

International Education and Developing Countries: Research and Educational Collaboration in the Field

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Conducting collaborative fieldwork between American researchers and foreign scholars in developing countries is a difficult prospect for political scientists. Yet, we can use our knowledge and position at an American university to contribute to the academic community in our areas of study and establish lasting personal and institutional ties with our host institutions. This article proposes several ways in which a collaborative-training and research program that can help American professors and students develop long-term relationships with their overseas colleagues. First, direct involvement in training local students and faculty from our host institutions can improve the quality of our data and research. Second, American scholars can reduce host university costs by developing institutional ties with smaller more enthusiastic host universities rather than the top academic institutions in their respective host countries. Third, we can teach American students how to practice collaborative-training research. Whether our political science students go on to become academics, government officials, or business consultants, the relationships they establish in developing countries can last well beyond their academic career.

Keywords collaborative research, developing countries, non-democracies, study abroad

In March 2005, Representatives Jim Kolbe (R-AZ) and Jim Oberstar (D-MN) introduced a resolution to Congress for the establishment of an international education policy, “to foster mutual understanding among nations” (H. Con. Res. 100).¹ The resolution reflects the language in the 2003 report by the NAFSA: Association of International Educators on the need to expand the international competence of American students and educational institutions. Both the NAFSA report (May 2003) and the resolution stress four areas of international education: (1) additional classes in foreign language and foreign area studies at American educational institutions, (2) increasing the number of American students studying abroad, (3) facilitating the process for foreign students to study in America, and (4) increasing international research and collaboration. The proposed policy has direct implications for American political science particularly in the fields of comparative politics and international relations. However, while the resolution poses a challenge for all fields of education in the social sciences and the humanities regarding costs and international opportunities, the connection between training foreign scholars and research collaborations presents a unique problem for political science.

The problem involves the unequal opportunities for international collaborations among American scholars and the difference in social science training between

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American and non-American scholars, particularly foreign scholars in developing countries and non-democracies. Varshney (2004), reporting on the September 2004 American Political Science Association's (APSA) international committee meeting, begins to address these challenges. He points out two areas where the problems of collaboration exist. First are the differences in social science methodological training between foreign and American scholars. Second is that the opportunities for international collaboration among American scholars vary by individual and academic institution. Although Varshney (2004) raises the general issues and problems regarding international collaboration, it is unclear which American individuals and institutions have the fewest opportunities. Moreover, it is unclear how methodological training differs among American and foreign researchers.

Addressing the issues Varshney (2004) raised, Breuning (2005) makes two important clarifications. First, the unequal opportunities in international collaboration and institutional resources are, in part, based on the difference between liberal arts colleges and research universities.

The main point is that liberal arts institutions primarily focus on teaching with few resources for collaborative research and international fieldwork. The second clarification is the difference between international scholars and training in social science. The disparity in social science theory and training is quite large between scholars in developed and developing countries especially in non-democracies. Breuning (2005) identifies that the problem for collaboration in non-democratic societies is that academics often play a greater role in political life. As a result, there is a lesser focus on generalizability, theory, and quantification. Moreover, she correctly suggests that, "One of the values that cross-national cross-fertilization might impart on American scholars is reassessment of what our scholarship contributes to our (and other) societies" (161). Collaboration between American scholars and academics in developing and non-democratic societies can be mutually beneficial. However, this is where unequal opportunities and resources are most apparent. American scholars from both research and liberal arts institutions have greater resources for international collaboration than most academics in developing countries.

Although local scholars in developing countries have a strong desire for collaborative research and training in social science research methods, their resources are few. For many of these scholars, it is impossible to come to the United States. Thus, if the vast majority of scholars in developing countries have no resources to study in the United States or even attend conferences and workshops, then how can American researchers in comparative politics and international relations bridge the gap between American and non-American methodological training in developing countries?

While Breuning (2005) identified the problems involved in international collaboration, I propose one concrete method of fieldwork that applies how our scholarship can contribute to our (and other) societies. American researchers in comparative politics and international relations (IR) can introduce social science research methods that focus on generalizability, theory, and quantification *in the field*. The collaborative-training method of fieldwork was developed during my own research in Mainland China between 2000–2004 and may serve as an example of cross-fertilization of research methods and international education.

This article proceeds as follows. In the first section I use the China case to address the question: What can American political scientists in the comparative fields and IR offer to academics and university students in developing countries?

We can offer our own research skills in the form of training sessions and curriculum development in the social sciences. This can bridge the gap between methodological differences through the introduction of a common research language. The key is to identify the research methods that your foreign colleagues wish to develop. I also provide details about the nature and process of the training program. In the second section, I present an example of a collaborative-research design that is a direct result of the training sessions and the survey fieldwork in China. In the third section I offer a generalized approach to the collaborative-training method of fieldwork that includes the participation of nongovernment organizations (NGOs). Finally, I address the issue on how we, as faculty, can teach American students to develop their own collaborative relationships with academic institutions (or NGOs) in developing countries.

What Do We Have to Offer and to Whom?

In 2000, I set out to conduct my dissertation fieldwork in rural northwest China. In order to complete the fieldwork, I needed the collaboration and help from colleagues at Northwest University (Xida) in Xian, China. When I inquired about how many students understood survey design and sampling methods I was told that the undergraduate and graduate students had not received this type of training, but they had a strong desire to learn. Classes on survey research methods are not new to China, but most of the social science training is confined to east coast universities such as Peking and Qinghua Universities in Beijing. These are considered the Harvard and MIT of China. The survey research programs at these top schools are a product of American- and European-trained Chinese social scientists returning to the top Chinese universities. For example, since 1995, Peking University offers classes on survey research methods and has established one of the top survey research centers in China. However, the vast majority of universities, such as Xida, do not have the trained faculty to develop a social science research methods curriculum. My Chinese colleagues (faculty at Xida) and I designed a four-week intensive course on research methods and analysis. After the short course, we had 12 well-trained enumerators, and we conducted a survey of Shaanxi province in 2000 (and in 2004). In addition, the four-week training session eventually became a semester-long course. As a result, my Chinese colleagues developed a new (additional) curriculum, and I developed an institutional relationship with Xida that has lasted well beyond my graduate career.

The reason I choose Xida is because I had made friends with professors and students who had a similar interests in rural political development. I have a natural connection with these scholars based on our shared passion to learn how political institutions influence the lives of Chinese villagers. In addition, they have a strong desire to collaborate with an American researcher because of their limited opportunity to work with foreign scholars and distance from Beijing. Peking (Beijing) University in Beijing has well-established academic ties with Harvard University and top schools in Japan and South Korea. Therefore, smaller American colleges and universities basically have to wait in line to develop academic exchanges. However, the vast majority of Chinese scholars at smaller, but respectable, universities outside of Beijing are much more enthusiastic toward developing academic ties with foreign scholars. Since the 1990s, Chinese scholars outside of Beijing have had access to new Chinese social science journals and the Internet (foreign social science journals) but have had little or no opportunity to collaborate with American political

scientists. Thus, American scholars looking for collaboration with foreign counterparts may choose to avoid the top universities and establish relationships with smaller more eager foreign researchers and institutions.

The next step is identifying the methodology or research approach your colleagues at the host institution desire to develop. This is engaged academic collaboration. It involves sharing knowledge and scholarship with university scholars especially when a need for curriculum development in a specific educational area exists. In my case, it is quantitative research methods, survey design, and simple data analysis. My research site is in northwest China, Shaanxi province and my host institution is Northwest University (Xida) in Xian. It is a regional university with few international connections. The faculty, students, and resources are all local. I made friends with professors in the School of Business, Sociology and Political Science who shared similar interests in studying local governance, citizen participation, and land management in rural northwest China. We wanted to explore these issues through survey research.² Although we shared the same topics of study, we lacked a similar *research language* regarding sampling methods, questionnaire design, and interviewing techniques. This is the educational imbalance that Varshney (2004) and Breuning (2005) suggest is one of the main problems with international collaborations between American and foreign scholars.

Throughout the 1990s, Xida professors and graduate students in the social sciences have had limited experience with survey research. Before 2000, the only exposure to survey work was when scholars from Beijing along with their graduate students and foreign collaborators conducted survey research in the region. However, while the Beijing students were well trained in survey methods and techniques, they were unfamiliar with the regional customs and dialect of northwest China. This posed a problem with survey reliability as well as with respondent and interviewer interaction. In order to address these issues, some Beijing researchers began to train the Xida graduate students, who are from the region, for a half-day on how to conduct the interviews and to fill out the questionnaires.³ Still, the problem of measurement error—the discrepancy between respondent's attributes and their survey responses—is a significant issue. According to an article in the *Annual Review of Political Science*, "In countries with shorter traditions of survey research and less well-trained field force, there may be greater interviewer variability in the conduct of the interview (e.g., in how strictly they adhere to the interviewer instructions)."⁴ In order to address this problem, my colleagues and I developed an intensive four-week training course that introduces students to the complete survey process. The four-week course is a condensed Chinese version of the introduction to political science research methods course I teach at the University of Kansas, and in 2005–2006 we designed the full semester course in Chinese.⁵

We have taught this four-week summer course in 2000 and 2004, and each week we covered sections on research design, questionnaire construction, sampling methods, and simple data analysis. I mention "we" because several of my Chinese colleagues and I designed the summer course together. In 1999, we translated my notes and portions of my political science texts on statistical analysis. I also found one Chinese text on social science research methods at the Peking University bookstore. My colleagues and I team-taught the course, and the class met Monday–Friday for three hours a day. In addition, we limited the class size to 20 students and faculty. Most of the graduate students and participating faculty came from the Politics, Sociology, and History departments as well as the School of Business.

In these departments, the research approach is based on descriptive case studies. Thus, the summer course started with identifying a clear research question, dependent and independent variables and generating testable hypotheses. The second week focused on how to operationalize variables and the types of measurements (nominal, ordinal, and ratio). This also includes questionnaire construction and interviewing techniques. In the third week, we discuss sampling methods. Random selection and representative samples are new concepts for the students at Xida. In the fourth week, we introduce simple data analysis such as bivariate and multivariate descriptive tables, Chi Square, correlation, and linear regression. Throughout the course we use examples from the survey instrument we plan to use in the field. Although this is a crash course on research design and survey methods, I believe that with a good textbook, clear lecture notes, and a series of handouts, students are able to walk away from the training session with a tremendous amount of information. At the end of the course, the students go out into the field to conduct the survey.

However, I did face some institutional and cultural obstacles while teaching the summer course and attempting to establish a social science curriculum. In the class, I found that it was difficult to get the Chinese students to ask questions. They are trained to pay close attention to lectures (i.e., the professors) and write down the main points to remember. They do not ask questions or engage the professors. I had to explain to them that in order for me to understand what they are learning (or not learning) I need them to ask questions. In addition, I had to convince my Chinese colleagues, who were also teaching the class with me, to engage the students and to encourage them to ask questions. By the third week, both the students and my colleagues finally began to ask questions to allow open discussion in class.

Of course, before the summer training sessions and semester courses could begin, my colleagues and I needed to get permission from department heads and the dean. At first, the older generation of professors resisted the introduction of new research methods. These more established professors felt threatened by the new approach to research. On the other hand, the younger faculty members were much more supportive of the new classes: They understood the concept of a common research language, and the new classes offered them a chance to advance their research and careers. The key was to win over the dean. In typical Chinese fashion, the final deal was worked out over dinner. The main argument was that the new classes and subsequent research and publications would make Xida more visible on a national level. In addition, I also made it clear that, although I would introduce the quantitative research methodology I learned at an American university, I would not suggest that these methods are *better* than the current methods taught at Xida, nor would I encourage the participating Xida faculty to scrap their curriculum in favor of the methods I introduced. What I would offer is an *additional set* of research tools and a common research language that will facilitate collaboration between scholars inside and outside of China.

Another possible obstacle can be the national education policy and the content of the classes and research design. In a non-democracy, such as China, the central government education policy tends to focus on the hard sciences rather than the social sciences. In fact, authoritarian leaders may restrict the availability of social science courses to college students because too many students analyzing social and political issues can be problematic. American scholars will learn whether or not a class is acceptable to teach from their foreign colleagues. Currently in China, there is no national policy to restrict a social science curriculum. Indeed, the greatest

obstacles are local (see above). Nevertheless, I have to be careful not to use “sensitive topics” as examples in class such as family planning or the prison system (i.e., human rights). More importantly, I have to avoid sensitive issues in my survey questionnaires. My Chinese colleagues tell me whether or not a research topic or survey question is sensitive. Listen to your colleagues. This is the most critical factor for American scholars collaborating with foreign scholars in a non-democracy: *we come home, but our foreign colleagues remain in their country.*

Collaborative-Research Design (Example)

Since the first survey collaboration in 2000, my colleagues at Xida and I established a training and research center called the Northwest Socio-economic Development Research Center (NSDRC).⁶ The center is designed to teach a common research language that social science faculty and graduate students can use among themselves as well as with researchers from Beijing and foreign universities. It also enhances the level of collaboration between American and foreign scholars. For example, before we conducted the 2000 and 2004 survey that randomly sampled 432 villagers in 34 villages, three faculty members and participating graduate students (i.e., interviewers) at Xida developed their own research design and questions on the survey instrument.⁷ The involvement of local faculty and graduate students meant that the interviewers also have a stake in conducting the survey correctly. This can reduce measurement error at the interviewer level.

The one of the main topics of research for the Chinese scholars at Xida is the management of collective land in rural Shaanxi province. No one owns land in China; village committees lease the land to villagers. Moreover, village leaders periodically redistribute land among the farmers due to demographic changes such as births, deaths, and marriage. Xida researchers have observed that some village leaders make fair land adjustments while others do not. What explains the variation? Before the introduction of survey research methods (i.e., the training course and NSDRC), the researchers at Xida approached the problem through the interview and case study method. Although the method provided in-depth data about the process of land adjustment for a few families in a couple of villages, the approach lacked the focus on generalizability, theory, and quantification. My colleagues at Xida realized that the research question they were asking (explaining the variation between villages and villagers) required a different approach. After the several faculty members and graduate students attended the intensive training sessions on survey methods, they wrote up a new research design and several questions on the 2000 survey.

The previous cases studies revealed two possible explanations for the perceived fairness of land redistribution. One is the wealth of the village. In poorer villages, the farmers are more dependent on the land and the redistribution is more likely to be contested increasing the perception of unfairness. The alternative explanation is based on the how the village leader is selected (i.e., the election process) and identifying the leader’s constituents. My Chinese colleagues at Xida used the data from their questions as well as additional survey questions I wrote for my own research design on village elections. Thus, from one survey we addressed several research designs (i.e., research questions). The participating Chinese faculty and graduate students directly applied what they learned in the training sessions and, for the first time, they were able to quantify villager’s attitudes towards land adjustments. In addition,

based on the sample, they were able to make a generalization about Shaanxi province (see Appendix 1).

The result of the 2000 survey collaboration has led to the establishment of the NSDRC as well as two coauthored publications. One publication is in an English political science journal on China and another in a top Chinese journal on social science research.⁸ In fact, a coauthored publication is one measure of a successful collaboration and can be a tremendous boost for your foreign colleagues. For Chinese professors at smaller universities outside of Beijing, a coauthorship in an English publication or a coauthorship with an American researcher in a top Chinese journal will advance their careers. This is one of the best ways we can help our foreign colleagues. For my Chinese colleagues at Xida, the key to their success in publication and research endeavors is learning the same research language that Chinese social scientists use in the top universities in Beijing.

Generalized Approach Towards Engaged Academic Collaboration

The academic and research collaborative experience is not restricted to China or academic institutions. I believe many aspects of the collaborative-training method (both quantitative and qualitative research methods) can be adopted under different settings such as Latin America, Africa, and Central Asia. In addition, the collaborative-training method of fieldwork also applies to members of nongovernment organizations (NGOs) who desire to develop their data collection and analysis skills. In fact, for some American political scientists, the connection with a NGO may be more fruitful than collaboration with a local academic institution. NGOs focus on specific areas of research and policy, such as environmental issues or women's rights. Thus, it may be easier for American scholars to identify natural connections with foreign colleagues in NGOs that address particular social issues such as women's health or water pollution. The skill sets that American political scientists can offer NGOs range from grant writing (international grants) to policy analysis.

In my experience, this academic engagement starts with a collaborative relationship with professors at a host university and identifying the areas that coincide with the researchers' skills and the host unit's research needs. Once the area(s) of research needs are identified, the next step is to set up meetings or conferences focusing on extended workshop and curriculum design (see Figure 1A). Depending on the amount of time and money, this may be an extended workshop on research methods or a semester-long course involving teacher training and course material.⁹ Whether it is a one-, two- or three-month course, the students from the host university are in the classroom learning the theory and concepts of research design and analysis. In the last part of the course, the students are introduced to the professor's complete research design including theory, measures, and types of data. Then the students are sent into the field to collect the data (i.e., conduct the survey). The purpose of student activity is twofold. One is to connect theory and practice at the end of the course. This provides the student with hands on practical experience in social science research, so that they can better assess the literature (i.e., other survey work in published sources) or conduct their own surveys. Second is to provide the professors at the host university and their American counterparts with skilled interviewers for collaborative research projects.

The collaborative-training research is associated with the workshop and curriculum design such that professors and the students at the host university are full

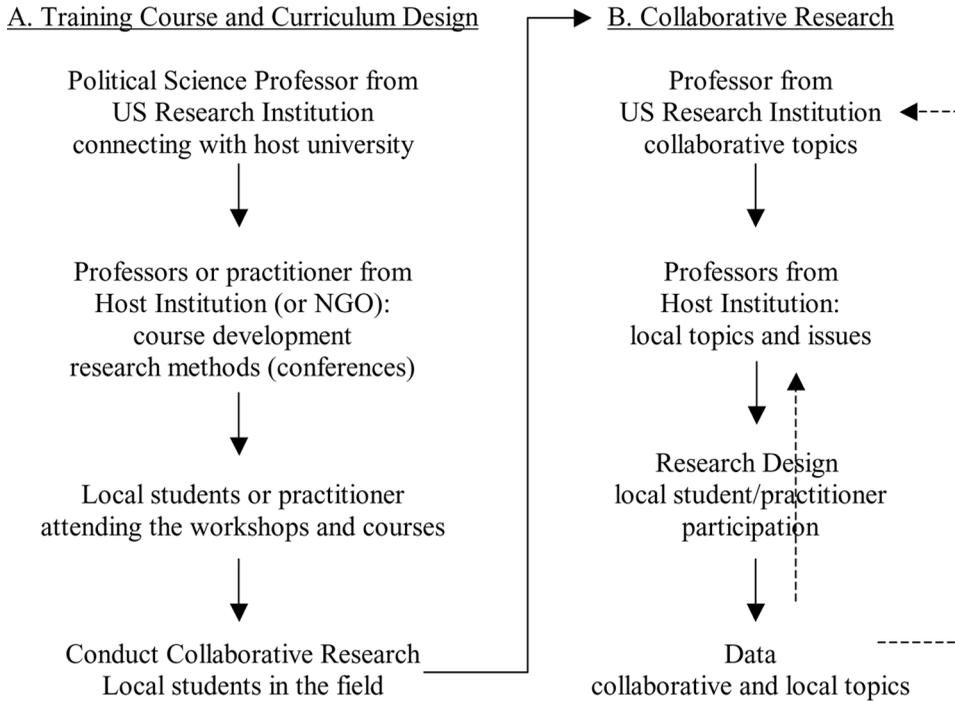


Figure 1. Collaborative training and research process.

participants in the research. It is important that our colleagues, such as the professors, students, and practitioners working in NGOs, are allowed to make contributions to the research design. This type of joint research project will provide data for the American scholar as well as for the professors and students at the host institution (see Figure 1B). Because all the participants have learned the same research language we can share the data and can continue to develop new projects. More importantly, collaborative research and training contributes to local capacity building enhancing local scholarship and policy analysis (i.e., solving local problems).

University Service and Teaching American Students

Research and training collaboration can also contribute to our university service and teaching American students. Many American universities stress terms, such as “Globalization,” “Global Interaction,” and “Internationalization,” as university goals. The curriculum development and collaborative research we conduct at our host universities contribute to these goals. Moreover, after (or even before) the educational contribution is complete, it is possible to establish formal institutional ties between the American university and the host university through a memorandum of understanding (MOU). Most American universities have a template for the MOU. These can be a measure of Global Interaction or Internationalization and may also contribute to university service.¹⁰ However, there is one caveat about MOUs. The actual

contribution to university service may vary depending on the size of the American academic institution, the number of existing MOUs, and the actual *interaction* between the universities. For example, the University of Kansas has over a hundred MOUs, but less than half represent core relations where faculty and student exchanges frequently occur. Since the 2004 MOU between Xida and University of Kansas (KU), faculty from the KU School of Design have visited Xida, and several student groups have stayed at Xida during summer China trips. Moreover, in June 2006, the NSDRC at Xida arranged for a KU student group to stay at a village and to live with villagers for two days. This is a unique experience for American undergraduates and difficult to arrange. Despite this caveat, MOUs are important references for internal and external grant applications as well as contributing to university service.

I believe that we can teach as well as practice research and educational collaboration in American universities by providing our students with methods (and examples) on how to engage their host universities. An increasing number of graduate and undergraduate students are traveling abroad to countries in the developing world for language and research. We can operationalize “globalization” by preparing our students how to use their acquired skills to develop personal and institutional relationships in developing countries. Yet, many American students do not realize that they do have something to offer students and possibly scholars in developing countries. We can help our students identify possible contacts and their own academic strengths (i.e., what they have to offer). This can facilitate natural connections with foreign students and professors. Bowman and Jennings (2005) make a similar argument regarding study-abroad programs, but they focus on how the American professors (in-country program directors) can combine their own fieldwork and student participation in research. This is an excellent model for undergraduate research participation in a study-abroad program. However, I am interested in how students (especially graduate students) can establish their own academic (or professional) relationships in *their* field of interest. We can encourage our students, who plan to travel abroad for language or preliminary research, to use the Internet and to learn about political science departments and professors or to carefully research the NGO before they leave the country. We can guide them about proper modes of introduction. One suggestion I also give my students is that when they find a professor to work with they should read some of his or her publications before they introduce themselves. Once in the country, *motivated* students can seek out professors and students studying topics in their area of interest.

Language training is an important part of the study-abroad experience, but language is not enough. We can teach our students how to use their language training as a tool to meet like-minded scholars, researchers, and students. Moreover, local scholars can introduce American political science students to local communities and government institutions that they would otherwise have no access or opportunity to visit. Of course, we cannot expect every student to immediately establish training courses and collaborative research in their field of study, but we can teach our students how to use their knowledge and university experience to make the connections and to establish relations with students and instructors at their host university. It can be a great starting point that can build lasting personal and professional relationships. This is a particularly important step for students interested in developing or non-democratic countries.

Conclusion

The NAFSA: Association of International Education call to increase international research and collaboration especially in the social sciences is an important goal. While academic engagement is one possible method to achieve this goal in developing countries, there are limitations regarding research costs and content. For smaller American universities, international travel and research is costly. The amount of money spent on a given research project will depend on the country and the host university. Some universities may charge a user fee for foreign scholars to occupy an office and to use the university facilities. Of course, the type of research will also determine the costs. Large surveys are expensive, while smaller projects require less funding. In addition, some foreign colleagues use much of their own time and money to facilitate research. In my opinion, these colleagues should be compensated. However, compensation does not necessarily mean cash payments. The training sessions and curriculum development require more time than money. The four-week intensive training session at Xida including room fees and all class and lecture materials was under three hundred dollars. Moreover, coauthorships will contribute more to our foreign colleague's careers than extra money in the summer. Finally, American scholars can reduce host university costs by developing institutional ties with smaller more enthusiastic host universities rather than the top academic institutions in their respective host countries.

Research design and conducting fieldwork in developing countries is a difficult prospect for American researchers. Yet, we can use our knowledge and position at an American university to contribute to the academic community in our areas of study, and to establish lasting personal and institutional ties with our host institutions. The direct involvement in training local students and faculty from our host (foreign) institutions can also improve the quality of our data and research. In addition, the official relationships and closer ties to universities in developing countries can be viewed as expanding the global reach and internationalization at most American universities. Finally, we can teach American students how to practice collaborative-training research. Whether our political science students go on to become academics, government officials, or business consultants, the relationships they establish in developing countries can last well beyond their academic career. Thus, a collaborative-training and research program will contribute to the international education policy and foster mutual understanding among nations.

Appendix 1

The questionnaire used in the 2000 and 2004 survey is 20 pages long and has 135 questions. My Chinese colleagues used the following survey questions for their research design. This is the first time they use the survey method to address a research question.

Research Question: Does the selection process for the village leader (type of elections) have an influence on the leader's land readjustment decisions and therefore villager's perception of a "fair" redistribution of land?

Dependent Variable: perceived fairness of the last land readjustment.

28. In some villages, farmers believe that the last land adjustment was unfair, while in other villages farmers believed the last land adjustment was fair. In your opinion, do you think the last land adjustment was fair or unfair? How would you rank the fairness of the last land adjustment where 1 is fair and 5 is unfair?

Fair			Unfair		
1	2	3	4	5	8 (DNK)

Independent Variable: the type of village election and nomination process.

Hypotheses (1): In villages with an open nomination process (i.e., villager nomination), the elect leaders are more responsive to their constituents (villagers) and the last land readjustment will be perceived as fair.

83. How are the village leaders elected? Code:_____ [(8) does not know]

Code numbers

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| 1. Party appointment | 6. Village assembly election |
| 2. Township govt. appointment | 7. Village representative assembly election |
| 3. Other appointment | 9. Small group election |
| 4. Village committee election | 10. other type of election (please explain) |
| 5. Village election (all adults) | |

*(If the answer is 1, 2, or 3, then skip to question 90.)

87. How were the candidates nominated? Code:_____ [(8) does not know]

Code

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Village assembly nomination | 4. Party branch nomination |
| 2. Representative assembly nomination | 5. Township govt. nomination |
| 3. Party organization (member) nomination | 6. Other nomination (please explain) |

*(If the answer is *not* 1, the skip to question 90.)

Independent Variables: individual and village level wealth.

Alternative Hypotheses (2): The poorer villagers perceive the last land adjustment as unfair.

5. What is your major occupation?	Second occupation?					
	2004	2000	1995	2004	2000	1995
(1) Agriculture						
(2) Forestry						
(3) Animal Husbandry						
(4) Village industry						
(5) Township industry						
(6) Retail						
(7) Services						
(8) Office work						
(9) Other						

*(If no second occupation, then leave the space blank.)

6. Does your family have any of the items listed below? If so how many?

	2004	2000	1995
(1) Bicycle			
(2) Three-wheeled bicycle			
(3) Tractor			
(4) Car or truck			
(5) Motorcycle			
(6) Refrigerator			
(7) Television set (color or b/w)			
(9) Radio			
(10) Washing Machine			
(11) Electric light(s)			
(12) Telephone			
(13) Cellular Phone			
(14) Electric fan			
(15) Clock(s)			
(16) Sofa			
(17) Chair(s)			
(18) Table(s)			
(19) Wardrobe			
(20) Standing cabinet(s)			
(21) Dresser(s)			

*(If they do not have the item or they do not know, then leave the space blank.)

Alternative Hypotheses (3): In poorer villages, villagers perceive the last land adjustment to be unfair (regardless of the village election process).

Below is village level data from the village accountant.

135. What are the conditions of the village roads (roads between small groups and natural villages)?

	2004	2000	1995
(1) dirt			
(2) gravel			
(3) concrete			
(4) asphalt			

5. What are your major occupations for villagers?

Second occupation?

	2004	2000	1995	2004	2000	1995
	(number of villagers)			(number of villagers)		

-
- (1) Agriculture
(2) Forestry
-

5. What are your major occupations for villagers?	Second occupation?		
	2004 (number of villagers)	2000	1995
(3) Animal Husbandry			
(4) Village industry			
(5) Township industry			
(6) Retail			
(7) Services			
(8) Office work			
(9) Other			

*(If no second occupation, then leave the space blank.)

6. Please estimate how many of the following items are in the village (villagers own)?	2004	2000	1995
(1) Bicycles			
(2) Three-wheeled bicycles			
(3) Tractors			
(4) Cars or trucks			
(5) Motorcycles			
(6) Refrigerators			
(7) Television sets (color or b/w)			
(9) Radios			
(10) Washing Machines			
(11) Telephones			
(12) Cellular Phones			

Notes

1. This is a House Concurrent Resolution not a law. This type of legislative proposal must pass the House and Senate, but it does not require the signature of the President and does not have the force of law. As of April 2005, the resolution is in the House subcommittee. See http://www.nafsa.org/_/Document/_/citizens_and_legal_immigration.pdf.

2. In 2000, the political science department at Xida was still focused more on Marxist theory than empirical social science. In 2006, this is still the case for most political (science) departments in Chinese universities.

3. My intention is not to criticize Beijing scholars that conduct survey work in Shaanxi. They are usually conducting large national surveys that are expensive and difficult to coordinate, and sometimes they involve a trade-off with measurement error. My main purpose is to demonstrate the need and desire for a class on survey research methods at Xida.

4. See Heath, Fisher, and Smith (2005), p. 318.

5. The course is scheduled to begin in Spring 2007 at Northwest University in Shaanxi, Ningxia University in Ningxia and National Minorities University in Qinghai province. These are all participating universities in the NSDRC (See below).

6. The NSDRC was established in 2004 and received a Ford Foundation grant 2006. While the center is based at Xida in Xian, the NSDRC includes four other universities in four other northwest provinces. See the NSDRC Web page at: <http://www.nsdr.org.cn/>.

7. The 2000 survey was part of my dissertation fieldwork and was funded by the University of California Pacific Rim Fellowship and the Graduate Fulbright Award. The University of Kansas funded the 2004 survey.

8. See Kennedy, Rozelle, and Shi (2004); Shi, Gao, Ren, and Kennedy (2004).

9. As a graduate student, I started out with four-week workshops on research methods and data analysis and then later, after I became an assistant professor, I worked with my Chinese colleagues to develop semester-long courses.

10. Typically there are three areas of service that are used to evaluate faculty promotion: department, college, and university. I believe that the connection with a foreign university would fall under the heading of university service.

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