationship then become an official dialogue partnership in 1989 and transformed to ‘full dialogue partner’ in 1991. The partnership was then elevated to ‘comprehensive cooperation partnership’ in 2004 and is now known as a ‘strategic partnership for peace and prosperity’ since 2010. The elevation of bilateral relations was aimed to promote ASEAN-ROK exchanges and at the same time reflect the intensification of human interactions. The recognition is shared that ASEAN-ROK socio-cultural interactions are mutually beneficial and indispensable for the prosperity of East Asia.

Referring to the comparison on ‘old regionalism’ and ‘new regionalism’, ‘new regionalism’ took place in late 1980s after the end of Cold War. Characteristic of the new regionalism referred to (Either, 1998) are a) the new regionalism typically involves one or small countries linking up with a large country, b) the small country have recently made, or are making a significant unilateral form, c) the degree of liberalisation and free trade progress are rather smooth and slow, d) the liberalisation achieved is primarily by small countries, e) regionalisation are often ‘deep integration’ the partnership not just focusing on trade barriers or economic policies but rather harmonising in other matters as well, f) most of regional arrangement are based on strategic location; meaning that the countries are mostly neighbours. In the matter of ASEAN-ROK, the relations fulfilled all four characters of ‘new regionalism’.

The elaboration of these characters is as below:

a) the new regionalism typically involves one or small countries linking up with a large country. ASEAN-ROK involve a partnership between ASEAN as one of the successful regional association and ROK as the rising middle power country. In addition, ASEAN-
ROK involve in various regional mechanism such as ARF, APT, EAS, and ADMM Plus that supports the key interest in keeping up peace and success in each region. Apart from relations of ASEAN-ROK, South Korea had built diplomatic partnership with Philippines in 1949, followed by Thailand and Malaysia in 1960, Indonesia in 1973, Myanmar and Singapore in 1975, and Brunei in 1984. Thus, the bilateral relationship between South Korea and Southeast Asian countries continues until now.

b) the small country has recently made, or are making a significant unilateral form. This can be seen in ROK acceptance of Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos in 1992, 1997 and 1995 which the official relations were severed following the installation of communist regimes. Since then, these three countries received visitors from Korea and likewise.

c) regionalisation is often ‘deep integration’ the partnership not just focusing on trade barriers or economic policies but rather harmonising in other matters as well. This term is the most significant for ASEAN-ROK relationship. The first diplomatic partner of Korea in Southeast Asia was Philippines in 1949 followed by Thailand and Malaysia in 1960, Indonesia in 1973, Myanmar and Singapore in 1975 and Brunei in 1984. The relationship then became an official dialogue partnership in 1989, transformed to ‘full dialogue partner’ in 1991, elevated to ‘comprehensive cooperation partnership’ in 2004, and now as a ‘strategic partnership for peace and prosperity’ in 2010. The elevation of bilateral relations was aimed to promote ASEAN-ROK exchanges and at the same time, reflect the intensification of human exchanges between these two.

d) most of regional arrangement are based on strategic location; meaning that the countries are mostly neighbours. Southeast Asia and Northeast Asia are neighbour countries. This character applies to ‘old regionalism’ as well and can be applied as well in ‘new regionalism’. Between ASEAN-ROK, the Asian Financial Crisis have made the most impact of the regional integration between these two.

In summary, ASEAN-ROK relationship best fits in the ‘new regionalism’ theory. A regional integration that involves a reform-minded small country with moderate trade concession links with a large, neighbouring country that involve ‘deep integration’ between these two sides.

**Strategies in Strengthening the Socio-cultural and Education Sector ASEAN-ROK.**

Since the beginning of ASEAN-ROK partnership, the socio-cultural links and education sector between both sides have come a long way. There have been efforts taken by both ASEAN-ROK to build a continuously growing social-cultural. Such efforts can be seen through the past developments which have led to the strong ties now. This people-to-people exchanges can be seen in three different areas(Yang & Mansor, 2016).

The first area is tourism. Tourism is one if the effective way to learn more about the culture of another country. Southeast Asia countries are the most popular tourist destinations. Number of visitors have been increasing exponentially and doubled to 6.5 million from 2009 to 2013. In 2014, almost 4.95 million Koreans have travelled to ASEAN and in the same year, around 1.8 million ASEAN visitors have visited Korea. In 2016, the number of tourists to ROK hits record of 14.5 million (Jin-a, 2016), that includes 2.2 million ASEAN visitors to ROK and around 6 million Koreans visited ASEAN (AKC, 2015). One of the factors that caused this phenomenon was due to Southeast Asia low-cost carrier such as Air Asia, Cebu Pacific, Tigerair, and Viet Jet Air which offers incessantly market cheap fare promotions for flights heading to Seoul, Busan, and Incheon. Air Asia for example provides around twelve trips from Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia to Seoul and Busan in South Korea per day. This laidback schedule by Air Asia simplify Malaysian people to travel to ROK at their flexible time. Another strategy for
increasing tourism sector of ASEAN-ROK is through promoting by travel agencies. Travel agencies play an important role in advertising various tour packages to cater different needs of the tourists. As experienced by the researcher, if we are visiting a country for the first time, it is wise to seek advice from the travel agency as they can provide relevant information and advice for the tourist. It is crucial for both ASEAN-ROK government to monitor the travel agencies by providing support and regular updates as these agencies are the source of information for travellers. In addition to that, AKC also had launched a ‘ASEAN Tourism Guide Mobile Application’ for tourists to have easy access to information on ASEAN. Through this ‘ASEAN Travel’ application, users of smart-phone can have updated info of all Southeast Asia countries which includes tourist destinations, restaurants, transportation, and accommodation (AKC, 2015). This app is available for both android phone and iPhone and can be downloaded at Apple App Store or Google Play. The best part with this apps is that the information is written in both Korean and English language. Tourism is also being promoted through social media. For example, Facebook users in ROK for year 2017 have recorded approximately 14.5 million while Southeast Asia countries have more than 306 million Facebook users (Statista, 2017).

Second area in strengthening the people-to-people exchanges can be done in education sector. Numerous universities have opened the Southeast Asian research centres and departments such as Institute for South East Asian Studies (ISEAS), National University of Singapore; the Southeast Asia Research Centre (SEARC), KISEAS, KASEAS, and many more indicating that the region of Southeast Asia is on the academic radar as an area of specialisation. ASEAN-ROK relations are also determined by the increasing and supporting ties of the ASEAN University Network (AUN) and top-notch Korean academic institutions. AUN is an Asian university association that was founded in November 1995 by ASEAN member countries. AUN allows exchanges between university students from both sides and creates opportunities for those in higher educational institutions (in both technical and vocational education) to learn more about each other at in-depth level. The various cultural exchanges among ASEAN-ROK youth also allow greater understanding and awareness of each other. As of 2015, there are around 7300 students from ASEAN countries that chose to study in Korean universities((AKC), 2016). ROK was not only responsible for exchange students, but also initiated scholarships and provided research grants. Amongst the initiated programmes are ASEAN-South Korea Academic Exchange Programme, ASEAN Millennium Leaders College Students Exchange Programme, and ASEAN-South Korea Scholarship for South Korea Studies Programme which have been on-going since 2010.

The third area is in human development. This phenomenon is a growing cultural exchange widely known as hallyu. Hallyu or Korean wave is a term that refers to the popularity of Korean entertainment and culture ranges from television dramas, movies, popular music (K-pop), dance (B-boys), video game, food, fashion, tourism, and language (Hangul)) across Asia and other parts of the world which include Middle East, Africa, Europe, and the United States. Hallyu started in the mid-1990s, starting with drama and film industry and then evolving to music entertainment such as K-pop. This industry witnessed teenagers idolizing Korean artists and put up pressure for ASEAN cinema and drama to revolutionize their plots and scripts. To spike viewership and revenue, television channels screen Korean films and dramas dubbed into local language. Just like Hollywood, Bollywood and Japanese animated shows, Korean dramas are a clear example of globalization that has stretched social, political, economic, and cultural activities across the national borders and across the globe. The government of ROK took the advantage of the Korean wave as a policy tool to improve its cultural and public diplomacy where it is used to promote Korean national interest and enhancing ROK images in the world. Through the researcher’s understanding, Korean wave is also seen as emergence of ‘soft
power\textsuperscript{38} instil by the ROK that developed through relation with allies, economic assistance and cultural exchanges. ‘Soft power’ is a new trend in today’s diplomacy in order to pursue national interests by influencing the public opinion of the other states. This phenomenon is progressing well for ROK as to strengthen its public diplomacy and making the country’s culture and development to be accepted in the whole world.

As mentioned above, these three areas (tourism, education and human development) shown an astounding progress. Thus, there is a need to build up greater understanding of the Southeast Asia region for the Koreans. Likewise, ASEAN people too need to be able beyond South Korea represents. In order to have a greater interaction between both sides, the researcher would like to propose additional suggestion of looking beyond Hallyu culture.

The rise of K-pop on the global stage began in late 1990s in a small part of East Asia and spread to Southeast Asia, Europe and the America. Since then, ROK has emerged as a new centre for the production of transnational pop culture, exporting a range of cultural products to neighbouring Asian countries. Thus, it seems that the culture of Koreans have moved towards modernization and its historical values has slowly been forgotten. It would be beneficial to learn more about Korea’s rich history and have a better understanding of Korea’s proud traditional heritage. During the researcher’s visit to Seoul (May-July 2017), several informal interviews were conducted with various levels of Korean people in order to get their insight of the knowledge of their own culture and ASEAN. From the research point of view, Koreans has gradually paved their traditional culture, history, and values and are only remembered through ancient building and monuments which are preserved by the government. Likewise, other countries in Southeast Asia have gone through modernization and globalization which has been a great influence to all, whereby people no longer see the historical part of our glorious states but rather predict the development of the future. This is crucial for many historians and academician to continuously promote history to younger generation and preserved the traditional culture that reminds us of where we belong.

In addition, beyond Hallyu culture, ROK did a remarkable job in promoting ASEAN member countries through AKC, where the centre actively engages with government, business communities, academia, and other relevant stakeholder. In year 2016, AKC have carried out twenty work programmes and 63 sub-programmes including in the area of trade and investment, culture and tourism, and public relations and information services\textsuperscript{(ASEAN-Korea, 2016).} Previously, the promotion of ASEAN-ROK focused on selective group that includes think tanks, academics, civil servants, and tertiary students. Currently, these activities conducted by AKC has promoted Southeast Asian countries to all Koreans ranging from school children to youth and adults. Some of the successful programmes in 2016 are ASEAN Culinary Festival on November in Seoul that was represented by participants from all ASEAN countries. Besides, the ASEAN-ROK Youth Network Workshop in August participated by ASEAN, Korean, Chinese and Japanese students as well as the ASEAN school tour programme that has been going since 2009 for Korean middle school students are examples of the successful programmes. These socio-culture and education awareness goes beyond people-to-people exchange. The rapport built by these countries shows the relationship between ASEAN-ROK which are beyond economic and political cooperation as it nurtures relations from young age. Thus, through the researcher’s informal interview with some Korean students, they have better understanding on ASEAN and its progress rather than the people of ASEAN itself. ASEAN people are well-versed in current culture of ROK which is K-pop but lack of knowledge in South Korea’s history and traditional values. The stage of promoting culture should be

\textsuperscript{38} Soft power defined as the ability to get what you want through attraction rather than coercion or payments. It arises from the attractiveness of a country's culture, political ideals, and policies.
enhanced not only for Koreans but also to be included in the study of ASEAN for ASEAN people.

**Challenges that can influence the cooperation between ASEAN and Korea.**

In 2014, ASEAN-ROK celebrated its twenty-fifth years of their partnership dialogue and declared the Joint Statement of the ASEAN-ROK to outline their strategic partnership. This was followed by a Plan of Action (POA) that outlined its implementation during the period of 2016 to 2020. The POA mainly covered the cooperation in three sectors: 1) political-security, 2) economics, and 3) socio-cultural.

These three pillars are in line with the structures of ASEAN Community which has been established in 2015. ASEAN Community comprised of ASEAN Political-Security Community (APSC), ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), and ASEAN Socio-cultural Community (ASCC). The action plan shows an official commitment by both ASEAN-ROK to become comprehensive partners and to actively engage in more cooperation for all sectors.

However, imbalance still exists in ASEAN-ROK relations. ASEAN-ROK cooperation developed at the beginning of globalization with economic factor as the main priority and driving force of the economic cooperation. Political and security cooperation is less developed compared to the interdependence of the growing economic of ASEAN-ROK. As the awareness of political-security changes, the role of ASEAN in the region changes as well. The call for participation and cooperation by ROK in the political-security sector has become more urgent. Problems mainly arise from the third pillar which is the socio-cultural cooperation. Throughout history, the socio-cultural element has often been neglected or positioned in the second or third interest. The attention to socio-cultural sector was given in the late 1990s and 2000s, more than a decade after ROK became a Dialogue Partner with ASEAN. Socio-cultural cooperation has generally lagged behind economic and political cooperation since the establishment of ASEAN-ROK relationship. However, the socio-cultural feature owned by a nation become important as it is the most stable and least affected by external circumstances. It can even enhance the conventional competencies such as economic or political power which has elaborated above as ‘soft power’. Strong socio-cultural cooperation can therefore be a good stimulus, welding both sides together. As ROK has placed their culture as part of ASEAN people, it has not only boosted the traditional ties of political and economic but also become more resistant to change and last longer.

Another challenge that can influence the ASEAN-ROK relations is North Korea. Historically known that North Korea and South Korea is separated after the end of WWII and their war continues till now. Since then, these two rivals have strengthened their security and military forces. Like South Korea, North Korea also see ASEAN as an opportunity to be recognized globally. The principle of non-interference and ‘ASEAN Way’ has given a way for North Korea to embark its peaceful movement. North Korea has diplomatic relations with 164 UN member states, along with Palestine, the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic, and the European Union. In 2000, North Korea has taken its step to become one of ARF member. In 2008, North Korea acceded to TAC that showed their commitment in fostering peace. The signing of TAC can be seen as the attempt to perceive North Korea from the other claimed nonconformist states of the world. Asian experts say ASEAN profits by getting North Korea on board the arrangement. They call it an improvement of ASEAN's territorial authority, which thus may speed along the vision of an East Asian economic community. Thus, by signing the TAC puts North Korea a step closer in joining the EAS.
By looking at the involvement of North Korea in various organization, it is clear that North Korea is seeking for alliances in order to strengthen their regional cooperation. In terms of North Korea’s recent issue of threatening the US with nuclear due to US conducting military exercise with South Korea in waters surrounding Korean peninsula, this issue has indirectly impacted ASEAN (Cabato & Jiao, 2017). Donald Trump administration declared North Korea as ‘an urgent national security threat and top foreign policy priority’ – it is said that it was focusing on economics and diplomatic pressure. This included the Chinese cooperation in containing its defiant neighbour and ally, and remained open to negotiations (Network, 2017). Due to this crisis, North Korea turned to ASEAN for support against US. North Korean Foreign Minister Ri Yong-ho wrote a letter ASEAN urging ASEAN to give them proper proposal on the situation. In order to maintain allies with US and North Korea and uphold the ASEAN principle of peace and security, ASEAN called for North Korea to comply with United Nations Security Council resolutions on its nuclear program and make a positive contribution to regional peace.

ASEAN with its norms and principles of ‘musyawarah’ and ‘muafakat’ used its diplomacy in solving issues and conflicts. It is crucial for ASEAN to maintain its centrality when dealing with external powers. Thus, ASEAN can foresee that this threat is not only limited in a form of direct attack from North Korea, but also its implication if the war initiated. On the one hand, problems like refugee crisis could also occur. Southeast Asia will inevitably serve as the ‘limbo’ for Asian refugees.

**Conclusion and Recommendation**

‘New regionalism’ has opened up deeper understanding in multidimensionality, complexity, fluidity, and non-conformity. In fact, it is closely related to globalization with the enhancing integration and interaction amongst regions. The theory shown in the elevation of bilateral relations between ROK and Southeast Asian countries to multilateral partnership of ASEAN-ROK that expands in the area of economic, political, and socio-cultural, while education emerged as a new sector of exchange. Despite many challenges between ASEAN-ROK, both parties have made a remarkable progress throughout the years. The challenges serve as opportunities for increased multilateral cooperation and efforts in community building.

In comparison to other Northeast Asia country, ROK has a relatively weak ties with ASEAN in terms of economics and politics whereas China and Japan have an enormous economic power and significant political positions at the international stage. For example, Japan has established the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and China responded to this by creating the Asia Infrastructure Investment Bank (AIIB) that engages further with ASEAN in economic and political terms. It is not easy for ROK to follow the same path as these two ‘super power’ countries. However, at the development of cultural exchanges show, socio-cultural relations between ASEAN and ROK have rapidly improved. This suggests that ROK has remarkable strength and potential in the socio-cultural and education sector in ASEAN.

Undeniably, Korean Wave has improved ROK’s image with the people of ASEAN. Hallyu has also contributed to the increased economic power of ROK. Hallyu has also become an enormous stimulus to cooperation between ASEAN-ROK, yet ASEAN-ROK need to work together to develop a strategy beyond Hallyu that takes advantages of its impetus. Three main focus and suggestions are therefore to improve future partnership between ASEAN-ROK in socio-cultural sector.
The first consideration is scope of influence. In the past, the influence of Korea in ASEAN or vice versa reached out to limited audiences on certain fields only. For instance, people in ASEAN countries usually associate Korea with popular culture such as K-drama, the famous ‘Winter Sonata’ story or K-pop, ‘Gangnam Style’ song. On the other hand, people in ROK associate the term ‘Southeast Asia’ with multicultural, ethnicity, and perceiving ASEAN in distinct context. Therefore, it is important to create policies that promote ASEAN-ROK in a larger scope. Take sport as an example, it may serve as one target for additional attention.

The second suggestion to consider is reciprocity. Compared to the perception of and affection for Korean culture of ASEAN, Korean’s knowledge and attention to the culture of ASEAN is relatively lower. In future, this imbalance should be addressed to achieve reciprocity. Southeast Asia as a region owns not only splendid traditional culture, such as Angkor Wat in Indonesia and Borobudur in Indonesia, but also showcases a great deal of exotic intangible cultural heritage as listed by UNESCO, such as Wayang, Batik, Shadow Theater, Sbek Thom and Nhã nhạc. However, many Koreans have little knowledge about this cultural heritage; not because these products are not attractive, but rather few opportunities are provided for them to engage with such things. Therefore, it is important to provide an institution that introduces and teaches ASEAN cultures and languages as well as the concept behind ASEAN itself to Koreans. Similarly, Korean Culture Centers should be established in several ASEAN countries. For example, Korea Tourism Organization (KTO) in Malaysia operates to promote ROK heritage and tourism information. Likewise, AKC operated in Seoul does the same promotional efforts on ASEAN. Initial step towards this goal is the establishment of ASEAN Culture House in Busan in 2017 during ASEAN-Korea Cultural Exchange Year. This shows the importance of assessing the past and current development of socio-cultural cooperation between ASEAN-ROK.

The final point to be taken into account is sustainability. Large eye-catching events and exhibition are good ways to introduce both ASEAN-ROK culture to the people. However, if these remain only as one-time events, their significance will have limitation in the long run. AKC have conducted various events starting from school children to youth and adults. Long-term projects should be continued rather that one-off events. For example, the establishment of ‘ASEAN and Korea’ modules in prestigious universities of ASEAN and Korea would assist students in both parties to better understand one another.

Undeniably, ASEAN-ROK have been good partners to each other for almost thirty decades. However, both sides need to maintain their efforts to strengthen this friendship in the future. Governments have played a pivotal role in establishing and facilitating the friendship between ASEAN-ROK but it is the people of these regions who must encourage the friendship to flourish and thrive. It is wise to learn that the socio-cultural element should not disregard as additional or minor element in ASEAN-ROK relationship. This partnership is built on the sharing of same history and tradition and can be developed further for stronger and longer ties.

Acknowledgement

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39 Shadow puppet
40 Wax-resist dying technique for making clothes
41 Shadow Theater
42 Court music
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DEFINING THE ENVIRONMENTAL CRIME – WHY IS THE GLOBAL LEGAL AND POLITICAL ACTION URGENTLY NEEDED

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Abstract
Preservation and protection of environment appears as one of the largest challenges of our time. It necessitates urgent but also comprehensive, planetary action. One of the key issues is to define a scope of future international instrument as well as its definition. This requires global political action which will then eventually translate into a coordinated legal action and finally articulate itself in viable international treaty. Institutional collaboration among stakeholders and agencies needs to be improved as much as the currently existing approaches need to be harmonized. Only an improved institutional framework between agencies and stakeholders that protects environment could enhance and accelerate cooperation to the levels equal to an environmental and climate change challenge. The very creation of such framework could also contribute to the harmonization of monitoring and reporting systems. It will also lead to more coordinated, more effective and properly financed policy instruments as well as more efficient legal enforcement on supranational, national and sub-national level.

Keywords: Treaty making, environmental challenge, inter-agency coordination, legal definition, political will

Introduction
Environmental crime is a complex subject matter, which coupled with a non-existing internationally enforceable definition is calling for an urgent consideration. The variety of wrongdoings against our environment, committed transnationally and on a daily basis is happening with an accelerating severity and frequency. This makes it even more challenging to combat these types of criminal activities and mitigate the damages caused by it, which impact future generations. Committing crimes against the environment endangers sustainable livelihoods, ecosystems, natural resources, that cannot be reproduced or renewed, as much as it harms general health, social equilibrium and revenue streams of governments. Hence, lack of common definition is coupled with a lack of understanding, financial resources and knowledge on the subject matter. Therefore, it is of utmost urgency to start paving the way to combat these types of crimes by transnationally brokered global instrument.

The complexity of the matter manifests in the wide range of criminal activities that are associated with committing environmental crimes, such as money laundering, waste trafficking and hazardous waste dumping, wildlife species smuggling, weapons, drugs – all of that transcends domestic boarders. These types of crimes often take place in organized form and are facilitated by other crimes, or by a lack of comprehensive legal frameworks. One of the major facilitators is corruption, which is favored by high tax burden, excessive market regulations, bureaucracy and high public spending. In addition, there is only a formalistic legal approach in most of the countries to condemn these types of offences.
Another neuralgic point of combating these types of crimes is the under-resourced incentives in contrast with the criminal environment, which is associated with the availability of significant financial resources. Controlling public resources and influencing public administration strengthening the position of organized crime networks.

To leave the often-used common understanding behind and come to an agreement on the internationally accepted definition. That necessitates an extensive work on the instrument, upon which the UN Member States are able to enhance their respective law enforcement cooperation and close the gap in understanding and acting. Without a definition, the fight against these types of crimes will always be impeded by the allocation of financial resources and political prioritization accompanied with lack of enforcement.

The following pages provide an overview of the main characteristics of environmental crime, its interlinkages to organized crime and the currently existing supporting legislation on international and European level with the objective of identifying barriers, remaining gaps and potential solutions that can pave the way forward. In addition, it analyses international legislations, agreements and legally binding documents, which have already touched upon some parts of the potential definition on environmental crime, or created a definition, that can be a base for starting negations on.

Building on the identified successful approaches, author’s writing is aiming to facilitate efforts toward a commonly agreed, internationally recognized definition on environmental crime. Besides, it assesses and maps existing legislations and supports actors in their compliance efforts towards the future comprehensive universal instrument/s.

Main characteristics of environmental crime

From a start, let us feature the main characteristics of wrongdoings related to the environment. They are:

- transnational – no geographical constrains
- wide array of crimes are associated with it, such as trafficking and overfishing (overhunting) of protected species; illegal logging; dumping of hazardous waste; smuggle wild life, weapons, drugs and people across continents
- interlinked with other criminal offences such as passport fraud, identity theft, corruption, money laundering and murder
- it jeopardizes wildlife, population, ecosystems, sustainable livelihoods, revenue streams to the governments it endangers the preservation of the environment and has major implications on the health and safety of the citizens
- it is aggravated through their additional cost and impact to future generations
- a number of circumstances strengthen the link between corruption and environmental crimes, such as tax burden, excessive regulation of legal markets, bureaucracy and high public spending
- organized crime networks are key actors in environmental crimes, because of their control of public resources and their influence on the public administration (locally, regionally and nationally)
- considerable degree of moral acceptance coupled with a low sense of statehood - vulnerabilities in control of authorization system
- criminal systems are complex and essential condition of a normal functioning democracy
• link between environmental crimes and corruption is facilitated by a legal approach is formalistic = focused on legislation that would punish environmental crimes, regardless of the actual damage caused, on the ground of abstract danger
• lack of common definition - no internationally recognized definition on environmental crime – only an often used common understanding
• international legal mechanisms are need to be established and enforced at national level to implement international environmental law
• illegal activities pose a challenge on law enforcement and implementation (including MEAs)
• lack of understanding and approaches between and among States – a relatively new category to combat transnational crimes - internationally coordinated efforts and a law enforcement cooperation are needed
• lack of funding to fight crime knowledge gap between environmental crimes and corruption
• actors that are combating environmental crimes are usually under-resourced in contrast with the criminal environment (which have the financial means)
• significant availability of money by committing these crimes at the expense of the environment
• best source of criminal intelligence is from INTERPOL

Organized crime
• environmental crimes are also linked to other types of organized crimes

Figure 1: Interlinkages of environmental crimes with organized crimes
• raising level of awareness of the linkages between environmental crime and organized crime - wildlife trafficking, transnational trafficking in waste and illegal logging most of all
• remaining ambivalence in the definition of concepts
  o organized crime
  o environmental crime
  o organized environmental crime
• lack of clear definitions makes it difficult to accurately identify organized environmental crime within the overall crime statistics, which has an affect on the awareness of organized environmental crime amongst policy makers and enforcement institutions. This subsequently impacts the allocation of financial resources and prioritization in the political agenda
• neither the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime nor the Council Framework Decision 2008/841/JHA (on the fight against organized crime) does not address environmental crime explicitly
• the European Union has obligations for companies and their management and supervisory bodies taking into account the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR): “accountable, transparent and responsible business behavior and sustainable growth”
• the promotion of these measures can indirectly improve transparency and action to fight environmental crime
• Directive 2014/95/EU creates a binding disclosure requirement among others related to the environment for companies with at least 500 employees, such as
  o “environmental protection
  o social responsibility and treatment of employees
  o respect for human rights
  o anti-corruption and bribery
  o diversity on company boards (in terms of age, gender, educational and professional background)”

Definition of organized crime
• UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime defines an “organized criminal group as a structured group of three or more persons, existing for a period of time and acting in concert with the aim of committing one or more serious crimes or offences established in accordance with this Convention, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit”
• U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) defines an organized criminal group as “any group having some manner of a formalized structure and whose primary objective is to obtain money though illegal activities. Such groups maintain their position through the use of actual or threatened violence, corrupt public officials, graft, or extortion, and

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Generally have a significant impact on the people in their locales, region or the country as a whole.  

- European Union has three sorts of approaches to address the issue:
  - Civil law criminalizing participation in a criminal association
  - Common law based on conspiracy to commit crime
  - Scandinavian approach, based on criminal law content and rejects the “criminal organization” element

- Illegal disposal of hazardous waste is the only one of the most wildly recognized forms of environmental crimes

- UN Minamata Convention: is the link with the EU policy on mercury, banning all exports of mercury and preventing the uses of mercury where it may enter the environment. The Convention signed and to be ratified by all Member States and the EU.

- European Parliament: adopted a resolution on a joint action to prevent and combat mafia type organized crimes, and urged the creation of a European wide approach on combatting illegal waste trafficking, including related organized crime groups.

**Trafficking and illegal dumping of hazardous waste**

- Illegal not only refers to dumping of waste but also to its transportation, or management of landfills in violation of international or domestic legal provisions
- In addition to being a serious threat it causes social and economic instability
- It is coupled with low risk of prosecution – and the lack of harsh sentences made it a business opportunity for criminal networks
- Involvement of organized crime organizations working in a well-organized network, which enables disposing or dumping hazardous waste illegally.
- To cut costs and maximize profit, a growing number of legal enterprises participate in trafficking or illegally dumping their waste through facilitators – because gaming the system costs less than obeying the rules
- Rising production of hazardous waste (especially electrical and electronic waste) it is a transboundary movement
- Major producing and importing countries are affected by the global threat – even though all exports, illegal trade and dumping of hazardous waste are banned
- Countries have different approach to hazardous waste for example China and India accept it in order to recycle and recover raw materials; African countries on the other hand are looking material (second hand) usable after repair
- Illicit waste trafficking is a significant threat for destination countries because of the untreated hazardous waste dumping or manual disassembling with no regard to health and safety issues
- Illegal waste management is an increasing threat for producing countries as well because of its link with

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• fraud
• tax evasion
• money laundering
• control of legitimate companies in the waste management sector
• examining the link between criminal activities and illegal trade of e-waste is problematic given the remaining not specified grey areas of extension
• waste trafficking is facilitated by the corruption of public officials in charge of permits, also associated with law enforcement and customs as well as politicians, who can easily avoid bureaucratic hurdles related to permit granting procedure
• increase in the volume of illegal trade between the European Union and the most affected destination countries in Africa and Asia
• distortion of market and fair competition rules → firms that offer safe disposal of waste cannot compete with criminals therefore they are forced to lower their prices and the quality of their services in order to stay competitive.

EU level

• EU has a competence to harmonize the environmental criminal law as a part of its environmental obligation
• missing link between organized crime more broadly – including the absence of an express link between environmental criminal law and anti – money laundering law, in addition lack of clarity in the relationship between criminal and non-criminal (administrative) law in the field of environment
• no specific EU–level sanctions to address environmental crimes - sanctions depend on the Member States and their appropriate toolbox of instruments – criminal, administrative and civil law – complementary sanctions can be applied but not in ever MSs
• voluntary associations of professionals working on environmental crimes with the purpose of sharing information and best practices
• a significant amount of environmental crimes cannot be investigated by law enforcement institutions due to the limited awareness, complexity of establishing causality of environmental crime and the lack of financial resources
• Member States are not obligated to report on ongoing investigation or enforcement process to EUROPOL and EUROJUST, therefore opportunities missed for the cross-border cooperation
• creation of environmental democracy by engaging directly or indirectly in environmental justice
• in order to reach vulnerable parts of society, the role of local communities, NGOs and civil societies is crucial
• Aarhus Convention establishes rules on access to justice and environmental matters for individuals and environmental NGOs⁹
• public participation in environmental decision making is prevented, because rights of individuals and communities are not well understood
• victim’s lack of awareness about their rights
• certain crimes are not provable only after a longer period of time

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• quantification of damage is not forthright – especially concerning health or loss of livelihood
• it hard to bring action against crimes committed by subsidiaries or subcontractors because they often face obstacles before the EU Court
• the European Union is a member of the multilateral environmental agreements and developed expertise in its instruments, tools, networks, NGOs and enforcement agencies that operate and are involved in both EU and transnational cases
• EU enforcement networks and agencies are:
  - European Network for Prosecutors and IMPEL - national and transnational level
  - European Union provides funding for the International Consortium on Combating Wildlife Crime (ICCWC)
• Finally, the existing UN Convention of Corruption covers only a public sector segment of it. Regrettably enough, this instrument does not cover private sector at all. As professor Bajrektarevic defined it: “corruption is seemingly victimless tradeoff between influence and gain”.\(^\text{10}\) That means that it stretches from private to public sector easily.

International level

UN ODC

- UNODC, established in 1997, is a network which coordinates actions and encourages cooperation among international agencies and NGOs in the fight against illicit drugs and international crime. It has a mandate to assist Member States in their fight against transnational crimes and offers advice to State parties in order to raise awareness of the importance of environmental crime and organized crime on different ways they can be combated\(^\text{11}\)
- State parties have difficulties dealing with organized environmental crime due to the lack of legal and criminal policy tradition in the field – the intervention of international institutions is becoming more relevant
- however, it is still unclear how organized environmental crime should be addressed, as a specific criminal offence or just an aggravated circumstance of other related environmental crimes. \(^\text{12}\)

Financial Action Task Force (FATF)

FATF included organized crime in its list of designated categories of offences. FATF is an intergovernmental body, which provides insights on how to best address environmental crime and identify possible ways how investigation and prosecution of such crimes may be assisted. FAFT has 35 member states and two regional organizations (European Commission and the Gulf Cooperation Council) with the objective of developing and promoting policies to combat the financing of terrorism measures and anti-money laundering, handle high-risk, non-

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cooperative jurisdictions, and respond to new threats as identified by the UN Security Council and the G20.  

**Green Customs Initiative**

The initiative was launched in 2004 to enhance the capacity of customs and other relevant border control officers. The partnership that comprises international organizations, monitors and facilitates legal trade activities and aims to investigate and prevent illegal trade in environmentally sensitive products, considering trade related conventions and multilateral environmental agreements.

The initiative has the following partners:

- Basel Convention (Basel Convention on the Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and their Disposal);
- OzonAction;
- Cartagena Protocol (Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety (Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity));
- Rotterdam Convention (Prior Informed Consent (PIC))
- Procedure for Certain Hazardous Chemicals and pesticides in International Trade);
- CITES (Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora);
- Stockholm Convention (Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs));
- INTERPOL;
- UNEP (United Nations Environmental Programme);
- Minamata Convention (Minamata Convention on Mercury)
- UNODC (United Nations Office on Drug and Crime);
- OPCW (Organization for the Prohibition for Chemical Weapons);
- WCOOMD (World Customs Organization)

**Supporting legislations, agreements**

UN Transnational Environmental Crime - Division of Environmental Law and Conventions (DELC)

- Montevideo Program IV - UNEP/GC/25/INF/15

The Montevideo Program is aiming to increase linkages between environmental law and other areas, most of all the three pillars of UN (peace and security, human rights and development). It assists the international community to highlight gaps and challenges and provides a comprehensive framework for the development of legal principles and obligations in the field of the environment. These are the illegal trade in wildlife, environmental crime, marine litter and micro plastics, and lead in paint and batteries, amongst others.

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(a) “Assist States:
   i) To improve progressively their environmental standards at the global, or regional
      or sub regional level;
   ii) To promote coherence between environmental law and other laws, both at domestic
       and international levels, to ensure that they are mutually supportive and
       complementary, and that the environmental protection is an integral part of
       sustainable development;
   iii) To study the ways in which developing countries have integrated environmental
       policy into their governmental processes and advise Governments as appropriate;
   iv) To promote the ecosystem approach as a means of ensuring coherent
       implementation of international agreements, including through capacity-building
       activities;

(b) Conduct studies on the legal aspects of, obstacles to and opportunities for consolidating
    and rationalizing the implementation of multilateral environmental agreements, so as
    to avoid duplication of their work and functions;

(c) Upon request of negotiating States, provide an analysis of linkages between agreements
    under negotiation and the existing agreements;

(d) Conduct studies to assist relevant conferences of the parties to multilateral
    environmental agreements to take action to improve ways of harmonizing and
    otherwise rationalizing the reporting obligations in multilateral environmental
    agreements;

(e) Enhance cooperation and coordination among the secretariats and conferences of the
    parties to relevant multilateral environmental agreements in order to have more
    coordinated activities and procedures;

(f) Promote synergies in the implementation of related multilateral environmental
    agreements at the national and regional levels”,

- DELC Capacity Building Programmes for the Judiciary
- Ship-Source Pollution Directive
- International Convention for Prevention and Pollution from Ships (MARPOL) Convention
- Directive 2004/35/EC on environmental liability – polluter pays principle was
  introduced
- Directive on Market Abuse - Directive 2014/57/EU - requires Member States to ensure
  that certain offences are punishable with a defined maximum term of imprisonment; it
  also obligates Member States to adopt rules on the liability of legal persons

- Article 83(1) TFEU and Article 83(2) TFEU:
  - Article 83(1) TFEU lists ten crimes (so-called Euro Crimes) which are deemed
    to have sufficient cross-border impact that the EU can set minimum rules in
    their regard. These are: terrorism; trafficking in human beings; sexual
    exploitation of women and children; illicit drug trafficking; illicit arms
    trafficking; money laundering; corruption; counterfeiting of means of payment;
    computer crime and organized crime. Environmental crime is not on the list;
    however, the article goes on to state that “on the basis of developments in crime”

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Under Article 83(2) TFEU the introduction of minimum rules on the definition of criminal offences and sanctions is possible if they are essential for ensuring the effectiveness of a harmonized EU policy or its enforcement

- Directive 2014/95/EU that introduces mandatory disclosure requirements related to, among others, the environment for companies with at least 500 employees
- Timber Regulation (Regulation 2010/955/EU) to alleviate potential damage in the third countries which are source countries
- UN Minamata Convention: banning all exports of mercury and preventing the uses of mercury where it may enter the environment. It was signed and to be ratified by all Member States and the EU

**Supporting legal definitions**

**Organized Crime Convention (Palermo Convention)**

- only indirectly refers to organized environmental crime as one of those serious crimes that could be covered by the convention
- the convention provides a legal framework for sanction serious crimes as well as the legal tools to criminalize as offences those activities related to environmental crime. It enables to investigate and to bring to justice those criminals involved in different roles in criminal groups and criminal organizations
- States can cooperate on a wide range of offences related to transnational organized crime:

  - “Serious crime: conduct constituting an offence punishable by a maximum deprivation of liberty of at least four years or a more serious penalty” enables the CoP to identify new forms and dimensions of transnational organized crime, with a view to facilitating a more uniform approach at the use of the Convention for the purposes of international cooperation.
  - The Convention does not define organized crime but envisages a working and open definition of serious crime in Article 2.b just using as a reference the minimum penalty of 4 years imprisonment
  - (b) “Serious crime” shall mean conduct constituting an offence punishable by a maximum deprivation of liberty of at least four years or a more serious penalty
  - When determining the scope of application of the Convention, Article 3 b) specifies that serious crime is also “where the offence is transnational in nature and involves an organized criminal group
  - Criminal Groups and Criminal Organizations: Article 2.a of the Organized Crime Convention defines organized criminal group but not criminal organizations. “Organized criminal group” shall mean a structured group of three or more persons, existing for a period of time and acting in concert with the aim of committing one or more serious crimes or offences established in accordance with this Convention, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit”. – it does not incorporate the modus operandi criteria – such as use of violence, hierarchy and adaptation to the environment
  - These definitions are open and focused on:

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• the number of participants – at least three persons;
• the duration – a flexible requirement of existing for a period of time;
• the aim: to commit offences for the purpose of financial or other material benefits;
• the type of crime they commit, serious crime as defined by the Convention

Criminalization of participation in a criminal organized group: Article 5 of the Convention requires States Parties to foresee the introduction into their criminal law systems of a number of offences relating to participation in an organized criminal group that must be a common minimum standard for all States parties, without prejudice to the differences among their common law or continental law systems and the possibility of adopting stricter provisions.

Each State Party shall adopt such legislative and other measures as may be necessary to establish as criminal offences, when committed intentionally:

* Either or both of the following as criminal offences distinct from those involving the attempt or completion of the criminal activity:
  * Agreeing with one or more other persons to commit a serious crime for directly or indirectly to the obtaining of a financial or other material benefit and, where required by domestic law, involving an act undertaken by one of the participants in furtherance of the agreement or involving an organized criminal
  * Conduct by a person who, with knowledge of either the aim and general criminal activity of an organized criminal group or its intention to commit the crimes in question, takes an active part in:
    * Criminal activities of the organized criminal group
    * Other activities of the organized criminal group in the knowledge that his or her participation will contribute to the achievement of the above
  * Organizing, directing, aiding, abetting, facilitating or counselling the commission of serious crime involving an organized criminal group.

Confiscation, Seizure and Disposal of Proceeds of Organized Crime and the International Cooperation for Confiscation: Article 12 and 13 deal with confiscation and seizure calling on State Parties to adopt legislation to enable them to carry out confiscation of both proceeds from crime and all instrumentalities used during the commission of the offences. Article 12 focuses on domestic measures and Article 13 with international cooperation agreements.

Legal persons and organized crime: Article 10 of the Convention requires States to adopt measures to establish the liability of legal persons for participation in serious crimes involving an organized criminal group and for the offences defined in the Convention. Paragraph 2 states that, “subject to the legal principles of the State Party, the liability of legal persons may be criminal, civil or administrative” leaving the States Parties the possibility of choosing among these three possible liability regimes considering their legal systems and the prevalence of the principle “societas delinquere non potest”. However, States Parties must “ensure that legal persons held liable in accordance with this article are subject to effective, proportionate and dissuasive criminal or non-sanctions, including monetary sanctions.”

Extradition: The Organized Crime Convention establishes a supple legal framework for extradition in its Article 16 that relies on the domestic law of State Parties for most of the conditions, procedures and requirements. However, in a limited number of areas the UN Convention establishes some principles and conditions to be respected by State Parties: the dual criminality principle, rules on provisional arrest, extradition of
nationals for fiscal offences and the obligation to consult with the requesting State before refusing extradition.”

Definitions on hazardous waste

- **Basel Convention** defines ‘hazardous’ waste on the basis of the pollutants it contains such as lead, mercury, cadmium, chromium, arsenics, etc. Together with the definition of hazardous waste, international provisions stress the international ban to import any sort of hazardous waste to African states parties to the Bamako Convention, from any state not part of it.
- **Bamako Convention** uses a similar language to that of the Basel convention, but has a stronger reference to the prohibition of all imports of hazardous waste; it does not except on certain types of hazardous waste (like those for radioactive materials) made by the Basel convention.

Gaps, barriers and potential solutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gaps and barriers</th>
<th>Potential Solutions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wide range of crimes associated with it</td>
<td>emphasis should be put on the prevention of environmental crimes in the linked legislations;</td>
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<tr>
<td>transnational</td>
<td>efforts should be harmonized; improvement of institutional collaboration between different agencies and stakeholders involved in environmental protection</td>
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<tr>
<td>lack of internationally recognized definition - only an often used common understanding</td>
<td>create an internationally recognized definition, which addresses environmental crime explicitly</td>
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<tr>
<td>lack of understandings and approaches between and among States – how to combat crimes</td>
<td>existing environmental standards should be systematized</td>
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<tr>
<td>knowledge gap between environmental crimes and corruption</td>
<td>establishment of gap bridging mechanisms; information systems that provide valuable information on companies and can serve as monitoring tools for law enforcement agencies</td>
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<tr>
<td>link between environmental crimes and corruption is to be favored by a number of circumstances; high tax burden, excessive simplification of market regulations and increased transparency</td>
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The way forward

As the identified gaps and barriers demonstrate, despite all of the strides taken towards an internationally enforceable definition on environmental crime, much still needed to be done. Institutional collaboration among stakeholders and agencies needs to be improved as well as the currently existing approaches need to be harmonized. This however cannot be carried out without proper financial support of these gap filling mechanisms that create a unified voice.

Coming to an agreement on the internationally recognized definition on environmental crime will yield further benefits. Not just because these types of crimes will be addressed explicitly, but more emphasis will be put on preventing them from happening with a proper set of comprehensive universal financial and legal instruments. An improved institutional framework between agencies and stakeholders that protects environment could cooperate on an extended basis, working towards combatting these types of crimes. The very creation of such framework could also contribute to the harmonization of monitoring and reporting systems, not just on the
European level but globally. It will also lead to more coordinated, more effective and properly financed policy instruments as well as more efficient enforcement and harsher sentences for perpetrators.

*Vienna, 09 NOV 2019*

**Acknowledgement**

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**References**


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The Asia-Europe Institute was awarded the prestigious Jean Monnet Centre of Excellence (JMCoE) award in September 2017. Through the Jean Monnet Centre of Excellence award, the Asia-Europe Institute has not only widened and deepened the focus on ASEAN-EU Studies but has also disseminated information about EU in Malaysia and elsewhere in the ASEAN region. The JMCoE Activities for the second year (2018-2019), focussed on the political and security dimensions of regional and inter-regional cooperation. Key features of the second year include:

**Ambassador Lecture Series – “The EU and ASEAN: Faced with the Choice of Democracy or Populism” a lecture by H.E. Frédéric Laplanche, the Ambassador of France**

The Asia-Europe Institute hosted H.E. Frédéric Laplanche, the Ambassador of France to Malaysia on January 30, 2019 for the Ambassador’s lecture. H.E. Laplanche gave a talk on the topic “The EU and ASEAN: Faced with the Choice of Democracy or Populism” where he discussed the ongoing political changes happening not only in Europe but in other parts of the world. Ambassador (R) Late Dato’ M. Redzuan Kushairi moderated the event and Associate Professor Dr Sameer Kumar from the AEI was the discussant for the session. Attending guests included the Ambassador of Egypt, Ambassador of Switzerland, the Ambassador of Bosnia & Herzegovina and the High Commissioner of Australia.

**Ambassador Lecture Series – “Direct Democracy: The Swiss Experience” a lecture by H.E. Michael Winzap, Ambassador of Switzerland**

On April 17, 2019, the Asia-Europe Institute hosted the Ambassador Lecture Series featuring H.E. Michael Winzap, Ambassador of Switzerland to Malaysia. The lecture, titled 'Direct Democracy: The Swiss Experience', was moderated by Mr. Wan Saiful Wan Jan, founder and former CEO of IDEAS & Chairman of PTPTN. H.E. Winzap provided a historical overview and explained what is entailed in Switzerland’s direct democracy, noting the much more frequent referendums held compared to other European countries. The session was followed by an engaging Q&A and discussion between the Ambassador and lecture attendees.

**Jean Monnet Special Public Lecture by Dr. Balázs Orbán, Deputy Minister of the Hungarian Prime Minister’s Office**

Dr. Balázs Orbán, Deputy Minister of the Hungarian Prime Minister’s Office visited the Asia-Europe Institute on June 20, 2019. During his visit, he delivered a special lecture on “Hungary and the Central European Countries: Perspectives and Challenges”. The session was moderated by Dr. Rahul Mishra, Senior Lecturer and Coordinator, International Master’s in European Regional Integration (IMERI). The event was attended by His Excellency Ambassador Attila Káli along with other members of the Hungarian mission. Delegates from other embassies in Malaysia were also present.
Ambassador Lecture Series – “World War II: The Polish Experience” a lecture by H.E. Professor Krzysztof Dębnicki, Ambassador of the Republic of Poland to Malaysia

On November 15, 2019 His Excellency Professor Krzysztof Dębnicki, the Ambassador of the Republic of Poland to Malaysia gave a lecture on the Polish experiences of the Second World War. The lecture was held in conjunction with a two-week exhibition on “Polish Citizens during WWII” jointly organised by the Embassy of the Republic of Poland to Malaysia and the Asia-Europe Institute. During the event Dr. Jatswan Singh, the Acting Executive Director, AEI, gave the opening remarks. The session was moderated by Dr. Rahul Mishra, Senior Lecturer and Coordinator, IMERI. The event was attended by embassy representatives from various countries, government officials, academics, representatives from the media, representatives from NGOs and students.

First Europe Day High School Outreach - Sekolah Berasrama Penuh Integrasi Gombak

On May 8, 2018, as part its Jean Monnet Centre of Excellence activities, AEI organized the first High School Outreach programme of the year in conjunction with Europe Day. The event was held on May 8, 2019 at Sekolah Berasrama Penuh Integrasi Gombak (SBPI Gombak) from 3.30 to 5.30 pm. A total of 105 students participated in the day’s event. Dr Rahul Mishra, programme coordinator for the International Masters in European Regionalism at the AEI and Mrs See Yuen Beh, CEO of CirQuLer Global Centre and member of the Erasmus+ Student and Alumni Alliance spoke to 150 Form 5 students about the EU and studying in Europe in order to broaden their knowledge on possible future study paths. Dr. Nurliana Kamaruddin was also present during the event.

Second Europe Day High School Outreach- Methodist Boys’ Secondary School Kuala Lumpur

The Asia-Europe Institute organised the second Europe Day High School Outreach at the Methodist Boys’ Secondary School Kuala Lumpur (MBSSKL) on 10 July 2019. The outreach was organized with support from the Embassy of Hungary and the Embassy of Ireland. His Excellency Attila Káli, Ambassador of Hungary to Malaysia and Dr. Titanilla Tóth Deputy Head of Mission from the Embassy of Hungary in Kuala Lumpur, Senior Education Consultant – ASEAN Education in Ireland, Mr Cormac Kavanagh, the school’s board of directors and Dr. Nurliana Kamaruddin were present in the event. Dr. Rahul Mishra, Senior Lecturer and Coordinator, IMERI gave the closing remarks on behalf of Professor Azirah Hashim, Executive Director of AEI.

The EU-ASEAN Dialogue

The second JMCoE annual conference, titled “Europe in the New Asia: New Anxieties, New Constructs” was held on August 1-2, 2019. It brought together eminent thinkers and academics from more than 10 countries across Asia and Europe to discuss a wide range of topics such as western and non-western approaches to international relations, European and Asian security architectures, and the Belt and Road and Indo-Pacific Initiatives. Key participants in the conference included YBhg Datuk Dr Abdul Rahim Hashim-the Vice Chancellor of the University of Malaya, YB Senator Liew Chin Tong-the Deputy Defence Minister of Malaysia, Professor Amitav Acharya, Ambassador Makio Miyagawa, Tan Sri Mohamed Jawhar Hassan, Mr Enrico Letta-former Prime Minister of Italy, Dr Farish A. Noor from RSIS, Singapore, Prof.
S.D. Muni—former special envoy of the Government of India and emeritus professor, JNU, and YM Raja Dato’ Nushirwan Zainal Abidin, Malaysia’s Ambassador to China.

Comparative Regionalism Workshop 2019

On April 24 and 25, 2019, the institute organized a two-day workshop on Comparative Regionalism in collaboration with the Centre for ASEAN Regionalism University of Malaya. The session was conducted by Dr. Paul Gillespie, Senior Research Fellow at University College Dublin and co-facilitated by Dr. Rahul Mishra, AEI. The workshop’s objective was to expose participants to the field of research on comparative regionalism as well as introduce participants to the use of comparative regionalism and the theory for comparative research. For this two-day workshop, the organizers hoped to create an environment where all the students, researchers and participants are able to collaborate for a mock research design. At the end of the workshop there were group presentations of the proposed or mock research project.

Seminar on Western and non-Western International Relations

A range of Kuala Lumpur-based specialists on international relations-security and foreign policy experts, historians, sociologists, and public policy specialists - gathered at the Asia-Europe Institute on 11 July, 2019 to discuss recent literature on non-Western approaches to international relations. The event was a part of the year two of JMCoE activities. The seminar sought to identify key features of the Western approach. It was noted first that Western thinking has changed over the centuries, and shares characteristics with different forms of non-Western international relations thought.
Addendum


On page 35:

*Include the section:*

“*Acknowledgement:*
This article acknowledges the support of the Jean Monnet Center of Excellence project (Project Number: 586907- EPP-1-2017-1-MY-EPPJMO-CoE).”
Author Guidelines

Submission of articles for Vol. 7, Issue 1 (January 2021 issue) could be done until 15th Aug 2020. Please e-mail your manuscripts to: ae.i.insights@um.edu.my

Scope of Journal: Articles of bi-regional interest covering Asia and Europe which may involve topics related to: ASEAN, ASEM, East Asia, EU, geo-politics, geo-strategies, global governance, international co-operation, international organisations, political economy, regionalism, social issues in bio-diversity, and sustainable development.

Manuscript Style: Authors should format submissions in Times New Roman with a 12-point font size and single-spaced. Manuscripts should follow the American Psychological Association (APA) guidelines. For details of the APA style, kindly refer to http://www.apastyle.org/

Manuscript Length and Language: Article length should be 6,000–8,000 words and include a concise abstract of 200–300 words. Papers must be written using UK English.

Contents of Manuscript: Manuscript layout: 1. Title page, 2. Abstract and key words (up to five key words), 3. Main text, 4. References. Please use footnotes and place tables and figures at the end of the paper.

Contents of Title Page: The title page should include the following information: 1. Title of the manuscript, 2. Name of author(s), 3. Full address of author(s), 4. Telephone and Fax numbers, 5. Email address. The name of author who will handle correspondence should be mentioned in the title page.

Acknowledgement: All sources of research grants sponsored by an organisation should be acknowledged within the manuscript.

Reference Style:
Please follow APA Citation Style (Available in Endnote® citation manager software)

a) In-text citation
In-text citations should consist of surname(s) of author(s) and publication year. For example:
Malaysia has suffered from colonial rule (Ahmad, 2014). Ahmad (2014) suggested that Malaysia has suffered from colonial rule.

b) Book
Author, A. (publication year). Title of book. Location: Name of publisher. For example:

c) Chapter in Book
Author, A. & Author, B. (publication year). Title of article. In Editor, A & B. Editor (eds.), Title of book (pp-pp). Location: Name of publisher. For example:

d) Article
Author, A. & Author, B. (publication year). Title of article. Title of journal, number of volume, pp-pp. For example:

e) Conference proceeding
Author, A. & Author, B. (publication year). Title of article. In Editor, A & B. Editor (eds.), Title of conference proceeding (pp-pp). Location: Name of publisher. For example:

f) Conference presentation
Author, A. & Author, B. (publication year). Title of conference presentation. Paper presented at the name of conference, location. For example:

g) Thesis
Author, A. (publication year). Title of thesis (Doctorial/Master’s thesis). Name of Department, Name of University. For example:

h) Internet material
Author, A. (publication year). Title of internet material. Retrieved from http://www.aaa [accessed on data of access]. For example: