



**Asia-Pacific
Economic Cooperation**

Asia-Pacific Cross-Border Higher Education Provider Mobility:

Report on a Survey of Policy and Practice

**APEC Human Resources Development
Working Group
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Asia-Pacific Cross-Border Higher Education Provider Mobility

Report on a Survey of Policy and Practice

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This report was written by Dr Sarah Richardson from the Australian Council for Educational Research. It was prepared for the Australian Government Department of Education and Training to report findings from a survey of APEC economies of policies and practices in cross-border education. The views expressed in this document are not necessarily the views of the Australian Government Department of Education and Training.

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Produced by
Dr Sarah Richardson
Australian Council for Educational Research
Private Bag 55
Camberwell Victoria 3124
Australia
Tel: (61) 3 9277 5555

For
Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation Secretariat
35 Heng Mui Keng Terrace
Singapore 119616
Tel: (65) 68919 600
Email: infor@apec.org
Website: www.apec.org

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Executive summary

Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) have an indispensable role in meeting the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation's (APEC) objective of building a dynamic and harmonious Asia-Pacific community. Provider mobility, or in other words operation of HEIs outside of the borders of their economies of origin, is pivotal in realisation of this objective.

There is a burgeoning literature on increasing cooperation among APEC economies with regards to higher education. Although some data is available in areas of student mobility and researcher mobility, research on other forms of cross-border higher education mobility remains limited.

This report is a companion piece to the 2016 report *Policies and Practices of Cross-Border Provider Mobility in APEC Economies*. It presents findings of the survey responses from 12 APEC economies as well as prior research in cases where responses were not received, or were limited.

The survey focuses on the component of provider mobility under Cross Border Education (CBE), with the objective of understanding how educational policy settings can enable or restrict movement of HEIs between economies. It also focuses on the scope of both incoming and outgoing CBE. It examines those features of cross-border higher education mobility that have been least well investigated or documented in the past.

All of the information was collected using a survey that was disseminated via the APEC Human Resource Development Working Group (HRDWG) Education Network (EDNET) to all 21 APEC member economies. The surveys were emailed to the respondents with instructions to consult various bodies and entities in their economies that would be likely to have information about provider mobility. To ensure reliability of data, a series of definitions were provided at the start of the survey.

Out of the 21 APEC economies, CBE is negligible in Brunei Darussalam and Papua New Guinea. Twelve responses were received from the remaining economies active in CBE. The East Asian economies were most active in returning surveys, with responses received from China; Hong Kong, China; Japan; Korea and Chinese Taipei.

The main reasons identified for non-response include central government's limited ability to source data from autonomous HEIs; a lack of human resources to complete the survey due to staffing changes in various education ministries; and in some cases, the survey might not have reached its target audience. To fill this data gap, additional information was used from the desktop study for a complete view of CBE.

Key findings

CBE Terminology

The responses to the survey indicate that there is a lack of consistency with regards to the terminology used for CBE among APEC economies. Often different terms are used to refer to the same element, with the variability being particularly high in reference to dual and joint degrees.

The variation in terms used may reflect subtle assumptions and historical antecedents but in many cases, it is clear that there is a lack of clarity within economies themselves on why particular terms are used. Many economies were unable to identify the source documents and formal definitions for each term and this makes their meaning even less clear.

To illustrate the complexity, cross-border education is also referred to as international education, transnational education, offshore provision, foreign-related education, offshore education, non-local education, international cooperation on higher education and private education.

Data on CBE

The collection of data on higher education activities is important in fostering accountability and transparency. It also helps facilitate empirically-informed decision making. To support APEC economies in furthering their CBE activities in regard to provider mobility it is therefore important that robust data on CBE is available.

The Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT) at the State University of New York maintains a database of

branch campuses. This illustrates that among APEC economies the largest source of outgoing CBE by the measure of branch campuses is the USA with 77 branch campuses in other economies, followed by Russia with 21 and Australia with 15. China is the largest host with 32 branch campuses, followed by Malaysia with 12 and Singapore with 11.

Beyond the data on branch campuses collected by C-BERT, many economies were unable to provide much data on the CBE that HEIs from their economy are engaged in. The lack of data collection reported encompassed data on both activities of foreign HEIs in their economy as well as the activities of local HEIs in other economies.

For example, in relation to dual degrees, joint degrees and twinning programmes just China; Hong Kong, China; Japan and Chinese Taipei were able to provide partial numbers on CBE activities, incorporated in joint categories by both Hong Kong, China and Chinese Taipei.

Workshops undertaken in five APEC economies highlighted a number of barriers to data collection, from a lack of legal imperative to require HEIs to provide data to a central body, to difficulty in reaching agreement on what data should be collected, to frequent changes in higher education policy and a high level of autonomy of HEIs.

Overall, insights from the challenge of collecting data on CBE from economies and from discussions at workshops indicate a significant finding – that the only way to systematically collect data on CBE among APEC economies is to approach HEIs directly.

Governance of CBE

Licensing and accreditation differs across economies, with Canada and Australia having similar rules with incoming CBE being subjected to quality assurance mechanisms by the relevant provincial or territorial education ministry. Australia has the Tertiary Education and Quality Standards Agency (TEQSA) for licensing and accreditation, Singapore has a number of accreditation bodies, with the Council for Private Education as the apex body for regulation of private education.

Korea has defined regulations for licensing and Indonesia's accreditation is based on assessments. Japan has 15 evaluation organizations certified by the Minister of MEXT and Superintendencia Nacional de Educación Superior Universitaria is the licensing body of Peru.

Quality assurance of HEI's in some economies is defined in the key legislature supporting higher education activities whereas for others it is stated in a specific legislative provision. In most cases the legislation is equally applicable to both domestic HEI activities and those undertaken by foreign HEIs.

Many APEC economies have specific agencies to ensure quality assurance of HEIs. In a few cases, a number of quality assurance bodies cooperate with sister agencies of other economies. In some economies, there are multiple bodies that are involved in quality assurance.

Recognition of foreign qualifications also varies across economies with qualifications being evaluated by individual HEIs, regulatory bodies and employers. A number of APEC economies, including Canada; Hong Kong, China; and New Zealand have frameworks that define criteria for each level of qualification for which students demonstrate specific learning outcomes.

Employment of foreign faculty is controlled by the State Administration of Foreign Experts Affairs in China but in other economies is subject to overall immigration regulations. For some economies, there are specific policies related to required teaching qualifications but most economies have no definite legislation and it is the responsibility of HEIs to determine what hiring requirements should be.

Delivery of online programs in a number of economies is governed by specific legislation where as in other economies it is a part of the higher education delivery. However, no clear examples were found of online CBE delivery being treated as distinct from domestic online delivery.

Collection of higher education data is limited among APEC economies. This can be attributed to factors such as no rigorous data collection by the government as HEIs are autonomous and/or lack of a robust data collection system.

Agreements on CBE

Cross-border qualifications and credits are recognised on the basis of bilateral and multilateral agreements among economies. There are a few agreements that are limited to credit recognition while there are others that cover additional education elements.

Quality assurance collaborations for some economies include specific quality assurance agreements. However various multilateral agencies such as the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education, the ASEAN University Network-Quality Assurance and the Asia-Pacific Quality Network boost collaboration in quality assurance processes. These are also complimented by specific quality assurance agreements between quality assurance agencies of particular economies.

Free trade in Higher Education services are guaranteed by free trade agreements between partners. Australia, China, Japan, Mexico, New Zealand, Russia, Chinese Taipei and Viet Nam are the APEC economies which have signed the General Agreements on Trade in Services (GATS) on free trade in higher education. A number of economies are also signatories of other free trade agreements that have significance for higher education. Most economies also have bilateral free trade agreements that include education services.

Due to lack of a centralised system of data collection and a high degree of autonomy of HEI in most economies, with limited oversight from government, data on cross-border mobility of HEIs is unavailable and at times unreliable. The report suggests two possible solutions

- First, APEC economies start systematically collecting data from HEIs on their cross-border activities.
- Second, a survey of HEIs in APEC economies is undertaken to collect information on their cross-border activities.

In the first case, establishment of a robust data collection system would require a significant amount of time. In the second case, determining population of HEIs for the survey, defining dual and joint degrees, HEI's willingness to respond to external parties and availability of data on collaborative agreements made at institutional level are significant barriers to administering the survey.

In the absence of data, however, research should be commissioned to fill the data gap in order to better guide policy makers towards achieving greater harmony and cooperation among APEC economies.

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Acronyms

APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation
APQN	Asia-Pacific Quality Network
ASEAN	Association of South East Asian Nations
AUN-QA	ASEAN University Network-Quality Assurance
CBE	Cross-Border Education
C-BERT	Cross-Border Education Research Team
EDNET	Education Network, APEC Secretariat
HEI	Higher Education Institution
INQAAHE	International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education
NUFFIC	Netherlands University Foundation for International Cooperation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
TEQSA	The Tertiary Education and Quality Standards Agency
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

Acknowledgments

This report was written by Dr Sarah Richardson of the Australian Council for Educational Research on behalf of the Australian Department of Education and Training. The collation of the information that informs this report was a complex, time-consuming and sometimes challenging process.

Numerous people were involved in trying to ensure that survey forms were completed as fully as possible. In most cases this meant that one person in each economy was tasked with chasing up information from a range of agencies, bodies, organisations and government departments. Inevitably this took a great deal of time and effort and all those who

contributed are extended a great degree of thanks for their efforts, patience and persistence.

In addition, the Department of Education and Training Counsellors in a number of diplomatic posts were asked to follow up with relevant government departments and to provide assistance where required, sometimes to no avail. Again, thanks are extended for all of their efforts.

Finally, Symeon Collette and his colleagues at the Department of Education and Training provided support throughout and are thanked for their perseverance as timelines were extended.

Introduction

Higher education institutions (HEIs) play a vital role in APEC economies. There is already a strong demand for highly skilled labour forces to drive economic and social growth and sustainability. As economies evolve this demand will only become greater. In meeting APECs objective of building a dynamic and harmonious Asia-Pacific community, it is certain that higher education will continue to play an important role¹.

When considered in regional terms, there is great potential for the combined strengths of HEIs to support greater economic integration and technical cooperation. In order to achieve this, it is beneficial if HEIs can operate outside of the borders of the economies in which they originate. Achieving the promise that HEI mobility can offer requires a number of systematic and structural conditions.

As previous research has indicated², the regulatory environments in many APEC economies do not currently enable mobility of the different forms of cross-border education (CBE), from the physical movement of students and faculty to the cross-border activities and collaborations of HEIs themselves.

Another challenge to greater APEC collaboration around CBE is a lack of information on its scale and scope. Data on student mobility and research collaboration is reasonably readily available³. But a lack of clarity about the extent to which other forms of CBE take place, and patterns of engagement, means that policy making around CBE

needs, to a large extent, operate in a vacuum.

In this context, it was decided to undertake a survey of APEC economies in order to establish the extent to which economies collected, and were able to share data on different forms of CBE.

The survey was designed with input from representatives from APEC economies at a workshop in Peru in May 2016. The final version of the survey incorporated four key themes: definitions of CBE, scale of incoming and outgoing CBE, the policy context in which CBE is implemented and formal agreements that support CBE.

This report presents findings from the survey, drawing both on survey responses from 12 APEC economies as well as prior research to fill in any gaps where responses were not received. It makes clear that while many economies have clear regulatory environments in place to support CBE, and bilateral and multilateral arrangements in place, actual empirical data on what CBE activities are happening is relatively rare.

This report should be regarded as a companion piece to the 2016 report entitled *Policies and Practices of Cross-Border Provider Mobility in APEC Economies*. This was circulated to APEC economies at the 2016 APEC meetings and was based on a desktop review of policies and practices of CBE in each economy.

Background to this report

In May 2016 representatives from APEC economies met in Arequipa, Peru to discuss opportunities for greater cross-border cooperation in higher education under the auspices of EDNET (a sub-forum of the Human Resources Development Working Group).

One of the matters discussed was a recently drafted report that summarised a desktop review of provider mobility among APEC economies and a follow-up survey that was soon to be launched.

After the APEC meetings had concluded, a workshop was convened in which delegates discussed the proposed format of the survey, heard about examples of cross-border provider mobility among APEC economies and provided feedback to support revisions of the draft survey.

It was clear from discussions that the amount of data collected within economies on cross border provider mobility was extremely varied and there were concerns that many would be unable to complete the survey.

Workshop delegates concluded, however, that identifying gaps in data was a valuable exercise in itself. This was to both help raise expectations about the kind of data that could be collected and also so that a range of models of cross-border education could be considered.

Participants were also of the opinion that the act of requesting data could help to highlight to economies the kind of data on CBE that was possible to collect – and that they may therefore consider starting to collect. It was felt that this could help to stimulate greater data collection on

CBE across APEC economies, even if they were not currently able to provide it.

As such, workshop delegates agreed that it was worth disseminating the survey in the knowledge that completing it would be challenging, if not impossible, for many economies.

Determining survey design

Much work has been done on enhancing cooperation among APEC economies in the sphere of higher education in recent years. Three examples include:

- 2015 report - Enhancing cross-border higher education institution mobility in the APEC region⁴
- 2016 report- Researcher Mobility among APEC Economies Workshop⁵
- 2017 report - Mapping Researcher Mobility⁶

One of the key findings from all of these activities has been the lack of comparable data on many elements of higher education cross-border mobility. Two areas in which some data is already available are student mobility and researcher mobility. Both globally - with data from UNESCO, the OECD, the Netherlands University Foundation for International Cooperation (NUFFIC) and other agencies⁷ - and within economies⁸, databases are available on the movement of students.

Although much work is required to ensure that all APEC economies collect data on student mobility consistently, and many APEC economies neither maintain up to date records nor collect data on all forms of student movement, approximate patterns of student mobility between APEC economies can be ascertained.

The second exception relates to research, with data available on the extent to which research collaborations yield joint publications. This data was accessed from the Scopus data base and illustrated that, in addition to making a considerable

contribution to overall publications, researchers from APEC economies were also active in collaborating with their peers in other APEC economies.

Again, this data is incomplete – omitting as it does forms of research collaboration that do not result in publications. Much more work would be required to build a comprehensive database on all forms of researcher mobility among APEC economies. Nevertheless, there is some indication of researcher mobility.

Beyond these two elements, other forms of cross-border higher education mobility remain relatively under-researched, and there are no extant records of other expressions of mobility among and between APEC economies. For this reason, the focus of this survey was on the elements of CBE that are least understood.

Defining CBE

Research done around the world, and in particular by Jane Knight and colleagues⁹, has highlighted that one of the key barriers to the collation of data on CBE activities across economies is the lack of common definitions. For this reason, one of the key areas of focus of the survey was on how each economy defined key characteristics of CBE.

During the Arequipa workshop, delegates agreed on the key terms for which definitions should be sought. These were informed by the work done by McNamara *et al*¹⁰ and the final list comprised:

- Cross-border education
- Branch campus
- Twinning programme
- Dual/Double degree
- Joint degree
- Online programme

It was further agreed that survey respondents should be asked to provide definitions of other forms of CBE that were not included in this list, with examples provided (e.g. co-founded, offshore, binational, joint, multiple, satellite, non-local, franchise, collaborative).

For each form of CBE, the survey asked respondents to provide information on the source of the term (for example a policy document or legislation) and, where possible, an online address for the source, as well as a translation of any information that was not already available in English.

Incoming CBE

Beyond definitions, delegates at the Arequipa workshop agreed that bi-directional flows of CBE should be considered, and economies should be asked to identify the scale of different forms of CBE.

The first of these flows was defined as ‘incoming’, with an explanation given that “incoming means that a HEI from another economy is active inside your economy”. Economies were asked to provide not only the scale of each form of CBE, but also the source for this information.

Reflecting the categories of CBE chosen for inclusion in the section on definitions, the survey asked economies to provide information on the following sources of incoming CBE:

- Foreign HEIs operating in your economy in total
- Foreign HEIs with incoming campuses
- Foreign HEIs with incoming twinning programmes
- Foreign HEIs with incoming dual degrees
- Foreign HEIs with incoming joint degrees
- Foreign HEIs with incoming online programmes
- Foreign HEIs with other forms of incoming HE
- Academic staff from overseas undertaking teaching

Outgoing CBE

The reverse flow of CBE on which the survey focused was outgoing CBE. Once again, a definition was given to respondents that “outgoing means that a domestic HEI is active outside your economy”. Exactly the same categories were provided for outgoing CBE as for incoming CBE.

Governance of CBE

Prior research among APEC economies, as well as research done on CBE across other jurisdictions illustrates that the context in which CBE takes place is critical in determining how it is practiced, and varies widely between economies. Prior research has also indicated that the governance of CBE is frequently split between a number of bodies or organisations, some of which are government and some of which are not.

The governance practices that exert influence on CBE vary significantly from one economy to another, with a host of actors, legislative structures and understandings ensuring that the CBE context in each economy is unique.

CBE governance incorporates a whole realm of elements such as national and regional government oversight for higher education systems, quality assurance, accreditation, qualifications recognition, immigration and data collection. Perhaps most importantly the governance environment determines the extent to which HEIs have a degree of freedom in engaging in CBE.

While delegates at the Arequipa workshop were in agreement that this was an important area to include in the survey, this was the most difficult section to define. It was important to incorporate elements that were likely to be of greatest pertinence among the largest possible number of economies but that there would also be a degree of freedom in economy responses.

Ultimately one overarching question was asked – *“what is the main law, policy, regulation or agreement, and which*

agency has oversight for it?” – with reference to the following elements:

- cross-border HEI mobility
- licencing / accreditation of HEIs / programmes (domestic and CBE)
- quality assurance of HEIs (domestic and CBE)
- dual and joint programmes between domestic and foreign HEIs
- competencies required for different qualifications
- recognition of foreign qualifications
- foreign faculty teaching in your economy
- delivery of online programmes
- collection of higher education data

In addition, a further question was added to reflect the emphasis of a number of workshop participants on the process of evolution that systems and processes related to CBE in their economies were currently undergoing: *“Are there any ongoing reforms or policy changes around the governance of CBE in your economy? If so, please describe”*.

Multilateral context

The final element of the survey reflected the fact that much of the CBE activity in APEC economies was framed within bilateral and multilateral agreements that they had in place.

This was another relatively challenging area to determine survey questions on since it potentially incorporated a very large number of considerations. Ultimately workshop participants chose to focus on international agreements and these were explained as possibly including “memoranda of understanding, being a signatory to international agreements (such as World Trade Organisation-General Agreement on Trade in Services) and membership of regional networks”.

The survey further specified that respondents should indicate any bilateral agreements and the partner economies these were with. Areas of focus for international agreements were:

- recognition of cross-border qualifications and credits
- collaboration on quality assurance of HEIs and their programmes
- collaboration on accreditation of HEIs and programmes
- free trade in higher education services
- free movement of academic staff and researchers
- other forms of international collaboration

Survey Methodology

In July 2016, the survey was disseminated via EDNET members to all 21 APEC economies. The survey was disseminated by email and responses were requested by the end of October 2016. A number of economies reported problems meeting the deadline due to other pressing demands (including preparation for subsequent APEC meetings) and deadlines were gradually relaxed to accommodate the desire to receive as many responses as possible.

Survey parameters

Based on discussions in the Arequipa workshop, it was decided that the survey should have certain parameters. These were agreed in order to assist respondents to focus on the key focus of the survey and to limit any confusion, a number of key parameters for the survey were defined.

- First, the area of focus was on HEIs (defined as both universities and other kinds of HEIs).
- Second, respondents were informed that the key area of focus for the survey was on the educational policy setting and the extent to which it enables, or restricts, the movement of HEIs between economies, as well as on the scope of both incoming and outgoing CBE.
- Third, it was clearly stated that the survey was not focusing on forms of CBE other than provider mobility such as student mobility and researcher collaboration.

- Fourth, institutions that provided vocational education only were explicitly excluded.
- Fifth, CBE that delivers short, unaccredited courses (such as online Massive Open Online Courses) was explicitly excluded.

Importantly, the introduction to the survey explicitly acknowledged that “not all the information requested in this survey may be available in all economies ... With this in mind, please do your best to complete as many details as possible”.

Sources of information

It is highly unlikely that any one body in any APEC economy would hold all of the information required to complete the survey. This was acknowledged in the introduction to the survey and respondents were recommended to consult with various bodies and entities in their economies to complete the information. Examples given included:

- government policy departments
- immigration departments
- foreign affairs departments
- accreditation agencies
- quality assurance agencies
- higher education peak bodies
- higher education associations
- other relevant stakeholders

It was further acknowledged in the introduction to the survey that in some cases the data requested may not be available. If this was the case respondents were specifically requested to provide an explanation, such as ‘that

is not collected’, rather than simply leaving a blank.

CBE definitions

Even though economies would be asked to provide definitions of different types of CBE at the start of the survey, it was nevertheless important to define what was meant by the key terms used in the survey in order to collect reliable data.

Thus, the introductory section of the survey provided respondents with a series of definitions, all bar the definition for an online programme taken from McNamara *et al* (2013)¹¹.

Branch campus – “The sending HEI establishes a stand-alone satellite operation known as an international branch campus in the host country and is responsible for all aspects of recruiting, admission, programme delivery and awarding of the qualification”.

Twinning programme – “A sending HEI authorises a host HEI to deliver its (sending HEI) programme, with no curricular input by the host institution. The qualification is awarded and quality assured by the sending institution. The host HEI has primary responsibility for delivery of the programme but the sending HEI may assist with delivery of the programme by providing flying teaching faculty”.

Collaborative programme

Double/dual degree programme – “Two or more partner HEIs in different countries collaborate to design and deliver a common programme ... The student receives a qualification from each partner HEI. This results in a student receiving two or more qualifications for completion of one programme”.

Joint degree programme – “The joint degree programme is similar to the double/dual degree programme ... The sole difference is that students receive one qualification which includes the badges of each partner HEI on the award”.

Online programme

A higher education programme is delivered to students online with the HEIs located in one economy and the students located in one or more other economies. In some cases, all delivery is online but in other cases there is also some face-to-face delivery. Online programmes may also be referred to as open or distance learning or virtual HEIs.

Responses received

The survey was disseminated to all 21 APEC economies. In two of these - Brunei Darussalam and Papua New Guinea - there is negligible CBE and it was therefore not expected that a response would be received. Of the remaining 19 economies, all of which are known to be active in CBE, 12 responses were received (a response rate of 63 per cent).

In terms of regions, East Asian economies were most active in responding, with responses received from China; Hong Kong, China; Japan; Korea and Chinese Taipei. In Australasia, New Zealand responded and the Australian information was collated by the researchers.

In the Americas, Canada; Peru and the United States responded but no responses were received from either Chile or Mexico.

In South East Asia, responses were received from Indonesia and Singapore but not from Malaysia; The Philippines; Thailand; or Viet Nam. Finally, no response was received from Russia.

Anecdotal evidence collected from the Australian Government's Education Counsellors located in all regions suggested that a number of factors contributed to non-response.

First, central governments being unable to source information on CBE because it is largely in the hands of relatively autonomous HEIs and there is little government oversight (an important finding in itself).

Second, restructures and staffing changes in various education ministries meant there was no-one who took responsibility for completing the survey. Since the key means of dissemination was from the Australian Government to EDNET members – who were asked to pass the survey on to relevant parties – a third possibility is that the survey did not reach its target audience, but there is no evidence to corroborate this.

In the body of the report that follows, information provided in surveys is shown in relevant tables.

Limitations

This report has a number of important limitations. Most significantly, responses were not received from a number of economies which are extremely active in CBE, such as Malaysia. This means that the data reported is incomplete and cannot be taken as representative of the situation in every APEC economy.

In addition, the survey was submitted to central governments in each economy. This was appropriate in those economies in which the government is centralised and all matters related to higher education are organised, defined and implemented in a cohesive manner. But the approach was more problematic in those economies where higher education is not centrally organised, such as Canada and the United States. In these cases, each state or province has distinctive arrangements for higher education and these are not necessarily fully reflected in responses to the survey.

The other important limitation that arises when governments are asked to report on higher education activities is that in many economies HEIs have a large degree of autonomy in how they conduct themselves across borders. In such situations the strength of central organisation, and the power of governments to control HEIs, is relatively limited.

Not only do these government arrangements have an impact on how education is carried out, they also affect the terminology used to describe it. For example, in the USA there are no universally, domestically or federally determined definitions for higher

education terminology and various institutions, associations and other entities might use different terminology, and/or the same terminology in different ways.

The only way to overcome these limitations would be to survey HEIs themselves on their CBE activities. But even this may not yield fully complete data as the assumption that central administrations of HEIs are fully aware of all CBE that their institutions are undertaking may be flawed, reflecting a relatively high degree of autonomy within HEIs. At the same time, HEI activity is subject to another range of influences, including formal institutional groupings and representation, non-governmental organisation and associations.

CBE terminology

Cross border education

Prior research, such as that undertaken by McNamara *et al.*¹² illustrates that a wide variety of terms are used to define and categorise CBE. Thus, the first question economies were asked to respond to was ‘*what is the most commonly used term and definition in your economy for ...*’.

The options they were asked to respond to were CBE, branch campus, twinning programme, dual/double degree, joint degree, online programme and any other relevant term, with possible examples given as ‘co-founded, offshore, binational, joint, multiple, satellite, non-local, franchise, collaborative’.

In addition to providing the term, economies were asked to indicate the source of the term and to provide a link

to the source where possible. The results for the first term are illustrated in **Table 1**.

Singapore; Chinese Taipei and the United States use the term ‘**cross-border education**’. While Japan did not provide a specific term in the survey response, the Second Basic Plan for the Promotion of Education refers to both ‘cross border’ and ‘international education’. While no survey response was received, it appears that Chile¹³ and Malaysia¹⁴ also use the term ‘cross-border’.

In contrast both Australia and Korea refer to CBE as ‘**international education**’. While no response was received from Mexico it also appears that ‘international education’ is the term used in that economy¹⁵

Table 1: CBE terminology

Economy	Survey response
Australia	International education ¹⁶ Transnational education ¹⁷ Offshore provision ¹⁸
Canada	Cross-border education, offshore or overseas ¹⁹
China	Foreign-related education
Hong Kong, China	Offshore Programme Non-Local ²⁰
Indonesia	International cooperation in higher education ²¹
Japan	No term provided in survey but Cross-Border Education / International Education ²²
Korea	International Education
New Zealand	Offshore programme ²³
Peru	(No response provided)
Singapore	Private Education
Chinese Taipei	Cross-border education
United States	Cross-border education ²⁴

‘Offshore education’ is another common term for CBE and this is used in Canada; Hong Kong, China; and New Zealand. Hong Kong, China also uses the term **‘non-local’** to refer to foreign institutions. China refers to **‘foreign related education’** and Indonesia refers to **‘international cooperation** in higher education’.

Thailand did not provide a survey but the existence of the ‘Bureau of International Cooperation Strategy’²⁵ suggests that the terminology is similar to that used in Indonesia. While The Philippines did not respond to the survey, policy documents indicate that ‘transnational education’ is the preferred term for CBE²⁶. Finally, Singapore refers to all foreign activity in higher education by foreign providers under the umbrella of **‘private education’**.

While the differences in these terms may seem minor they could be regarded as reflecting different conceptions of CBE. ‘International’ indicates an approach to CBE that can encompass both inwards and outwards movement.

In contrast, ‘offshore’ denotes an approach to CBE that happens elsewhere – illustrating a greater focus on outward activities than inward ones – while ‘foreign’ education reflects an economy that has a greater focus on incoming than outgoing CBE.

Further, ‘international cooperation’ reflects the desire of Indonesia to ensure that CBE does not consist of foreign institutions coming into Indonesia without mutually beneficial partnerships with local HEIs and this is reflected in the clarification provided that

emphasises “a process of interaction in integrating international dimensions into academic activities to contribute to international relationships without prejudice to Indonesian values”²⁷.

Branch Campus

Perhaps the most visible expression of CBE – although not the most common – are branch campuses, when an HEI from one economy establishes a physical presence in another economy which operates, more or less, as an independent entity.

The Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT) maintains a record of branch campuses which it defines as ‘an entity that is owned, at least in part, by a foreign higher education provider; operated in the name of the foreign education provider; and provides an entire academic program, substantially on site, leading to a degree awarded by the foreign education provider’²⁸. In January 2017, there were 248 active branch campuses listed worldwide, plus 41 that had closed and 22 with development pending.

Among APEC economies a range of terms are used to describe branch campuses, as illustrated in **Table 2**.

China refers to **running schools abroad**, and when located in China these must be established with a Chinese partner organisation. Australia and Canada use the term **offshore campus** while the USA refers to a **branch campus** and Korea uses the term **distance campus**.

Chinese Taipei also uses branch campus and notes that this refers to a campus away from the main one (either in a different city, municipality, county or overseas) and that is an independent educational institution with complete teaching and administrative units.

In the USA, a similar definition is provided noting that a branch campus is ‘an entity that is owned, at least in part, by a foreign education provider; operated in the name of the foreign education provider; engages in at least some face-to-face teaching; and provides access to an entire academic program that leads to a credential awarded by the foreign education provider’²⁹.

Table 2: Branch Campus Terminology

Economy	Survey response
Australia	Offshore Campus ³⁰
Canada	Offshore schools/campuses ³¹
China	Running Schools Abroad ³²
Hong Kong, China	(No Specific Definition)
Indonesia	(No response provided)
Japan	Overseas campus ³³
Korea	Distance Campus
New Zealand	Delivery Site
Peru	(No response provided)
Singapore	(No response in survey but reference to Private Education Institutions)
Chinese Taipei	Branch Campus ³⁴
United States	Branch Campus

Twinning Programme

A twinning programme generally takes place when an HEI in one economy authorises an HEI in another economy to deliver a complete programme, but with no local curriculum input. Students gain a certificate from the foreign HEI but the local HEI does all, or the majority, of the teaching.

Canada, Japan and Singapore report using the term **twinning programme**. For Indonesia, where the term is **Program Kembaran**, it is noted that the main goal is to use academic cooperation with foreign HEIs to improve the quality and capacity of local HEIs³⁵. In Japan, it is noted that the term is used without any

such thing as a twinning programme actually existing.

While China reports that there is no particular term used, in Chinese Taipei there is an umbrella term of **joint degrees** that includes twinning programmes. Korea uses the term franchise programme and New Zealand refers to offshore programme delivery.

Twinning programme is not commonly used in the USA but where it is used it can refer to a number of different types of programme including joint degree program, dual-degree program, articulation agreement and institutional collaboration.

Table 3: Twinning programme terminology

Economy	Survey response
Australia	Twinning programme
Canada	Twinning programme
China	(No clear definition)
Hong Kong, China	(No specific definition)
Indonesia	Program Kembaran
Japan	Twinning programme ³⁶
Korea	Franchise programme
New Zealand	Offshore programme delivery ³⁷
Peru	(No response provided)
Singapore	(No reference reported or found)
Chinese Taipei	Joint Degree Programme
United States	Twinning programme

Dual/Double Degree

As the introduction states, a widely respected definition of dual or double degrees refers to two or more HEIs from more than one economy forming a partnership to design and deliver an academic programme that results in students receiving qualifications from each partner HEI.

Both Australia and Canada use the term **dual or double degree**. Canada also notes that many Canadian HEIs also have cotutelles in which PhD students are jointly supervised at two HEIs³⁸.

New Zealand and Chinese Taipei refer to dual and double degrees as **joint degrees** and do not distinguish between the two types of arrangements between HEIs³⁹, although Chinese Taipei also uses the term **dual degrees**.

In Singapore, the autonomous universities offer double degree programmes with foreign HEIs. For example, the National University of Singapore offers a double degree programme with Waseda University in Japan and with Sciences Po in France⁴⁰.

Table 4: Dual/Double Degree Terminology

Economy	Survey response
Australia	Dual / Double Degree Dual Programme
Canada	Dual / Double Degree
China	(No specific definition)
Hong Kong, China	(No specific definition)
Indonesia	Gelar Ganda Double Degree
Japan	Dual / Double Degree ⁴¹
Korea	Boksu Hakwi
New Zealand	Joint Degree
Peru	(No response provided)
Singapore	Double Degree Programme
Chinese Taipei	Joint degree Dual degree ⁴²
United States	Dual / Double Degree ⁴³

Joint Degree

In some economies, the distinction between double and joint degrees is stark – with students receiving two certificates from two HEIs for a double degree and one certificate with the badge of more than one HEI for a joint degree.

But in other economies this distinction is not regarded as noteworthy and both

variations are considered under the same umbrella term. And for several economies no clear definition was given for either term.

Overall, the term joint degree is widely used by economies but this should not be considered as indicating that they all mean the same terms by it.

Table 5: Joint degree terminology

Economy	Survey response
Australia	Joint Degree
Canada	Joint Degree
China	(No specific definition)
Hong Kong, China	(No specific definition)
Indonesia	Gelar Bersama Joint Degree
Japan	Joint Degree ⁴⁴
Korea	Gongdong Hakwi
New Zealand	Joint Degree
Peru	(No response provided)
Singapore	Joint Degree ⁴⁵
Chinese Taipei	Joint Degree Dual Degree ⁴⁶
United States	Joint Degree

Online Programme

Online delivery has become an important part of HEI activity in many economies. Some regard it as distinctive to regular delivery and others do not make a significant distinction.

Hong Kong, China; Korea and Chinese Taipei refer to **distance education or learning**, defined in the latter as ‘the interaction between teachers and students by means of telecommunication networks, computer networks, video channels and other media’⁴⁷.

In Australia; Canada; New Zealand and the USA the term **online programme or course** is used. It does not appear that any economy distinguishes between online programmes that are delivered to students domestically or in other economies. This likely reflects the nature of contemporary CBE in which a significant focus remains on face-to-face delivery.

Table 6: Online programme terminology

Economy	Survey response
Australia	Online Programme / Course
Canada	Online Programme
China	(No specific definition provided)
Hong Kong, China	Purely Distance Learning Programme ⁴⁸
Indonesia	Pendidikan Jarak Jauh
Japan	(No response provided)
Korea	Distance Education
New Zealand	Online Programme
Peru	(No response provided)
Singapore	(No response provided)
Chinese Taipei	Distance Learning
United States	Online Programme

Others forms of CBE

All economies were asked to suggest other means of reference to CBE in addition to those already included above. Three economies – China; Hong Kong, China and the USA provided responses to this question.

China reported **Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools** which refers to the activities of the cooperation between foreign educational institutions and Chinese educational institutions in establishing educational institutions within China to provide education services mainly to Chinese citizens⁴⁹.

Hong Kong, China reported three variants. First, **regulated courses** in which students study in Hong Kong, China but gain a qualification from an HEI in another economy. Second, a **non-local institution** which is established and operates primarily outside of Hong Kong, China. Third, a recognized non-local institution which is recognised by the relevant accreditation authority in another economy⁵⁰.

The USA reported **offshore programmes** in which instruction is typically face-to-face rather than entirely online, or a hybrid approach of both methods is used⁵¹.

Terminology conclusion

Overall the findings from the survey, taken together with findings from previous studies, indicate that there is a lack of consistency in the terminology used for CBE among APEC economies. In many cases different terminology is used to refer to the same element.

This may reflect subtle assumptions and historical antecedents but in many cases, it is clear that there is a lack of clarity within economies themselves on why particular terms are used.

More confusingly, the same terms are frequently used to refer to different elements, leading to the risk of assuming that a term has a certain meaning when this may not be the case.

The greatest variability seems to lie in reference to dual and joint degrees. In some economies, there are quite stark differences between the two while in others just one term is used for both iterations.

Although asked to provide a source for each term, the majority of economies did not do so, and this further illustrates the complexity of understanding about how CBE operates in each individual economy, potentially in itself forming a barrier to expanded CBE into the future.

Data on CBE

Data from the branch campus listing maintained by C-BERT illustrates interesting patterns of incoming and outgoing CBE from and to APEC economies.

Figure 1 shows, the largest source of outgoing CBE by this measure is the USA with 77 branch campuses in other

economies (33 in APEC economies), followed by Russia with 21 (none in APEC economies) and Australia with 15 (11 in APEC economies). The largest host of CBE is China with 32 branch campuses (19 from APEC economies), followed by Malaysia with 12 (5 from APEC economies) and Singapore with 11 (7 from APEC economies).

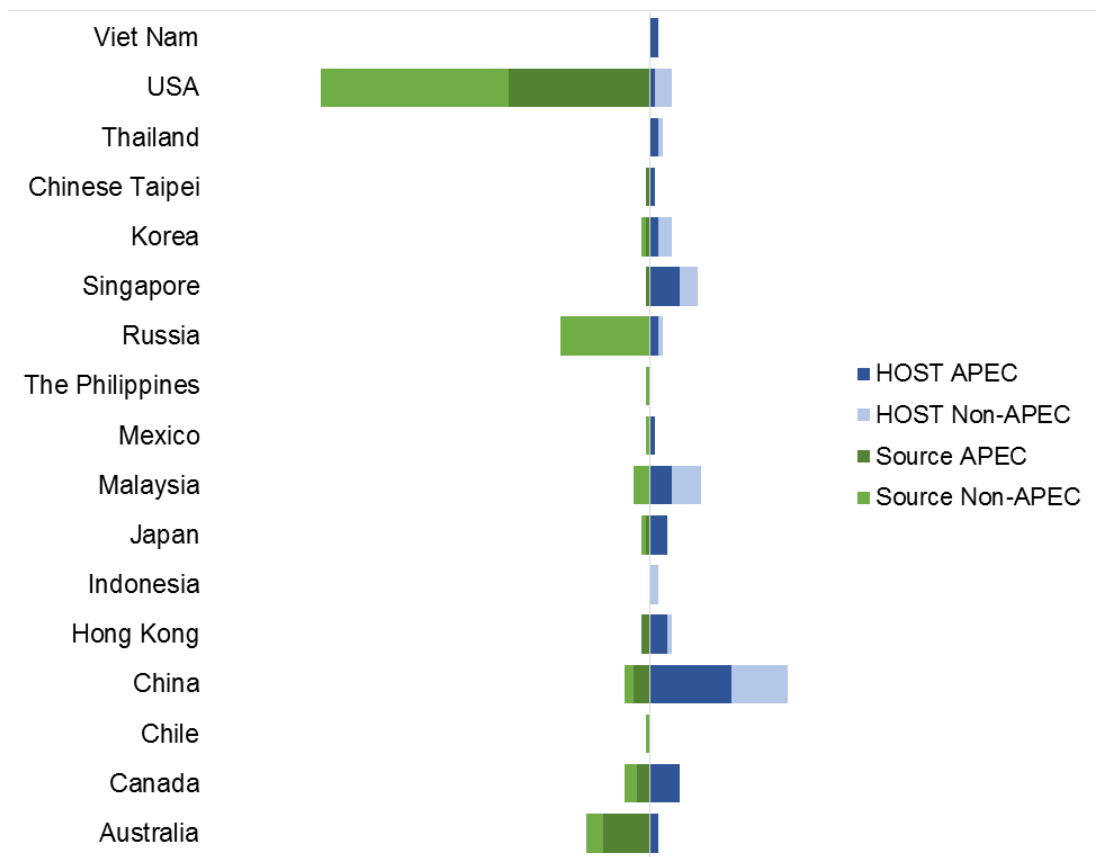


Figure 1: Incoming and outgoing CBE, C-BERT 2017

Of course, branch campuses are not the only manifestation of CBE and therefore the survey sought to collect data from

economies on the scale of a range of forms of CBE.

Incoming CBE

Survey responses on incoming CBE are summarised in **Table 7**.

Just four economies were able to provide a figure for the total number of foreign HEIs operating in their economy. Canada nominated 16; Hong Kong, China nominated 184; Japan nominated 7 and Korea nominated 5. Other economies either indicated that this data was not collected or did not provide a response, something which could also be regarded as indicating that the data is not collected or unavailable.

Indonesia reported data separately for four HEIs. For example, for BINUS University it was reported that there is one dual degree with a German HEI and a number of joint degrees with HEIs in nine economies. No data was available at the national level.

New Zealand noted that HEIs from other economies cannot operate in New Zealand unless they are in a joint venture with a domestic HEI. Canada reported that the number identified consists of institutions authorized by the relevant provincial or territorial government to issue a degree and have a parent institution in another economy.

For branch campuses, seven economies provided a number for these (although several used the C-BERT listing as the reference, indicating that this data was not necessarily collected in their economy).

For dual degrees, joint degrees and twinning programmes, just China; Hong Kong, China; Japan and Chinese Taipei were able to provide partial numbers, incorporated in joint categories by both

Hong Kong, China and Chinese Taipei. No economies were able to provide any figures for incoming online programmes.

In terms of additional information, China reported that more than 600 thousand academic staff from overseas were undertaking teaching, Chinese Taipei reported 295, Indonesia reported 48 and Korea reported 108 while other economies reported that this information was not available or collected.

Singapore identified a list of 292 Private Education Institutions that were operating in Singapore but the list was not further disaggregated and since it incorporated all levels of education it was not clear which of these institutions were HEIs.

Table 7: Data on incoming CBE

Economy	Total number of foreign HEIs operating in each economy	Foreign HEIs with incoming campuses	Foreign HEIs with incoming twinning programmes	Foreign HEIs with incoming dual degrees	Foreign HEIs with incoming joint degrees	Foreign HEIs with incoming online programmes	Foreign HEIs with other forms of incoming HE
Australia	-	2 (2 economies) ⁵²	-	-	-	-	-
Canada	16 (3 economies) ⁵³	-	-	-	-	-	-
China	-	8 (4 economies)	1112 (30 economies)	224 (19 economies)	-	-	-
Hong Kong, China	184 (13 economies) ⁵⁴	2	-	121 ⁵⁵		-	-
Indonesia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Japan	7 (4 economies) ⁵⁶	7	-	-	-	-	-
Korea	5 (3 economies) ⁵⁷	5	-	-	-	-	-
New Zealand	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Peru	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Singapore	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Chinese Taipei	-	-	295 across categories (30 economies)			-	-
United States	-	7 (7 economies)	-	-	-	-	-

Outgoing CBE

Economies were asked to report any data that was available on the CBE activities of their own HEIs, summarised in **Table 8**. The majority of economies reported that data on outbound CBE was generally not collected or not available. Just five economies were able to state the number of domestic HEIs with overseas campuses (Australia; China; Hong Kong, China; Chinese Taipei and the USA).

Beyond this, Hong Kong, China had the most complete data of all economies that responded to the survey, identifying four domestic HEIs with dual degrees in other economies, two domestic HEIs with joint degrees in other economies and two HEIs with other forms of CBE.

Australia was able to report that 821 programmes were offered by Australian

HEIs in other economies, usually in partnership with local HEIs and encompassing twinning programmes, dual degrees, joint degrees and online programmes. Further disaggregation was not possible. New Zealand could identify 25 overseas twinning programmes and further noted that if a programme is delivered internationally in cooperation with an overseas HEI, quality assurance is undertaken in the overseas economy.

China was able to identify 98 domestic HEIs with overseas twinning programmes and Japan was able to identify 126 offshore offices or centres of Japanese HEIs. Chinese Taipei could identify 50 programmes run by domestic HEIs in other economies, encompassing dual degrees, joint degrees and online programmes.

Table 8: Data on outgoing CBE

Economy	Domestic HEIs with overseas campuses	Domestic HEIs with overseas twinning programmes	Domestic HEIs with overseas dual degrees	Domestic HEIs with overseas joint degrees	Domestic HEIs with overseas online programmes	Domestic HEIs with other forms of overseas HE
Australia	14 HEIs (31 campuses, 9 economies)	821 programmes offered by Australian HEIs offshore				-
Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
China	6 (6 economies)	98	-	-	-	-
Hong Kong, China	2 (1 economy)	-	4 (14 economies)	2 (3 economies)	-	2 (multiple economies)
Indonesia	-	-	-	-	-	-
Japan	-	-	-	-	-	126 (offices or centres)
Korea	-	-	-	-	-	-
New Zealand	-	25 (>12 economies)	-	-	-	-
Peru	-	-	-	-	-	-
Singapore	-	-	-	-	-	-
Chinese Taipei	1	53 (30 economies)	-	-	-	-
United States	61 (77 campuses, 34 economies)	-	-	-	-	-

No economy was able to identify data on the number of online programmes offered overseas by their own HEIs.

Indonesia again reported data separately for four HEIs. For example, it was reported that Institut Teknologi Sepuluh Nopember had incoming online programmes from one HEI in Japan and another in Germany and that there were 25 programmes (twinning, dual and joint) with HEIs in France.

Singapore noted that its autonomous HEIs have a number of dual- and joint-degree programmes with international partners. Canada noted that, as of 2013, information on foreign activities of domestic HEIs was published by fewer than half of Canadian provinces and territories but that a 2012 study found that half of Canadian universities had dual degree programmes and a quarter of those also had joint degree programmes⁵⁸.

Data collected by Universities Australia (the peak body of Australian HEIs) indicates that there are 8,515 formal agreements between Australian HEIs and HEIs in other economies (the largest number with HEIs in China and the USA)⁵⁹. 68 per cent include some kind of academic or research collaboration component, 56 per cent provide for student exchange, 46 per cent are for staff exchange and 25 per cent relate to study abroad agreements.

It is likely that HEIs in other economies also have a large number of these kind of agreements with partners in other economies. While it is often the case that such agreements are relatively dormant, with little active collaboration, they can also foreshadow active CBE mobility so

are another important indicator of this phenomenon.

Barriers to data collection

When initial survey results were obtained it was immediately clear that few economies systematically collected data at a central level on CBE. For those economies that did, the availability of data on CBE reflected the maturity of their overall higher education data collection systems.

To provide economies with less well developed higher education data collection systems with an insight into what higher education data could be collected, and how this could be used to foster accountability, transparency and empirically-informed decision making, a series of workshops were provided. These were held in Chile, Indonesia, Mexico, Peru and The Philippines. The workshops used the Australian higher education data collection system that is in place as an example of what can be achieved.

In all economies in which workshops were held, similar challenges to higher education data collection were reported:

- First, changes in education policy at each election which led to difficulty in the introduction of, and sustainability of, higher education policy, with systematic data collection a common casualty. A lack of centralisation of higher education agencies also meant that HEIs were frequently asked for data from a number of different directions.
- Second, a degree of mutual distrust between higher education institutions (as well as their staff and students)

and governments resulting in difficulty agreeing on what higher education should be collected, and how this could be done. This was reinforced by an absence of any legal powers for governments to require HEIs to provide data on request (as exists in Australia) and concern about how data would be used.

- Third, and related to the second point, a high level of autonomy of HEIs in many economies meaning that they were able to determine how they operated without much oversight from government. This meant that although some HEIs had sophisticated higher education data collection processes in place, these remained at the level of individual institutions.
- Fourth, prioritisation of higher education activities deemed to be of greater importance, from ensuring that all HEIs and their programmes were appropriately accredited to the development of quality assurance and credit recognition policies. Associated with this was a lack of attention in HEIs to ensuring that there were staff with sufficient data skills to analyse any data that was collected.

Overall, insights from the challenge of collecting data on CBE from economies and from discussions at workshops indicate a significant finding – that the only way to systematically collect data on CBE among APEC economies is to approach HEIs directly.

Governance of CBE

Prior research has highlighted the very distinct ways in which CBE is governed in different economies⁶⁰. In this survey, a section was included to request information on the way in which CBE is governed, the legislation that underpins this and the organisation with oversight for each element. Economies were also asked to report if there were any ongoing reforms or policy changes around the governance of CBE in their economy. Responses are summarised in **Table 9**.

One significant distinction related to the organisation of government. For example, in three economies with federal government, the way in which CBE is governed varies. In Australia, tertiary education is governed centrally, whereas in Canada and the USA it is governed at the level of states, provinces or territories.

In China and Hong Kong, China there are clear legal underpinnings for any foreign involvement in higher education, and the focus is very much on enabling foreign HEIs to provide education to citizens of those economies⁶¹.

While no response came from the latter economy to the survey, prior research highlights the importance of the Non-

Local Higher and Professional Education (Regulation) Ordinance, Cap 493 (the Ordinance), which came into effect in June 1997⁶².

Japan did not respond to this survey question but Measure 16 of the Second Basic Plan for the Promotion of Education focuses on strengthening global human resource development through CBE, with specific reference to Japanese support for “CAMPUS Asia” programmes in which Japanese HEIs collaborate with HEIs in China and Korea.

In Korea, the higher education act has evolved over time⁶³, starting with cross-border programmes and then broadening to cover joint degrees and finally to the establishment of campuses of foreign HEIs in specific locations⁶⁴. In Singapore, the activities of private HEIs are governed by the Private Education Act⁶⁵ and this includes all CBE activities.

In Indonesia, the emphasis of CBE legislation is quite different, instead focusing very much on enhancing the quality of Indonesian HEIs through cooperation with foreign HEIs⁶⁶.

Table 9: Governance and Oversight of CBE

Economy	Legislation	Oversight Agency
Australia	Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency Act, 2011 ⁶⁷	Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency
Canada	Laws of provincial and territorial governments	Provincial and territorial governments
China	Regulations of the People’s Republic of China on Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools ⁶⁸	International Division of Ministry of Education
Hong Kong, China	-	
Indonesia	Law of The Republic of Indonesia Number 12 Year 2012 on Higher Education, Section 50 ⁶⁹	Ministry of National Education
Japan	Standards for Establishment of Universities (Articles 18, and 50-57), Standards for Establishment of Graduate Schools (Articles 10, 35-41, and 45), Standards for Establishment of Junior Colleges (Articles 4 and 43-50), and Standards for Establishment of Professional Graduate Schools (Article 35-42)	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
Korea	-Decree of studying abroad -Regulations for review standard on the establishment of foreign campuses ⁷⁰	Ministry of Education
New Zealand	Education Act 1989, parts 18, 20 and 24 applicable, New Zealand Qualifications Authority rules ⁷¹	New Zealand Qualifications Authority
Peru	Policy of Internationalization (under construction)	Ministry of Education
Singapore	Private Education Act	Council for Private Education
Chinese Taipei	1. Implementation Regulations Governing Institutions of Higher Education Continuing Education ⁷² 2. Regulations Governing the Establishment, Alterations, and Cessation of Operations of Junior Colleges and Institutions of Higher Education and of Their Branch Campuses and Divisions including Skills-based Senior High School Divisions ⁷³	Ministry of Education

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Economy	Legislation	Oversight Agency
	3. Directions Regarding Institutions of Higher Education Applying for Setting Up Overseas Programs ⁷⁴	
United States	State laws and policies	Individual states

Licensing/accreditation of CBE HEIs/Programmes

Similar to overall governance, licensing and accreditation arrangements for CBE varied by economy. A summary is provided in **Table 10**.

In Canada, all provincial and territorial governments have legislation related to licensing and accreditation the operations of incoming CBE, with incoming CBE subject to quality assurance mechanisms by the relevant provincial or territorial education ministry. This is similar to what happens in the USA. In Australia, all licensing and accreditation is overseen by the Tertiary Education and Quality Standards Agency (TEQSA) and is an identical process regardless of the origin of HEIs.

In Singapore, there are a number of accreditation bodies and the Singapore Quality Class for Private Education

Organisations provides the industry standard for the private education sector. Ultimately it is the responsibility of the Council for Private Education to license and regulate private education (including HEIs from other economies).

Korea has clearly defined regulations that cover the establishment and operation of higher education institutions. In Indonesia, accreditation takes the form of assessment against criteria defined in the National Higher Education Standards⁷⁵.

In Peru, the requirements for the the licensing of HEIs are established by the Superintendencia Nacional de Educación Superior Universitaria. Since this is a relatively recent development all Peruvian HEIs are undergoing a licensing process.

Table 10: Licencing and accreditation of CBE

Economy	Legislation	Oversight Agency
Australia	Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency Act, 2011	Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency ⁷⁶
Canada	Provincial and territorial government legislation governing the operations of HEIs ⁷⁷ .	Provincial and territorial governments and oversight bodies ⁷⁸
China	Regulations of the People’s Republic of China on Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools ⁷⁹	International Division of Ministry of Education
Hong Kong, China	Non-local Higher and Professional Education (Regulation) Ordinance, Cap.493	Non-local Courses Registry, Education Bureau
Indonesia	Law of The Republic of Indonesia Number 12 Year 2012 on Higher Education, Section 33 ⁸⁰	Ministry of Higher Education
Japan	Standards for Establishment of Universities, School Education Law and other related ordinances ⁸¹	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
Korea	Regulations for establishment and operation of higher education institutions ⁸²	Ministry of Education
New Zealand	Education Act 1989, parts 18, 20 and 24 applicable, New Zealand Qualifications Authority rules ⁸³	New Zealand Qualifications Authority
Peru	Law N°30220, University Law Resolution of Steering Committee N° 006-2015-SUNEDU/CD: Licencing Model and its implementation on University Peruvian System Law N°30220	National Superintendency of Higher Education
Singapore	Private Education Act ⁸⁴	Skills Future Singapore Agency Committee for Private Education
Chinese Taipei	-	Ministry of Education
United States	(Each state has its own laws and policies)	-

Quality assurance of HEIs

Quality assurance of HEIs and the programmes they offer is deemed extremely important in the education systems of most APEC economies. As **Table 11** illustrates, quality assurance is frequently defined in the key legislature that underpins higher education activities in each economy. Examples include the *Law of The Republic of Indonesia Number 12 Year 2012 on Higher Education*, the *Korean Higher Education Act*, the *University Act* in Chinese Taipei, the *New Zealand Education Act* and the *Japan School Education Law*.

In other economies, quality assurance in higher education is outlined in a specific legislative provision (often a sub-component of the key higher education legislature). Examples include the *Australian Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency Act*, the *Accreditation of Academic and Vocational Qualifications Ordinance in Hong Kong, China*; and the *Peru Supreme Decree on Quality Assurance Policy for Higher University Education*.

In both of the cases outlined above quality assurance is regarded as equally relevant to domestic HEI activities and those undertaken by HEIs from other economies. This is commonly through the requirement that foreign HEIs must partner with a local institution. In some economies, there is also a specific provision related to the nature of CBE delivery. Examples include the Ministry of Education's Notice on Further

Standardising Orders of Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools in China and the Non-Local Higher and Professional Education (Regulation) Ordinance in Hong Kong, China.

In terms of implementation, many APEC economies have agencies that specifically cover the quality assurance of HEIs, such as TEQSA in Australia, the Academic Quality Agency for New Zealand Universities and the Center for University Accreditation in Korea. In some cases, the quality assurance of CBE is done in the same way as local higher education is reviewed, while in other cases it is quite distinct.

A number of bodies have agreed to cooperate with sister agencies in other economies. For example, the Korean Center collaborates with the National Institution for Academic Degrees and Quality Enhancement of Higher Education in Japan and the Accrediting Commission for Senior Colleges and Universities of the Western Association of Schools and Colleges in the United States.

In some economies, there are a number of bodies. For example, in Japan these include the Japan University Accreditation Association, the National Institution for Academic Degrees and Quality Enhancement of Higher Education and the Japan Institution for Higher Education Evaluation. All of these are certified by the Minister of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology.

Table 11: Quality Assurance

Economy	Legislation	Oversight Agency
Australia	Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency Act, 2011	Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency ⁸⁵
Canada	Provincial and territorial government legislation governing the quality assurance of HEIs ⁸⁶ .	Provincial and territorial governments and oversight bodies ⁸⁷
China	Ministry of Education’s Notice on Further Standardize Orders of Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools Ministry of Education’s Recommendations on Current Issues of Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools ⁸⁸	International Division of Ministry of Education
Hong Kong, China	Accreditation of Academic and Vocational Qualifications (AAVQ) Ordinance (Cap. 592) Non-local Higher and Professional Education (Regulation) Ordinance, Cap.493 Audit Manual ⁸⁹	Hong Kong Council for AAVQ Non-local Courses Registry, Education Bureau Quality Assurance Council
Indonesia	Law of The Republic of Indonesia Number 12 Year 2012 on Higher Education, Section 51 to 53 ⁹⁰	Ministry of Higher Education
Japan	Standards for Establishment of Universities, School Education Law and other related ordinances ⁹¹	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
Korea	Higher education act, article 11- 2 ⁹² Regulations for evaluation and recognition of higher education institutions ⁹³	Korean Council of University Education
New Zealand	Education Act 1989, parts 18, 20 and 24 applicable, New Zealand Qualifications Authority rules ⁹⁴	New Zealand Qualifications Authority
Peru	Supreme Decree N°016-2015-MINEDU - Quality Assurance Policy for Higher University Education ⁹⁵	National Superintendency of Higher Education
Singapore	-	-
Chinese Taipei	Article 5, University Act ⁹⁶	Ministry of Education
United States	State laws and policies	Individual States Secretary of Education

Recognition of foreign qualifications

The specific processes that enable the recognition of qualifications from a foreign HEI vary from one economy to another, as summarised in **Table 12**. In Australia, each state or territory has an Overseas Qualifications Unit to evaluate overseas qualifications⁹⁷ and evaluations are also done by industry groups⁹⁸.

In Australia; Canada; Singapore and the USA there is no overall policy and individual HEIs, regulatory bodies, and employers are responsible for ensuring that individuals have sufficient qualifications and competencies.

In China, the Chinese Service Center for Scholarly Exchange is trialling a Courses and Standards of Accreditation and Assessment of Degrees and Diplomas⁹⁹. In Korea, there is an enforcement decree of the higher education act to govern

foreign qualifications recognition and this is enforced by Ministry of Education¹⁰⁰.

The way in which foreign qualifications are recognised is related to the extent to which economies have defined the competencies required for each level of study. Examples such as the Australian Qualifications Framework¹⁰¹, in which criteria are defined for every level of study to ensure that students are able to demonstrate specific learning outcomes, make qualifications recognition quite similar.

Similar frameworks exist in a number of APEC economies, including Canada¹⁰²; Hong Kong, China¹⁰³ and New Zealand¹⁰⁴ and are under development in other economies.

Foreign faculty

China has specific provisions related to HEIs employing foreign experts and teaching staff which are regulated by the State Administration of Foreign Experts Affairs¹⁰⁵. This is quite rare.

Although other economies may have specific policies related to the

qualifications required to teach in HEIs (for example in Chinese Taipei¹⁰⁶) in most economies there is no specific legislation. In these cases, the employment of foreign faculty is simply under the auspices of immigration law, as well as based on the requirements of individual HEIs.

Table 12: Recognition of foreign qualifications

Economy	Legislation	Oversight Agency
Australia	Overseas Qualifications Unit in each State / Territory ¹⁰⁷	Australian Government Department of Education and Training
Canada	(No overall legislation)	Individual HEIs, regulatory bodies, and employers
China	CSCSE's Courses and Standards of Accreditation and Assessment of Degrees and Diplomas ¹⁰⁸	Chinese Service Center for Scholarly Exchange
Hong Kong, China	-	-
Indonesia	Defined under regulation of The Minister of National Education Number 14 Year 2014 on Cooperation in Higher Education, Section 6, 7, 9 ¹⁰⁹	Ministry of Education
Japan	-	-
Korea	Enforcement decree of the higher education act, article 70 ¹¹⁰	Ministry of Education
New Zealand	Education Act 1989, Section 246A (h, j) Qualification Recognition Service ¹¹¹	New Zealand Qualifications Authority
Peru	Bilateral or Multilateral Agreements	National Superintendency of Higher Education
Singapore	-	At the discretion of employers and education institutions
Chinese Taipei	Regulations Regarding the Assessment and Recognition of Foreign Academic Credentials for Institutions of Higher Education ¹¹²	Ministry of Education
United States	-	

Delivery of online programmes

Online delivery remains somewhat on the periphery of CBE, partly because the benefits of CBE are frequently considered to arise from the physical cross-border movement of people and institutions. As CBE evolves, however, online education is likely to gain in importance. This makes it relevant to consider how online programmes are regulated. Summary information is provided in **Table 13**.

In a number of economies there is specific legislation in relation to the delivery of online programmes whereas in other economies it is regarded as simply one of many forms of higher education delivery. Regardless of which of these policy settings is in place there are no clear examples of online CBE delivery being treated as distinct from domestic online delivery.

In Canada and USA, the legislation related to delivery of online programmes is subject to the quality assurance requirements of individual provinces and territories. In China, online education comes under the Ministry of Education's Notice on Further Standardizing Degrees and Diplomas Managements of Online

Degree Education in Modern Remote Education Piloting Institutes¹¹³.

In Indonesia, the legislation related to the delivery of online programmes is under the Law of The Republic of Indonesia Number 12 Year 2012 on Higher Education, Section 31 and the Regulation of The Minister of National Education Number 109 Year 2013 on Distance Learning Management in Higher Education, Section 1.

Japan has the policy of Standards for Establishment of Universities, School Education Law and other related ordinances for delivery of online programmes¹¹⁴. The delivery of online programmes in Peru come under the policy of internationalization of education, while in Chinese Taipei it is under the policy of Implementation Regulations Regarding Distance Learning by Universities¹¹⁵.

In Australia; New Zealand and Singapore online education comes under the same legislation and quality assurance requirements as face-to-face delivery and is overseen by the respective agencies accordingly.

Table 13: Online provision

Economy	Legislation	Oversight Agency
Australia	Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency Act, 2011	Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency
Canada	Provincial and territorial government legislation governing the quality assurance of HEIs ¹¹⁶ .	Provincial and territorial governments and oversight bodies ¹¹⁷
China	Ministry of Education’s Notice on Further Standardizing Degrees and Diplomas Managements of On-line Degree Education in Modern Remote Education Piloting Institutes ¹¹⁸	General Office, Ministry of Education
Hong Kong, China	-	-
Indonesia	Law of The Republic of Indonesia Number 12 Year 2012 on Higher Education, Section 31	Ministry of Education
Japan	Standards for Establishment of Universities, School Education Law and other related ordinances ¹¹⁹	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
Korea	-	-
New Zealand	-	-
Peru	Policy of Internationalization (under construction)	Ministry of Education
Singapore	Private Education Act	Committee for Private Education
Chinese Taipei	Implementation Regulations Regarding Distance Learning by Universities ¹²⁰	Ministry of Education
United States	-	-

Collection of higher education data

As discussed in an earlier section, data collection on CBE remains relatively limited among APEC economies. One of the factors involved is the relative autonomy of HEIs, meaning that data on their activities is not necessarily collected by government. Another factor is that overall higher education data collection systems are not well advanced. A summary of information about data collection is given in **Table 14**.

In Australia, the Higher Education Support Act includes the regulation that ‘a higher education provider must give to the Minister such statistical and other information that the Minister by notice in writing requires from the provider in respect of ... the provision of higher education by the provider’¹²¹. This legislative underpinning ensures that data is regularly and systematically collected on higher education activities across all HEIs by the Department of Education and Training.

Central government collection of data on higher education systems is also in place in a number of other APEC economies.

In China, the collection of higher education data comes under the Index System of Monitoring and Evaluation Statistics which is implemented by the Ministry of Education¹²².

Similarly, in Hong Kong, China; Indonesia; Japan; New Zealand and Chinese Taipei the collection of data on HEI is something that takes place at the level of central government, although it is unclear whether all of these economies have similar legislative underpinnings to their higher education data collection as exists in Australia. In Chinese Taipei, the National Academy for Education Research also collects higher education data¹²³.

In Singapore, CBE comes under the category of private education and the Private Education Act determines the collection of data in these circumstances. In the USA, the American Council on Education and the Cross-Border Education Research Team both collect higher education data but neither of these are government bodies. Canada did not respond to this question on the survey.

Table 14: Collection of higher education data

Economy	Legislation	Oversight Agency
Australia	Higher Education Support Act 2003 ¹²⁴	Australian Government Department of Education and Training
Canada	-	-
China	Index System of Monitoring and Evaluation Statistics ¹²⁵	Development and Planning Division, Ministry of Education
Hong Kong, China	University Grants Committee (UGC) Notes on Procedures ¹²⁶	University Grants Committee
Indonesia	Law of The Republic of Indonesia Number 12 Year 2012 on Higher Education, Section 56 ¹²⁷	Ministry of Education
Japan	-	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
Korea	-	-
New Zealand	-	Tertiary Education Commission Ministry of Education ¹²⁸
Peru	Supreme Decree N° 016-2015, Quality Assurance Policy for Higher University Education	National Superintendency of Higher Education
Singapore	Private Education Act	Council for Private Education
Chinese Taipei	Register Statistics Formulas Implementation Directions ¹²⁹ National Academy for Education Research ¹³⁰	Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics Ministry of Education
United States	-	C-BERT

Agreements on CBE

An important structural underpinning for CBE are the cross-border agreements that economies are signatories to. These may be bilateral or multilateral and provide fertile ground for CBE to take

place. In the final section of the survey economies were asked to provide details about any agreements they have on various aspects of CBE.

Recognition of cross-border qualifications and credits

An important agreement that can help enable CBE is the mutual recognition of qualifications and credits between economies. These are frequently bilateral but can also be multilateral. Some agreements may be limited to credit recognition while others may encompass a range of elements of education. As illustrated in **Table 15** an example of broad agreements on cooperation in education are the memoranda of understanding between China; Hong Kong, China; Indonesia; Korea; Malaysia; New Zealand; the UK and Viet Nam.

Similarly, New Zealand has bilateral arrangements with Australia; Germany; India; Malaysia; Spain and Thailand, and is a signatory of three regional agreements, two with European economies.

China has agreements on qualifications recognition with 46 other economies and regions. Both China and Korea were original signatories to the Asia-Pacific Regional Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education in 2011¹³¹. Australia and China became parties to the convention together in 2014, with Japan, Korea and New Zealand joining in 2017¹³².

The forerunner of the current agreement was the Regional Convention on the

Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific, agreed in 1985. In addition to Australia and China, a number of APEC economies were signatories including Indonesia; Korea; The Philippines; Russia; Thailand and Viet Nam¹³³.

Canada has examples of specific agreements on mutual recognition of qualifications, such as the Québec-France Agreement on the Mutual Recognition of Professional Qualifications, in addition to agreements developed by specific provinces and territories with other economies. There are also mutual recognition agreements in Canada that govern specific professions. At a domestic level, Canada has a comprehensive trade agreement with the European Union that incorporates qualifications recognition.

Regional efforts on mutual recognition are have been developed by a number of APEC economies. The ASEAN Plus Three Guidelines on Student Exchanges and Mobility were approved in 2016¹³⁴ and include reference to credit transfer. In addition, ASEAN Plus Three Guidelines on Transcripts and Supplemental Documents for Academic Record of Exchange Students, which include conversion table for the credit transfer systems, is being developed and expected to be approved in 2018.

The ASEAN Plus Three framework includes the APEC economies of China; Japan and Korea as well as the seven ASEAN economies that are also APEC economies.

The guidelines encourage HEIs to accept credit transfer in accordance with the University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific and ASEAN Credit Transfer Systems.

Similarly, Peru and Chile have signed the Andrés Bello Agreement on Educational, Scientific and Cultural Integration¹³⁵.

Table 15: Recognition of qualifications and credits

Economy	Agreements
Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UNESCO Asia-Pacific Regional Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education¹³⁶ • University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Member¹³⁷
Canada	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Canada-European Union: Comprehensive Economic and Trade Agreement¹³⁸ • Québec-France Agreement on the Mutual Recognition of Professional Qualifications¹³⁹ • Agreements developed by provinces and territories • Mutual recognition agreements governing specific professions¹⁴⁰ • University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Member¹⁴¹
China	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agreements on the recognition of cross-border qualifications and credits with 46 countries and regions¹⁴² • UNESCO Asia-Pacific Regional Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education¹⁴³ • University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Member
Hong Kong, China	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Memorandum of Understanding on Education Cooperation between China; Hong Kong, China; Indonesia; Malaysia; China; Korea; UK; Viet Nam; New Zealand¹⁴⁴ • University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Member
Indonesia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Member¹⁴⁵
Japan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UNESCO Asia-Pacific Regional Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education • ASEAN Plus Three Guideline on Student Exchange and Mobility¹⁴⁶ • University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Member¹⁴⁷
Korea	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UNESCO Asia-Pacific Regional Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education¹⁴⁸ • University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Member¹⁴⁹
New Zealand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bilateral arrangements with Australia; Germany; India; Malaysia; Spain; Thailand¹⁵⁰ • Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region 1997¹⁵¹ • Asia-Pacific Regional Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education • European Convention on the Equivalence of Diplomas Leading to Admission to Universities¹⁵² • University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Member¹⁵³
Peru	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bilateral agreements with Germany; Argentina; Brazil; Bulgaria; Slovakia; Chile; Colombia; Cuba; Ecuador; France; Spain; India; Italy; Mexico; Morocco; Panama; Paraguay; Romania; Russia; Ukraine; Uruguay; Venezuela. • Andres Bello Agreement

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Economy	Agreements
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Latin America and Caribbean Regional Agreement for validation
Singapore	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autonomous Universities have agreements with HEIs in other economies on collaboration • Singapore has MOUs with partner economies on general collaboration in higher education areas • University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Member¹⁵⁴
Chinese Taipei	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HEIs have autonomy in this CBE activity • University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Member¹⁵⁵
United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Member¹⁵⁶

Collaboration on quality assurance

Some of the overarching agreements mentioned in the previous section include quality assurance activities. In these cases, the information was not repeated. But in addition to overall agreements on higher education cooperation a number of economies also made specific mention of quality assurance agreements. These are shown in **Table 16**.

Quality assurance collaboration is probably the area of CBE in which economies are best able to recognise each other's quality assurance processes. This is due to the large amount of work that has been done over the years by various multilateral agencies to encourage collaboration in quality assurance processes.

At the international level, the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE) is a global association of quality assurance organisations and its members include quality assurance agencies from a number of APEC economies¹⁵⁷. INQAAHE provides a forum for the discussion of issues related to quality assurance, but its membership does not mean that there is mutual recognition of the quality assurance processes in all economies. Members include¹⁵⁸:

- The Tertiary Education and Quality Standards Agency in Australia
- The Ontario Universities Council on Quality Assurance in Canada
- The Agency for the Quality of the Higher Education in Chile
- The Higher Education Evaluation Center in China
- The Hong Kong Council for Accreditation of Academic and Vocational Qualifications
- The National Accreditation Agency for Higher Education in Indonesia
- The Japan University Accreditation Association
- The Korean Council for University Education
- The Malaysian Qualifications Agency
- The Inter Institutional Committees for the Evaluation of Higher Education in Mexico
- The New Zealand Qualifications Authority
- The Department of Higher Education, Research, Science and Technology in Papua New Guinea
- The Education Quality Accreditation Agency in Peru
- The Philippine Accrediting Association of Schools Colleges and Universities
- The Agency for Higher Education Quality Assurance and Career Development in Russia
- The Higher Education Evaluation and Accreditation Council of Taiwan
- The Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment in Thailand
- The Accreditation Council for Business Schools and Programs in the USA
- The Institute for Education Quality Assurance in Viet Nam

Table 16: Agreements on quality recognition

Economy	Agreements
Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Tertiary Education and Quality Standards Agency (TEQSA) has entered into agreement with quality assurance bodies in China; Hong Kong, China; Malaysia; New Zealand; Papua New Guinea; Singapore; USA and Viet Nam¹⁵⁹ • INQAAHE
Canada	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • INQAAHE
China	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • OECD Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education¹⁶⁰ • INQAAHE
Hong Kong, China	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • INQAAHE
Indonesia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • AUN-QA • INQAAHE
Japan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ASEAN Plus Three Guidelines on Student Exchanges and Mobility¹⁶¹ • The quality assurance institutions of China; Japan and Korea jointly conduct monitoring on the consortia's activities of "CAMPUS Asia" program¹⁶² • INQAAHE
Korea	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UNESCO Asia-Pacific Regional Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education¹⁶³ • INQAAHE
New Zealand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • INQAAHE • Asia-Pacific Quality Network • Academic Quality Agency for New Zealand Universities has entered into agreement with quality assurance bodies in Hong Kong, China and Chinese Taipei
Peru	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • INQAAHE
Singapore	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Committee for Private Education has signed MOUs with counterpart agencies to share information and best practices, including Australia; Hong Kong, China; UK
Chinese Taipei	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • INQAAHE
United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • INQAAHE

Among ASEAN members, the ASEAN University Network-Quality Assurance (AUN-QA) network is the focal point for coordinating activities to improve the academic quality of universities in ASEAN¹⁶⁴. Again, this does not necessarily mean that the quality assurance practices of all economies are mutually recognised but does facilitate a growing level of cooperation in quality assurance across the relevant economies.

The Asia-Pacific Quality Network (APQN) focuses on enhancing the quality of higher education through strengthening the work of relevant quality assurance agencies and increasing cooperation between them¹⁶⁵. Members include quality assurance agencies in Australia; Brunei Darussalam; China; Hong Kong, China; Indonesia; Japan; Korea; Malaysia; New Zealand; Papua New Guinea; The Philippines; Russia; Singapore; Chinese Taipei; Thailand and Viet Nam¹⁶⁶.

To supplement the cooperation under INQAAHE, APQN and AUN-QA, quality assurance agencies in a number of economies have entered into specific quality assurance agreements with equivalent agencies in other economies.

Some agreements are bilateral. For example, TEQSA in Australia has entered into agreements with quality assurance bodies in a number of other economies¹⁶⁷. While these agreements are binding, others are not. For example, the Committee for Private Education in Singapore has signed memoranda of cooperation or understanding with quality assurance agencies in other economies, including Australia; Hong Kong, China; New Zealand and the United Kingdom to share information and best practices¹⁶⁸.

Other agreements are multilateral. For example, the Hong Kong Council for Accreditation of Academic and Vocational Qualifications and the Accreditation Council for Business Schools and Programs in the United States are also both affiliates of the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education¹⁶⁹. In another approach, the quality assurance institutions of China, Japan and Korea jointly conduct monitoring on the consortia's activities of the "CAMPUS Asia" program.

Free trade in higher education services

Economies were asked to identify any free trade agreements that they had on education services. Many responses were missing or incomplete so additional research has been used to supplement these. While economies have free trade agreements with partners all over the world those listed are just the ones that they have in place with other APEC economies.

In terms of commitment to free trade in higher education services, all of the following APEC economies have signed the General Agreements on Trade in Services (GATS) on free trade in higher education (albeit with some conditions in certain economies): Australia; China; Japan; Mexico; New Zealand; Russia; Chinese Taipei and Viet Nam.

An example of conditions is in Mexico where the terms of Commercial Presence are that foreign investment is only permitted up to 49 per cent of the registered capital of enterprises¹⁷⁰.

In addition to WTOs, a number of economies are signatories of other free trade agreements with relevance to higher education. For example, Australia; Brunei Darussalam; Malaysia; New Zealand; The Philippines; Singapore; Thailand and Viet Nam are all signatories of the ASEAN-Australia-New Zealand Free Trade Agreement¹⁷¹.

Similarly, Australia; Brunei Darussalam; Canada; Chile; Japan; Malaysia; Mexico; New Zealand; Peru; Singapore and Viet Nam are all engaged in negotiations on the Trans-Pacific Partnership¹⁷² while Canada; Mexico and the USA are all signatories of the North American Free Trade Agreement¹⁷³.

Beyond these two, most economies have bilateral free trade agreements in place that incorporate education services. In addition, many free trade agreements between APEC economies are under negotiation. Details are shown in **Table 17**.

Table 17: Free trade agreements

Economy	Agreements
Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • WTO General Agreement on Trade in Services • ASEAN-Australia-New Zealand Free Trade Agreement • Free trade agreements with Chile, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, New Zealand, Singapore, Thailand, USA¹⁷⁴
Canada	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • North American Free Trade Agreement¹⁷⁵. • Free trade agreements with Chile, China, Japan, Korea, Peru, The Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, USA¹⁷⁶
China	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • WTO General Agreement on Trade in Services¹⁷⁷ • Free trade agreements with ASEAN, Australia, Chile, Hong Kong China, Korea, New Zealand, Peru, Singapore¹⁷⁸
Hong Kong, China	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Free trade agreements with Chile, China, New Zealand¹⁷⁹
Indonesia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Free trade agreements with Australia, China, Japan, Korea, New Zealand (some under the auspices of ASEAN)¹⁸⁰
Japan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • WTO General Agreement on Trade in Services • Economic Partnership Agreements with ASEAN, Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Chile, Indonesia, Malaysia, Mexico, Peru, The Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam¹⁸¹
Korea	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FTAs with ASEAN, Australia, Canada, Chile, China, New Zealand, Peru, Singapore, USA, Vietnam¹⁸²
New Zealand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qualifications recognition under free trade agreements with China, Hong Kong China, Malaysia¹⁸³ • ASEAN-Australia-New Zealand Free Trade Agreement • WTO General Agreement on Trade in Services • Free trade agreements with ASEAN, Australia, China, Hong Kong, Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand¹⁸⁴
Peru	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Free trade agreements with Chile, China, Japan, Korea, Mexico, Singapore, Thailand, USA¹⁸⁵
Singapore	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Free trade agreements with ASEAN, Australia, China, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Peru, USA¹⁸⁶
Chinese Taipei	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • WTO General Agreement on Trade in Services¹⁸⁷ • Bilateral agreements with New Zealand and Singapore
United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • North American Free Trade Agreement¹⁸⁸ • Free trade agreements with Australia, Canada, Chile, Korea, Mexico, Peru, Singapore¹⁸⁹

Conclusion and recommendations

This report, and the survey that it was based on, was a companion activity to a prior report on CBE among APEC economies that was based solely on desktop analysis. The intention of surveying economies was to collect information that may not be available publicly in order to supplement the previous report. It was also hoped that it would be possible to collect data on CBE activities that related to provider mobility that was not available on the public record.

The report contains information submitted by the 12 APEC economies that responded to the survey. In many cases the information that economies provided was quite limited and it was therefore necessary to supplement this with additional sources of information in order to ensure that the record was more complete.

As the report makes clear, the collection of data on the cross-border mobility of HEIs can at times present challenges. Some economies were able to provide statistics on the number of incoming and outgoing campuses and collaborative programmes while others did not have this information to hand. In general, most economies have data on branch campuses of foreign HEIs operating in their economies or from their economies operating in other locations.

This data is relatively readily available both due to the regularly maintained records kept by C-BERT and also due to the formal processes that are required to establish branch campuses. Caution needs to be taken in interpreting data on branch campuses however. Different

economies have a range of regulations and policies that guide the establishment of branch campuses and these ensure that what is defined as a ‘branch campus’ in one economy is not regarded as such in another.

Data on collaborative programmes – encompassing twinning agreements, dual degrees and joint degrees – is much more problematic however. This is partly due to the fact that definitions and classifications of different types of collaborative programmes vary significantly between economies, reducing the degree of comparability that is possible.

But perhaps more significant is the fact that HEIs in many economies have a large degree of autonomy in establishing and implementing collaborative programmes. With a lack of close oversight from governments, there is also no centralised system of data collection on collaborative programmes in many economies.

Empirical insights are of considerable value for promoting transparency and accountability, as well as for determining where policy making is required. The results from the survey reported here make it clear that it is not currently possible to shed light on the true extent of CBE related to provider mobility among APEC economies.

There are two possible solutions for this, both of which have advantages and disadvantages.

- First, APEC economies start systematically collecting data from

HEIs on their cross-border activities.

- Second, a survey of HEIs in APEC economies is undertaken to collect information on their cross-border activities.

A major barrier to the first is that governments in many economies do not have the legislative authority to collect data from HEIs and do not currently have a system in place to do so. Thus, while it would be possible for economies with a well-established higher education data collection to expand this to include CBE activities, in many economies a system of higher education data collection would first need to be established, which could take a significant amount of time.

The second option is to directly survey HEIs to request data on CBE. This would be a very large task and would require a carefully thought out approach. In addition, a number of hurdles would need to be overcome first, not the least determining the population of HEIs to include in the survey. Another major issue would be defining the difference, for example, between dual and joint degrees when it is already clear that there are wildly different ways of defining what these mean.

A further potential limitation would be the willingness of HEIs to respond. As the section on data collection in this report notes, a degree of distrust exists in many HEIs about providing data on their activities to external parties, even governments in their own economies. Finally, in some HEIs data on collaborative agreements may well not be collected at the whole of institutional level, although this could be overcome by asking for survey instruments to be disseminated throughout institutions.

Overall, it is likely that the knowledge of CBE among APEC economies – and hence the dialogue and policy making it informs - will continue to be dominated by statistics on student mobility and – to a lesser extent – joint activities of researchers.

With a dearth of data on other forms of cross-border mobility policy makers will continue to operate in something of a vacuum as they can only guess at the scale of collaborations between HEIs across borders. Finding a way to fill this gap is certainly something that needs to be prioritised as APEC economies advance in fulfilling their goal of greater cooperation and regional harmony.

Endnotes

Since many of the webpages listed in this section are in languages other than English authors and titles have not been identified in many cases. All webpages were accessible in July 2017.

¹ APEC Economic Leaders. (2012). "APEC Economic Leaders' Declaration: ANNEX D - Promoting Cross-Border Education Cooperation." Retrieved 20 March, 2014, from http://apec.org/Meeting-Papers/Leaders-Declarations/2012/2012_aelm/2012_aelm_annexD.aspx .

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³ Radloff, A. (2016) *Mapping Researcher Mobility: Measuring research collaboration among APEC economies*. Canberra: Department of Education and Training, http://publications.apec.org/publication-detail.php?pub_id=1828

⁴ Richardson, S. (2015) *Enhancing cross-border higher education institution mobility in the APEC region*. APEC Group on Services Research report. Available from <https://www.apec.org/~media/Files/Groups/GOS/Enhancing%20crossborder%20higher%20education%20institution%20mobility%20in%20the%20APEC.pdf>

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⁷ UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2017) *Global Flow of Tertiary Level Students*. Accessed 9/7/2017 from <http://uis.unesco.org/en/uis-student-flow>; NUFFIC (2017) *Mobility Statistics*. Accessed 9/7/2017 from <https://www.nuffic.nl/en/internationalisation/mobility-statistics>; OECD (2017) *Education at a Glance 2016*, Accessed 9/7/2017 from <http://www.oecd.org/edu/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm>

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¹¹ Ibid

¹² Ibid

- ¹³ Universidad de Chile (2016) *Títulos Profesionales Extranjeros revalidados por la Universidad de Chile*. Accessed 2 April 2016 from <http://www.revalidaciones.uchile.cl/>
- ¹⁴ Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia (2010) *The National Higher Education Strategic Plan Phase 2 (2011-2015)*. Accessed 8 April 2016 from http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Malaysia/Malaysia_National_Higher_Education_Action_Plan_2011-2015.pdf
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- ²⁰ Education Bureau, The Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (2013) *Non-local Higher and Professional Education Courses*. Accessed 21 June 2016 from <http://www.edb.gov.hk/en/edu-system/postsecondary/non-local-higher-professional-edu/index.html>
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