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The challenge of corruption in higher education: the case of Vietnam

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to examine corruption in Vietnam’s higher education system and offer a number of suggestions to address the issue.

Design/methodology/approach – The first section gives an introduction to the current higher education system in Vietnam and examines the factors that influence corruption in higher education. This is followed by a conceptual model of corruption of higher education and places Vietnam within this theoretical context. The final section suggests a number of policies to address the issue of corruption.

Findings – It is argued that if Vietnam is to obtain an international standard educational system, a sea change in both thinking and culture is necessary, particularly from “gatekeeper” entities which control resources and opportunities in higher education by virtue of their location in the higher education system. In particular, the author contends that focus must be placed on reforming the attitude and perception of faculty and administration toward corrupt practices and that, until this occurs, little progress will be made

Originality/value – Scholarly work on corruption in higher education is relatively limited and a newly-emerging topic in the field of educational research. Data are difficult to obtain and with no clear consensus on a definition of corruption, much needs to be done to better understand this issue. Less attention has been paid to examples from the emerging economics of Southeast Asia, with only a few analyzing corruption in Vietnam.

Keywords Vietnam, South East Asia, Developing countries, Higher education, Corruption, Accountability, Transparency, Corruption in education, Education quality

Paper type Conceptual paper

Introduction

The importance of a skilled labor force is critical to the promotion of long-term economic growth. Yet the development of a skilled labor force requires the development of a higher education sector that is efficient, effective and widely accessible. In many countries, however, corruption in the higher education sector undermines such an outcome. This is particularly true in developing and formerly state-socialist countries.

This paper examines corruption in Vietnam’s higher education system and current efforts to curtail it. The paper has three sections. The first section considers the significance of corruption in higher education and provides an introduction to higher education in Vietnam. The second section elaborates a conceptual model of corruption of higher education and extends it to the Vietnamese case. The third section discusses policy implications.

Overall, we will argue that if Vietnam is to obtain an international standard educational system, a sea change in both thinking and culture is necessary, particularly from “gatekeeper” entities who control resources and opportunities in higher education by virtue of their location in the higher education system. In



particular, we contend that focus must be placed on reforming the attitude and perception of faculty and administration toward corrupt practices and that until this occurs little progress will be made. With respect to policy, we suggest programs to improve faculty skills, faculty mentoring, as well as joint and cooperative programs with foreign institutions that, while entailing costs in the short-run, have long-term benefits that can reduce corruption and be an important step in changing the mindset of faculty and administrators. In addition, regulations to discourage and prevent corruption must be enforced. It is imperative that society, particularly the “gatekeepers” better understand that education is a right and privilege, not a commodity to be sold to students for individual gain.

Fighting corruption requires policies that promote transparency and accountability in the education sector, but with limited resources, the best use of funds can be debated. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that combating education corruption is imperative if Vietnam is to continue its development path.

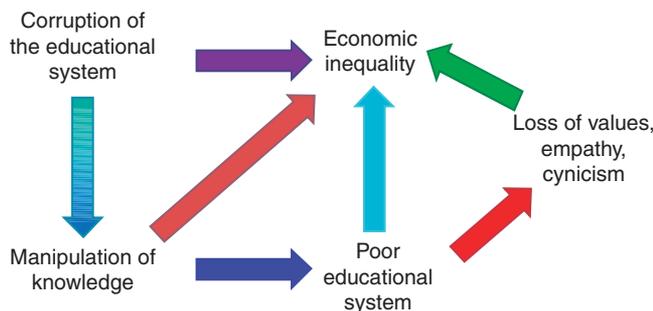
I. Corruption in higher education: the case of Vietnam

Corruption in higher education is often considered more detrimental than corruption in other sectors because of its long-term effects. Not only does corruption hinder equal access to quantity and quality of education, it is harmful to society as businesses and employers find that many college and university graduates do not have the proper skills to compete in the real world (Figure 1).

While the problem itself is significant, scholarly work on corruption in higher education is relatively limited and is only a newly emerging topic in the field of education research. Data are difficult to obtain and with no clear consensus on a definition of corruption much needs to be done to better understand this issue. Recent works by Heyneman (2004, 2007, 2009, 2011), Rumyantseva (2005) and Hallak and Poisson (2007) have addressed various topics related to corruption in education with a number of studies concentrating on the problems of the transition economies of Eastern Europe and Central Asia. Less attention has been paid to examples from the emerging economies of southeast Asia, with only a few analyzing corruption in Vietnam (Nguyen, 2007; McCornac, 2009; Transparency International, 2010).

Higher education in Vietnam

Vietnam, along with many Asian countries, is strongly committed to higher education, dating back to its Confucian roots (Kelly, 2000). However, with the adoption of



Source: Author’s adaptation from Wilson (2010) used with permission

Figure 1.
Corruption of the
educational process

“Doi Moi,” generally translated as economic renovation and the name given to the economic reforms initiated in 1986 with the goal of creating a “socialist-oriented market economy,” Vietnam’s education system has undergone significant change moving away from the former Soviet model to the demands of a market-oriented economy. Article 35 of the Constitution (1992), for example, stipulates that Education and Training are Top-priority Policies and both play a very important part in the human resources development strategy.

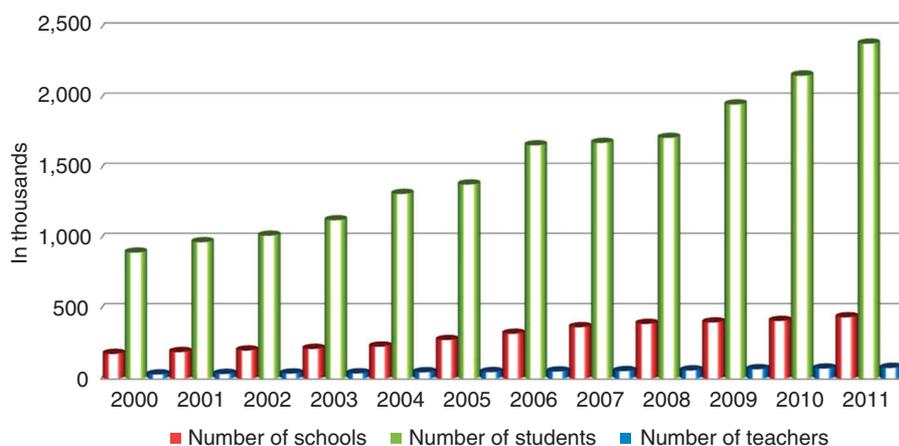
The ambitious goals for the higher education sector are laid out in the Higher Education Reform Agenda, 2006-2020 which has the main objectives of significantly increasing the participation rate in universities; enhancing both the quality and efficiency of the higher education system; expanding research capacity in universities with the goals of improving the quality of teaching and providing a research base for the development of industry and enterprises; initiating and promoting better linkages between education, skills training and the labor market (i.e. “society needs”-based education); and improving governance of the higher education system (Harman *et al.*, 2010). In addition, the Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) aims to have at least one Vietnamese institution recognized and accordingly ranked, as one of the world’s “top” 200 universities by the year 2020 as well as 20,000 PhD holders by 2020.

How best to achieve these goals, of course, is debatable and will require significant financial resources over time. One of the more well-publicized efforts over the past few years to address the inadequacies of its higher education sector is the Vietnamese Government’s agreement in principle to construct four international standard universities with US\$400 million loans from the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank (ADB). Although these efforts remain in the planning stages, the focus on developing world-class institutions that can attract and retain top students and academics will, as Norman LaRocque, the ADB’s senior education specialist, involve trade-offs. More money for top universities may be at the expense of the second- and third-tier institutions within a country. As he notes, “It is a trade-off that governments need to look at and consider: is this a zero sum game?” (Sharma, 2011).

These developments focussing on the physical structure or “hardware” notwithstanding are necessary to improve the quality of education, but they are not guaranteed to be sufficient. For many students, opportunities for higher education in Vietnam remain severely limited, as the system can only accommodate a fraction of those seeking admission. There is a severe shortage of “software” or qualified human resources at all levels of the educational system. In Vietnam, where two-thirds of the population is under the age of 30, universities are struggling to cope with a growing demand.

The number of university students, for example, has increased over 13 times since 1987, but the number of lecturers has only tripled, according to statistics by the MoET (GSO Vietnam, 2011). In 2011, Vietnam’s 440 public and private universities had places for only around one-third of the over 2.3 million individuals desiring to enter higher education. With the number of teachers at less than 80,000, the student-teacher ratio stands at close to 29:1, significantly greater than the less than 20:1 ratio found in countries such as the USA, Japan and the UK (UNESCO). Figure 2 presents data on changes in the number of schools, students and teachers in the higher education sector of Vietnam from 2000 to 2011.

Despite the high student-teacher ratio and heavy workloads required of most professors, salaries remain low forcing individuals to work two or more jobs or find



Source: Adapted from data provided by GSO Vietnam (2011)

Figure 2.
Number of schools,
number of students and
number of teachers in the
higher education sector of
Vietnam, 2000-2011

other means of obtaining financial rewards. The average salary in 2011 was estimated at less than four million Vietnamese dong (VND) (approximately 200 USD) each month, not enough to support a family and declining in real value as a result of inflationary pressures (Ives, 2011).

The low salaries have also forced many lecturers to move to more lucrative careers further putting severe strains on universities and acts as an impediment to enticing new entrants into the field. In Hanoi, for example, the average number of teaching hours of lecturers is reported to be significantly higher (estimated at over 150 percent) than required hours under the current regulations. Some institutions have resorted to staffing a majority of their courses with full-time lecturers from other schools hired on a part-time basis or employing faculty with only a bachelor's degree (McCornac, 2009).

The shortage of faculty is especially severe at the advanced level. Data indicate slightly over 10 percent of faculty hold a doctorate degree, though the term doctorate may be misleading. Many Vietnamese PhDs in general, particularly if educated domestically, are actually educated only to the bachelor's level on the international scale.

Another drawback is the failure of the higher education system to meet the needs of the changing economic structure. The curriculum in public universities in Vietnam, for example, must follow frameworks set by the MoET and the content may have little relevance to emerging labor market needs (World Bank, 2008). The number of graduates in Vietnam is growing rapidly, but skills and creativity often fall short of what employers in growth industries require.

There is also an urgent need for comprehensive reforms such as requiring improvements in teaching staff, changes to teaching methodology, training syllabi and scoring of exams, higher capital budget allocation and the encouragement of scientific research. The content and methods of teaching have been slow to change and the curricula have not been adapted quickly enough to meet society's requirements. Dr The Hung Nguyen, a professor at the Hanoi Agriculture University, recently said "Vietnam's education and training do not resemble to any other education in the world [...] When Vietnamese lecturers show the education curriculums to foreign colleagues, the foreigners say they cannot understand. The curriculums have been

compiled by ourselves and we believe that they are the best. In fact, we do not have connection to the international education” (VietNamNet Bridge, 2012).

The era of Doi Moi, also saw a significant change in the method of financing education in Vietnam. At the end of the 1980s the system changed from one based on principles of universalism and public finance to a hybrid system combining state and non-state provision of education and public and private (i.e. household) responsibility for education finance (London, 2011). This has resulted in the introduction of fees and limited non-state provision of education, particularly at the vocational and higher education levels, with spending on education by household education estimated to account for at least 50 percent of total spending (London, 2011).

An effect of this change in financing has been the commercialization of higher education resulting in crowded public university classrooms, revenue-generating part-time programs and profit-seeking private institutions, as well as decentralization, in which responsibility is being shifted to local governments and universities before appropriate accountability mechanisms have been put in place to ensure the public interest (Harvard Kennedy School Vietnam Program (2010). This has impacted the quality and fostered some of the corrupt practices addressed in this paper.

II. Extending a conceptual model of higher education corruption to Vietnam

There does not appear to be one specific definition of corruption nor a consensus of practices that can be considered corrupt. Because education is an important public good, its professional standards include more than just material goods. Perhaps, the most concise definition of education corruption is offered by Heyneman (2004); education corruption includes the abuse of authority for personal as well as material gain.

Literature shows that corruption has connections with the existence of monopoly and discretionary power, poor governance and supervision at all levels, poor public information on government decisions and lack of transparency (Fritzen, 2005; UNODC, 2002; Rose-Ackerman, 1997).

The factors affecting education corruption can be illustrated by the following formula based on Klitgaard *et al.* (2000):

$$\text{Corruption (C)} = M (\text{Monopoly Power}) + D (\text{Discretion}) - A (\text{Accountability})$$

Monopoly is synonymous to a cartel, a consortium, or having exclusive possession. In many developing countries, the relationship between students and teachers is not equal (or horizontal); rather, it is regarded as a vertical relationship, in which teachers have superior powers over students (Tanaka, 2001).

In Vietnam, this can be attributed to the effect of Confucianism, along with Taoism and Buddhism, which impacts on Vietnamese culture through the concept of filial piety. Filial piety has been commonly practiced in Vietnam and the role of the individual is subjugated to the needs of the group, which is usually the extended family. Based on this practice teachers, regardless of their age or sex, enjoy great respect and prestige in Vietnamese society. The student-teacher relationship retains much of the quality of a son’s respect for his father’s wisdom and of father’s concern for his son’s welfare (Te, 1998).

This aspect of monopoly power can be looked at from a demand/supply (taker/giver) perspective in which teachers have monopolistic power over students in giving

tutorials, grading examination results and marking, entrance/graduation exams. Each of these powers may be corrupted as a source of favors or “rewards” (Tanaka, 2001) as the teachers are a “gatekeeper.”

Discretion: a clear instance would be in a licensing agency. The agency has the option of approving, denying or delaying the transaction and at each stage of the process there incentive for those in power to request illegal payments or services. Applied to education, this discretionary component can take the form of payments required to allow cheating and “over-teaching” (teachers providing answers to exams), as well as the bribing of teachers and/or administrators for higher grades or admittance to universities.

Accountability: this is a question of responsibility. However, the concept of accountability is difficult to translate into Vietnamese and many other languages for that matter and may be affected by customs and cultural factors.

Although the argument has been made that corruption should be accepted as the normal way of doing business in many non-western cultures (Lipset and Lenz, 1999; Eckstein, 1988), United Nations Development Program (UNDP) Vietnam (2006) advocates that this should never be used as a justification for accepting corruption. Transparency International (2011a), which has studied corruption around the world, has found that no culture or society sanctions the abuse of power for personal gain or the siphoning off of public resources into private pockets.

Vietnam’s movement to a market economy has resulted in greater competition in both the education and labor market which has put greater emphasis on exam results, certificates and educations degrees. Hallak and Poisson (2007) note that the higher stakes has encouraged the development of examination malpractices particularly the case in countries, such as Vietnam, where the percentage of candidates admitted to secondary and higher education is very low.

Both teachers and administrator possess power through their professions and are the “gatekeepers” of education, knowledge and qualifications. “Gatekeepers” at different levels of the education system introduce corruption around the particular opportunities and benefits they control. Their motivation is often economic – to supplement their income – but may also be an effort to extend their status or power, create future career opportunities or conform to expectations of those whose patronage they seek (Tanaka, 2001).

However, for such behavior to occur there must be someone willing to pay. In a recent survey of youth values and attitudes toward integrity in Vietnam by Transparency International (2010), individuals were presented various situations in which opportunities for corruption existed and asked to indicate their willingness to participate in scenarios.

When faced with examples of corrupt behaviors, an average of 88 percent of youth considered many behaviors to be wrong, close to the adult average of 91 percent of respondents. However, findings also showed that youth relax their values according to specific situations. For example, when faced with the situation of “exploiting personal relationships to get into a school or company”, close to 40 per cent of youth consider it not to be wrong. The results from additional scenarios are shown in Figure 3.

Further complicating efforts to eliminate, or at least reduce the level of corruption in education is the attitude of parents toward such practices. In a recent report from the MoET (GuidelinesVietnam, 2011), it was determined that parents made the defeat of corruption in schools very difficult because often they were accomplices. Figure 4 looks at parent’s view on corrupt practices.

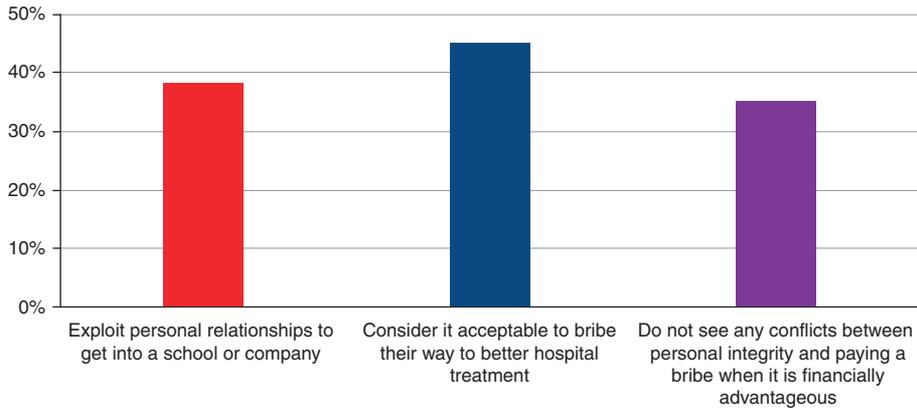


Figure 3.
Willingness of youth to take decisions which violate integrity in different situations

Notes: Adapted from Youth Integrity in Vietnam – piloting Transparency International’s Youth Integrity Survey. Copyright 2011 Transparency International: the global coalition against corruption. Used with permission. For more information, visit <http://www.transparency.org>

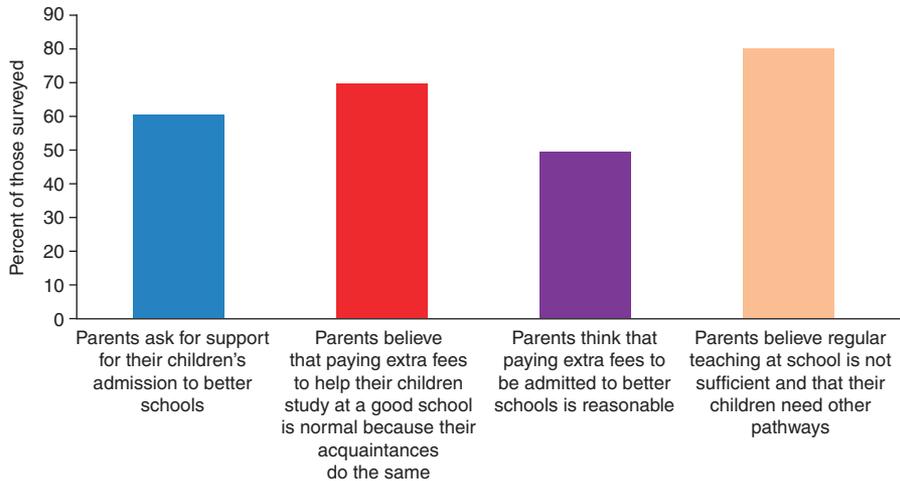


Figure 4.
Parent’s view on corrupt practices – all educational levels

Notes: Adapted from Youth Integrity in Vietnam – piloting Transparency International’s Youth Integrity Survey. Copyright 2011 Transparency International: the global coalition against corruption. Used with permission. For more information, visit www.transparency.org

Corruption behaviors

One of the central problems in combating corruption is the difficulty in clearly defining the behaviors that constitute it. Two of the most commonly mentioned forms of behavior generally classified as corrupt practices that involve the “gatekeepers” are for:

- Enrollment and registration: corruption is paid to enroll an individual in a college or university if enrollment based on qualification is not certain.

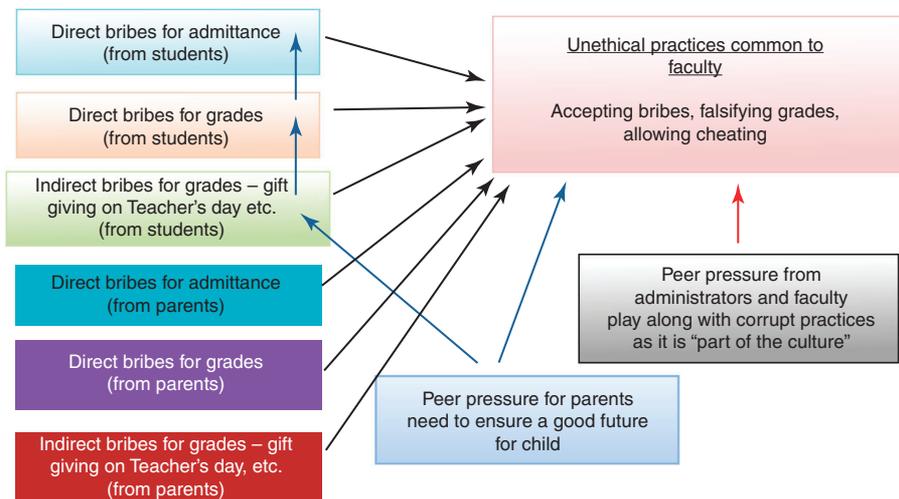
- Exams and grades: teachers ask for corrupt payment when students have tests or students pay to receive better results.

All of these behaviors are ample examples of blatant fraud and bribery, in which education officials at all levels demand some form of payoff for themselves, family or friends in return for their help in shaping the outcome of contracts, implementation efforts, distribution systems, etc. While mechanisms may vary, there is wide agreement that these practices are corrupt (Tanaka, 2001). A typical trail of corruption in education is presented in Figure 5.

In an earlier study by McCornac (2008), informal surveys were conducted in various classes taught by the author during his teaching in Vietnam over the past decade. The sample size was approximately 150 first-year university level undergraduate students and 100 first-year university graduate students. In addition, in-depth interviews were carried out with close to 35 students at various levels, 13 teachers and five administrators. These in-depth interviews were conducted in a semi-structured format with a heavy emphasis on open-ended questions.

The information from students, faculty and administrators provided clear indications that corruption in higher education in Vietnam is both rampant and institutional. Corruptive practices are the norm rather than the exception and foster an environment of distrust and suspicion on the part of those forced to participate in this system.

In the informal survey of classes more than 95 percent of the students reported they had cheated at least once in a class and all had observed situations of cheating by other students. Cheating is looked at as being so common that many are of the opinion that to not to do so puts oneself at a disadvantage. Social and peer pressure play a significant role in the decision to cheat and cheating is looked at as a necessary component of the educational experience. Both students and faculty also commented that cheating is “just part of Vietnamese culture.” However, the practice of gift giving has often been exploited to mask a corrupt practice in the disguise of a cultural expectation.



Source: Developed by author

Figure 5. A trail of corruption in education

Vietnamese Teachers' Day, held each year on November 20, is one such example of a custom that has slowly evolved into an income-generating scheme for teachers and a means for parents and students to influence educational outcomes. A recent paper in VietNamNet Bridge (2011b) points out:

Many years ago, colorful flowers seemed to be the biggest and most valuable gifts to teachers. However, nowadays, students give teachers "envelopes" instead of flowers, because they think that teachers can use the money to buy the things they want, while flowers prove to be useless and they wither rapidly. If a teacher receives 500,000 dong on the teachers' day from every student, the total sum of money he receives on that day is really big, if noting that there are about 50 students in every class [...] one teacher has revealed that the envelopes bring the income which is even higher than the salary she gets from the State. The envelopes have helped her clear debts and she hopes she can buy luxury motorbikes the next year.

III. Policy Suggestions to Address the Problem of Corruption

Corruption in education comes about from competition for limitations on opportunities for both the buyer and seller. As previously discussed, corrupt practices are sometimes perpetrated by teachers and administrators (the "gatekeepers") who are severely underpaid and their corruption may be interpreted by some as a reasonable adaptive response to a difficult situation. Payments in the form of bribes and disguised gifts are used to complement the low income. Chapman (2002) contends that this very type of petty corruption – and what it teaches students – that poses the greatest risk to the long-term fabric of a society. While low salaries motivate teacher corruption, raising salaries does not necessarily reduce that corruption (Di Tella and Schargrodsky, 2003). Raising salaries is a necessary but not a sufficient intervention to reduce corruption, once entrenched.

What are the policies that should be implemented? Figure 6 (Boehm, 2011) presents a general framework for addressing the phenomena of corruption which are labeled the

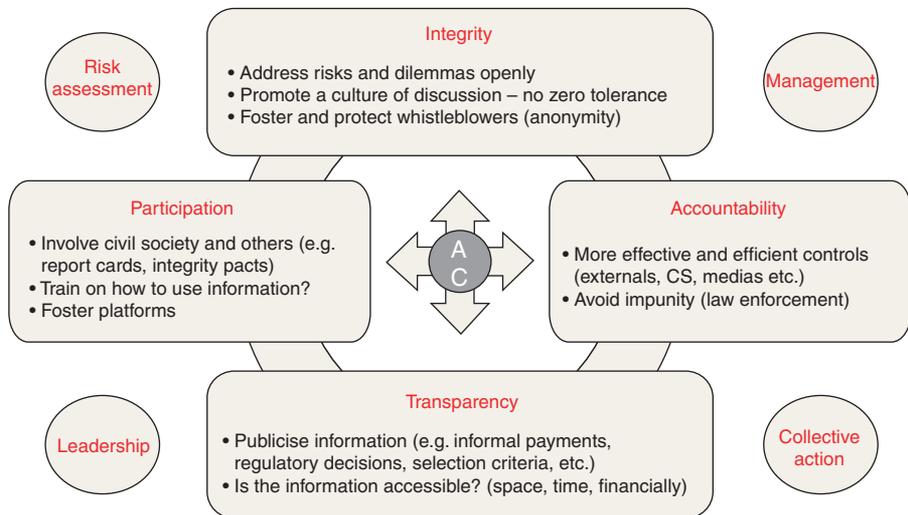


Figure 6.
The pillars of anticorruption

Source: Boehm (2011), used with permission

pillars of anticorruption. These focus on the important areas of integrity, participation, accountability and transparency. Being able to address all these issues is the ideal, but may not be feasible from an economic standpoint.

Temple and Petrov (2004) suggest that the answer is not found in the attempt to find technical fixes for corruption: some new procedures or checks, for example, or even “a complete overhaul of the administration.” Nor are they keen on the grafting of Western methods, – for example by adopting US-style Boards of Trustees. This would simply be to create profitable new sites of corruption. Temple and Petrove advocate a wider focus on the broader political and social context, on the strengthening of civil society through the creation of social capital, inside but also outside higher education concluding that the problem of corruption in the university lies beyond the campus. Strengthening civil society, however, is a long-term process and there is no one best method to achieve such a goal. Nevertheless, a number of changes can be implemented in the short term to begin the process (Figure 6).

A number of general recommendations to address the “gatekeepers” are well discussed by Poisson (2010) and include:

- The development of transparent regulation systems and standards: this requires the definition of an explicit policy framework that describe the rights and obligations of the profession, particularly teachers.
- Building management capacity: the strengthening and training of all players involved in management processes – school management committees, parents and teachers associations, unions and civil-society organizations.
- Fostering greater ownership of the processes by the community at large to avoid the existence of monopoly.

These general recommendations, it can be argued, are necessary, but again they may not be sufficient. In addition, cost considerations must be taken into consideration. While organizations such as the World Bank and UNDP are generally good intentioned and offer comprehensive training programs designed to address education corruption, these program are often costly. There is also no guarantee, that the programs are themselves do not have elements of corruption and may focus more on maximizing funding rather than addressing the problem. In addition, partners in implementation, such as the domestic educational authorities, act as “gatekeepers” in the carrying out of programs and could have a stake in continuing the status quo.

Based on comprehensive research, along with experiences by the author with corruption in Vietnam, the following additional recommendations to fight corruption in higher education with a focus on the “gatekeepers” are offered. These suggestions would not only serve to reduce corruption, but would also foster improvement in the skills of the faculty.

A. Concentrate on improving the skills of the faculty

Although corruption in education has recently come to light in developed countries, particularly involving standardized tests for entrance to higher education institutions, the selling of grades, cheating on exams and payments for admittance are relatively rare. This can be attributed to severe penalties for those caught in such activities as well as institutional and social mindsets that condemn such behavior. In addition, the competition for employment creates an incentive for graduates to prove themselves as individuals.

Thus, to address various corrupt activities in higher education in Vietnam, faculty and administration must be exposed to systems in which corruption is the exception, not the norm. Ideally, faculty members would be sent abroad to quality post-graduate programs to obtain advanced degrees in their particular field. Not only would faculty receive high-level training, they would be able to observe the workings of other economies and different teaching methodologies. This would be a form of cooperative education in that the work environment for faculty would be the classroom of the international institution. Hopefully the practical skills learned would be transferred to home colleges and university and returning faculty members who fill positions within their departments and institutes would provide the resources for internal reform.

The study abroad option, unfortunately, in many countries may be cost prohibitive generally limited to a few selected individuals. However, the long-term benefits of this investment in human capital are expected to outweigh any short-term costs, particularly if these individuals could be recruited into administrative programs in the future.

A less costly, but perhaps with a lower expected rate of return, is the option to conduct faculty training in Vietnam. Such programs involve foreign faculty teaming with local faculty to both develop curriculum and teach courses. The benefits accrue not only to the participants in the program, but also to the faculty team members who often learn new and more effective ways of teaching. This can foster changes in teaching methodology, curriculum and address the significant problems of cheating and plagiarism that may rampant in the local educational system. Education administrators and representatives of the MoET in Vietnam have also suggested that following a foreign modern education model would be advantageous in the efforts to renovate the curriculums (VietNamNet Bridge, 2012).

B. Faculty and administrator mentoring

Over the past decade, a number of universities have undertaken cooperative or joint programs with foreign institutions and foreign institution have set up campuses in Vietnam. Although some of these programs have been suspect and fraudulent, a number of reputable institutions have survived and grown and meet international standard.

The success of the various programs such as the Fulbright Economics Teaching Program and Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology Vietnam is an indication of the benefit of faculty and administrator mentoring. In such cases, foreign faculty member are paired with local faculty with the foreign faculty serving as teaching and research mentors.

In addition to the transfer of knowledge in a given disciplines, the foreign faculty can be particularly helpful in conveying modern teaching methodologies and pedagogy. Emphasis will need to be placed on explaining concepts of plagiarism, cheating and academic integrity.

The foreign faculty member must fully understand the role of a mentor – that is one who advises or gives recommendations – and should not interpret mentoring as a one-way street and it does not imply the mentor must be in the position of authority. There is knowledge to be gained from both sides and it must be fully understood that educational system which Vietnam develops for the future will have western and non-western characteristics.

C. Enforcement of anticorruption laws

Engaging in corrupting is more prevalent with the risks are low, the penalties mild and the rewards great (Klitgaard *et al.*, 2000). In Vietnam, the risk of being caught is relatively low and the benefit is perceived as high. This applies to the “gatekeepers” as well as students and parents. Parents must be made aware that the proper awareness and perception of the effects corruption has on the quality of and access to education and to make them understand that the “acceptance” or “resignation” with regard to corruption will harm their children in the future. At the same time, stakeholders such as managers, principals and teachers must resolutely say no to bribes from parents. Fairness in respect of the education system are at stake (Transparency International, 2011b).

While laws and regulations issued by the Vietnamese government addressing corruption have proliferated over the past decade, the enforcement has been lax. Although the MoET has implemented programs to educate society on the negative effects of corruption and newer and stricter measures on national exams have been adopted much more needs to be done. Increased media attention on corruption and its harmful effects is a step in the right direction, but society must change its awareness and perception of the various forms of corruption and consider corruption as a significant risk that deteriorates the traditional values and the quality of Vietnam’s future human resources (Transparency International, 2011b).

Conclusion

This paper has examined the situation of corruption in higher education in Vietnam and argues Vietnamese higher education system is in need of serious reform. Corruption is endemic and actions must be taken to change the environment in which these practices flourish. To address these issues, focus must be places on the “gatekeeper” entities who control resources and opportunities in higher education by virtue of their location in the system. Changes and reform must occur in the attitude and perception of faculty and administration toward corrupt practices. While there is a general frustration on all sides with the status quo, there is also certain helplessness that the current situation cannot be changed. Fighting corruption will require policies that promote transparency and accountability in the education sector and combating education corruption is imperative if Vietnam is to continue its development path. Perhaps, most importantly, there must be a monumental change in the attitude and thinking by students, faculty and parents to recognize that education is a right and privilege that is earned, not a commodity to be sold by administrators and faculty.

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