Quality Assurance of Transnational Higher Education: *The Experiences of Australia and India*

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Preface

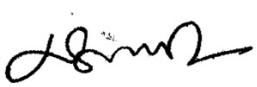
Examining the Australian and Indian higher education systems, one is first struck by the contrast in size. Australia has about 200 institutions, including 39 universities, while India has over 26,000 institutions, including 504 universities. Notwithstanding the differences in size, structure, regulatory mechanisms and sometimes the priorities, the two systems have several institutional arrangements and process in common. In each system, higher education institutions have grown to a certain level of maturity, creating an organic community of intellectuals engaged in teaching and research; there are state-level and national-level requirements and responsibilities; the government wants the higher education institutions to contribute to national development; and there is a primary national quality assurance agency which carries out institution-level reviews. In both countries, the national governments are currently engaged in strengthening the quality assurance operations.

Within this context the quality assurance agencies (National Assessment and Accreditation Council, NAAC in India, and Australian Universities Quality Agency, AUQA in Australia) have collaborated since the latter began operations in 2001 (NAAC was created in 1994). AUQA has also established collaboration with other Indian agencies, including University Grants Commission, All India Council for Technical Education, and National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA).

Further, when, in 2009, the Australian and Indian governments established a joint working group on various education-related matters, AUQA, NUEPA and NAAC readily agreed to carry out joint activities for improving quality in higher education. In fact, the joint working groupendorsed a number of joint initiatives to enhance mutual understanding of quality-related issues in both countries. One of them was on exploring quality assurance issues of transnational education, which has resulted in this joint publication of AUQA and NUEPA (India), and with financial support from the Australian Education International.

The publication covers areas specific to the trends, emerging challenges and opportunities related to higher education and quality assurance when education crosses national borders. Study of this area will be of benefit to both Australia and India since both countries have higher education institutions that operate transnationally, and the quality assurance arrangements in the countries are undergoing changes.

A large team of people have contributed to this publication, through writing, editing, and production processes. The publication contains a great deal of information and analysis that will be of interest and value to readers in both Australia and India, and more widely. NUEPA and AUQA are delighted to have been able to collaborate on this project, and appreciate the support of the Indian and Australian governments. Special thanks are due to Dr Antony Stella who conceived the project and has led it to a successful conclusion, and to Professor Sudhanshu Bhushan who led the Indian team.



R Govinda

David Woodhouse

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Section I

Introduction





Chapter 1

Evolving Dimensions of Transnational Education

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Transnational education (TNE) is one of the emerging features of the changing educational landscape that cuts across traditional borders and boundaries of education. With unprecedented growth in information and communication technologies, and with their creative application in distance and e-learning education, geographic borders seem to be of little consequence.

The terms 'transnational education', 'cross-border education', 'offshore education' and 'borderless education' are often used interchangeably, although Knight (2003a) points out that the first two are oriented to issues that arise when education crosses borders and hence emphasise the existence of borders, while 'borderless education' implies the disappearance of borders. Some definitions recognise that cross border is a broader term, while borderless, transnational and offshore education emphasise certain specific characteristics of cross-border education, and therefore form subsets of cross-border education. However, most definitions treat them as equivalent terms. In reality, all these usages allude to the blurring of conceptual, disciplinary, and geographic borders traditionally inherent in higher education (Woodhouse & Stella 2008).

In this book the term 'transnational' has been used to denote one or more of the equivalent terms mentioned above.

Scope and Definition of Transnational Education

What is known as transnational education is in fact a part of international engagement, or internationalisation of the higher education institutions. International engagement has been an important aspect of higher education for many decades, and institutions and scholars have established many forms of educational collaboration that cross national borders. Students, teachers and professionals crossing national borders for academic and professional purposes—known as academic mobility or people mobility—is an age-old phenomenon. But programs and institutions crossing national borders—program mobility and institution mobility—is of recent origin except for some traditional forms of distance education using print media. These two forms of mobility have increased significantly during the last two decades.

Until recently, students crossing borders was taken as the proxy to indicate all international higher education operations. Today, with the rapid growth of other forms of educational activities, student mobility has become a less satisfactory proxy for education operations that cross national borders. In addition, the movement of people, programs and institutions are becoming more complex, so the landscape continues to evolve, and as a result, the term 'transnational education' is also acquiring new dimensions, and it does not have one universally accepted definition. There are agreements about the broad elements of TNE, but various groups differ in the emphasis they give to certain aspects of TNE and what is included in the scope of TNE.

The Analytic Quality Glossary, originally prepared for the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE) and the European Higher Education Society special interest group on Quality on Higher Education during November 2004 – February 2009, defines transnational higher education as 'higher education provision that is available in more than one country'. The emphasis here is on how education provision extends to more than one country. This definition is inadequate for educational provisions of regional institutions like the University of the South Pacific and the University of West Indies, that are by nature multinational, as they offer their programs in more than one member country. The University of the South Pacific, created jointly by twelve South Pacific island states, operates campuses in each of these countries as its core business. The case of the University of West Indies in the Caribbean is similar. This means that we need a definition for TNE that is sharper than 'more than one country'. Given that the Analytic Quality Glossary is dynamic and keeps changing as the meanings evolve, one can hope that this definition will soon be refined.

The former US-based Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE), one of the early developments in providing quality assurance services for TNE providers, adopted this definition: 'Transnational Education denotes any teaching or learning activity in which the students are in a different country (the host country) to that in which the institution providing the education is based (the home country). This situation requires that national boundaries be crossed by information about the education, and by staff and/or educational materials' (GATE 1997, p. 1). This definition focuses not only on the 'more than one

country' aspect or characteristic, but also categorises the countries involved as host country and home country. It also highlights that national boundaries are crossed.

This definition too is inadequate for institutions that do not belong to a particular national system, and for institutions that do more than teaching and learning. For example, the Virtual University for Small States of the Commonwealth is a 30-country international online course development initiative. Courses developed under the aegis of this initiative are intended to be adapted and offered in many countries. To facilitate pathways and academic recognition, the Commonwealth of Learning has developed a Transnational Qualifications Framework. As associations and consortia of institutions in different countries jointly offer programs, the concept of one host country for a course or program is no longer valid.

Another gap in the GATE definition is that the scope of TNE is not very clear. Although it refers to any teaching or learning activity, it is not explicit that distance education is included in the scope of this definition. Given the questions around the place of distance education in the mainstream delivery of higher education, and the role of ICT-supported distance education in TNE, it is important to make that scope clear.

The definition adopted by the Council of Europe in the *Code of good practice in the provision of transnational education* (2002) overcomes this difficulty and defines transnational education as:

> All types of higher education study programmes, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based. Such programmes may belong to the education system of a State different from the State in which it operates, or may operate independently of any national education system.

It also defines 'transnational arrangements' as:

> An educational, legal, financial or other arrangement leading to the establishment of (a) collaborative arrangements, such as: franchising, twinning, joint degrees, whereby study programmes, or parts of a course of study, or other educational services of the awarding institution are provided by another partner institution; (b) non-collaborative arrangements, such as branch campuses, offshore institutions, corporate or international institutions, whereby study programmes, or parts of a course of study, or other educational services are provided directly by an awarding institution (Council of Europe 2002).

During 2002–05, when UNESCO and the OECD drafted the Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education, the Council of Europe's definition of TNE was the foundation, and after consulting a number of their members, the Guidelines adopted the following definition:

> ... cross-border higher education includes higher education that takes place in situations where the teacher, student, programme, institution/provider or course materials cross national jurisdictional borders. Cross-border higher education may include higher education by public/private and not-for-profit/for-profit providers.

> It encompasses a wide range of modalities, in a continuum from face-to-face (taking various forms such as students travelling abroad and campuses abroad) to distance learning (using a range of technologies and including e-learning) (UNESCO 2005).

This is by far the most comprehensive definition of TNE, although there are still issues that are not adequately covered, such as the consortia of institutions from different countries, institutions that do not belong to a national system, and multistate institutions.

National Variations

As definitions of TNE evolve, the way the different countries and agencies interpret the meaning and scope of TNE within their national and operational contexts varies.

Foreign students studying in Australia have, for many years, been referred to as 'international students'. Australia started using the term 'transnational education' two decades ago to differentiate between education services that are offered for these 'onshore' students and those offered to overseas students 'offshore'. Thus, 'international students' denotes only the foreign/overseas students studying in Australia, while 'TNE students' are those studying offshore. For example, the international student enrolment data collected by Australian Education International covers onshore international students only. In contrast, TNE in India refers to education services that come into the country; in general it does not refer to the education services offered by the Indian institutions across national borders. With more Indian institutions establishing overseas presences, this meaning is likely to change in the near future.

The scope of TNE also varies between countries, in particular in terms of the place given to distance education. For example, when Australia developed its National Quality Strategy for Australian Transnational Education and Training, it released a discussion paper (DEST 2005) for consultations with the sector. One of the issues that emerged in the consultation was 'what is included in TNE'. Australia's strategy, which will be discussed in Chapter 4, did not include pure distance education.

The discussion paper provided the following definition:

> Australian transnational education and training, also known as offshore or cross-border education and training, refers to the delivery and/or assessment of programs/courses by an accredited Australian provider in a country other than Australia, where delivery includes a face-to-face component. The education and/or training activity may lead to an Australian qualification or may be a non-award course, but in either case an accredited/approved/recognised Australian provider is associated with the education/training activity. As distinct from education and training provided in a purely distance mode, transnational education and training includes a physical presence of instructors offshore, either directly by the Australian provider, or indirectly through a formal agreement with a local institution/organisation (DEST 2005).

Feedback from the sector to this delineation was mixed. Academics and educational administrators who were conscious of the problems posed by e-learning were supportive

that in the initial stages it was good to focus on the educational activities that had some physical presence. But institutions that had a major stake in distance education, and believed that they had the capability to monitor the quality of learning outcomes irrespective of 'mode of delivery' and 'location', felt that omitting distance education was not appropriate.

For example, the University of Southern Queensland, one of the major distance education providers of Australia commented that this definition, which equates transnational education strictly with offshore face-to-face education, is not universally accepted. It suggested that the term 'offshore education' should be used since that would be more readily understood by a wider audience. It pointed out that the media release regarding the discussion paper was titled 'Strengthening Standards in Offshore Education' rather than 'Strengthening Standards in Transnational Education'.

However, the exclusion of pure distance education from the formal definition is irrelevant for all practical purposes, since many Australian universities have significant distance education programs and they do not differentiate between face-to-face and distance education. When the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) audited the University of Southern Queensland, it covered the totality of the University's operations, regardless of the definition of TNE in the transnational quality strategy. Given its size, Australia has always been very conscious of distance education, and reliant on different media to implement it. In fact, the term 'borderless' was originally coined by a team of Australian researchers who were investigating the potentially competitive impact on Australian higher education of developments in the world of new media (Woodhouse & Stella 2008; Knight J 2003a).

Unlike the Australian definition, the British Council includes distance education in the scope of TNE. By transnational education, the British Council refers to education provision from one country offered in another. It does not include the traditional international student recruitment market where students travel to another country for their studies. It recognises that 'TNE includes a wide variety of delivery modes, including: distance and e-learning; validation and franchising arrangements; twinning and other collaborative provision' (British Council).

Modes and Forms of Transnational Education

There are a variety of ways in which education is conducted transnationally. INQAAHE expresses it to 'include distance education courses offered by higher education providers located in another country, joint programs offered between a local provider and a foreign institution, franchised courses offered with or without involvement of staff members from the parent institution, and foreign campuses of institutions developed with or without local partnerships' (INQAAHE 2010).

Knight (2003b) identifies four models of cross-border education/TNE depending on who or what moves across borders: people, providers, programs, and projects or

services. The first model is about the movement of professors, scholars, and experts for teaching and research activities, technical assistance and consulting assignments, sabbaticals, seminars, and other professional development activities. In the second model, the institution or provider moves to have a physical or virtual presence in the receiving country. For the third model, it is about the movement of programs where the program is provided through a linkage or partnership arrangement between foreign and domestic providers. Finally, in the fourth model, a wide range of education-related projects and services, such as joint curriculum development, research, benchmarking, technical assistance, e-learning platforms, professional development, and other capacity-building initiatives are included. It is the second and third models that constitute the core of TNE.

Knight (2005) describes a typology for providers who cross national borders (second model).

Table 1.1: Typology of provider mobility

Category	Description of form/types of mobility
Branch campus	Provider in country A establishes a satellite campus in Country B to deliver courses and programmes to students in Country B (may also include Country A students taking a semester/courses abroad). The qualification awarded is from provider in Country A.
Independent institution	Foreign Provider A (a traditional university, a commercial company or alliance/ network) establishes in Country B a stand-alone higher education institution to offer courses/programmes and awards.
Acquisition/merger	Foreign Provider A purchases a part of or 100% of local higher education institution in Country B.
Study center/teaching site	Foreign Provider A establishes study centers in Country B to support students taking their courses/programmes. Study centers can be independent or in collaboration with local providers in Country B.
Affiliation/networks	Different types of 'public and private', 'traditional and new' providers from various countries collaborate through innovative types of partnerships to establish networks/institutions to deliver courses and programmes in local and foreign countries through distance or face-to-face modes.
Virtual university	Provider that delivers credit courses and degree programmes to students in different countries through distance education modes and that generally does not have face-to-face support services for students.

Source: Knight J 2005.

Some of the common terms that one comes across in the discussion on the forms of TNE in the context of the third model are:

- Distance education arrangements, including virtual universities: Course delivery is entirely by mailed print material supplemented by emails and telephone calls,

but increasingly course delivery is primarily by electronic means. Some providers use a combination of distance education delivery combined with other services offered by a local partner who takes responsibility for student recruitment, student support and tutorials, with possibly some visits by staff of the foreign university. In some cases this model is referred to as blended learning.

- Franchising: A higher education institution from one country authorises another institution from the same or another country to provide its educational programs or parts thereof.
- Articulation: The overseas university gives credit or advanced standing for completed units of study in the programs of local institutions under some kind of agreement. Typically the local institutions teach the curriculum of the overseas university.
- Twinning: Two or more institutions jointly define and run a study program. Typically, students complete the early years of their course in the institution in the home country, and then complete their study program on the home campus of the institution providing the award.
- Branch campuses: A provider opens up a branch in a country other than the country of the main campus.
- Offshore partnerships: Institutions from different countries offer programs under an agreement. Usually the admission criteria, curriculum and assessment are monitored by the overseas institution, and student recruitment, tutorial support, and other student services, are handled by the local institution.

Influence of the Trade Talks

A discussion on the modes and forms of TNE would be incomplete without considering the influence of the World Trade Organization (WTO) and its General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). GATS is a set of international trade rules that promotes progressive liberalisation of trade in services. It classifies trade in educational services into four categories: cross-border supply; consumption abroad; commercial presence; and presence of natural persons. They are usually referred to as Mode I, Mode II, Mode III and Mode IV respectively.

Some examples are:

- Mode I: cross-border supply (such as distance education)
- Mode II: consumption abroad (such as students travelling abroad to study)
- Mode III: commercial presence (such as foreign branch campuses, or foreigners partnering with local providers)
- Mode IV: presence of natural persons (such as faculty members/academics travelling temporarily abroad to teach).

The situation where students travel to study at the home campus of the institution in the institution's home country (Mode II) is most convenient (and profitable) for the

institution, as all (or almost all) the academic, administrative and support systems are already in place. Some extra systems and resources are required to support the foreign students and to ensure that the institution is able to cater appropriately for the totality of its student population, whose total nature and composition is changed by the advent of foreign students, but this is not too difficult.

In practice, the range of forms of transnational education is so great that it is not well-captured by the categorisation of modes I, III and IV in the GATS list above. There are many more variations and much greater mobility than the four modes suggests. For example, much of education provided in Singapore by US or UK institutions is not provided to Singaporean students, but to students who have travelled from China or Vietnam to Singapore to get a US or UK degree.

GATS embodies three principles:

- market access, under which each member treats other members' suppliers at least as favourably as set out in the schedule
- national treatment, in relation to competition within a members' country
- most favoured nation, prohibiting discrimination between members.

Concern about the possible consequences of including trade in education services in the GATS for the quality, access and equity of higher education, on domestic authority to regulate higher education systems, and on public subsidies for higher education, led four stakeholder groups to sign the Joint Declaration on Higher Education and the General Agreement on Trade in Services. The signatories are: Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, representing Canada's 92 public and private not-for-profit universities and degree-level colleges; American Council on Education, representing 1,800 accredited degree-granting colleges and universities in the United States; European University Association, representing 30 national Rectors' Conferences and 537 individual universities across the European continent; Council for Higher Education Accreditation, representing 3,000 accredited, degree-granting colleges and universities and 60 recognised institutional and programmatic accreditors in the United States. They jointly declared that their 'respective countries should not make commitments in Higher Education Services or in the related categories of Adult Education and Other Education Services in the context of the GATS' (AUCC et al. 2001, p.4). Even after ten years, the actual effects of these principles are still being debated as the meanings of various phrases are tested. As the trade negotiations continue to be stalled, this uncertainty still exists.

Recognising the controversies around the implications of GATS on higher education, some countries are proceeding cautiously and limiting commitments under GATS so the effects can be progressively monitored. However, in the debates around TNE the trade language of GATS and its four modes has crept in and it has implications for the views on TNE.

Views on Transnational Education

Between enthusiastic views of the trade promoters at one end, and the sceptical reflections of the academics of traditional outlook at the other, there are many different viewpoints; at least four major views deserve a mention. Firstly, there are those who support public policies that foster internationalisation in higher education, and they defend TNE on academic grounds. There is support from international and inter-governmental communities for TNE since they consider TNE as a tool for capacity building in developing countries. Secondly, academics who support the view that education should not be treated as a tradable commodity, argue that TNE would always have a revenue-generation approach that would be to the disadvantage of the developing countries. Thirdly, there are trade enthusiasts who are convinced that commercialisation of higher education at the global level is unavoidable in the near future, and it is up to the countries to prepare themselves to benefit from the new opportunities of the global market. Finally, there are those who suggest that the implications of TNE would not be serious in the near future, due to the low volume of program or institution mobility in developing countries, and they consider the concerns around TNE as non-issues. But in all these views, irrespective of the stand taken, there is a consensus that the interest of stakeholders should be protected, and that quality assurance frameworks have to pay attention to the quality of TNE (Stella 2005, 2006).

Academic rationale for transnational education

From an academic viewpoint, TNE can enhance the country's higher education institutions intellectual enrichment, and give a stimulus to academic programs and research. The 'death of distance' helps research groups in different parts of the world to engage in collaborative research on more pressing issues of the global society. From the cultural point of view, they facilitate better understanding of other cultures. Possible ties between the political and economic elite of the host and sending countries gained through internationalisation activities in higher education can enhance mutual understanding and social cohesion in increasingly multicultural societies. Until recently, the mutual understanding approach to TNE has been the common historical basis of internationalisation policies for higher education. It is for one or more of these reasons that every country finances TNE through the mobility of people, via university bursary schemes, bilateral or multilateral agreements and policies to promote mobility. These rationales and the attendant policies are still present today, but they have been complemented by new trends and rationales (OECD/Norway 2003).

In practice, there are many obstacles to achieving academic benefit from TNE, especially in terms of rigidity in the qualifications frameworks. The obstacles exist in all countries and the difference is one of degree. In the simplest form, TNE—through collaborative arrangements between two countries—implies the need for recognition of quality and of qualifications in both the countries. This requires an appropriate and reliable quality assurance mechanism to reassure the stakeholders that the courses, programs and degrees offered by the TNE arrangements meet acceptable academic and professional standards, and that they will be of value in other countries also. In most countries this would

require a review of the national policy frameworks and quality assurance arrangements with TNE in mind.

One academic rationale for TNE is the potential it has to contribute to capacity building in developing countries. The supporters of this view point out that a course offered by a university can be given in any part of the world by optimum utilisation of technology, and this provides new opportunities for learners. If offered as non-profit initiatives, and if encouraged in areas that are needed for national development, these opportunities can strengthen and expand the national systems of education in developing countries.

At the same time, those who believe that the academic rationale and capacity-building objectives have long ago been overtaken by an income-generation rationale look at the threats related to a trade point of view, especially for the developing countries.

Transnational education as a disadvantage to the developing countries

At the root of this view is the fundamental issue of the capacity of the developing countries to participate effectively in the global trading system. Although mutual understanding and international cooperation in teaching and research rank high on many countries' internationalisation agendas, economic and revenue-generation rationales have become much more important recently, and have sometimes become predominant. Today, TNE has a tilt towards generating revenue; it has the connotation of being a commercial activity.

Supporters of this view claim that providers from the developing countries, however good they are, would be unable to penetrate the education system of the developed countries; therefore, TNE would always be unidirectional and detrimental to the developmental strategies of the developing countries. The huge difference in the import–export operations among regions and countries, in terms of both volume and growth, strengthens this concern.

As TNE operations increase in developing countries, the safety of national values, and the increasing amount of student fees that go into transnational offerings of foreign providers that are below minimum standards, are emerging as issues of concern to governments. Students who use these provisions generally do not qualify for government benefits, although there are exceptions where the TNE providers are invited by the host countries to offer programs in areas of need. Students face difficulties in translating degrees obtained through TNE studies into national equivalents in many countries. There are some TNE providers who aggressively market their courses by assuring equal treatment and recognition of their awards in the provider country, but the current student experience in many collaborative ventures indicates that the awards give them benefit only in the private sector. More cases are being reported of questionable providers who collect the fees but are unreachable when the student finds out that he or she has been deceived; thus the issue of learner protection is real, and governments have been pressed to take steps to protect the public.

Case studies of three countries (India, Jamaica and Sierra Leone) that are positioned at various points on the development spectrum (Daniel, Kanwar & Uvalić-Trumbić 2005) indicate that TNE in its present form may not be helpful to developing countries. Data regarding enrolments leads to the conclusion that the highest numbers enrolled in TNE were living in well-developed countries—as measured by their rankings in the United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Index (HDI). Thus the largest numbers were found in Hong Kong (26th place in the HDI), followed by Singapore (28th) and Malaysia (58th). These are also the main markets for Australian TNE. By contrast, enrolments were 1,203 in India, 777 in Jamaica and less than 100 in 30 African countries taken together (excluding South Africa). Daniel, Kanwar & Uvalić-Trumbić conclude that enrolments in TNE in countries with low HDI rankings are minimal. The case studies also reveal that for-profit providers are active in TNE, and that they are of low quality despite the high costs of their offerings. The study concludes that transnational higher education is unlikely to help developing countries unless it is accessible, available, affordable, relevant, and of acceptable quality. Combining expanding connectivity with open educational resources could allow TNE to do just that in future, and work is now proceeding in this direction.

Transnational education as trade

Ten years ago, education as a trade commodity was not acceptable to many countries. Trade in primary goods and manufactured goods such as minerals and cars are not new to us. Similarly, trade in services such as technical advice in information and communication technologies is growing. But, considering education as a service that can be traded has been controversial. However, the fact that education requires both human and financial resources is also used to support good business models in expanding access to higher education. Even if education is free to the students in countries where education is highly subsidised, the tax-payers pay for the resources. On the premise that education costs someone, there are arguments that educational institutions can operate in a commercial mode, just like any other commercial enterprise, such as a supermarket that brings the essential consumables to a convenient location for the local population without compromising the public good agenda.

Those who argue in favour of accepting TNE as trade point out the benefits–healthy competition among providers, motivation for traditional institutions to innovate, providing enhanced opportunities for access to higher education, more choices for learners etc. The trade promoters are concerned that even the most competent provisions, welcomed by learners, are held up at the governmental level due to the general mistrust that TNE providers exploit learners. They argue that in the global market, learners have the right to quality education and that they should be empowered to make their choices for which 'quality' will be an important criterion.

Transnational education as a non-issue

In the established higher education systems, there is currently a view that TNE, through program or institution mobility, is not a significant activity and hence it can be left to

the market forces, with some amount of quality control at the national level. Students who cross borders are already covered by the quality assurance agencies of the providing countries, and learner protection is not an issue of concern in those situations. The mode under consideration here is the mobility of programs and institutions, and according to the argument of this group, in established education systems—including developing countries such as India—mobility is of low volume.

This group also argues that TNE depends on many factors that include, among others, areas of study available in the national system, unmet demand for higher education, efficiency and market responsiveness of the national system, number of quality institutions in the country, unit cost of education, and language of instruction (Stella & Gnanam 2005). For example, if the national system is slow to respond to market needs, it increases the scope for TNE operations. However, in a country like India, the private providers of the national system understand the market, and overseas institutions may not be able to compete with the domestic private providers in terms of scale of economy, affordability and their reach in non-metropolitan areas. According to this argument, if the regulations insist that the overseas providers should demonstrate comparable standards between the programs offered in the home campus and offshore, the net effect will not be favourable to promote any substantial TNE delivery. This will keep the profit-oriented TNE away and will encourage only the activities that have an academic rationale. Therefore, TNE will remain a non-issue if quality assurance procedures are tightened in countries with well-established higher education systems.

Thus, all the different points of view recognise the need for appropriate quality assurance mechanisms to deal with TNE, although for different reasons. But the reality regarding the capacity of the quality assurance agencies to deal with TNE in their existing forms is not very encouraging. The desk-study overviews and surveys covering TNE conducted by intergovernmental and regional initiatives merit a mention here.

Desk-study Overviews and Surveys on Transnational Education

A number of surveys and desk-study overviews undertaken for or by intergovernmental bodies and regional initiatives such as UNESCO, the Work Bank, the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), Brisbane Communiqué Signatories, the Asia-Pacific Quality Network (APQN) and INQAAHE during 2004–08 reveal that the quality assurance mechanisms as practised in the different countries—and the developmental stage they have reached—are very diverse. In most of the countries of the regions covered in these studies, external quality assurance is of relatively recent origin, and the capacity of the national frameworks to address TNE issues is doubtful.

A survey conducted in 2003 by APQN indicated that (among the countries that responded to the survey) only Australia, India, Malaysia and New Zealand had some mechanism in place to ensure the quality of the exports of their higher education institutions. For the import of educational services, according to the results of the survey, 'Attention paid to education that crosses national boundaries', there were mechanisms only in Australia,

Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, Mongolia, New Zealand and the Philippines. But the extent to which quality assurance had a central role in these mechanisms was not very clear. In many countries it was the ministries that had a regulatory role in TNE. This situation did not change in the 2006 survey carried out by AUQA among the APEC economies, and also in the 2008 survey carried out by APQN among the Brisbane Communiqué signatories (both conducted for the Australian government). In other words, the national frameworks for quality assurance of transnational higher education are not well developed. It should also be noted that the national policy frameworks in respect of TNE vary from country to country, and they are often driven by considerations other than educational.

Although most importing countries would claim to have quality assurance mechanisms, they might be at different stages of development. The gap between quality assurance agencies and their own governments, and the fact that quality assurance cannot achieve full potential without government acceptance or backing, has emerged in a number of discussions during APQN and INQAAHE conferences. Quality assurance not having an impact on the WTO negotiations, and 'education' not driving the trade in education services negotiations, have been raised as issues. The 2006 INQAAHE workshop held in the Hague made a set of recommendations to address these concerns (Stella 2006), and most of the recommendations are towards collaboration, capacity building and sharing of good practice in quality assurance. Much activity has occurred since then, both bilaterally between agencies and in the context of the increasing number of networks of quality assurance agencies.

Conclusion

Education has long crossed national borders, through movement of students and movement of academics, and increasingly through the movement of educational materials. The recent rapid increase in this phenomenon, through ease of personal travel and ease of communication via electronic means, has generated increased attention to transnational, or cross-border, education. Reactions range from enthusiastic support, through sceptical acceptance, to worried opposition. In this chapter, we have set out some considerations relating to the understanding and implementation of transnational education, and the developing attitudes around it.

Ten years ago, countries could be identified as educational exporters or importers. Now this dichotomy is breaking down. Ten years ago, there was concern about exploitation of students in the host country. Now there is growing recognition of the potential value to the host country. To achieve the values and avoid the pitfalls, the legal and quality systems relating to TNE must continue to be developed and improved.

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Chapter 2

Global Trends in Quality Assurance for Transnational Education

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This chapter provides an overview of the development of quality assurance frameworks for transnational education (TNE), focusing on the Asia-Pacific region. It begins by outlining the scale of cross-border programs and campuses, and continues by exploring the factors fuelling the rapid growth that we have witnessed over the past two decades, particularly in South-East Asia. The chapter then considers how governments have sought to ensure the quality of cross-border provision through a wide range of measures. It argues that over time the wide range of regulatory mechanisms have converged into a pattern of quality assurance that is increasingly similar across many different countries.

It is difficult to assess the scale and significance of TNE, because very few countries collect any data on cross-border programs and institutions. Thanks to the efforts of international agencies in standardising systems of measurement and reporting of enrolment data, reliable data on national systems and cross-border student mobility (where students are abroad for a year or more) is available now. International agreement on the means to classify and count students enrolled in foreign programs remains elusive.

Of the countries that do publish data on offshore enrolments, the most recent available figures show that UK institutions taught 388,135 students offshore (in the academic year 2008–09), Australia enrolled 125,987 (2008) and New Zealand enrolled 1,385 (2004) (Banks et al. 2010; Catherwood & Taylor 2005; HESA 2010). Even the data available from these three countries must be treated with caution. The number published by the UK Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) nearly doubled between 2007–08 and

2008–09, not because of a dramatic change in enrolment patterns but because institutions are just now adopting data collection and reporting mechanisms in response to the recent introduction of mandatory reporting of offshore students in the UK (HESA 2009, 2010). It is difficult to predict what next year's UK data will report. The figure for Australia includes 69,733 offshore students in universities, 55,332 in public vocational education and training providers, and 922 in non-university higher education providers. No data is available for the other major provider of TNE, the USA.

The leading importers of TNE are mostly middle-income countries in which the growth in secondary school completions and labour-market demand for graduates has outstripped the capacity of the domestic higher education system. Transnational programs make a significant contribution to the total supply of higher education in Singapore, Hong Kong and Malaysia. In Singapore, by 2004, after 20 years of continued growth, 32% of the city state's 250,000 tertiary students were enrolled in TNE programs, compared with 23% in national universities, 34% in institutes and polytechnics, and 11% in private colleges (based on data from Lee 2005, p. 15; Statistics Singapore 2010, Table 19.1).

Distance education, delivered online or in print without face-to-face instruction, accounts for 29% of UK universities' offshore enrolments and 13% of those in Australian universities (Banks et al. 2010; HESA 2010). The UK has a small number of very large specialist distance education providers, including the UK Open University and the University of London External System, which have a global reach. There is often a fine line between distance education and campus-based delivery, with many hybrid models and various definitions in use to distinguish between them.

Most TNE provided by the three countries for which data is available is delivered through partnerships between an institution that awards the qualification and a local partner institution. Local partner institutions may be private colleges, commercial arms of public universities, or professional associations. The awarding university usually provides the curriculum, oversees locally-employed teaching staff (sometimes in conjunction with fly-in fly-out lecturing staff), and controls assessment. Local partners provide a campus and teaching staff, administer programs, and recruit and support students. In some cases, there is a 'twinning' arrangement, whereby the first part of the course is conducted in the host country and students travel to the home campus to complete their qualification. The models of collaboration between the overseas and national institutions vary widely, and the division of labour between the parties often changes over time as the relationship matures.

A branch campus involves a bricks-and-mortar presence in the host country, fully or jointly owned by the overseas institution. Courses are taught in a similar manner to other campuses of the institution, and usually involve higher proportions of face-to-face teaching from more highly qualified teaching staff than is the case in partner-supported TNE. The Observatory for Borderless Higher Education (OBHE) defines a branch campus as 'an entity trading directly as a branch of the parent institution, recruiting primarily local students, and attempting to replicate breadth of function of the parent institution (e.g. research as well as teaching)'. The Observatory identified 162

such international branch campuses globally in 2009, double the 82 identified in 2006. Only 35 (22%) of the currently existing branch campuses have been in operation for more than a decade, indicating a very rapid rate of growth (Becker 2009). Their locations are concentrated in the Middle East and South-East Asia, with more currently being developed in India, China and Central Asia. USA and Australian universities have the largest number of branch campuses, with smaller numbers operated by institutions based in the UK, Malaysia and Singapore. In recent years, enrolments in Australian universities' branch campuses have been growing while enrolments in distance education and partner-supported programs have been declining (Banks et al. 2010).

The Drivers and Trajectory of Transnational Higher Education

For the receiving country, the chief benefit is that TNE provides a method of absorbing demand for education that is not currently being met through the domestic system. The fact that TNE is normally available on a fee-based user-pays basis allows local and foreign collaboration to provide additional places, and notionally frees up government money for other funding purposes. By meeting demand for foreign education (which may be perceived as prestigious) without the need to study abroad, it can also reduce the outflow of students and the accompanying outflow of currency. At the level of the individual, TNE means that the student can obtain foreign education without incurring travel and foreign living costs, or the family and work disruption that study abroad entails. As well as providing additional employment opportunities for local academics and administrators, the presence of foreign providers can contribute to local capacity building by enhancing the local system through opportunities to learn new good practices in teaching and learning.

These benefits stand in tension with several potentially negative effects for the receiving country. At the broadest level, there is the danger that the presence of market-driven/profit-oriented foreign providers may reduce the ability of the government to determine the overall shape of the education system in the national interest (resulting, for example, in too many business majors and not enough engineers). A second, related concern is that TNE may have direct negative impacts on the local system, for example by drawing leading academics away from the public system by means of monetary inducements and attractive working conditions. It might also disrupt junior academics' careers, providing them with hollowed-out teaching jobs with no provision for staff development, and no time for research and writing. The fee-based aspect of TNE could exacerbate social inequalities by allowing more students to gain access to education on the basis of affluence rather than solely on academic merit. A third concern—and for many educationists the paramount concern—is that the TNE offered may be of poor quality, using poorly-structured, outdated curriculum material without proper pedagogical support (for example, the sending country lecturer's PowerPoint slides presented as subject notes, without any further elaboration or context). Many educators are also concerned that imported curriculum may be culturally inappropriate; that is, even good quality material that works well at the foreign provider's home campus may not be suitable to the receiving country context without appropriate adaptation.

The benefits to education exporting countries are easy to see. The most obvious is increased revenue for institutions through increased scale of operation. Even though the tuition fees paid by offshore students are considerably less than those from mobile international students, transnational programs usually have a lower cost of delivery and often contribute to the university's finances. For major exporting countries, international fee-income has allowed governments to reduce their proportion of contribution to university funding. Further, TNE programs can act as a pathway, enabling students to complete part of their studies more cheaply offshore before transferring to the home campus, thereby enabling universities to expand onshore international enrolments. There may also be reputational benefits, as countries and institutions that are successful in the international education sphere can be seen as 'internationally competitive' players in the global knowledge economy. At the academic level, there is the potential benefit of international travel for staff (for offshore teaching), engagement with colleagues in the host country, the opportunity for innovative curriculum development, international research development, and—especially in the case of branch campuses—the possibility of engaging in internationally-based community service projects.

The key challenge accompanying the possibility of increasing enrolments and revenue by expanding overseas is that TNE is a much riskier proposition than operating on an institution's home turf. Significant losses offshore clearly have negative impacts on the finances of the parent institution, and the difficulty of costing offshore operations poses additional risks. Just as success can enhance reputation, failure can damage it. Notorious failures, such as the early closure of offshore campuses—a fate which befell RMIT University's campus in Penang, Malaysia in the late 1990s, and the University of New South Wales campus in Singapore in the following decade—can undermine an institution's standing abroad. Even those transnational operations that are successful in terms of finance and reputation can have negative effects on the home campus if they funnel staff time and other resources away from domestic teaching, research, administrative and community service responsibilities.

Over time, importing countries have responded to these opportunities and challenges in a variety of ways. In their overview of national regulatory responses to TNE, Verbik and Jokivirta (2005a, 2005b) classify the approaches of some 50 countries. They identify six different categories of regulatory framework:

1. no regulations – no requirement for special permission (Austria, Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Laos, Malta, Mexico, Nigeria, Panama, Portugal, Russia, Serbia, Sri Lanka)
2. liberal – minimal conditions (Argentina, Bahrain, Estonia, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Peru, Romania, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, UK)
3. moderately liberal – active licensing or accrediting transnational providers (Australia, Bangladesh, China, Egypt, Hong Kong, Hungary, Israel, Jamaica, Kuwait, Pakistan, Singapore, Vietnam)
4. very restrictive – onerous requirements (Bulgaria, Cyprus, South Africa, UAE)

5. non-recognition (Greece, francophone Belgium)
6. transitional – either 'moving from liberal to more restrictive' (India, Malaysia) or 'moving from restrictive to more liberal' (Japan, South Korea).

Verbik and Jokivirta's classification is very useful for establishing patterns of regulation, and if we look historically we can see that there has been quite a bit of 'moving', as they put it, from one approach to another.

The countries which are the largest scale importers of foreign higher education, Singapore, Hong Kong and Malaysia, have followed a distinct pattern of development, with regulatory frameworks evolving to suit the conditions that existed in each stage of development. We conceptualise this as a four-phase model of development of program and institution mobility, and it will be interesting to see whether a similar pattern is evident in other countries where TNE is expanding:

1. Faced with a shortage of relevant, quality study options in the local tertiary system, students travel abroad to study.
2. The capacity of the local system is built up, through a combination of public and private investment and through light-touch licensing and quality assurance which allows partnerships with foreign universities to raise institutional capacity.
3. As local capacity grows, reliance on foreign universities shifts from capacity building to building the prestige and quality of the local system. Foreign branch campuses are recruited and increasingly stringent quality assurance squeezes out the lower-status and lower-quality partner-supported programs.
4. Having grown domestic capacity, the government looks at its options for exporting education. This may involve plans to become a 'hub' provider, attracting students from the region. The presence of prestigious foreign providers may be a key part of the drawcard. The export preparation phase involves a shake-out of providers, to ensure the quality of foreign provision and strengthening of local provision (McBurnie & Ziguras 2007).

Verbik and Jokivirta use the terms 'liberal' and 'restrictive', and while they are widely used in assessing trade regulation regimes, the terms tend to mask the degree of regulation involved in the shift from restrictive to open markets as Braithwaite and Drahos (2000) have shown in relation to many spheres of global business regulation. Many countries that have opened their borders to TNE have simultaneously made stringent quality demands, and these could be seen as simultaneously 'liberal' (allowing foreign entry) and 'restrictive' (squeezing out the bottom end of the market). We suggest that there has been over the past two decades a trend for countries to open their markets to mobile foreign providers, while making regulatory frameworks more comprehensive and quality assurance requirements increasingly demanding. In trade parlance, the barriers to entry are becoming less common, but the rules of conduct are becoming ever more detailed and demanding.

The Development of Quality Assurance for Transnational Education

So, just how have quality assurance systems developed in an era in which borders are becoming increasingly permeable to foreign providers? In the 1980s and much of the 1990s, TNE often slipped through the cracks of most national regulatory and quality assurance systems. TNE, in many cases, did not come firmly under the regulatory purview of the sending country or the receiving country, each regarding it as the responsibility of the other, or of little consequence. In the chief importer nations, local public universities were restricted in their ability to meet student demand due to reliance on government funding (that did not automatically grow in pace with demand), the inability to enrol fee-paying students, and government dictated restrictions on the subject mix and/or the language of instruction. While local private providers were free of those restrictions, they were usually not authorised to offer—in their own right—qualifications at degree level or above. However, many institutions that could not grant degrees (private colleges, professional associations and private subsidiaries of public universities), could collaborate with a foreign university to circumvent these barriers and offer degree programs to students who missed out on entry to local universities and could not afford to study abroad.

That is not to say that the programs of the era were therefore necessarily of dubious quality. It is likely that they ranged from reputable, well-run offerings, through to the lower end of the spectrum. In the absence of transparent regulations, it could be said that countries were keeping their strategic options open. Little or no interference might be interpreted as tacit approval (or at least, not disapproval) for foreign programs, but the government could still close programs down on short notice in response to events (such as complaints from students, professional bodies or other stakeholders), or in line with developments in national education policy. A light-touch approach served to encourage foreign providers to soak up excess demand. However, as the number of programs grew—as evidenced by promotional material, media advertisements and the number of foreign university-partner nameplates proliferating on the premises of local private providers—the 'blind eye' approach was prejudicial to good quality and protection of the consumer rights of students. In this early growth phase, quality assurance was largely a voluntary matter, reliant on the academic integrity and professionalism of foreign providers and their local partners.

To deal with the growing presence of transnational programs in the 1990s, Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong increasingly used regulatory frameworks as a means to filter out substandard programs and providers. They established regulations setting out conditions for entry and rules of conduct for transnational provision. These generally included the following provisions:

- registration or licensing requirements
- periodic reporting requirements for the provider
- a method of assessing the provider's conduct and taking action on shortcomings
- a means of receiving public complaints and responding to them.

Through the 1990s and 2000s many countries introduced varied regulations in an effort to protect students from importation of programs considered to be of low quality. The following list, drawn from a range of sources (GATE 1999; APEC 2001; McBurnie & Ziguras 2001, 2003; Verbik & Jokivirta 2005a, 2005b), gives a flavour of the types of measures that have been used. Regulations have stipulated:

- types of delivery method (e.g. China and Romania do not recognise unsupported distance education)
- requirements to partner with a government-approved local institution (e.g. China, Indonesia)
- maximum/minimum foreign ownership requirements (e.g. India, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand)
- nationality of those permitted to teach (e.g. the Singapore requirement that foreign courses be taught by non-nationals)
- nationality of students (e.g. only non-nationals can enrol in TNE in Turkey and Italy)
- requirement to teach compulsory subjects in addition to the discipline (e.g. China, Malaysia, Vietnam)
- requirements concerning course structure and duration that may differ from the home course (e.g. the UAE requirement that courses follow the American four-year degree structure)
- restrictions on the language of instruction (e.g. China, Indonesia, Malaysia, although they are flexible in practice)
- non-recognition of TNE for purposes of government employment or further study (e.g. Greece, francophone Belgium)
- requirement for foreign providers to be accredited as part of the local system (e.g. Japan, until recently)
- reputation-based selectivity (e.g. Malaysian announcement that it will consider external ranking lists)
- restrictions on local use of university title, even if the institution is an accredited university in its home country (e.g. South Africa)
- stipulations that relate to academic matters other than teaching (e.g. Australia allows the 'university' title only to institutions that also conduct research in addition to teaching).

This list is indicative of measures taken at various times, though some countries have further developed their positions since this list was made, and no doubt will continue to evolve. As importing countries set out regulatory requirements, there was corresponding pressure on governments in exporting countries to demonstrate that their institutions' transnational offerings were of sound quality, in order to win confidence and maintain their reputation in the international marketplace. Indeed, such considerations were explicit in the 1999 Ministerial announcement heralding the establishment of the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA):

> There are several facets to the link between globalisation and quality assurance. Education is now one of Australia's major export industries in an intensely competitive market. While Australian universities compete with each other in this market, they also compete with the rest of the world. Our major competitors have external quality assurance mechanisms and countries in our largest markets look to Government verification of quality standards. To maintain market position we need to be able to advertise that we have quality assurance mechanisms in place, that they are being applied and that they are having a positive effect on outcomes (Kemp 1999).

As transnational higher education has grown over the past decade to become more highly visible in some countries and more controversial in others, so too there has been an increased focus on quality. We have also witnessed the development of a broad international convergence regarding the principles and issues that should be addressed in quality assurance for cross-border programs and institutional mobility. In their wide-ranging study of global business regulation, Braithwaite and Drahos (2000) discuss various interactions between actors, mechanisms and principles that lead to international regulatory convergence across numerous sectors of the economy. Among the key actors are 'epistemic communities' described as 'loose collections of knowledge-based experts who share certain attitudes and values and substantive knowledge, as well as ways of thinking about how to use that knowledge' (p. 501). Braithwaite and Drahos argue that, 'if regulations and procedural rules are the hardware of international regimes, the knowledge and discourses of epistemic communities of actors are its software' (p. 501).

The epistemic community of professionals and stakeholders with an interest and expertise in international quality assurance has been developing rapidly, as is evidenced by a proliferation of models, guidelines, resources, approaches and discussions, addressing cross-border education in general, and program mobility in particular. This has taken place at global, regional, national and institutional levels (McBurnie 2008). At the global level, UNESCO (comprising some 190 member states) and the OECD (with 30 developed-country members, and relationships with 70 other countries) collaborated to produce 'Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education' (UNESCO 2005). These 'Guidelines' set out recommendations, principles and proposals for action addressed to six groups of key stakeholders: governments; higher education institutions/providers, including academic staff; student bodies; quality assurance and accreditation bodies; academic recognition bodies; and professional bodies. Among other matters, the 'Guidelines' promote the use of an earlier international document, the *Code of good practice in the provision of transnational education* which sets out eleven principles relating to matters including: quality and standards; admission requirements; promotional information; staff members; conduct of agents; financial arrangements; and recognition of qualifications (UNESCO & Council of Europe 2001).

The Asian region has long been a major importer as well as exporter of TNE, and several countries now seek to become exporters themselves. The establishment in 2003 of the Asia-Pacific Quality Network (APQN) is an important development in the region. In 2006, the *UNESCO–APQN toolkit: regulating the quality of cross-border education* was published. The document, addressed to a range of stakeholders, discusses *inter alia*: functions and types

of regulatory frameworks, factors influencing the choice and design of frameworks, cooperation between host and provider countries, and resource implications and challenges. It describes examples of receiver frameworks from China, Hong Kong, Malaysia and New Zealand, and provider frameworks from Australia, the UK, the USA and New Zealand.

The development of these epistemic networks has allowed expertise in the quality assurance of cross-border programs and institutions to be spread rapidly between countries. We see as a consequence that those countries which had laissez-faire unregulated marketplaces and those that prohibited the entry of foreign programs and institutions are moving to adopt licensing and quality assurance systems that look increasingly similar from one jurisdiction to the next.

Future Development

What might the future hold for program and institutional mobility across borders? Here we suggest four scenarios drawn from our work on a recent OECD project which explored possible paths of development of global higher education to 2030.

Scenario 1: The world of higher education becomes more foreign

In this scenario the rapid growth of TNE continues apace with governments putting in place quality assurance measures that allow the scale and quality of provision to continue to grow. Importer countries see it as a rapid means of meeting student demand, and less costly than mass expansion of domestic infrastructure. Exporters are attracted to the revenue and perceived reputational benefits. For example, Böhm et al. (2002) forecast enrolments in Australian transnational higher education growing to more than 430,000 by the year 2025. If other major exporters expanded at such a rate, global figures for TNE would number in the millions.

Scenario 2: As the world churns

In line with the four-phase development model set out above (from demand-absorption to enrichment to export), one scenario for the future trajectory of TNE is that student enrolments sequentially grow, peak, and then decline on a country-by-country basis according to the phase of development and demand in the host nation. The form of rapid-growth large-scale TNE seen in South-East Asia in the 1990s would be a temporary strategy pursued by importer nations, in order to meet demand while the domestic system is expanded and strengthened. Whilst TNE would still have a strong presence in many parts of the world, its overall growth would be modest.

Scenario 3: Branch campus clusters

Following the 'hub' strategies of several nations, TNE develops into a limited number of international 'branch campus clusters' of prestigious institutions, concentrated in major cities serving as 'regional education hubs' in Asia, the Middle East, Latin America and Africa. These hubs attract students from the region and beyond, combining institutional mobility with student mobility.

Scenario 4: Raising the bar

In this scenario, host governments apply increasingly stringent quality assurance requirements and demand greater (and more expensive) commitments from transnational providers. The aims are to raise imported provision to the highest standard, deter over-commercialisation, and protect the integrity of the domestic system. In parallel, exporter governments—in response to negative publicity about offshore course and campus closures—place stricter regulations on provider institutions, in order to weed out low-quality offerings that may damage the nation's reputation and market share. The overall effect is an enhancement of the quality of TNE, but a marked reduction in its quantity (McBurnie & Ziguras 2009, pp. 89–108).

Conclusion

Transnational education has followed a path from its early days of slipping between the regulatory cracks (not coming clearly into the purview of either the importing or exporting governments), to a situation whereby, in many countries, TNE may be more thoroughly scrutinised than programs that are *not* mobile. Rather than flying under the radar, TNE is increasingly in the purview of both sending and receiving governments, professional bodies of both sending and receiving countries, and subject to the internal quality assurance procedures of both the foreign provider and its local partner. There are also voluntary codes and guidelines at regional and global levels and a raft of institutional studies and reports in the public domain. There is plenty of material for stakeholders to draw upon, to adapt to their own uses and to benchmark their own principles and practices against.

There would seem to be a shared commitment to the development of high standard TNE through rigorous quality assurance regimes. This commonality of interests is driven by the concern of host countries to ensure the consumer protection of citizens and the concern of transnational institutions' home governments to maintain or improve their national standing in the international education marketplace. International cooperation—and international tensions—in the development of quality assurance of the cross-border provision of education takes place in an atmosphere of continued debate about the relationship between education as a public good and education as a tradable service in an international marketplace. In this light, the successes of quality TNE programs and campuses can be held up as an endorsement of the capacity of market-driven globalisation to deliver services from the places they are available to the places they are needed, while the substandard programs and failed campus ventures can be held up as cautionary tales to warn of the unscrupulous market, and argue the need for greater restriction of the operations of foreign institutions.

The twofold challenge for any country is to develop a quality assurance model that is appropriate for meeting the needs of stakeholders, and the means of making it work. Concerning the first challenge, there is today an abundance of examples and resources at our disposal. Concerning the second challenge, we are reminded of the words of a character from Cormac McCarthy's novel *No Country for Old Men*, 'Does it work? Yes. Ninety per cent of the time. It takes very little to govern good people ... And bad people can't be governed at all. Or if they could I never heard of it' (2005, p. 74).

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Section 2

The Australian Experience

Chapter 3

Overview of the Australian Scene

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This chapter sets the context for the transnational education (TNE) related developments in the Australian higher education sector, both import and export. It highlights the evolving and interconnected roles of the key players and lays the foundation for the various perspectives—governmental, institutional and sector-related—to be covered in the following chapters.

'The Tyranny of Distance'

From its inception, Australian higher education has necessarily had an international context and flavour. While not ignoring the integrated educational and cultural practices of indigenous Australians, higher education structures were brought and institutions established, by immigrants, beginning in the middle of the nineteenth century. The staff of the institutions came from abroad and they copied overseas (mainly British) practices. Down to the present day, Australia has had a very international body of higher education academic staff. As one indication of this, the *Times Higher Education* QS (Quacquarelli Symonds) World University Rankings have 'proportion of overseas staff' as one of the factors. Fifteen per cent of the top 200 universities in the 2009 rankings have a score of 90 or more on this factor, whereas over 60% of the Australian universities in that group have a score of 90 or more.

Also, two features of Australia are its great size for a single country (the size of Europe) and its great distance from what were seen as its 'natural' points of contact, namely Britain, and to a lesser extent the USA. This internal and external distance, and its impact on all aspects of Australian life, was captured by historian Geoffrey Blainey in the title of his book *The Tyranny of Distance* (Blainey 2001). They are still relevant today, including for higher education and for quality assurance in higher education.

The number of Australian universities steadily grew to a total of 19 by the 1980s, but this was still a relatively small number to provide students with different experiences. Therefore, it was very common for graduates wishing to do doctoral studies to go overseas. Universities saw the benefit of such broadening of experience, and were more likely to encourage their students to do this than to try to hold onto them for further study in the same institution. A common concern today among developing countries is that if their students go overseas to be educated, they might not return—as they may now see their home country as offering a less salubrious environment and living standard. Australia did not suffer from this, as the quality of life in Australia has always been high. So, many of these doctoral students were later welcomed back to Australia as academics, thus further increasing the international input to Australian higher education.

At the undergraduate level, however, Australian students have always been locally oriented (apart from the use of distance education). There is not the British or USA tradition of moving away from home to study.

If even moving to a different state within the Federation to study is uncommon, it will be readily appreciated that it has been difficult to encourage undergraduate students to take up study abroad opportunities. This is compounded by 'the tyranny of distance' and the cost of travelling to Europe or North America (as the logical choices if students were to study abroad). It may also be that university study was regarded as a natural continuation of school (for those who qualified) and not anticipated as the point of breaking with the home and family and 'going away to college'. Australian students tend to move state only when their desired subject is not available in their home state. There is an interesting comparison here with New Zealand, similarly 'remote', but where many young people plan for a 'big OE', or overseas experience. The difference might be due to the smaller size of New Zealand (comparable to Britain rather than to Europe), and a feeling that broadening experiences need overseas travel. Increasingly, Australian universities are providing some scholarships to encourage international experience.

Australia's international position in higher education is of course related to and influenced by the country's broader international orientation. Although geographically close to Asia, Australia is culturally closer to Europe and North America. For over a century, governments sought to keep it this way, with immigration directed by a 'White Australia' policy. (Chinese could come in to work the goldfields or Pacific Islanders to work the sugar cane farms.) Despite its geographical location, Australia is always included in the tag 'the West'; and is always part of the north in comments about 'the north–south divide'.

The Colombo Plan

Australia's attention to its nearer neighbours grew during the twentieth century, although there were only a few hundred international higher education students each year through the first half of the century. Following World War II, and the consequent upheavals in societies and social patterns, Australia embarked on its most ambitious attempt to engage with Asia, namely the Colombo Plan for Cooperative Economic and Social Development

in Asia and the Pacific, signed in 1950. This is now the world's longest-running bilateral aid program (Oakman 2004). This Plan had, and has, a range of objectives and programs, which have changed during the years. In the earlier years, Australia's main engagement in the educational aspects was to sponsor students from the Asian region to study in Australian universities (Harman 2002). In administering the Plan, the Australian Department of External Affairs tried to ensure that the time the students spent in Australia was both positive and productive.

The support under this Plan resulted in an increase in the number of international higher education students to about 5,000 each year by the mid-1960s.

This is often referred to as the 'aid stage' of Australian international higher education, in rhyming contrast to the current 'trade stage', though its initial rationale was not so much aid as mutual solidarity within the then British Commonwealth.

International Development Program

Another player in Australia's 'aid stage' of international higher education was the International Development Program (IDP) Education. Established in September 1969 as the Australian-Asian Universities' Cooperation Scheme, it focussed on educational aid, with a mission to strengthen teaching and research in some institutions in Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand (IDP 2011). The Scheme was funded by the Australian Government and run by the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC, now Universities Australia, or UA). In 1981, the name was changed to International Development Program of Australian Universities and Colleges Ltd, as other higher education institutions joined and the reach was extended to the Pacific.

As Australia moved into the 'trade stage' of international education (see below), IDP Education similarly changed its emphasis, with capacity-building becoming only part of its scope. While it continued to manage international aid projects, it also developed two other business arms, namely recruitment of international students, and English language testing.

In 1989, IDP joined in partnership with British Council and University of Cambridge ESOL (English for speakers of other languages) Examinations to form IELTS (International English Language Testing System) Australia. The first IELTS Australia centres were established in the major cities in Australia and in a number of overseas countries in 1990. Since then the network of IELTS Australia centres has expanded greatly. Based on the quality and reliability of IELTS, it has been widely recognised as a highly credible and valuable test for English proficiency.

IDP has also continued operating in the project development and aid arena. The company currently manages a portfolio of project and training activities in South-East Asia, China, Southern Africa and Central Europe. It now undertakes project development for international bodies such as the Asian Development Bank and the World Bank, in addition to the Australian Government's AusAID (Australian Agency for International Development).

In 2006, 50% of IDP Education Pty Ltd was bought by the recruitment company SEEK Ltd, but still continues all the activities identified above.

The Sale of Education

Two Australian Government committees of enquiry into international student matters reported in 1984. The Goldring Committee recommended that overseas students should continue to be valued from the perspectives of foreign aid and understanding, and should continue to be charged the same fees as domestic students (Goldring 1984). The Jackson Committee recommended that education should be considered an export industry (Jackson 1984; Moodie 2008). The Australian Government chose to take the latter advice, and accordingly permitted universities to charge foreign students full tuition fees from 1986; and required the charging of fees above a government-set minimum from 1990.

With over 30 years of 'Colombo Plan' heritage, universities were in no rush to charge fees to overseas students, and numbers therefore grew slowly. In a buoyant domestic labour market, there was some unused capacity in the higher education system, so a modest intake of fee-paying foreign students to study in Australia was of noticeable benefit—although universities tended to ignore the associated planning and recruitment costs.

In 1996, however, the Australian Government began to reduce its funding level per student. Over the next 10 years, the absolute amount of government funding to universities rose slightly, while it dropped by 25% as a proportion of university income, and student numbers rose by 50% from just over 600,000 to just over 900,000. Australia puts a much lower percentage of GDP into education than the OECD average, and student–staff ratios in universities have increased steeply. Inevitably, universities began to expand the enrolment of foreign fee-paying students to make up the shortfall in income.

Despite a crude characterisation of the current Australian approach to education as 'trade-oriented', the aid aspect has not been neglected nor ignored. The federal Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR) offers between 400 and 500 Endeavour postgraduate scholarships per year, and about 200 to 300 short-term Executive Awards of up to four months duration. AusAID scholarship numbers run to about 3,000 to 3,500 per year. In addition, there are small scholarship numbers for postgraduate research offered by the federal Department of Innovation, Industry, Science and Research, through higher education grants.

Australian Education International

In 1994, the Australian Government set up the Australian Education International (AEI) Foundation (see Chapter 4) to establish a broad range of Australian international education, training and research activities, and to develop a marketing strategy to enhance the perception of Australia as a major contributor and provider of high-quality education, training and research internationally (cf. the British Council). In 1998, the Foundation

was renamed as Australian Education International and integrated with the federal department of education. AEI's core role is in policies for international education and government-to-government relationships. AEI has offices in many countries, providing advice to students and prospective students in those countries, and advice about other countries' national education systems to higher education institutions in Australia. It carries out research and provides Australian institutions with statistics and information on markets and opportunities.

In 2009, in an ideologically-oriented move designed to separate policy from promotion, it was decided that responsibility for the promotion and marketing of Australia's education and training would be transferred from AEI to Austrade. However, coming at a time when Australia is under some attack for having a too-commercial attitude to international education, this appears to send the wrong signal and not to be a good public relations move.

Attention to Quality

Despite the trade emphasis, Australia has not simply let the market take its course in relation to the quality of educational provision and services for foreign students. Actions of various types have been taken by several bodies to ensure that overseas students are well-supported, and that their education is of a high quality.

In 1990, the Australian universities published a code of practice for the teaching of overseas students, and in 1995, it followed this with a code of practice for TNE. The two codes were combined in 1998, and the provisions have been updated several times (AVCC 2005).

Late in the 1990s, several English language colleges in Australia went bankrupt, leaving students stranded. Partly in response to this, the Australian Government passed the *Educational Services for Overseas Students Act 2000*, commonly referred to as the ESOS Act. This requires all providers and programs available to international students to be listed on the Commonwealth Register of Institutions and Courses for Overseas Students (CRICOS). The National Code of Practice for Registration Authorities and Providers of Education and Training to Overseas Students (National Code, Commonwealth of Australia 2007) provides for consistent standards for the registration and conduct of registered providers, and the conduct of provider staff.

The ESOS Act and the National Code were created to ensure that all providers of education services are exemplary in their dealings with international students, and they ensure that foreign students in Australia receive an extra level of support over what is required for domestic students. Each year, an ESOS registered institution must carry out a self-audit of its adherence to the National Code, and every five years there must be an external audit. The ESOS Act also provides for obligations and restrictions on students to comply with the conditions of their student visa.

The ESOS Act was further revised and strengthened in 2010.

ESOS does not apply to Australian TNE (i.e. where the students are in another country) because the Australian Government does not believe it has adequate enforcement powers abroad. However, many institutions have based their own internal offshore quality processes on it.

The non-university higher education institutions in Australia (approximately 160 in number in 2010) are mostly private institutions and are subject to regulatory control by the government of the state(s) in which they operate. This control is exercised through institutional registration (effectively, accreditation) and program accreditation by an agency of the government in the relevant state(s). In some ways, these institutions are analogous to Indian 'affiliated colleges', but they are authorised (by the state government) to grant qualifications in their own right, i.e. not just qualifications of a university. A few of these institutions do have franchising arrangements with one or more universities.

In 2000, to enhance national consistency of decision-making, a set of *National protocols for higher education approval processes* was approved by the group of ministers of education. Each government accreditor is supposed to adhere to these in its dealings with its institutions. One provision of the National Protocols is that where the same course is given by an institution in Australia and overseas, the standards of the two courses must be 'comparable'. This is a thorny issue as no-one is entirely sure how much a course can be customised to be relevant to another country and culture without losing comparability, but the intent is good (MCEETYA 2007).

Since 2001, AUQA has audited all Australian universities, including their overseas activities. AUQA has published two guides for institutions, one for onshore and one for offshore educational activities (discussed in Chapter 5). Also, institutions carry out thorough self-checks in anticipation of AUQA audits, and in several cases this has triggered the closing of some overseas operations.

In general, provision of courses (particularly overseas) for overseas students was initially very ad hoc—an amateur cottage industry. Now the institutions are much more professional, though there might be a tinge of the production line in place of the cottage industry. Australian institutions have adapted well towards serving a larger than expected group of foreign students, with services that begin before the students leave home, include welcoming and assisting with accommodation, and go right through to preparing them for their return, and even some contact afterwards. International student offices and student support services have played a key role, with a major emphasis being on cultural understanding and acclimatisation.

Also, federal and state legislation and other activities provide a high level of regulation of the educational activities of the institutions. If there have been lapses, it has generally been due to a lack of enforcement of the available provisions.

Partners

As Australian institutions began to contemplate offering courses overseas, they recognised the need for overseas support. Most transnational operations therefore were, and most still

are, partnerships between an Australian university or other higher education institution and an organisation in the other country. The partner can assist the university by providing knowledge of local conditions, and how to work through bureaucratic and regulatory requirements in the host country. Some Australian institutions have been adversely affected by changing requirements in a host country, at some cost.

Beyond this, the nature of the overseas organisation and its role in the educational activity varies enormously. Some organisations have no involvement in education and take on the partnership as just another business venture; some are not educational institutions, but have taken up the educational support of foreign institutions as their core business; and some are educational institutions themselves, but not necessarily operating in the higher education arena.

The support provided might be just administrative (such as marketing, enrolling and communicating with students); and/or some initial processing of applications; and/or the provision of facilities, such as classrooms and library services; and/or some teaching and handling of assessments. Australian institutions need to tailor their quality arrangements to the particular form of support provided, and since 2001, AUQA has been auditing the arrangements and their effectiveness for all Australian universities in many countries.

An interesting development is that Australian universities now often make use of other educational institutions *within* Australia as partners in a similar way. This is not TNE, so will not be further addressed in this book; however, it is worth noting that these partnerships mostly target overseas students. There are several reasons for this arrangement, including the situation of a partner in a location preferred by foreign students to the home university's main campus (e.g. a metropolis) and the lower cost of providing the education in this way. Many of these arrangements are franchises, though this term is not used in the Australian higher education sector.

Why Transnational Education?

Educating students overseas does not use empty onshore capacity, and it is more expensive for the institution. So why are institutions interested in providing TNE? There ar*e some* advantages. It costs the student less, so there is a larger market. It can articulate into an onshore part of the course, giving a profit overall. It might be a 'loss leader' to get the institution's name known, and build on that to enrol onshore students.

Also, in relation to student mobility, it can be a way of 'meeting students partway'. For example, many Australian institutions in Singapore are enrolling students from China who prefer to study in Singapore than in Australia.

It is noteworthy that within a steep growth in the number of foreign students enrolled in Australian higher education, the growth in onshore enrolments has been greater than that in offshore enrolments. It is also noteworthy that there has been some increase in overseas campuses of Australian institutions in preference to partnerships. Institutions report that campus operations can be profitable, especially if they are developed in collaboration with

the host government, and the latter then sees the offshore campus as part of its higher education system.

During the initial growth period of TNE through the 1990s, it would be fair to say that the largely 'importing' countries were on the whole somewhat negative about it. They felt that the influence of the foreign education could be detrimental to the home society and culture, and that overseas institutions were only interested in the money they could take out of the country and repatriate. Gradually, however, this has changed. Countries have introduced their own rules and restrictions on incoming education, and have recognised the value of having overseas institutions providing education in areas of need. Also, several 'importing countries' have themselves become exporters, and now see the matter from the other side.

Student Exchange

Australia has given increasing attention in recent years to student mobility (encouraging students to go overseas to study for a semester or a year) and student exchange (encouraging student movement in the opposite direction). Not surprisingly in the light of the above observations, the latter is easier than the former. The universities see a benefit to the individual student and to the institution as a whole.

Much of TNE is bilateral, and this publication is primarily about relations between Australia and other countries, and between India and other countries. Both primary countries, however, are members of two multilateral activities, namely University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific (UMAP) and University Mobility in the Indian Ocean Region (UMIOR).

University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific

University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific (UMAP) was initiated in 1991, based on a proposal by the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC), as an international network to promote student exchanges in the Asia and the Pacific region. The development of UMAP proceeded through a series of conferences around the region. UMAP is modelled after The Erasmus Programme (European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students). There are vast differences, however, between the contexts of Europe and that of Asia and the Pacific region, which raises a number of issues with respect to exchange among universities that need to be addressed and solved in our region. UMAP is a voluntary association of government and non-government representatives of the higher education (university) sector in the region. It aims to achieve enhanced international understanding through increased mobility of university students and staff.

In 1994, The Osaka Declaration for promoting UMAP activities was adopted, and APEC (Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation) publicly started to support UMAP. In 1997, Australia put forward a proposal to fund a project to develop a pilot UMAP Credit Transfer Scheme. This scheme now prevails in the region, and in 1998, a Constitution was adopted. As stipulated in the Constitution, UMAP operation funds derive from contributions by each

member country or region based on their respective gross national products (GNPs), similar to the APEC system. UMAP is voluntarily supported by each member country and territory.

The Constitution states that: UMAP supports university student and staff exchange programs in Asia and the Pacific region; it enables students to gain firsthand a better understanding of the cultural, economic and social systems of the region; and it enhances cooperation among institutions of higher education. Some features of UMAP include:

- Students participating in UMAP undertake a period of formal study while on exchange. This study should be for a minimum of one semester and a maximum of two semesters.
- Hosting universities are expected to waive tuition fees for UMAP students on exchange.
- Credit for study undertaken while on exchange is to be accepted by the home university.
- Undergraduate and postgraduate students can participate in UMAP.

In 2000, both the UMAP Leaders' Program and the UMAP International Student Allowance (the UMAP Fund-in-Trust for Supporting International Students), which were proposed by Japan, were approved. The Leaders' Program provided a two month seminar course for selected undergraduate students from UMAP member countries and territories, and conferred interchangeable credit according to the UMAP Credit Transfer Scheme to be given by the Japanese universities organising program. The UMAP International Student Allowance was very beneficial, especially in the period of Asian currency crisis in 1999–2000, supplying allowances for 26,000 students who came from Asia and the Pacific region at their own expense. In 2004, UMAP decided to expand its activities to include the exchange of staff and faculty. Details are available from the UMAP website <http://www.umap.org>.

UMAP membership is open to countries and territories in the Asia-Pacific region. Members can be represented by government higher education departments or ministries, individual universities, university umbrella organisation, or a combination of these. Individuals are not eligible to be members.

In 2010, Australia supported 56 staff and 450 students for overseas exchanges, three quarters of them were to the USA or Canada.

University Mobility in the Indian Ocean Region

Encouraged by the success of UMAP, attention turned to the Indian Ocean area, and following two preliminary meetings of interested members of the Indian Ocean Rim Association for Regional Cooperation held in India in 1999 and Australia in 2000, University Mobility in the Indian Ocean Region (UMIOR) was established. UMIOR is a university staff and student exchange program for countries on the Indian Ocean Rim. Its current (August 2010) 18 member states embrace the arc from South Africa

to Australia, and all are members of the Indian Ocean Rim Association for Regional Cooperation.

The UMIOR Student Exchange Consortium is a voluntary association of government and non-government representatives of the higher education sector. The UMIOR Exchange Program involves the development and implementation of bilateral and multilateral university student exchanges, which are consistent with the UMIOR Student Exchange Consortium principles. The goal of UMIOR is, 'through university student and staff mobility, to enhance the understanding of participating countries in the educational, cultural, economic and social spheres and contribute to human resources development in the Indian Ocean Region' (UMIOR Constitution, viewed 15 August 2010).

The objectives of UMIOR are:

- to facilitate mutually beneficial university collaboration
- to promote and foster reciprocal student exchanges in the Indian Ocean Region
- to provide structure and consistency in exchanges
- to assist in attracting funding for identified student exchanges.

UMIOR membership is open to representatives of each country who enable effective representation of the national higher education system. There is some overlap (five or six member states) between UMAP and UMIOR. Representation may include the peak body of the universities, governments, individual universities, or a combination of these. Individuals are not eligible to be UMIOR members. UMIOR programs operate between individual accredited higher education institutions, or consortia, on the basis of mutual acceptance of the appropriateness of national accreditation determinations. All public or private higher education institutions located in countries participating in UMIOR—and recognised in the participating home country as nationally accredited, or as reputable providers of higher education courses—are eligible to participate in UMIOR programs. Most agreements negotiated under UMIOR are bilateral between institutions, but agreements between governments or systems, or combinations of parties, can also be appropriate. Home and host universities need to ensure credit recognition prior to exchange. The Association of Indian Universities provides the Secretariat of UMIOR.

Import

TNE has been asymmetric. Australia is responsible for a great deal of 'outbound education' and very little 'inbound education' (though one instance of the latter is described in Chapter 9). Conversely, India has been a great recipient of education, from Australia and other countries. This means that different systems and regulations are needed, both state and federal. In general, Australia has provisions that are differentially more favourable to foreign students, whether in Australia or overseas, but there are some glaring exceptions (such as support for student travel to and from their institution).

Both Australian and foreign students in Australia report different experiences. Some Australian students welcome the different cultural input from foreign students, while some are xenophobic. Australian institutions have become aware of the need to 'internationalise the curriculum'—not specifically for the benefit of foreign students, but because a full higher education today must include international awareness. This being the case, there is some discussion about the possibility and propriety of using the presence of large numbers of foreign students in Australian institutions to assist this process.

Some foreign students in Australia are integrated while some remain in 'educational ghettos', working only with classmates from their home country. Some in the latter category would prefer to have more Australian friends and Australian experiences, while some prefer the security of a familiar group and mutual support in their own language.

Conclusion

Education is now (2010) the third or fourth largest export earner for Australia (behind coal, iron, and sometimes gold). Has this skewed the perception of education and of students? Probably no more than the whole 'student as customer' emphasis, which applies to both local and overseas students. However, there is constant reference to the size of the earnings in media reports. When, as recently, this seems to take centre stage—even when the report is basically about ill-treatment of an overseas student—it does send a signal that the dollars are paramount. Australia needs to work to re-establish its 'aid before trade' image.

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Chapter 4

The Policy and Quality Assurance of Transnational Education in Australia

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This chapter focuses on the role played by government policies and initiatives that support and monitor transnational education (TNE) providers delivering programs offshore. It covers three main sections, namely: policy and provider support; the accompanying quality assurance framework; and the influence that onshore policy, regulation and practice have on providers' quality assurance practices when operating offshore. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the offshore universities currently delivering programs in Australia.

Policy and Provider Support

Australian Education International

Australian Education International (AEI) is part of the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR). AEI aims to encourage and facilitate the development of Australia's international education and training industry in line with the national interest to realise the intellectual, social, cultural, economic, and security benefits of internationalisation.

AEI's mission is to provide leadership across all levels of government and industry to support and sustain the international education and training systems in Australia. Historically, it did this through an 'integrated approach to policy, regulation, international engagement and promotion'. It currently operates a central office in Canberra and, in October 2010, a global network of 16 offices in 14 offshore countries (or economies). The multifaceted role that AEI has played, and continues to play, in supporting Australian higher education providers engaged in TNE activity is significant.

Prior to 1 July 2010, AEI promoted the overall brand of Australian education. This was best seen in the new look 'Study in Australia' campaign—with its tagline to 'Live. Learn. Grow.'—and the brand-position based on the advantage of Australia having acknowledged quality and ongoing improvements in its education system (Buffington 2007). Whilst the Study in Australia promotion campaign is primarily focused on profiling Australia as a study destination, it also recognises that prospective TNE students will be drawn to this promotion, particularly its web-based information provision, and so 'Study in your Country' linkages have been provided to students wishing to study in a TNE mode.

On 1 July 2010, the responsibility for the international promotion and marketing of education was transferred from AEI to Austrade (Australian Trade Commission), as the government intends to separate policy and regulation from promotion in this area. Austrade will now provide the general market overviews, country fact sheets, and market alerts.

AEI will retain responsibility for international education policy and government-to-government relations. The latter role can be used to convey information on offshore government sentiment regarding in-country foreign education provision, and provide this advice to Australian higher education providers.

The policy advice of the AEI offshore counsellor network is valuable, particularly to providers new to TNE activity. Discussions informing a provider's due diligence considerations of potential partners are important services provided by the in-country counsellors; however, the advice most often sought by providers going offshore or continuing their offshore activity relates to the host country's changing regulatory and developing quality assurance frameworks. This has been the case for the key markets of Malaysia, Hong Kong and Singapore, but most importantly for the People's Republic of China, with its increasing internal regulatory environment related to Sino-foreign ventures. Whilst the resulting structures and functions of the 'new' AEI are still emerging, transition advice indicates that the existing international AEI counsellor network will remain in AEI, apart from those positions disbanded in Chile, Belgium (Brussels) and UAE (Dubai).

Transnational Quality Strategy

In April 2005, the then Minister for Education, Science and Training, the Hon. Dr Brendan Nelson, launched 'A National Quality Strategy for Australian Transnational Education and Training: A Discussion Paper' (DEST 2005). This was in response to the growing numbers of students studying offshore. In that year, about one in every four international students in the Australian education and training system were enrolled offshore, and at the time it was projected that in ten years offshore activities would outstrip onshore international activity (Jarvie 2004). Whilst most Australian providers were delivering quality programs offshore, the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) first cycle audits had identified some areas of concern related to the contracts and partner agreements, quality assurance systems, and domestic-offshore program

comparability. Furthermore, there was some direct feedback from the key offshore markets—China, Malaysia and Hong Kong—regarding several issues, including onshore–offshore program comparability, quality systems, and Australian providers offering unapproved higher education programs.

The government wanted to take a forward-looking approach to ensure the quality of these TNE offerings, and to enhance international recognition of Australia as a provider of high quality education and training. So after consultation, the Transnational Quality Strategy (TQS) framework was agreed to by the Education and Training Ministers in 2005 (DEEWR n.d.).

The Strategy is underpinned by four key principles:

1. Australia's quality assurance arrangements should be well understood and well-regarded internationally;
2. Providers and consumers should be able to clearly understand the accountabilities in delivery and quality assurance of transnational education;
3. Quality assurance functions should be effective and efficient; and
4. Courses/programmes delivered within Australia and transnationally should be equivalent in the standard of delivery and outcomes of the course, as determined under nationally recognised quality assurance arrangements (DEEWR n.d.).

In essence, the aim of the TQS is to ensure that Australian courses delivered in other countries are delivered to the same standards as they are in Australia.

The TQS focuses on three areas: resources to providers; data provision on TNE activity; and AusLIST, a search site displaying countries of activity and programs offered by Australian providers. AusLIST is voluntary and yet-to-be-registered providers must meet national criteria relating to approvals for their onshore activity, be free of relevant non-compliances with nationally agreed standards, and agree to deliver courses offshore to a comparable standard to those they deliver in Australia. Providers must also comply with the host country regulatory requirements. Listed programs require a compulsory face-to-face component—distance education and online programs cannot be listed.

The current definition of TNE adopted for the TQS is that program delivery includes a face-to-face component. This definition has bedevilled the higher education sector who wants the definition widened to encompass distance education, including online delivery. Sector representatives argue that distance delivery offshore does not substantially differ from distance delivery onshore, and has similar quality assurance requirements. The exclusion of distance education delivered programs from data collection activity affects the clear understanding of the scale and scope of offshore offerings.

The AusLIST website was launched in July 2008, and by April 2010 contained listings of 419 programs delivered by 24 higher education providers in countries reflecting the top TNE markets. Some universities that have significant activity offshore have not, to date, registered their programs on AusLIST. Whether their registration is currently being

processed, or whether they have decided not to register based either on the perceived value of the listing or their comfort with aspects of the provider declaration required to be signed prior to listing, is unknown.

Whether AusLIST will become a market driver for students seeking quality programs, is not yet known. Programs carrying this government endorsement should be more attractive; however, the fact that distance education and online programs are excluded from the listing, and the fact that listing is voluntary, provides only a partial view of the suite of transnational programs offered offshore by Australian higher education providers.

The TQS resources available to providers are significant and currently include a series of country regulatory fact sheets, sector specific 'Good Practice Project Reports' and guides, as well as a comprehensive guide, *Good practice in offshore delivery: a guide for Australian providers of education and training* (IEAA 2008). The government provided AUD3.51 million to fund the industry-led 'Good Practice Projects', which were essentially in four areas:

1. Frameworks, Models and Tools for Program Quality Assurance
2. Governance and Risk Management
3. Comparable Standards
4. Student Experience (DEST 2006).

The *Good practice in offshore delivery* guide is comprehensive, cross-sectoral, and contains useful practical frameworks, for example, key elements of a business plan to assist providers starting transnational education projects.

Moreover, in implementing several TQS framework elements, DEEWR engaged the International Education Association of Australia (IEAA), a peak body of professionals working in international education in Australia, to assist with resource development, conduct industry fora, and deliver professional development workshops. In this relationship with the IEAA, extensive workshop resources have been developed in two areas—TNE good business practice and TNE teaching and learning—and are delivered nationally to middle and senior managers in order to move their skills 'to the next level'.

The state government based initiatives compliment the federal support frameworks; for example, Queensland Education and Training International support providers by way of strategy development, market advice, and professional and export development programs.

The TQS Working Group, charged with overseeing the implementation of the Strategy, has been dissolved as part of the rationalisation of the international education advisory bodies. It is intended that matters relating to TNE delivery will be now handled by the new International Quality Implementation Group, a subgroup of the Joint Committee on International Education.

Has the strategy delivered on its key objective to ensure that Australian courses delivered in other countries are delivered to the same standards as they are in Australia? Certainly there has been a maturation of the TNE industry, which will be further discussed

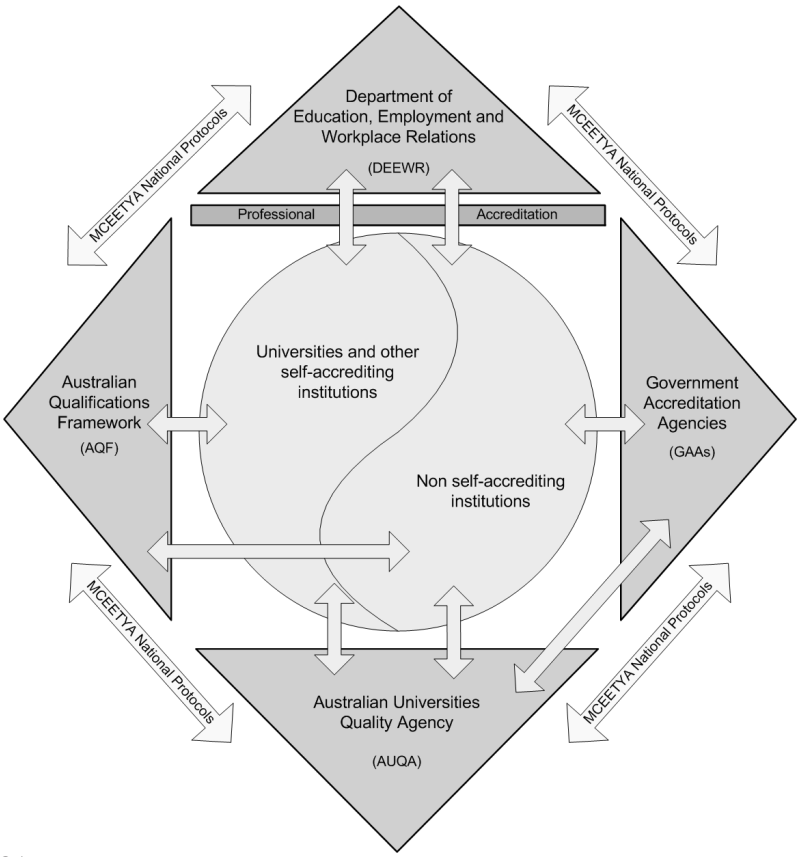
in Chapter 6. Activity now focuses away from the early initiatives of single program partnerships, often delivered in distance education mode, and usually led by individual faculty and/or school-based entrepreneurs to TNE activity that is more firmly embedded in the institutions strategic intent. Enrolment growth is in campus-based delivery models that are more sustainable and better able to be quality assured.

Several factors, including the quality audit of TNE operations which will be covered in Chapter 5, have influenced this maturation; however, it is acknowledged in the industry that the TQS initiatives discussed here have contributed to bringing the TNE engagement to a mature stage of development, and in moving the bar on the quality of TNE activity to the next level.

Quality Assurance Framework

The current quality assurance framework for Australian higher education involves the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF) and the higher education providers, state and territory governments, AUQA and the Australian Government, each playing varying roles.

The following diagram provides a representation of this framework.



Source: AUQA.

Figure 4.1: The Australian Higher Education Quality System

Australian universities are established under legislation as statutory authorities, have annual reporting requirements, and are self-accrediting; that is, they have the authority to accredit their own programs. They are responsible for their own academic standards and quality assurance processes, and the capacity to responsibly exercise this authority is among the criteria for recognition as a university in Australia. Australian universities wishing to offer programs offshore, approve such offerings of accredited programs through their academic boards.

Australian governments have a number of responsibilities in respect of quality assurance in higher education, including the recognition of new universities, the accreditation of higher education programs offered by non self-accrediting higher education providers, the monitoring of delivery arrangements of higher education institutions where they involve other organisations, and the operation of overseas higher education institutions in Australia. The operation of overseas education institutions offering TNE programs in Australia will be further discussed at the end of this chapter.

In Australia, government responsibility for the quality assurance framework is shared between the Commonwealth and the states and territories. The Australian Government has the primary responsibility for public funding of higher education, but constitutional responsibility for decision-making, regulation and governance is shared among the Australian Government and the state and territory governments, with decision-making through the Ministerial Council for Tertiary Education and Employment (MCTEE).

Spheres of activity

Currently, Australia has a robust higher education quality assurance framework which comprises six main spheres of activity:

1. **Recognition of qualifications:** Australia has a formal national qualifications framework, the AQF, which facilitates the recognition of qualifications. The AQF provides agreed national guidelines for qualifications in schools, vocational and educational training and higher education, and maintains a public register of MCTEE endorsed post-compulsory education providers and accreditation authorities. It defines the expected learning outcomes and other chief characteristics of vocational and higher education qualifications, and promotes cross-sectoral linkages. The AQF register of qualifications and institutions is a comprehensive register of every AQF qualification and the provider/institution accredited to deliver and issue these qualifications. It also links to state and territory maintained registers of non self-accrediting higher education providers.

   The 'Study in Australia' website links to AusLIST through the 'Study in your Country' option. It provides information to assist prospective TNE students in identifying in-country program offerings that meet Australian registration, accreditation and quality assurance standards, and advises students to look to the AQF Register of Qualifications and Institutions if a TNE program offered in their country is not listed on AusLIST. These easily navigated websites and

links provide a comprehensive information source to prospective TNE students regarding programs and institutions, and project a positioning of a high quality higher education system where the Australian and state and territory governments play key roles.

2. **Accreditation and approval:** A framework for accreditation and approval processes, known as the *National protocols for higher education approval processes,* governs the establishment and operation of the different types of higher education institutions, as well as other types of regulatory approval. The National Protocols were endorsed by the Ministerial Council on Education, Employment Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) in 2000 to ensure consistent quality assurance criteria and standards across Australia.

   The revised *National protocols for higher education approval processes* came into effect from 31 December 2007, subject to the passage of legislation by the Commonwealth, states and territories (MCEETYA 2007). The revisions to the National Protocols allow for the establishment of specialised universities; allow non self-accrediting institutions with a strong track record of reaccreditation to become self-accrediting institutions; reserve the title 'university college' for use by new universities working towards full university status; and also clarify the requirements for overseas institutions seeking to operate in Australia. Non self-accrediting higher education providers apply for approval from their state or territory government to deliver higher education qualifications offshore. The program delivered offshore needs to be the same as that accredited for delivery in Australia. Some states, for example New South Wales, explicitly indicate in application procedures that there is an expectation that the program will be delivered and accessed substantially in English. As part of the approval process, visits to the intended offshore delivery sites are conducted by qualified assessors. As the offshore activity of non self-accrediting higher education providers increases, the state and territory departments would need to develop additional capability and capacity to handle such assessments, which can involve complex applications involving multiple sites and the delivery of several programs at each site. The move in 2010 to establish the Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency (TEQSA), a national body for regulation and quality assurance, will address efficiencies in developing assessment expertise in this area. TEQSA is discussed more fully later in this chapter.

3. **Institution self-monitoring and review:** Higher education institutions have the primary responsibility for managing the quality and delivery of their courses. All institutions are required to have well-developed processes for institutional self-monitoring and review. The institutional Academic Board and a series of subcommittees of the Academic Board play key roles in this process.

4. **External monitoring and review:** External monitoring and review of how institutions operate is undertaken by the state, territory and Australian governments. Monitoring occurs through a range of mechanisms which ensure accountability for government funding, protection of overseas students, the

collection of data on graduate satisfaction and employment outcomes, and incentives for universities to improve learning and teaching.

State and territory governments require annual reports from all universities established under their legislation, and from non self-accrediting providers as well. With respect to the latter, there is a process of re-registration under which providers are required to demonstrate ongoing compliance with the National Protocols. As the Australian Government is a primary source of funding to Australian universities, it oversees a range of quality and accountability requirements set out under the *Higher Education Support Act 2003* (Attorney Generals Department 2003).

5. **Independent quality audits:** All Australian universities and the state, territory and Commonwealth authorities responsible for accrediting higher education institutions in their jurisdictions are audited by AUQA. AUQA commenced its first cycle of audits in 2002, and by 2007 all universities and other self-accrediting institutions had been audited—using a fitness-for-purpose and a whole-of-institution approach. The second cycle of audits, which commenced in 2008, focuses on two selected themes for each university or other self-accrediting institution, includes academic standards and outcomes, and follows up on selected recommendations from Cycle 1 audits. One audit theme common to all institutions, except for the very few institutions with minimal engagement in this area, is 'internationalisation'. This theme was chosen as a result of the findings of Cycle 1 audits and the judgment regarding potential for academic risk, particularly with institutions' offshore activity. AUQA developed a useful 'TNE Quality Framework' to inform the quality auditing activity (AUQA 2009).

   Approved non self-accrediting higher education providers are also audited by AUQA and quality audits of these providers commenced in 2006.

   AUQA publicly reports on all quality audits and on matters relating to quality assurance in Australian higher education more broadly. The role of AUQA in conducting quality audits, and the impact these audits have made on the quality of higher education providers' TNE activity, will be discussed fully in Chapter 5.

6. **Information provision:** Finally, published performance data is available for students, potential students, institutions and the general public, to inform them about various aspects of the quality of higher education courses and qualifications, and provides the sector with a range of tools and incentives to enhance the quality of outcomes.

Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency

As part of the 2009–10 Budget, the Australian Government announced the establishment in 2010 of the Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency (TEQSA). TEQSA will enhance the overall quality of the Australian higher education system. It will accredit providers, evaluate the performance of institutions and programs, and encourage best practice. It will also simplify current regulatory arrangements and provide greater national

consistency, which will be important for providers of education to international students who operate in several states and territories, and where this provision is differently regulated and monitored in each jurisdiction.

The new regulatory and quality arrangements will consist of four elements:

1. Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency
2. National Register of Higher Education Providers
3. Higher Education Standards Framework
4. *MyUniversity* website.

TEQSA will be an independent agency operating at arm's length from the state, territory and federal governments. The quality audit functions of AUQA and the regulatory activities of state and territory governments will be combined and undertaken at a national level. All higher education providers will be evaluated in the context of the new Higher Education Standards Framework.

Taking a risk based approach, the aim is to liberate high performing higher education providers from unnecessary over-regulation, and an appropriate level of attention will be given to higher risk providers to protect the quality and reputation of Australia's education system.

When TEQSA is operational, all higher education providers will be transferred to the National Register of Higher Education Providers, a definitive list of all registered providers in Australia. The National Register will contain details of:

- the provider
- the accredited programs they can deliver
- authorisation to accredit programs i.e. makes clear if programs are accredited by the provider or by TEQSA
- any conditions placed on the provider's registration
- date by when conditions need to be addressed
- date of required progress reports
- date of next re-registration
- category of provider, e.g. registered higher education provider, university, university of specialisation, university college, Australian campus of overseas provider, etc.

All providers will then be re-registered using a combined quality assurance and re-registration check. Whilst the transfer process was initially scheduled to be undertaken in January 2011 and the re-registration in 2012, implementation timelines have been extended. It is anticipated that AUQA is continuing its current schedule of quality audits in 2011.

The Higher Education Standards Framework will outline minimum standards that higher education providers are required to meet and will comprise:

- provider registration standards
- qualifications standards, which includes compliance with criteria stipulated in the AQF
- information standards
- teaching and learning standards
- research standards.

Whilst the provider registration and qualifications standards were also scheduled to be in place by January 2011, this is unlikely to occur, again due to extended implementation timelines. The other standards are in an early stage of development. The provider registration standards will replace the existing *National protocols for higher education approval processes.*

The *MyUniversity* website will provide a range of information on universities to prospective students.

The establishment of TEQSA will ensure that there will be no drop in the quality of Australian higher education as the number of students undertaking higher education both in Australia and offshore increases. It will take some time to transition to these new arrangements, and the university sector in particular is nervous about how these changes will be implemented. In July, 2010 an interim chair of the TEQSA Board and an interim CEO were appointed to guide the establishment of the agency.

The Influence of Onshore Policy, Regulation and Practice

There are several areas of onshore policy, regulation and provider practice that can be identified as influencing the quality assurance of TNE activity. These include:

- the *Educational Services for Overseas Students Act 2000* (the ESOS Act) and the National Code of Practice for Registration Authorities and Providers of Education and Training to Overseas Students (National Code, Commonwealth of Australia, 2007)
- partner management models
- credit transfer systems and pathways.

The ESOS Act and the National Code do not apply to Australian providers delivering programs outside Australia. The ESOS Act, and its associated legislation, the National Code, protects Australia's reputation for delivering quality education services, the interests of overseas students, and the integrity of the student visa program, by setting minimum standards and providing tuition and financial assurance for international students studying in Australia on a student visa. The National Code, already discussed in Chapter 3, comprises 15 standards covering the areas of pre-enrolment, engagement of students, care for and services to students, students as consumers, and the student visa program. Providers take their requirement to comply with the National Code very seriously. Some document their internal systems, processes and monitoring regimes in ESOS operations manuals so all staff are clear on the requirements and the role they need to play. A feature of these systems is

internal audit. Some universities use relevant aspects of the quality assurance framework that has been developed to ensure ESOS compliance onshore with their transnational program partner sites. For example, the checking, signoff and monitoring procedures used to ensure the integrity of marketing materials (under Standard 1, Marketing Information and Practice), is used with transnational partner promotional materials. This approach to TNE quality assurance has been endorsed as 'good practice' by AUQA and features as an example in AUQA's online Good Practice Database (AUQA 2006).

Many transnational programs are delivered offshore with the assistance of partners, indeed in some countries, for example, Oman, foreign providers cannot offer their programs in-country without a local affiliate. Chapter 3 discussed the development of partnerships to assist providers in offering their programs at sites within Australia. Usually these offerings are to international students and in states different to the provider's home state. Clear approval processes exist within state governments for interstate universities to provide courses to overseas students in their jurisdiction.

Providers then have a range of onshore and offshore partnerships to assist in program delivery. Partnership management models used onshore for these interstate activities can, for example, include:

- comprehensive partner/provider academic and operational roles and responsibilities guides
- joint project teams and integrated project management.

The management of offshore partnerships is often more complex than managing onshore partnerships, and there are special issues associated with managing these relationships; however, aspects of these partnership management models used for the interstate partnerships can be adapted to assist with offshore partner management. The lessons learned in managing offshore partnerships can equally inform the providers onshore partner management practices.

The model of advanced standing and credit transfer is very common onshore, but particularly offshore in TNE programs. In Singapore, for example, the 'top-up degree' model dominates undergraduate offerings. This is where students, often with the in-country partner's diploma qualification, are given advanced standing into the Australian provider's degree programs. This arrangement suits both partners, and the Australian provider usually finds it more profitable to deliver a reduced set of subjects offshore. In a competitive TNE market the amount of advanced standing offered by an institution influences student choice of 'top-up' programs. Partners often pressure providers to increase advanced standing for this reason. Providers need to ensure that they have robust and consistent advanced standing policies across all delivery sites. One way of quality assuring the process is to have an electronic articulations database and an online application management system, accessible by both onshore and offshore partners, to assist in the advanced standing assessment process (AUQA 2009a, 2009b).

Offshore Institutions Delivering Transnational Education in Australia

This chapter has primarily focused on the policy and quality assurance aspects of Australian providers delivering TNE programs offshore. There are clear approval processes through the National Protocols for overseas higher education providers wishing to operate in Australia (MCEETYA 2007). An overseas institution may offer both overseas qualifications and Australian qualifications, as long as they comply with the AQF. If offering both, the institution needs to seek approval as an overseas higher education provider for its overseas awards under the National Protocol guidelines, and also seek approval to offer Australian qualifications on a non self-accrediting basis.

Some multinational education providers have activity in Australia, for example, the Kaplan group, which has its company headquarters in New York, USA. Kaplan Business School Australia operates in several states through Kaplan Australia and offers undergraduate and postgraduate programs.

Although a relatively new development, offshore university providers have now started to deliver TNE programs in Australia. This development has occurred in South Australia and is partly a response to that state's strategy to increase their share of the international student market, and to also establish Adelaide's international standing as 'Australia's University City' (Rann 2006). The development of the 'University City' concept required additional universities, and in 2006 Carnegie Mellon University (CMU), on the invitation of the South Australian Government, became Australia's first foreign university. In 2008, Cranfield University from the UK established a presence, and in 2010 the University College London also started programs. The second case study (Chapter 9) provides more information about the South Australian Government's strategy.

Conclusion

The Australian Government's quality assurance framework for the delivery of TNE programs has been, on the whole, robust and appropriate. The AUQA institutional audits, which include providers' offshore activities, have had a significant positive impact on the quality of program offerings. The Transnational Quality Strategy elements, which work to ensure that programs delivered offshore are of the same standard as those delivered onshore, has provided a good practice framework for institutions. The AusLIST initiative serves to assure prospective students and their parents that quality program provision is front of mind for the Australian Government. As 2011 begins, the sector watches with interest as the TEQSA enhanced quality and standards framework is being assembled. This enhancement will be important to ensure that the increasing Australian TNE provision is of high quality.

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Chapter 5

Quality Audit of the Transnational Education Operations of the Australian Universities

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In Australia, the universities and university-level institutions enjoy considerable academic autonomy in designing and offering their courses. They have 'self-accrediting power' and are called 'self-accrediting institutions (SAIs)'. The self-accrediting power of the Australian university-level institutions is similar to the degree awarding power of the Indian universities. Once established, the self-accrediting institutions are not required to go through further accreditation processes, and they have the authority to introduce new programs through their institutional academic governance processes, without requiring external approval. With the establishment of the Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency (TEQSA) that will bring regulation and quality assurance together, in future, the self-accrediting institutions will also undergo periodic reaccreditation, but they will still have the autonomy to introduce new courses without requiring external approval (see Chapter 4 for more details). Because of this academic autonomy, external quality assurance of SAIs is particularly crucial in providing public assurance of their quality. The national quality assurance body, namely the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) has a major role in upholding the credibility of SAIs, and of the broader Australian higher education sector. AUQA is an integral part of the quality assurance system described in Chapter 4. This chapter explains, in particular, what AUQA has learnt during the past ten years about the quality assurance arrangements related to education that crosses the national borders, through auditing the Australian universities, including their offshore operations.

Australian Universities Quality Agency

AUQA was created in 2001 to be 'the principal national quality assurance agency in higher education with the responsibility of providing public assurance of the quality of Australia's

universities and other institutions of higher education, and assisting in enhancing the academic quality of these institutions' (AUQA 2010).

AUQA audits the SAIs, a number of other higher education institutions, and the government accrediting authorities. In the case of SAIs, AUQA audits examine the institutional internal quality assurance arrangements, and produce a public report about their effectiveness. This public confirmation (or otherwise) of the effectiveness of the quality assurance processes is even more important in educational services which cross national borders. There are universities where more than 50% of student enrolment is international, and for this reason, AUQA is as much responsible for examining the quality assurance arrangements related to international students as it is for arrangements related to the domestic students.

AUQA commenced its institutional audits in 2002. From its inception, AUQA specified that its audits would cover all academic activities carried out in the university's name, wherever and through whomever those activities occur. Consequently, the Performance Portfolio (self-review document the institutions submit to AUQA) covers all their academic activities, including their international activities. Importantly, these activities are usually summarised as 'internationalisation', and have been featured right from the first AUQA audit.

AUQA widely interprets 'internationalisation' to include the following:

- arrangements for the teaching and learning of international students in Australia (onshore), including partner arrangements and campuses
- arrangements for teaching and learning of international students overseas (offshore), including partner arrangements and campuses
- internationalisation of the curriculum
- other international activities, such as research collaboration, study abroad, and staff mobility.

Many universities state an equally broad definition, but then in practice give more attention to educational services to international students onshore and offshore. Consequently, AUQA also takes a closer look at these two aspects in its attention to 'international activities'. Among these two aspects, AUQA's emphasis on arrangements for teaching and learning of international students overseas, also known as transnational education (TNE), has faced a lot of queries.

Australian Education International (AEI) is part of the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR). AEI aims to encourage and facilitate the development of Australia's international education and training industry in line with the national interest to realise the intellectual, social, cultural, economic, and security benefits of internationalisation.

AEI's mission is to provide leadership across all levels of government and industry to support and sustain the international education and training systems in Australia. Historically, it did this through an 'integrated approach to policy, regulation, international engagement and promotion', and it currently operates a central office in Canberra and, in October 2010, a global network of 16 offices in 14 offshore countries (or economies).

Emphasis on Transnational Education

The primary reason for AUQA's emphasis on TNE is that these operations are inherently more difficult to control, being that they are at a great distance from the base of the university's operations, embedded in a different culture, and under the charge of another organisation. Therefore, it is harder to get them right.

A second reason is that TNE is the international face of Australian education, and Australian operations overseas are much more open to international scrutiny than domestic operations. Getting them right is thus particularly important for the reputation and health of the institution and for the Australian higher education sector in general. International opinions of the quality of Australian higher education heavily depend not only on the actual quality of TNE, but also on its perceived quality and the attention Australia directs towards its development. Achieving high regard requires *(inter alia)* highly visible attention to the external quality assurance regime. In consequence, the quality of TNE is of great importance to AUQA, and those offshore operations which are known to have quality assurance issues are particularly targeted by AUQA.

A third reason for the emphasis on TNE operations comes from the institutions themselves. Although institutions use the term 'internationalisation' in strategies and plans, evidence presented in the audit performance portfolios tended to pay most attention to TNE, with less coverage of other dimensions.

Recognising the above, and the importance of TNE to Australia, in 2003 the federal government allocated funds for a period of several years for strengthening Australia's TNE work. The funds have permitted an increase in the number of visits to overseas operations as part of each audit, and this has greatly increased the amount, and the level, of detail that has been learned about the overseas operations. The funds also support additional training programs for AUQA auditors on TNE issues, and increased bilateral activities with other quality assurance agencies.

Before 2005, AUQA was visiting an average of two offshore operations during an institutional audit. Current audits now include an average of four visits to offshore operations within one institutional audit, generally in two to four countries—bearing in mind that some auditees do not have enough overseas activity to warrant as much overseas visiting.

The strengthened attention to offshore operations has significantly increased AUQA's experience in dealing with the issues that have warranted greater attention to ensure the quality assurance arrangements of the Australian universities. At the same time, such attention had led to criticism pertaining to the amount of time AUQA spends on TNE work, in comparison to the time spent on matters affecting the domestic and international students onshore. Such criticism is natural, but it seemingly ignores the risk-oriented approach to sampling used by AUQA (and other similar audit bodies). It also ignores the fact that 24% of the international students in Australian universities are offshore (223,508 onshore and 70,655 offshore in 2008, (DEEWR 2008) and enrolled in programs offered through different modes. AUQA is mindful that having

one in every four international students offshore under TNE poses high risks to the reputation of Australia's international higher education. AUQA has therefore developed a framework to examine the effectiveness of the institutional arrangements to handle TNE responsibility.

Transnational Education Quality Framework of the Australian Universities Quality Agency

Worldwide, there is little experience in the exercise of an external quality assurance role over operations that are outside the country where the quality agency is based. Acknowledging this, AUQA established a two-part structure to guide its audits of TNE. The first part, using a risk-based approach, is a group of factors that guide the audit panels in the sampling of TNE activities that need more probing. The second part uses a set of questions to guide the audit panels in the actual audit process, and in the investigation of the selected TNE activities.

Sampling: factors affecting whether and which overseas operations to visit

AUQA's detailed investigation is based on sampling, for all academic activities within the country and across national borders, which includes operations on multiple campuses, operations with partner organisations, and operations overseas. Within these samples, AUQA audit panels talk to sample staff and students, inspect sample documents for a range of processes and activities, investigate a sample of research centres, and so on.

To assist panels in selecting overseas samples, AUQA has identified five factors panels might consider prior to deciding which overseas activities warrant a visit:

1. Materiality: the panels consider whether the numbers of staff and students at an offshore venue are significant enough to warrant particular attention.
2. Strategic significance: if the overseas activities are significant to the organisational strategies—such as the subject of a major growth strategy—then the audit panel may deem them sufficiently significant to warrant particular attention, even if the activity is currently quite small.
3. Risk management: the likelihood and consequences of things going wrong with the overseas activities and the integrity of the institution's risk management system will be considered.
4. Risk to students: an institution may lack experience in the provision of necessary systems for overseas students, and hence pose a greater risk to students.
5. Host country accreditation: most overseas locations in which Australian institutions operate have external quality mechanisms of their own, and the panels will consider to what extent their outcomes can be used to provide some of the information required for AUQA audit.

On the basis of these factors, the audit panel decides whether any TNE operations merit close attention, and if so, which ones. The panel then decides what sort of attention is

feasible by reflecting on the logistical aspects of carrying out such visits. The panel therefore considers the following two factors:

1. Practicality: an auditee may have a large number of relatively small-scale operations widely dispersed around the world, and it may be impractical to visit many, but of dubious value to visit only one. The panel will consider the time available, and the spread and scale of the activities when choosing the sample.
2. Necessity: once the audit panel has decided on the level of attention needed, further information can always be obtained in various ways, including requesting additional documentation, conducting web searches, and through personal interaction via teleconferencing, videoconferencing, and even email. Thus, a physical visit overseas is only one option among a number of strategies available to an audit panel to carry out its investigations.

Each audit panel considers these seven factors and weighs their total effect, adequacy and value, in deciding how to gather all the information it needs, and specifically which of an auditee's overseas activities to visit (or in rare cases, whether to undertake overseas visits at all).

Audit investigation

While much of the information gathered by audit panels, and the evidence assessed by them, is the same for partner-based and/or overseas operations as it is for the university's campus operations in Australia, the contextual information is more particular to these overseas operations. As a result, the second part of AUQA's TNE Quality Framework investigates partner and overseas operations in 17 areas. Perhaps because many universities have overestimated the similarity of campus and partner operations—and thus might have inadequate processes in place to reliably handle the different situation—they have benefited from AUQA's TNE investigation framework, as it forces institutions to more carefully examine the arrangements related to such initiatives.

The questions AUQA raises under these 17 areas are very relevant to any national context:

Leadership and governance:

1. Philosophy and rationale: What is the purpose of the university's transnational activity? What values underpin it? Who are the stakeholders/beneficiaries, what are their interests, and how are their interests being represented? What are the particular features of the selected location? How does all this influence the overall model?
2. Partners and agents: What kind of partner is it (public university; private university; business provider; silent investor; controlled entity, etc.)? What are the partner's motivations? Was a thorough due diligence undertaken first? Have potential risks been explored, identified and appropriately managed? Are agents experienced and trained? How are they monitored and reviewed?

3. Contract/agreement: Was there appropriate consultation (contract consideration)? Who signed the contract (contract authorisation)? Are the academic quality assurance issues covered in a clear manner, and are the risk management provisions adequate (contract scope)? Are there good communication processes, is the contract subject to review, is the program financially sound, e.g. are students at risk, and are the obligations of the parties clear, including exit strategies (contract management)?
4. Quality control: Does the auditee have necessary and appropriate host country approvals (e.g. registration)? Does each partner and program have appropriate host country approvals (e.g. accreditation)? Does each program have appropriate professional accreditation?
5. Governance: At which institution are the students enrolled? With whom will they graduate? Are they quite clear about this? Do the university's policies apply (e.g. in relation to plagiarism, grievances, etc.)? If so, are there appropriate training, communication, and operational and appeals processes in place? To what extent does the partner also impose policies, and do these affect the impact of university policies?

Staff, curriculum development and admission requirements:

6. Staffing and staff development: Are there appropriate selection, induction, briefing, support and review processes for teachers? Does induction include training on cultural issues? Who employs, supports and monitors the staff? Is there student evaluation of staff? Do the university and the partner share the information? How does it feed into development opportunities?
7. Curriculum: Was the curriculum specifically approved within the auditee for transnational delivery? What did this entail (e.g. changes to teaching methods; assessment amendments; advanced standing)? Is the curriculum identical, equivalent, significantly tailored or unique? Is it appropriately contextualised (e.g. case studies, cultural sensitivity)? Are professional accreditation issues made clear to students?
8. Marketing and promotion: Is there an ESOS-type audit process in place? In what language is the program promoted? If not English, what quality control is in place? Who is doing the promotion and to what guidelines? Is it consistent with domestic promotion regarding curriculum and policies? How accurate is the promotion (e.g. regarding availability of electives)? Is the text ambiguous or open to misinterpretation by the student?
9. Entry standards: How do entrance and advanced standing standards compare with the home campus? How are the advanced standing provisions approved? How do they compare with the Australian Qualifications Framework and with the AVCC Policy Guidelines on Cross-Sector Qualification Linkages? Who handles the admissions process? How are the student records checked (e.g. regarding validity of the evidentiary requirements)?

10. Language: In what language are the teaching and teaching materials? In what language is the assessment? If assessment is in English, what are the English Language requirements? Are these set at entry or at exit? How do they compare with the sector? If not English, how are the implications for marking and moderation handled? What appears on the testamur?

Teaching, assessment and support services:

11. Teaching: Who does the teaching, the Australian university or the partner? Does the auditee claim a teaching-research nexus? If so, how is this affected transnationally? Does the teaching schedule provide adequate time for student reflection and assignments? Do students conduct teacher evaluations? If so, who manages the evaluation process? What happens with the results?

12. Standards and assessment: How are standards set and monitored? Is the assessment schedule identical, equivalent or different to the home program? Who does the marking? Is assessment moderated? Are results compared against the home program results? How is this information used? How is the robustness of academic security provisions (e.g. invigilation) assured? Do students get timely feedback on assessed work?

13. Academic support: How are the learning support needs of the students assessed and responded to? What access to library services and resources exist? How are these determined and evaluated? How do these support services compare with the support services provided at the home campus? What form of evaluation is in place?

14. Pastoral support: Are the decisions made in respect of pastoral support services deliberately based on an assessment of student support requirements? How do these support services compare with the Australian campus? What form of evaluation is in place? Are cultural issues taken into account?

Research and engagement:

15. Research: How is the link between teaching and research achieved? For research degrees, how is supervision provided? What is the nature of research links to the home campus? What are the provisions for research support?

16. Community links: How does the institution define its 'community'? Is there a relationship with the local community in the host country? Are there institutional contributions to the local community? What are the provisions for community input and feedback (e.g. from employers, government, etc.)?

17. Evaluation and review: What are the local quality assurance arrangements? Is there a regular process for reviewing the equivalency of the student learning environment? Who is involved in the review? What information is considered in the evaluation and what happens to the results? How is the academic program reviewed? If it is incorporated into the review of the home program, does it

receive sufficient attention? In what manner and how often is the contract/agreement reviewed? Who is involved and what information is considered?

The areas listed above are only indicative. Depending on the nature of the operations and areas of risk, AUQA determines what needs further examination. As of November 2010, AUQA audit panels have made 155 visits to offshore partners and campuses.

Table 5.1: Audit visits to TNE operations

Country	Number of visits	Country	Number of visits
China	29	Philippines	01
Fiji	02	Singapore	38
Hong Kong	36	South Africa	01
Indonesia	02	South Korea	01
Japan	04	Taiwan	03
Kenya	01	Thailand	01
Malaysia	23	UAE	01
Mauritius	02	Vietnam	09
New Zealand	01	**Total**	**155**

As the data reveals, the top five countries are Singapore, Hong Kong, China, Malaysia and Vietnam. These are the countries where Australian universities have significant presences, and consequently these countries have been visited more often than the others.

During these visits, the audit panels have found that the TNE activities vary in subtle ways, and it is difficult to generalise, with every instance being different. Nonetheless, the audits have given insights into many aspects that need attention in the Australian higher education sector.

Learning from the Audits

From time to time, AUQA carries out, or commissions, analyses of its audit reports to gain an overview of the information arising from a cluster of audits. These analyses give useful information to institutions, their governing bodies, senior management, staff, students and other stakeholders, on the issues that have emerged from the institutional audits. When AUQA completed the first cycle of audits, it analysed the reports to investigate the trends that emerge in internationalisation. In 2010, mid-way through the second cycle of audits that started in 2008, another analysis was done of the Cycle 2 audit reports. A number of exemplar practices as well as areas that need improvement were identified.

While interpreting the analyses, importantly, it should be noted that the AUQA audit reports have been published over a period of eight years—five years (2002 to 2007) of Cycle 1 and, to date, three years of Cycle 2 (2008 to 2010)—likewise, making these analyses a continually evolving picture, rather than a snapshot only at one point in time. In several places, not only have changes and improvements been made within institutions as a result, but such improvements have also been observed in the institutions audited later in the cycle. In part, especially given that auditees are required to provide a report on progress made within the areas that required improvement (about 18 months after the publication of the audit report in Cycle 1 and after 12 months in Cycle 2), such changes are recognised in the audit progress reports.

A reading of the progress reports reveals that clearly a good deal of work has gone into maintaining the momentum generated through the preparation for an AUQA audit. An analysis prepared by AUQA in 2006 of institutional actions indicated that auditees for which progress reports were available have reported an average of over 50 improvement actions per institution. Another analysis done in 2009 proved that 85% of AUQA recommendations have satisfactorily been acted on by the institutions. It is reasonable to generalise this overall finding on improvement to international activities.

And indeed, in addition to progress reports (reports from a significant number of universities have already been published), the theme based approach of Cycle 2, with 'internationalisation' as a compulsory theme, has also compelled institutions make improvements. The points made below should be seen against this background.

Philosophy and rationale

The various modes of offering TNE programs have been mentioned in previous chapters. Through one or more of these modes, many universities are expanding their programs offshore. In many cases, however, the strategic plans for offshore expansion provided no rationale or parameters for the countries or regions in which the university planned to operate, nor the preference for the modes of operation. The audit panels commented that priorities for TNE activities should be derived from a comprehensive analysis of the academic quality and reputational risks to which the universities would be exposed.

In practice, consideration of such issues became a part of the international marketing plan, which has a commercial rather than academic emphasis. As a result, priority might be given to student numbers and financial outcomes, which are only two elements of a bigger picture. The rationale for TNE, other than the commercial motives, was generally not clear to the campus community. In consequence, some of the early audit reports have recommendations and comments that advise Australian universities to clarify their TNE strategies and more effectively promulgate information about the university's TNE operation amongst its staff, students and other stakeholders.

While Cycle 1 audit reports raised a number of questions about the rationale and philosophy of the TNE activities of the institutions, there are some commendations in the Cycle 2 audit reports. The adoption of a more risk-aware approach to the provision of TNE

programs (Griffith University), conceptualising the offshore campus as a hub in Asia to facilitate two-way mobility between Melbourne and Vietnam (RMIT University), progress made in developing the offshore campus as a major platform of its internationalisation goals (Swinburne University of Technology), and conceptualisation and successful development of the offshore campus (Curtin University), to name a few.

Partners, agents, contracts and agreements

Partners and agents are the crux of most TNE operations, not least because, for most or all of the time, they are the Australian institution's face and image to students, prospective students, and the host country more generally. In recognition of their importance, some institutions have detailed procedures and guidelines for choosing and inducting partners or agents. Some auditees have adopted the strategy of focusing on a few key partnerships, and one institution has each prospective partner checked by its Country Reference Group to ensure that they are reputable in their own country.

The audit reports indicate that universities typically get into trouble as a result of inappropriate arrangements with third parties, either due to inadequate due diligence processes and/or poor business planning and management practices, including a lack of monitoring of contracts and agreements. Many audit reports note that a limited number of personnel were involved in the decision-making and review processes of the contracts and agreements. The agreements varied considerably and reflected different levels of delegation to the partner, but typically involved the main provision of course materials by the Australian university, supplemented by teaching from tutorial staff employed by the partner. While the agreements with offshore partners included expectations of the student support services and facilities, the partner would need to provide documented processes for ensuring that these expectations were being met where needed.

Given the fact that many universities have plans to develop new offshore partnerships (and are committed to ensuring that offshore students are provided with equivalent student support and learning experiences as the onshore students), effective procedures and tools will need to be further developed for the evaluation and approval of prospective partners, as well as for the existing ones.

Again, Cycle 2 audit reports present a more favourable picture. Charles Sturt University has been commended for the actions it was implementing to seek feedback from students on the performance of the education agents. University of Adelaide has been commended for its International Agreements Framework. The University of New England has been noted for its management of partnership arrangements through the Integrated Project Management Framework, with a Joint Procedures Manual and a project team for each project. La Trobe University, Curtin University and the University of Southern Queensland have been commended for the successful partnerships they have established. The University of Melbourne and the University of South Australia have implemented sound exit strategies protecting the student interests.

Governance and quality control

While many TNE activities originally began as initiatives promoted by individuals through their personal contacts, and as such, were managed at the faculty level, there is now a trend away from a faculty-based approach towards more coordinated operations. However, because teaching is still managed at the faculty level, more coordination is needed with the central administration, with the need to recognise, support and better coordinate the work being undertaken by the various groups within the faculties.

Although there is movement towards central coordination, institutions still have legacy problems with those initiatives that began a few years ago. Reviews commissioned by institutions themselves highlighted these issues, most of which were being addressed by the institutions that were closing programs and ending agreements with lesser quality or less reputable partners. In such cases, the audit panels investigated the exit strategies for students who had enrolled in those programs.

While institutions have reasonably well-developed quality assurance frameworks for domestic operations, the quality assurance arrangements for TNE activities are variable. Some universities have been commended for the overall framework for quality assurance of TNE, with the recommendations being mostly about implementation and monitoring, but compared to the audit conclusions on quality assurance of operations within Australia, the offshore programs received more recommendations on the basic quality assurance arrangements in Cycle 1.

As the audits progressed, several institutions have completed thorough and comprehensive reviews of their overseas activities and closed down campuses that are unviable and/or do not fit the university's objectives. In Cycle 2, audit reports of University of Southern Queensland, University of Canberra, University of New England and University of South Australia provide evidence to systematic review and closure of non-viable programs, with sound exit strategies. Overall, it is a scenario of strengthened coordination, institution-wide attention, taking stock of the situation, reviewing strategies, and consolidation.

Staffing and staff development

The Australian universities were found to retain the right of final approval for third party staff likely to be teaching their courses. Typically, the offshore partners sent the employment history and details of the selected candidate for approval, a system which, on the whole, allowed the Australian university to exercise some degree of control.

The fact that a large proportion of academic staff offshore is under contract, with some working at several different universities or in professional employment, gives AUQA auditors an opportunity for some comparative investigation. The high dependency on contract and casual staff has an effect on the student learning environment in terms of continuity over time and across the university. Indeed, even in those situations where the calibre of these staff was deemed satisfactory, the audit panels questioned the extent of involvement of such staff in the total teaching process. Teaching and marking must be

seen as a part of a broader commitment to the student, which should include research-informed curriculum development and review, availability for consultation, active reflection on the overall teaching process, and constant engagement with the subject matter (see also 'Curriculum and teaching').

Many auditees provide cultural awareness training programs and run workshops and fora on intercultural issues, but audit panels recommended the adoption of a more coherent approach to cultural awareness and implementation. Institutions were asked to strengthen the induction program for all offshore teachers (including locally recruited staff) and ensure professional development opportunities exist. The introduction of performance appraisal and additional support to the academic staff to internationalise course content have also been mentioned in reports.

Curriculum and teaching

In most cases the curriculum is based on that offered in the domestic campus of the Australian university, with varying degrees of adaptation. There are pros and cons of adapting programs versus keeping them the same, and it is essential that students (and other stakeholders, such as employers) fully understand the differences and their implications.

Importantly, there have been instances where the Australian universities specifically designed the curriculum for transnational use, and these cases entail changes to teaching methods, assessment and entry standards. In most cases the rationale for doing so was to support the capacity development of receiving countries.

Contextualising materials and adding local examples and explanations to the essentially Australian curriculum are generally seen as positive, as they do increase the possibility of onshore and offshore teachers offering different, and often complementary, interpretations of materials and tasks. At the same time, such adaptations could place the students at a disadvantage if the onshore and offshore teachers are interpreting the curriculum differently. Panels stressed the need to brief locally employed offshore teachers before each teaching/learning activity for continuing communication between offshore and Australian teachers, and for appropriate staff development and training programs.

In typical TNE operations, course design, program content and assessment tasks, are the responsibility of the Australian institution, with the offshore partner providing facilities and administrative support, and with teaching sometimes supplemented by local tutors. Under this model, Australian staff members have a high level of control over the standard of teaching and assessment. The audit panels noted that the quality of the programs was good in those models.

In general, Australian staff visit offshore programs and stay in contact with students by teleconferencing, video conferencing and email. The frequency of such visits varies, and can relate to whether the students are enrolled at the partner institution or at the Australian institution. The problems in 'block teaching' and 'intensive teaching' by Australian staff,

and how equivalent these learning experiences could be, were raised in a few reports. Irrespective of the pressures of block teaching, the visits of the Australian teachers are welcomed by both students and local staff. Overall, the audit reports identified needs to reconsider pedagogical models so as to place greater emphasis on equivalence of learning outcomes.

Marketing and admission

Students' early expectations of a university are formed, in part, by the promotional materials directed towards them. Therefore, the audit panels consider a range of brochures used for promoting the institution to international students, and investigate what promises are made, how accurate they are, and how well the university fulfils those promises.

One of the difficulties for the universities in attending to the marketing materials is the complex structure of their recruitment activities, with the majority of marketing and recruitment conducted through agents or commercial partners. Universities need clear standards for their promotional materials, clear procedures for approving the materials, and an effective quality assurance system to ensure that no materials can be released without having met these standards. When marketing has been done in languages other than English, the capacity of the Australian university to monitor the accuracy of the information provided to the stakeholders was noted by the audit panels as an area that needed particular attention.

Offshore enrolments are facilitated by the universities' partners. In some partnerships, the partner collects all original documentation and forwards it to the Australian university for verification and processing. In other partnerships, the partner collects and verifies the students' original documentation, and then forwards only the application to the Australian university for processing. In the latter case, the Australian university needs a robust audit system to ensure that the original documentation is appropriately verified—audit reports indicate that there were instances where such a system was not in place.

Admission into a number of the Australian programs available offshore involves the determination of advanced standing for enrolling students. In cases where the differences in the national higher education systems resulted in the offshore partner having a significant decision-making role in an advanced standing, the audit panels noted great variability. As audits progressed, the reports mention some positive developments in the sector—such as online application and admission management systems—that would flag any deviation from the approved processes.

Language

Most of the teaching and assessment undertaken through the partnerships is conducted in English, and students have to demonstrate certain levels of English language entrance standards. Universities have been increasing web-based support and additional support through language teaching centres. In some cases, the English language entrance standard

for enrolment was lowered, with students required to reach a specified standard in order to complete the course, while the partner assisted them by providing additional English language courses. Panels expressed concern about the ability of the students to pursue their program satisfactorily with the lower level of English competence. This raises the fundamental question of whether the English language competency is required foremost for undertaking the particular learning process, or as a learning outcome of the program. Institutional engagement in addressing these questions is becoming more visible. University of New England, Bond University and University of Melbourne were commended in Cycle 2 for their attention to English language standards.

Teaching in other languages requires new practices, and the Australian universities have handled these circumstances with varying levels of success. For example, the programs taught in languages other than English might have to be assessed by local offshore staff. In one case, the panel recommended quality controls for translation services.

The combination of a weaker method of quality assurance with the higher risks associated with teaching in another language makes this an area for further attention. At present, while many institutions have arrangements to monitor the English language-related issues, the effectiveness and comprehensiveness of such mechanisms is variable. As a result, audit panels have advised the universities to consider developing a specific risk identification and management process prior to starting non-English language programs.

Standards and assessment

Some auditees made explicit commitments that the teaching and assessment standards of all their off-campus activities are equivalent to their on-campus programs. In these cases, the panels' investigations were focused on the extent to which the deployment of the various contractual agreements was able to ensure that this was in fact the case.

The audit panels found many successful examples in practice, with universities rejecting students and possibly lucrative new niche markets where standards could have been compromised, or where it would have been necessary to employ offshore teachers with potentially poorer qualifications and experience.

Audit panels noted that institutions usually practiced stringent examination operations. Assessment tasks were typically set by the Australian university, although in some cases partner staff were allowed to devise the assessment, subject to approval by the university. Such cases most typically occurred where the arrangement with the partner had been longstanding and good working relationships had developed between the Australian university and the partner's academic staff. Some universities were beginning to devolve responsibility for some assessment to its delivery partners to speed up assessment turnaround for students at a distance, but this practice requires a high level of scrutiny.

Students, while generally expressing relative satisfaction with assessment procedures undertaken by Australian staff, simultaneously reported a lack of feedback mechanisms

to assist their learning where the assessment was undertaken by the partners' staff. The number of cases in which assessment was being conducted by the partners' staff is growing, and in these cases, the universities typically use moderation as a key means of assuring quality. The audit panels found considerable variety in practice, with the audit reports emphasising that moderation only provides an added quality check against the established responsibilities of the examiner. Moderation assumes that the assessment and examination processes are essentially robust, and in itself does not provide adequate protection for students from unsatisfactory examiner performance. Where the task of the examiner (in respect of assessment as well as final examinations) has been delegated to an offshore local staff member, the weight of responsibility on the moderation process could subsequently exceed its capabilities.

Moderation reports examined by the audit panels indicated that the Australian academic staff accorded a great deal of significance to this activity. In the interests of ensuring continuous improvement, the universities are taking a more active approach to educating third party staff about the expected standards. For example, University of Southern Queensland has been commended for its effective marking guidelines and moderation procedures, and the good support and training strategies for partner staff to implement these procedures.

Student support

There were several good practices of providing academic support for students. For example, there were distance education programs with materials of high standard produced to be stand-alone programs in terms of any requirement for extra tuition. In some cases, university partners added tuition support to the distance education programs, and this beneficially affected the average course progression—particularly for undergraduate students—and retention rates. Otherwise, these two measures tended to be lower for offshore students than for domestic students and international students on campus.

The Australian institution usually provides limited access to its online resources, and the offshore partner becomes responsible for the information technology and library facilities. The issue of access to the library's electronic resources for off-campus students featured strongly among the improvement opportunities. Despite the partner having been contractually obliged to arrange for students to have borrowing rights from 'an appropriate library', in many cases there was no standing arrangement for borrowing rights. This situation was changing quickly with students getting full access to the online library of the Australian institution.

Some countries are not well served with internet connectivity and consequently internet access to the online library facilities is frustratingly slow. The fact that the provision of suitable bandwidth in some parts of a country is beyond the universities' control demands that the universities develop alternative means of ensuring students have equivalent/comparable access to education. Integrating library and information technology services into the overall management of offshore activities was

recommended to ensure that offshore students receive an equivalent level of service in support of their education.

Unlike academic standards, which must be comparable across modes and locations of offering, pastoral support needs to be very location specific. At overseas campuses, Australian universities are conscious that they are setting up a 'free-standing' and complete operation, and pay attention to the pastoral needs of students. If the operation is through a partner, however, the partner is usually expected to take responsibility for this in a way that the partner deems locally appropriate. Sometimes, this means that the partner assumes that students will find the necessary support in the local community. One must remember, however, that the students are not necessarily in their home country—many travel from other countries, such as China or Vietnam, for example, to undertake an Australian program in Singapore or Malaysia. For this reason, location specific pastoral support explicitly needs further attention from institutions. In AUQA's Cycle 2 audits, a number of universities have been commended for the good support they provide to offshore students. In particular, University of Western Australia and University of South Australia have been noted for some good practices that have worked well offshore.

Research and extension

While there are some international research collaborations, they are not usually aligned with overseas teaching activities, and AUQA has audited these activities as 'research' rather than as 'transnational'. All Australian higher education institutions are required to provide teaching and learning that engages with advanced knowledge and enquiry and panels have investigated the achievement of them doing so at the undergraduate level. In general, Australian institutional staff do conform to this requirement, as locally employed staff members often do, but this requirement has rarely received explicit attention. At the postgraduate level, AUQA has investigated supervision arrangements and again, while some institutions have been innovative in their approach, they have generally found that it is expensive to provide comprehensive support to students at this level.

In Cycle 2 audits, the overseas campuses of the Australian universities demonstrated some significant research potential and achievement (e.g. Curtin University at Sarawak).

In contexts where there are few overseas providers, local governments might expect the Australian institution to interact with the local community as if it were a domestic institution of the host country. Institutions have generally not taken this into account in their planning for activities away from their own campus(es), whether overseas or with another Australian partner. In countries where the overseas operation is a full campus, however, community interaction is much stronger.

Conclusion

As the preceding analysis indicates, attention to the quality of TNE has improved enormously over the last ten years. Initial activities were isolated, with perhaps a minimal administrative structure and little explicit attention to quality. Universities now realise

that implementing transnational programs is not a simple extension of activity that can be covered by the pre-existing quality assurance system. Overseas programs need quality systems to deal with a different culture, through third-party agencies and at a distance; and the increase in offshore students must be supported by quality systems that can handle a different mix of student body. In this environment, Academic Board and Senate involvement in monitoring the quality of overseas courses is growing; quality systems can be seen to be developing from rudimentary to comprehensive; and established principles are being followed more systematically.

The preceding analysis is based on audits of Australian universities over an eight year period from 2002. Many of the issues mentioned are now historical, and many of the issues reported by audit panels have been addressed, but this description is a useful guide for the institutions to identify possible omissions in processes deemed increasingly necessary once an institution decides to engage in transnational operations. It is also useful for the discussions on developing sound approaches for quality assurance of TNE.

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Chapter 6

The Maturation of Australian Transnational Education and its Future Directions

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Rapid growth and constant change have been the abiding features of Australian transnational education (TNE) over the past 20 years. For purposes of quality assurance—and ultimately for strategic and commercial success—it has been incumbent on Australian universities to be conversant with the changing context of TNE in Australia and elsewhere. This continues to be true. Travelling the TNE road has taught Australian universities much.

This chapter looks at the challenges universities in Australia have faced in delivering transnational programs and the responses they have made, particularly over the past five years. The focus of this chapter is maturation of the TNE sector in light of government policy and quality assurance arrangements, and through increasingly sophisticated institutional strategic positioning and management of TNE programs. Possible future directions for TNE are also explored.

Origins, Rationales and Modes of Delivery

Largely in response to economic forces in the domestic education sector over the previous decade, by 1990 a growing number of Australian education providers—public and private, including Australian universities—had begun teaching arrangements with offshore institutions, beginning a trend that grew swiftly through the 1990s to produce the present TNE sector.

By 2006, while 383,000 international students undertook studies in Australia, over 100,000 international students were studying Australian courses and qualifications offshore. One in four of Australia's international students is a transnational student. Australian education and training is delivered in more than 50 countries. Some sources predict that, by 2020,

40% of higher education by English-speaking countries will be delivered transnationally to around 1.4 million students (IDP Education 2007). Providers, as well as students, are now becoming increasingly mobile.

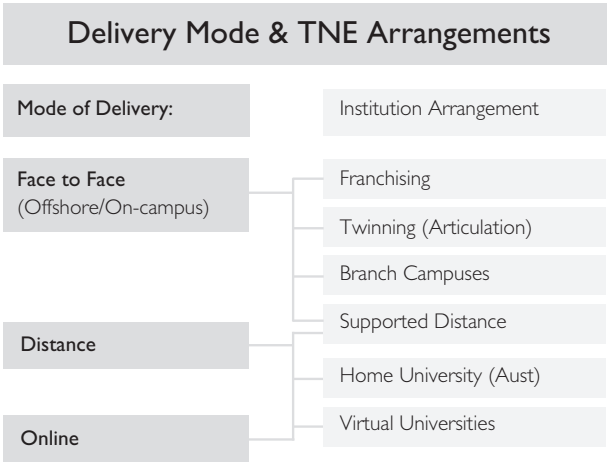
The motivations of Australian institutions for involvement in TNE include the desire for commercial return. However, there are other motivations, including the desire for increased cultural understanding between Australia and other countries, intellectual curiosity, internationalisation of the curriculum, and the challenge of working in cross-cultural environments.

Altruism in the form of contributions to national capacity-building, or widening access to education in the host country, is also an important motivation. For some providers, research collaboration, shared scholarship and the demand for education and training in new fields of practice, influence the decision to engage in offshore activity.

Australian education providers have used all four World Trade Organization (WTO) modes (discussed in Chapter 1) to varying degrees for the supply of education services, the most significant being international students undertaking their programs onshore and on campus in Australia (consumption abroad). This mode accounted for 96.8% of international student spending on fees and goods and services across all education sectors in 2006–07 (AEI 2008).

The other three modes outside Australia are generally grouped together as TNE. TNE specifically involves program and provider mobility, whereby an institution located in one country provides education to students located in another country.

Delivery may take a variety of forms, and this can be represented schematically as shown in Figure 6.1.



Source: Banks et al. 2010.

Figure 6.1: Delivery mode and TNE arrangements

Scale of Australian Transnational Education

The information in this and the following section is drawn extensively from the publication entitled 'The Changing Fortunes of Australian Transnational Higher Education' by Banks, Kevat, Ziguras, Ciccarelli and Clayton in *The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education*. The Banks et al. study analysed and interpreted all available data related to TNE provision by Australian universities and the growth and contraction in enrolments and programs by delivery mode and host country from the late 1990s through to 2009. Reconciling the differences across a variety of datasets means that some aspects of a comparative analysis are estimates, but nevertheless good ones. See Banks et.al for a full description of the 'data challenges' (Banks et al. 2010).

According to Banks et al., the estimated size of Australia's international student program in 2008 was approximately 729,000. Seventeen per cent (125,065) of this number was studying Australian tertiary education programs outside Australia (Table 6.1).

Table 6.1: Estimated size of Australia's international student programs across all sectors (2002–08)

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Total onshore enrolments (AEI)	273,594	306,656	323,868	344,113	379,864	450,078	541,382
Total VET offshore enrolments (NCVER)		18,291	23,586	27,842	30,894	43,953	55,332
Offshore higher education enrolments (DEEWR)	50,317	55,746	63,997	63,848	68,140	69,988	69,733
No student ELICOS visas (English Australia)	38,915	32,902	44,653	51,554	62,114	56,193	63,224
Total market size	**362,826**	**413,595**	**456,104**	**487,357**	**541,012**	**620,212**	**729,671**

Source: Banks et al. 2010.

In 1996, Australian universities provided 307 TNE programs, mostly in Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore (Universities Australia 2007). These were mostly the articulation/twinning mode (see Chapter 1) in partnership with host country organisations such as professional associations, private providers and universities.

According to McBurnie and Pollock (1998) these programs were fully taught following the same syllabus and timetable as the home campus program, with the home institution providing quality assurance delivered through approved, locally engaged staff. It was this model that enabled the universities to scale up TNE provision so that by 2003 the number of programs had grown to 1,569, with Asian markets hosting the vast majority of programs (Universities Australia 2007).

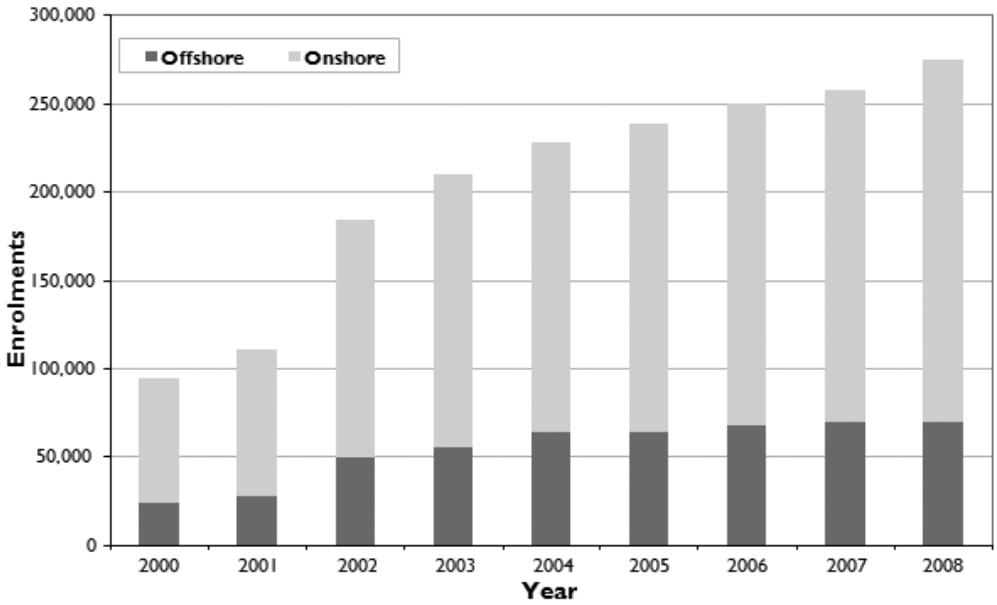
More recently, since the mid-2000s, there has been a move away from these 'small scale', often unincorporated, partnerships to full campus operations. This is evidenced by the decline in the total number of programs to 889 in 2009 (Universities Australia 2009).

> TNE provision has moved away from program based provision by individual faculties or departments to centralised institution-wide arrangements resulting in program and provider rationalisation that has coincided with recent growth in overall TNE numbers. Today more students are enrolled in fewer programs delivered by fewer providers (Banks et al. 2010).

Today nine Australian universities actively promote their branded offshore branch campuses. Collectively, these universities accounted for 60% of all TNE enrolments in Australian universities in 2008 (DEEWR 2008).

The types of programs offered by Australian universities via TNE are also changing. In 2009, just over 50% of the programs were undergraduate programs. Australian universities are gradually increasing the number of higher degrees, such as PhD/doctorate and *cotutelle* programs offered via TNE. In 2007, 5% of all programs were PhD/Doctorate level. Two years later this had increased to 9%. More and more programs are becoming joint degree programs. In 2007, 2% of all transnational programs were joint degrees, and in 2009 this increased to 7% (Universities Australia 2007, 2009).

Figure 6.2 shows the total number of international student enrolments by the WTO's modes, with onshore figures reflecting the consumption abroad mode, and offshore figures reflecting the other three modes combined (TNE).

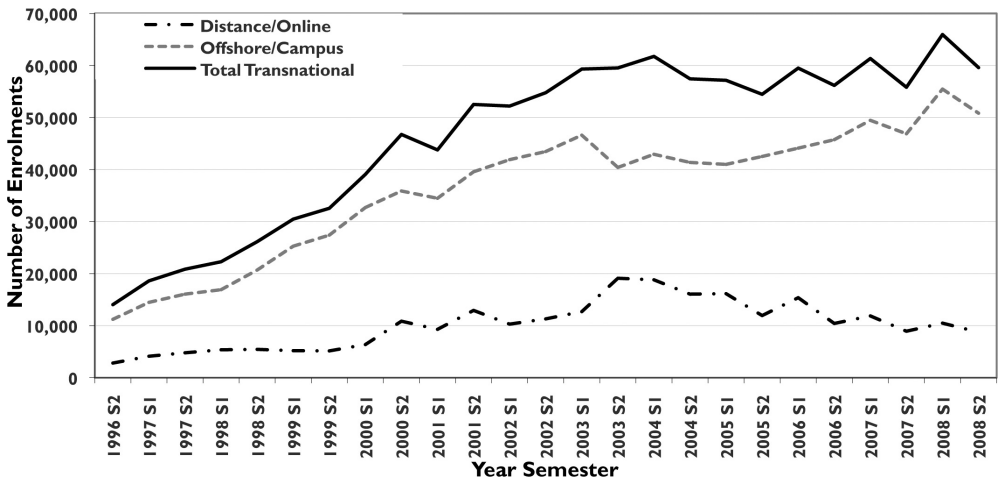


Source: DEEWR 1997–2008.

Figure 6.2: All overseas student enrolments in Australian universities (2000–08)

According to this DEEWR data, onshore enrolments in Australian universities have grown every year during this period (133,795 in 2002 to 204,379 in 2008, at an average rate of 7.32% growth per annum). Growth in offshore programs has been somewhat variable (50,317 in 2002 to 69,733 in 2008, at an average annual growth rate of 5.6%).

The variable trends are reflected graphically in Figure 6.3, which distinguishes offshore/campus enrolments and distance/online enrolments.

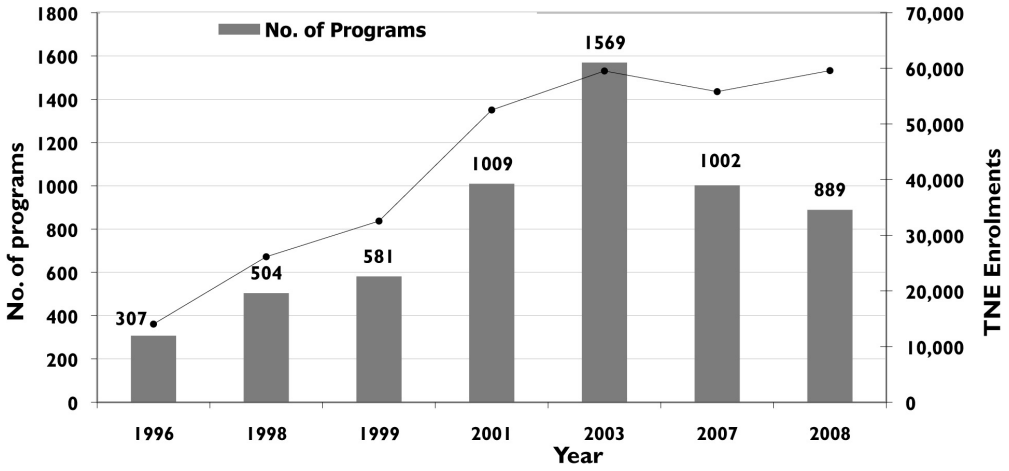


Source: DEEWR 1997–2008.

Figure 6.3: Australian university transnational enrolments by mode by semester (1996–2008)

According to Banks et al., 'fluctuations in student numbers in Australian university TNE programs have been accompanied by changes in the nature of TNE engagement by Australian universities where growth in student numbers is following a period of rationalisation of TNE programs and providers so that more students are enrolled in fewer programs. Foreign branch campuses are driving growth in student numbers'.

According to the analysis by Banks et al. (Figure 6.4), the number of Australian university TNE programs peaked in 2003 at 1,569 and then began to decline to 889 in 2008, a drop of 43%. Despite this decline, total enrolments have been largely unaffected since 2003, remaining at or around 60,000.



Source: Banks et al. 2010.

Figure 6.4: Trends in Australian university offshore programs and enrolments (1996–2008)

The reasons for this change are complex, but are attributable primarily to both the quality agenda of governments offshore and in Australia, as well as to the maturation of the Australian TNE higher education industry. These factors, and the way universities have responded to them, have significantly affected delivery and partnering models as well as the number and scope of programs offered.

Impact of Australian Government Policy and Quality Assurance Arrangements

As mentioned above, the two frameworks of influence on Australian universities' delivery of TNE programs are:

- Australian Government's Transnational Quality Strategy (TQS)
- Australian Universities Quality Agency's (AUQA) regular cycle of audits of universities.

Transnational Quality Strategy

The decision by the Australian education and training ministers in 2005 to develop a strategy to 'protect and promote the quality of education and training delivered to other countries', and to adopt as a key principle that the standard of delivery and outcomes of Australian TNE programs should be 'equivalent' to that required for Australian programs onshore as prescribed by the relevant Australian assurance arrangements, had a profound effect on Australian institutions' offshore delivery.

As indicated in Chapter 4, the TQS focuses on three areas: resources to providers; data provision on TNE activity, and AusLIST. Very substantial resources have been developed

for all education sectors, including the universities. These include a series of regularly updated country regulatory fact sheets; sector specific good practice project reports and guides, including a comprehensive guide, *Good Practice in offshore delivery: a guide for Australian providers of education and training* (IEAA 2008), as well as ongoing industry fora and professional development. The Guide is comprehensive and multi-sectoral, and contains useful practical frameworks, including key elements of a business plan to assist providers starting TNE projects. The Australian data on TNE provision, though not perfect, is undoubtedly the best in the world. And the advent of AusLIST, an instrument requiring some further refinement (see Chapter 4), has focused the attention of universities on issues of continuing public accountability and continuous improvement.

In summary, no Australian university involved in TNE has been untouched by the TQS. Through their involvements in the sector-based TNE good practice projects, the associated consultative fora and symposia, in accessing an increasing variety of resources, and in participating in professional development opportunities, all have learned substantially from the implementation of the TQS and have matured in their understanding of the quality assurance aspects of transnational delivery. This maturation, from the development by government of a broad based transnational quality strategy, through to exemplifying good practice and ongoing professional development at the institutional level, is a characteristic feature of the Australian approach to continuous improvement in delivery of transnational programs.

Australian Universities Quality Agency

The second framework of influence on Australian universities' delivery of TNE programs has been the AUQA audit cycles. The impact on universities of the Cycle 1 audits conducted by AUQA in 2002–07 is covered in Chapter 5. The risks exposed by the Cycle 1 audits, and the public nature of AUQA's assessments, produced a number of responses resulting in improvements in universities' quality assurance arrangements for TNE programs.

The Cycle 2 audits, with their focus on 'academic risk', and with 'internationalisation' as a required theme, are again encouraging further substantial institutional responses. Universities have spent considerable time reflecting on the Cycle 1 audits and preparing for Cycle 2. There has been substantial 'caucusing' within and between universities—particularly given AUQA's Cycle 2 focus on 'internationalisation'—about the experiences of universities in preparing for and going through Cycle 2 audits.

The impact of universities' responses to the AUQA audits, and to other internal and external factors, is clear from the data trends shown in Figure 6.4. The total number of programs offered has declined since 2003, with higher concentrations of enrolments in fewer programs. At the same time, the volume of enrolments in Australian TNE programs has remained largely unchanged since 2003. It remains to be seen if with newer models of TNE delivery operating, strengthened by greater quality assurance and underpinned by more reliable business practices, enrolments grow beyond formerly high levels.

Host Country Regulation

Other factors have come into play to influence Australian universities' approaches to transnational delivery, and the impact of host country regulation has been particularly important.

In the 1990s and early 2000s governments in Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore, and more recently Vietnam and China, spurred by growing demand for higher education opportunities, implemented policies which encouraged local private providers to partner with foreign universities to satisfy unmet local demand, without actually accrediting new private universities that would operate in direct competition with public universities. These countries were among the earliest to establish accreditation and quality assurance frameworks governing transnational delivery, which served to raise the standing and standards of TNE (McBurnie & Ziguras 2001).

These initiatives have increasingly been driven by a range of 'sovereignty' issues for the host countries concerned, including their increasing desire to implement import-replacement strategies, which has played out in education legislation and regulations which enable and encourage local students to complete more of their foreign qualification in their home country, through '2+0' and '3+0' twinning programs. The active enticement of foreign universities to set up full branch campuses in the host country is a natural extension of this strategy by the countries concerned.

The play of these strategies is not even within the host countries concerned, resulting in impacts on the supplying institutions and their home countries. There is a plentiful supply of foreign degree options for Malaysian students, but fewer for students in other countries. The growth of transnational provision seems to have substituted for overseas study for some students. This has been accompanied by a rapid growth in the number of domestic universities (from 8 to 21), the ability of university colleges to award degrees, and the introduction of funding schemes for local study. As a result of these developments, the rate of growth of outbound students has declined over the past decade, while enrolments at Australian campuses have grown substantially (Banks et al. 2010).

Vietnam is at an earlier stage of development, but is moving in a similar direction to Malaysia. Varghese argues that this demand for places, coupled with families' willingness to fund educational opportunities, provides fertile ground for growth and expansion in private, cross-border education (Varghese 2007).

In the case of China, foreign private participation in higher education was encouraged for a time—particularly partnerships between Chinese universities and foreign universities—which led to a rapid increase in the number of Chinese-foreign partnership arrangements in higher education in the ten years leading up to 2007. In 2007, the government published the Circular of the Ministry of Education Concerning Further Regulating Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in School Running, which set out the authorities' views about the progress and problems, in practice, with foreign

cooperation. The circular reported the suspension of the acceptance of applications for collaborative higher education programs, at least until the end of 2008.

There are two foreign university branch campuses in China, neither of them Australian. The Chinese Government has announced that 'in principle' no new campuses will be allowed until the success of the existing campuses has been established. It has also made clear that any future campus operations would have to involve highly prestigious foreign partners. As a result, many Australian universities have wound down their TNE programs in China and are deterred from developing new partnerships. At the same time, some Australian vocational education and training providers seized the opportunity offered by the 2007 circular, which required local and provincial governments to shift their energies to expanding tertiary vocational education.

Singapore has also recently implemented regulatory changes that affect foreign university operations there. In 2009, the Private Education Act was enacted. A new statutory board, the Council for Private Education, was established to oversee the new regulatory regime comprising an Enhanced Registration Framework—mandatory for all private education institutions—and a quality certification scheme called EduTrust. Private education institutions recruiting international students are required to carry EduTrust accreditation. The overall aim is to ensure that private education—delivered in conjunction with foreign partners—is credible, and that providers deliver quality education.

The Council for Private Education provided training about the new requirements to private institutions in Singapore. However, to meet the new requirements, the Australian providers working with private education partners in Singapore have found the processes challenging. For example, there has been a lack of consistent advice from partners about the information required, and the process has exposed issues with information access or availability by human resource departments of Australian providers (for example, verification of staff qualifications). It has also exposed issues with the ability of Australian providers to supply the required information (for example, verifying that fly-in teaching staff do not have criminal records).

The diverse and frequently changing regulatory regimes in host countries have meant that Australian universities must be up to date and conversant with them if they are to continue to operate successfully. In addition, compliance with the local regulations is now an embedded requirement, not only of external quality assurance regimes, including AUQA, but also inherent in internal institutional policy and procedures aimed squarely at risk management. The high level capabilities which Australian universities now exhibit in keeping abreast of and adjusting to changing host country legislation governing foreign university operations, is a reflection of almost 20 years of experience in TNE delivery. The recognition of, and the acceptance that, management of quality assurance is central to a university's success and to the protection of its reputation, is firmly embedded in institutional thinking and is a sign of how far universities have matured in their delivery of planning, management and delivery of TNE programs.

Internal Institutional Developments

Finally, internal developments within some universities highly experienced in TNE have provided a further framework of influence which have led them to review their TNE strategies and presence, and in some cases to amend it substantially. In a well-known case, the University of South Australia (UniSA) initiated a review of its extensive and very successful transnational presence.

Taking finance as one of the internal drivers for change, UniSA well knew that following the high point of 2003, financial gain from its TNE activities was subject to considerable risk, particularly but not only from currency fluctuations. With the University's increasing success in attracting onshore international students it was also becoming clear that there was greater potential for more positive and stable revenue streams from onshore students. Consequently, when the review of transnational programs was instigated, the University strongly desired evidence about the 'profitability' of its transnational activity.

This led the University to undertake a 'forensic' analysis of profitability at a program, cohort, school, division and whole of university level. The financial modelling undertaken was sophisticated and built on an already sophisticated financial capability that the University's Finance Unit had developed for an improved and more transparent understanding of the University's finances generally, within the context of possible government policy changes to open up student choice of institution. The analysis included highly granular modelling which took account of direct costs, overhead costs and, importantly, opportunity costs. The findings were clear, and once exposed to the Senior Executive Group and then to a group of approximately 30 senior university staff members, they were also persuasive.

The financial conclusions, added to the other considerations mentioned above, led UniSA in mid-2008 to decide on a phased withdrawal from TNE. For the future, the University would retain only a small number of partners and programs that met its criteria of quality, profitability and strategic considerations. This resulted in an immediate decision to reduce the number of partners from 20 to 6 in the first instance, with other rationalisations possibly to occur over a longer timeframe.

Implementation of this decision was not straightforward. A range of academic, business, diplomatic and reputational issues had to be addressed. Not least, the support of students already in programs was central to the successful implementation of the decision. In a manner characteristic of it, UniSA developed a sophisticated TNE Exit Quality Framework which was used to ensure the effectiveness, acceptability and success of the withdrawal project. The Framework had both an internal, intra-university focus, and an external focus, with partners and countries where withdrawal would be affected.

The University carried out its refined TNE strategy with outstanding success, to such an extent that it received a formal commendation from AUQA:

> AUQA commends UniSA for the quality of the planning and implementation of its decision to withdraw from the substantial provision of transnational education programs and for the overall leadership and management of the associated teach-out processes (AUQA 2009, p. 33).

The factors leading to success included the capability of the University's leadership in bringing about changes to their broad strategic direction, which perforce needed to include TNE delivery. But specifically, the University's success is attributable to factors demonstrating the maturity the University had achieved in understanding and managing its TNE programs over nearly 20 years. Especially important were:

1. The longstanding and exemplary commitment to quality assurance of the University's transnational partnerships, which was brought to bear effectively in the exit project.
2. The high level of business experience and capability, both centrally and at division level, that was brought to bear to carry out a trenchant analysis of transnational programs, and to help persuade internal and external stakeholders of the necessity for change.
3. The understanding and sensitive handling of the University's previous history of transnational delivery, and particularly the affirmation and valuing of the role TNE had played in the University's internationalisation to that point, together with the successful appeal to higher motives and new strategic directions.

Australian universities' responses to the government's Transnational Quality Strategy, to AUQA's Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 audits, to ongoing changes in host country regulations, and to internal drivers, including analysis of financial returns, reflect a substantial maturation of TNE in the Australian context, leading to a range of responses, which can be summarised as:

- TNE becoming embedded within institutions' strategic intent
- the development of sophisticated internal strategic planning and approval systems for TNE
- the establishment of comprehensive TNE program monitoring systems
- the development of centralised support services for TNE: business skills, contracting, financial management and modelling, monitoring frameworks, and refined and more professionalised roles and responsibilities generally
- the development of different TNE partnering and delivery models
- the establishment of improved TNE partner management models
- comprehensive reviews of TNE partnerships
- a closer alignment of academic and business areas within institutions for TNE delivery
- the development of refined TNE business models, including more rigorous evaluation of the return on investment in TNE and the implications for future institutional directions

- a move away from a proliferation of single-entrepreneur driven TNE programs to a more consolidated approach involving fewer, larger branch-campus models.

Future Directions for Transnational Education

Exploring possible future directions for TNE involves considering:

- where TNE fits within the broader trend of internationalisation of higher education on a global scale
- in light of the maturating of Australian TNE, what measures are needed in the future to help inform quality assurance in transnational delivery, and is a transnationality index likely to be useful and what would it look like?
- what future directions TNE is likely to take on a global scale.

Transnational Education and Internationalisation

Transnational education is an important factor in the internationalisation of many universities, but how does TNE fit within the broader notion of internationalisation in higher education?

TNE possibly poses more challenges than many other areas of internationalisation within universities. TNE involves complex engagements with foreign institutions and regulatory bodies, as well as challenging cultural differences across a range of educational, business, legal and governance matters. It frequently involves complex interactions between different parts of the institution, in particular between the academic and administrative areas, where motivations and priorities may not necessarily easily coincide. TNE can be an important strategic, business and experiential stage of a university's internationalisation, and can indicate how the university's internationalisation is progressing. In a unique sense it can be a test both of a university's entrepreneurial capabilities as well as of its academic standing.

Accepting Knight's definition that internationalisation involves 'the process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution' (Knight 2004), it is evident that effective internationalisation involves coherence in international strategy development and implementation.

A large part of this coherence requires strategic leadership, not only at the executive level, but also across the institution, by deans, academic heads of departments, and senior administrative managers (Middlehurst & Woodfield 2007; Middlehurst 2008). Implementing strategic changes is not only a challenge of effective leadership, but will have a profound effect on the transnational outcomes for the institution.

For institutions, TNE can deliver significant enrolment numbers, contribute to the institutional budget, encourage the development of international networks, help internationalise staff, and impact either positively or negatively on institutional prestige.

Globally, TNE can provide educational opportunities for students in countries where access to higher education is currently limited, and can assist university staff in host and client countries to develop real cultural competencies, new approaches to teaching and learning, and a deeper appreciation of what internationalisation means in higher education.

On the other hand, TNE does present challenges to teaching and administrative staff across a broad range of strategic and logistical issues, on a scale and of a complexity many universities have traditionally not been accustomed to. As McKinnon, Walker and Davis point out, institutions engaged in transnational delivery face challenges similar to those faced by multinational corporations:

> Universities that offer offshore (i.e. international) programs, either through distance education mode or through offshore campuses, face the same challenges of management as any multinational organisation in coping with different cultural expectations, legal requirements, market opportunities, financial issues including currency fluctuations, quality assurance and communications problems (McKinnon, Walker & Davis 2000).

Given the potential to gain international standing and critical mass in terms of strategic opportunities and expertise, TNE is now core business for a number of Australian universities. As explained before, Australian TNE has matured substantially over the last twenty years and is no longer 'a cottage industry'. This development has changed the stakes for universities. 'Transnational education is now high stakes, high risk core business for most Australian universities and it is appropriate that this activity be placed under rigorous scrutiny' (McLean 2007).

For universities, having a mature approach to TNE, 'high stakes, high risk core business' has translated into the development of an institutional organisational and managerial environment with a sophisticated whole-of-institution strategic and business focus, and an exemplary commitment to quality assurance of the university's transnational partnerships.

Measuring Quality Assurance: A Transnationality Index

The information in this section is drawn extensively from Connelly, Garton and Olsen (2010) who propose how transnationality can be measured. What does it mean for an institution to be transnational? Is it possible to measure 'transnationality'? Would doing so contribute to continuous improvement in institutional practice by helping identify good practice? How could a transnationality index be best used?

McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) have suggested that one possible way of measuring the transnationality of education institutions is to adopt the transnationality index approach taken by the United Nations with regard to trade and development:

> In comparison with large multinational corporations, even those universities with the largest transnational operations remain overwhelmingly based in their country of origin. One way of quantifying the degree of internationalisation of a company

> is to use the transnationality index of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. This measures the share of an entity's operations that are located outside its home country. The index is determined by averaging the following three ratios: foreign assets/total assets, foreign sales/total sales and foreign employment/total employment. Compared to mainstream transnational companies, university levels of transnationality are low but can nonetheless have a major impact on the institution financially, and in terms of the rationale for universities to operate abroad.

The concept of a transnationality index may be compelling as a tool for macro analysis within the commercial trade context. However, Connelly, Garton and Olsen argue that so far as TNE is concerned 'there is a need for a more fine-grained index at institutional level which could then provide a basis for cross institutional and cross border comparisons'.

Connelly, Garton and Olsen propose that TNE can be fleshed out with 20 measures as a transnationality index for higher education institutions. Taking stock of and quantifying these measures will help an institution to answer the question 'How transnational are we?'

The proposed measures are grouped into four categories:

1. Strategy – Policy, Planning and Quality
2. Intellectual Property – Learning and Teaching
3. Logistics – Management and Administration
4. Client Experience – Students and Partners.

There are five subcategories in each of the above main categories leading to 20 subcategories in total.

Each subcategory can be measured on a 6-point (0 to 5) scale, giving a highest possible score of 25 for each main category, and a grand total of 100. An associated survey instrument is provided by the authors for use by individual universities.

Connelly, Garton and Olsen stress how important it is to understand that the transnationality index composite score 'should not be associated with a 50% pass rate, since a score under 50% may indicate the beginnings of significant work in the area, and a score above 90% (at least) is probably impossible'.

Having understood that, the self-assessment/monitoring capabilities of the TI can be particularly valuable to individual universities. Depending on what they are, results can be used, for example, to identify good practice outcomes for some categories and sub measures, and to reveal the need for improvement in others.

Fundamentally, a transnationality index applied to TNE in higher education institutions is designed to assist in the evaluation of the contribution of transnational activity to overall institutional strategic and internationalisation objectives.

More generally, the notion of a transnationality index raises interesting questions, including of course how the rating of one university would compare with those of other universities. In particular, it would be very interesting to be able to compare direct competitors in

Australia and overseas. It would also be fascinating to know how ratings on various measures might vary across regions, especially what issues are raised about different assumptions and different paradigms.

Connelly, Garton and Olsen conclude by recommending further work to begin to make these comparisons and to achieve more precision in the design of transnationality ratings. As they state, 'agreed methods of measurement would assist policy makers and strategists to develop appropriate benchmarks within and between institutions. As noted in the discussion above, the development of such measures will also provide common ground for discussion of transnationality issues across different paradigmatic and geostrategic perspectives'.

Future Scenarios for Transnational Education

In a recent work for the OECD, McBurnie and Ziguras (2009) point out that the future of transnational higher education would be easier to postulate if we knew more about what is happening now. OECD and UNESCO data 'tell us a great deal about patterns of international student mobility, and historical trends are clearly evident. But when it comes to moving programs and institutions—rather than learners—across borders, there is remarkable paucity of hard data'.

As mentioned earlier, the Australian data on TNE provision is undoubtedly the best in the world. One of the most detailed estimates of future demand for transnational higher education is IDP Education Australia's study of global student mobility from 2000 to 2025 (Böhm et al. 2002).

But, as Mc Burnie and Ziguras point out, 'the forecasts are based on an estimate of how economic growth and population growth affect participation rates in higher education and demand for international education. The most difficult part of the forecasting is estimating transnational student numbers, because there is a paucity of data on which to base predictive models. Australia is the only major exporting country with detailed data on transnational students but volatility of Australia's transnational experience coupled with the small numbers of students in most countries makes even this data unreliable'.

According to McBurnie and Ziguras, Böhm et al.'s bold formula-driven predictions may prove to be accurate for the aggregate numbers of Australian transnational students, but they are unlikely to be accurate for individual importing countries, as they do not take account of the local conditions that enhance or retard the growth of TNE.

In particular, 'Böhm et al.'s global market approach is unable to consider the degree to which local government policies impact on the extent of foreign provision, especially recognition of transnational qualifications, openness to foreign investment, and the ability of non-government institutions to operate in a higher education market. The forecast does not take into account the possibility of Australian higher education institutions spreading their services to completely new regions in the future'.

Under their moderate income scenario, Böhm et al. predicted that in 2025 there would be more than 430,000 transnational students enrolled in Australian higher education institutions, of which almost all would be on the Asian continent. This would represent roughly a 13-fold increase compared to 2000. In examining 2005 actual data from the same dataset as that used to develop the forecast, McBurnie and Ziguras show that the overall growth was in fact more than initially predicted by Böhm et al. (54,460 actual transnational students worldwide, against the 52,601 forecasted).

Interestingly, 'smaller markets grew more rapidly than larger ones, so while the two largest regions continued to grow substantially (South-East Asia up by 32% and East Asia up by 59%), the biggest percentage growth occurred in newer markets for Australian providers, most of which was in countries with lower incomes than the traditional transnational markets (Sub-Saharan Africa up 275%, the Middle East up 540%, South Asia up 1,696%, and Oceania up 413%). The proportion of Australia's transnational students in East and South-East Asia made up 93% of all transnational students in 2000 and, even though Böhm et al. had predicted this concentration to continue, it had dropped to 82% by 2005'.

Predicting future student numbers of transnational students within regions or worldwide is clearly fraught with difficulty, even where modelling tools are as sophisticated as that of Böhm et al. The task is probably best approached by considering under what conditions the growth of transnational higher education would or would not continue in the future. A variety of futures is possible.

Drawing on current trends in student demand, program delivery and the state of economic development and domestic higher education provision in host countries and government policies, McBurnie and Ziguras developed four alternative future scenarios, with a specific focus on Australia and South-East Asia (see Chapter 2 for more information).

McBurnie and Ziguras conclude their analysis by pointing to the shift, which the current phase of TNE has produced, away from cooperation in higher education and towards competition, but positing a possibly parallel trend involving the rise of transnational provision organised on lines of linguistic, diasporic and religious affiliation. For example, a World Islamic University, a University of Chinese Diaspora, and an International Francophone University, formed by consortia of institutions from several countries, would focus on producing curricula and providing teaching staff for mobile programs on international cooperation rather than competition, and would also focus on the academic and community service aspects of higher education rather than the financial aspects of TNE.

It seems likely that in the case of most scenarios there will be an expansion of provider types (traditional public universities, private for-profit and not-for-profit providers, conglomerates and consortia, and various combinations of them), and a greater geographical spread (involving a greater number of countries participating in transnational higher education, both as exporters and as importers).

> Regardless of the scenario, transnational education will inevitably include a variety of standards of offering, from the highest quality state-of-the-art online and campus environment, to poorly written curriculum material quickly cobbled together in response to short-term money-making opportunities. The transnational education developed will also affect the way that quality assurance is carried out domestically both in the host and exporting countries. The need for effective quality assurance will be underlined and further guidelines refined in the shared interests of students, importing and exporting governments, reputable providers, and international organisations (McBurnie & Ziguras 2009).

Conclusion

In the Australian context, scrutiny and regulation of TNE activity has reached a high degree of refinement. Moreover, the regulatory context is constantly changing. To protect their reputation and brand, and the reputation of Australian education generally, Australian universities delivering offshore programs have had to monitor and understand these changes and have had to comply with existing and emerging regulatory and quality assurance frameworks within Australia and offshore. These developments have contributed to the maturation of the Australian higher education sector in its TNE engagement, and have moved the bar on the quality of TNE activity to the next level.

The future of TNE is likely to be characterised by deepening quality assurance efforts. The development of a transnational index discussed in this chapter may be valuable to individual universities' own quality assurance efforts. Expansion of TNE in terms of student numbers, provider types and geographical spread appear likely to grow, but probably under a different interplay of parameters than previously. Regardless of particular future scenarios, the forms TNE will take will affect the way quality assurance is carried out both in the receiving and in the exporting countries.

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Chapter 7

Universities' Perspective on Transnational Education and International Education Partnerships

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Over the past 25 years most Australian universities have sought to offer transnational education (TNE) and international education partnership (IEP) programs with education, government and commercial partners. These programs have been designed to meet pockets of demand for niche programs not readily available in the foreign country; or to meet significant levels of unmet demand by establishing offshore campuses or a presence where local university places are limited. The TNE programs offered by Australian universities have ranged from highly successful models to those that were not sustainable or that have been adapted to enable them to breakeven. These programs have entered the maturation phase and are an integral component of international education offerings at most Australian universities.

While it is important to recognise that the majority of Australian universities are not in a position to subsidise the education of students outside Australia, some Australian universities have taken the decision to engage in selective and focused education philanthropy, transferring knowledge, expertise and curricula to assist with education capacity building for mutual benefit in designated foreign countries of strategic importance to Australia.

When the Australian Government announced in March 1986 that it had passed legislation to open Australian universities to full-fee paying international students, Australian universities were required to negotiate marginal places for international students through triennial submissions to the then Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission. Very quickly universities filled these places onshore and sought to augment their international student places through a range of TNE and IEP models with overseas partners.

As universities embraced international education and commenced launching TNE programs in South-East Asia in the late 1980s and early 1990s, the Australian Vice-Chancellor's Committee (AVCC) quickly developed a Code of Practice to ensure the quality of international education programs offered by Australian universities was high. This proved to be a significant and important development that resulted in universities investing heavily in internationalisation strategies, dedicated student support services, and international offices that quickly placed Australian universities at the forefront of international education and international student services globally. The AVCC document, *Provision of education to overseas students: code of practice and guidelines for Australian universities* (AVCC 2005), is signed by all members of Universities Australia (formerly AVCC) and provides a charter whereby universities adopt and adhere to good practices relating to the recruitment, admission, education and welfare of international students studying at Australian universities both onshore and offshore. The Code of Practice operates in concert with the *Education Services for Overseas Students Act 2000*, commonly referred to as the ESOS Act.

Secondly, a commitment to offering high quality and relevant academic programs to meet the needs of domestic and international students resulted in the ongoing internationalisation of the curriculum and student experience at Australian universities, including their TNE programs. Australian universities quickly embraced flexible program structures and introduced two intakes per year to enable international students, including students enrolled in education pathways or in the TNE or IEP modes, to gain entry to universities in both the February/March and July/August intakes each year. This dovetailed intakes with differing academic calendars in Asia and the northern hemisphere. Most Australian universities have rigorously applied the principles embedded within the Code of Practice to their offshore education programs. This commitment to education quality, flexible academic structures, and an emphasis on the student experience and internationalisation, is reflected in TNE and IEP programs offered by Australian universities.

In 2008, Universities Australia surveyed all its members to update the register of Australian universities offering TNE and IEP programs. Thirty seven (of the 39) Australian universities have launched a diversity of TNE programs, and Australian degree programs are offered in 47 countries. The majority of TNE and IEP relationships are with partner universities in China, Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore. India is emerging as the next significant country for engagement by Australian universities with Indian education partners, including TNE and IEP models. When new government legislation opens India to foreign education partners to expand higher education capacity for economic and knowledge growth, the Australian universities might find a significant place for themselves in the country.

Transnational Education Models

Australian universities have demonstrated that they are well positioned to offer transnational education programs in the Asian region under a range of models, depending on the university's aspirations and strengths, and its ability to respond to demand from students unable to access universities at home but not able to travel abroad for study.

Table 7.1 summarises the range of TNE models that a cross-section of Australian universities have adopted and developed over the past two decades. The breadth and depth of TNE and IEP programs available today reflect an evolutionary process whereby both internal and external forces have shaped contemporary models and resulted in the survival of the fittest and strongest programs. While the majority of TNE and IEP programs have been established by Australian universities over the past decade, just a handful of programs still exist that were part of the first wave of TNE programs that flourished in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

Table 7.1: The range of transnational education models

TNE model	Description
1. Direct-entry pathways, e.g. foundation year and transition programs and English language courses	Foundation year and transition programs are established offshore to provide pathways to university for students who have not matriculated from secondary school and/or students who have usually completed their 'O' levels (the standardised level previous to matriculation) or equivalent. Transition programs may provide students with another opportunity to meet University admission standards if they have matriculated without achieving the required cut-off for admission to university. English language courses are provided offshore for students from non-English speaking backgrounds who are required to meet English language standards firstly to obtain a student visa and secondly to meet the English proficiency requirements of the education provider in Australia. Pre-university education programs for students who do not meet academic or English proficiency levels required for admission to an Australian university are usually offered with education or commercial (for profit) partners in TNE mode to offset the costs associated with international education, while preparing students for successful admission to an Australian or foreign university. The foundation year and transition programs were an innovation of Australian universities with universities such as The University of New South Wales (UNSW), Monash University, and Queensland University of Technology pioneering these education pathways in the late 1980s.
2. Articulation or advanced standing	Recognition of diplomas or associate degree programs offered by foreign colleges, polytechnics or universities for some credit towards a bachelor degree. Maximum level of credit provided is for 50% of a degree program. Students ultimately receive a degree from an Australian university.
3. Twinning or partnership programs	Programs whereby students complete the first half of an undergraduate degree or coursework masters program at an offshore partner university and complete the remaining 50% of the degree program at an Australian university under 2 years +2 years, 1.5+1.5 or 1+1 agreements. The receiving university sets the admissions standards by which students are admitted to the final three to four semesters of the undergraduate degree program or the final two semesters of a two-year masters degree. The degree is awarded by the Australian university on completion of the academic program.

TNE model	Description
4. Dual-degree programs	Dual-degree programs are undergraduate degree programs developed by two partner universities enabling students to undertake a proportion of their program at each university, such as on a 2+2 basis, and receive a degree from each partner university under a mutually agreed credit transfer arrangement. These programs are highly successful drawing on the strengths of two universities and significantly internationalising the learning and teaching experience for staff and students. Students are awarded degrees from both universities.
5. Joint degrees	Joint degree programs tend to be developed at postgraduate level by two or three partner universities, and one jointly-badged degree is awarded on successful completion of the academic program. Some trilateral joint international masters degree programs are now offered by three partner universities providing one semester of study at each university operating from different countries. The jointly badged masters degree is awarded by three universities and is designed to provide an international graduate education.
6. *Cotutelle* and joint doctoral programs	Jointly badged higher degree research programs are increasingly being offered by research intensive universities. This model originated in France and leads to jointly-badged degrees issued by partner universities. Detailed operating agreements form the framework in which *cotutelle* or joint doctoral degrees are offered. The programs are jointly supervised by academics from the partner universities.
7. Integrated international degree models	Models such as the Bologna model (3 years +2 years +3 years) or the emerging Asia-Pacific model (4 years +2 years +3–4years) are providing opportunities for university alliances by which students undertake their undergraduate and research degrees at the home university, but their masters degree overseas. The overseas study may be at an overseas partner university or at their home university's TNE program being offered abroad. These models enable students to plan to study overseas at undergraduate and/or postgraduate level for a portion of their academic program. Such frameworks encourage international alignment and student mobility.
8. Offshore campuses	A number of universities have established campuses in other countries, principally offering a range of undergraduate and postgraduate coursework degrees to meet student demand in Asia and the Middle East. Campuses operate as 'teaching only' in the establishment phases. Research intensive universities gradually introduce research programs once the campus breaks even financially or becomes financially independent of the parent university, or if the overseas government decides to fund specific research programs at the branch campus through grants.
9. Global university networks	Some leading like-minded universities have formed global alliances to develop a multinational platform on which to offer 'value-add' or international experiences, or projects within academic courses for students across the network. This provides larger-scale student mobility and offers opportunities for students to undertake projects or embark on research ventures. The universities participate in academic benchmarking studies aimed at strengthening member universities. Universitas 21 (U21) is the best example of such a network which has attracted 24 tier-one member universities from fifteen countries. Three Australian universities are members of U21 including the University of Melbourne, the University of Queensland, and the University of New South Wales (UNSW).

TNE model	Description
10. Academic postgraduate pathways	The UNSW Australian School of Business has successfully piloted this model with Fudan University, and the China Scholarship Council. Fudan University selects a number of early career academics to undertake a masters degree at UNSW that includes a research project. On successful completion of the masters program, the early career academics return to Fudan University to enrol in a doctoral program that is jointly supervised by researchers from UNSW and Fudan University. This program has become a successful supplier of future academic staff to Fudan University.
11. Distant education/ distance learning	Some Australian universities have developed the capacity to offer degree programs or partial degrees by distance education/learning. These TNE programs are able to provide capacity for large numbers of students, and can offer programs at a more competitive price because they do not have significant offshore infrastructure. Universities that have invested heavily in developing programs that can be delivered online or by distance education are able to offer blended education models.
12. Online education/ online learning	Where distance education/learning is provided remotely using electronic and online technology. This mode does not offer face-to-face education. Increasingly, Australian universities are offering online courses during some sessions to enable students to fast-track their degrees.
13. University mentoring/ sponsorship	A leading university mentors or sponsors the development of a new or emerging university by supplying curriculum, intellectual property, academic accreditation and administrative systems, and in return, the mentor university receives doctoral students or commercial recompense for the intellectual property.
14. Franchising	A model where a 'supply' university authorises an education or commercial 'for-profit' partner to provide education programs under licence in another jurisdiction or country.

Through these TNE and IEP models, universities are able to significantly augment their education capacity at the institutional level and increase the education capacity in the host country, thereby providing a 'win-win' situation.

Benefits of Transnational Education and International Education Partnerships

The benefits of TNE and IEPs are hotly debated in academe and should be considered from two perspectives, namely: the 'demand' perspective and the 'supply' perspective. Australian universities offering TNE and IEP programs find that these programs accelerate the internationalisation of the university and provide opportunities for enriching the teaching and learning environment at both institutions.

Table 7.2: Benefits of TNE and IEPs

TNE and IEP benefits	Supply perspective	Demand perspective
University brand	Increased exposure internationally and increased risk	Access to an international education at a recognised university
University profile	Increased student and staff capacity and a multinational university footprint	Increased education capacity
Curriculum	Tailored to be offered in a different mode or jurisdiction	Access to an international curriculum that provides comparative studies and regional or global perspectives
Degree programs	Accreditation in more than one country, enhancing global competitiveness	Increased program diversity 'in-country'
Teaching	International exposure for academic staff	Expansion of teaching capacity and diversity of case studies
Learning	Access to internationalised curricula, case studies and learning projects	An education experience provided by foreign universities within the local context – the best of both worlds
Research	Active transnational research programs and projects and possible access to research funding beyond Australia	Access to leading researchers, research teams and research facilities
Innovation	Access to new approaches, new ideas and new education paradigms	Western education in an Asian context, and program innovation drawing from the strengths of both institutions and the countries involved
Funding	Revenue generated from fee paying students	Enhanced education options at home on a fee paying basis

TNE programs strengthen over time when the 'supply' university and their TNE partner(s) observe some important principles. Criteria for successful TNE programs include:

- clear education objectives
- strategic focus
- clear financial objectives
- agreed positioning, marketing and student recruitment strategies
- synergies and alignment with the education partner
- sustainable academic collaboration between education partners
- commitment to the quality of the education provided
- commitment to the quality of the student experience
- consistent and seamless administrative processes and policies

- agreement regarding policies, procedures and regulations that will govern the operation of the program
- uncompromising student admission and progression standards
- clearly defined graduate attributes
- appropriate teaching and learning facilities
- agreed staff selection and review criteria
- shared agreement surrounding performance management of TNE program(s)
- shared agreement regarding the expectations and outcomes of students and the supply university
- agreed quality assurance and review processes and commitment to appropriate benchmarking exercises
- clear legal policies and frameworks
- shared agreements regarding technologies and the acquisition of equipment
- clearly defined governance and risk management strategies and processes
- a pre-determined exit strategy that does not disadvantage students or damage the brand of the supply university or the partner education provider
- commitment to student and staff satisfaction surveys and feedback
- cultural sensitivity and awareness (for both students and staff)
- ongoing assessment of student demand and competitor activity
- ongoing review of prevailing and proposed government legislation and possible changes likely to impact on the sustainability and viability of the program/campus
- commitment to continuous improvement and program service innovation
- jointly agreed pricing policies and strategies focusing on long-term rather than short-term horizons and competitive position
- timely data capture and analysis
- understanding of prevailing taxation requirements offshore.

Transnational Education and International Education Partnerships: The Realistic Proposition

TNE and IEP models vary depending on the circumstances, including: context, levels of student demand, price elasticity, specific external funding or incentives earmarked for the program, prevailing government policy governing foreign institutions, and the capacity of individual universities to supply quality education and teaching academics in an overseas location. Universities contemplating TNE opportunities carefully consider the opportunity-cost of entering TNE programs and expect some reputational, educational or longer term financial benefit from the programs offered.

University councils, academic boards and senates insist on significant due diligence prior to supporting TNE programs. In the late eighties and early nineties the level of due diligence

undertaken by some institutions was scant, and the high point of the program was the actual signing ceremony. At this time, educational or commercial partners sought to place downward pressure on tuition fees, entry standards and commercial realities, rather than on longer term strategies, and these became the principal drivers. Market research is essential to ascertain levels of demand, price elasticity of demand, supply of academic talent, and legislation governing foreign universities. Unforeseen events such as the Asian economic crisis in 1997, the SARS outbreak in 2005, and the global financial crisis of 2009, precipitated the closure of marginal TNE programs. Such events also trigger acquisition drives for established international education providers from multinational 'for-profit' education providers such as: Kaplan, Laureate International Universities, Study Group and Navitas.

Australian universities have become more experienced and carefully limit their exposure and risk when establishing or renegotiating TNE and IEP operations, and are increasingly seeking education partners who share similar aspirations and values, rather than small 'for-profit' partners operating on limited financial margins that are unable to survive any downturn in demand. Curtin University of Technology has demonstrated a successful partnership with Navitas for the development of their campus in Singapore (see Chapter 8 for details).

Increasingly, university governance will firstly question whether TNE has any place within the university's strategic plan, and secondly whether the university has the necessary resources and expertise to offer academic programs in another country to standards commensurate with domestic programs. A significant consideration is whether universities have the teaching capacity to deliver such programs, and the resources required to administer the program and to meet strict government accreditation requirements prevailing in selected countries. Where additional resources are required to offer TNE programs, university councils require assurances that tuition fees levied will cover all costs associated with mounting the program in another jurisdiction to avoid diverting resources from programs at the supply university. It should be emphasised that academic costs in Australia are higher than in some countries in the Asian region, and tuition fees levied reflect these overheads. Some Australian universities source staff from the host country specifically to teach on the program in order to reduce teaching costs and to internationalise the teaching team.

While the overheads associated with offering TNE programs in business, humanities, law or teacher education are reasonably modest, costs associated with engineering and science programs, for example, are high and have led to 2+2 type twinning or dual-degree programs that do not require the establishment of expensive laboratories offshore or the acquisition of special equipment.

Table 7.3: Transnational education models for meeting unmet demand

University pathway programs	Diploma and associate degree pathway programs offered independently or with educational or commercial partners significantly increase the education capacity in countries such as Malaysia, Hong Kong, China, Singapore and Indonesia. This model is attractive as students can take out a diploma or an associate degree and then credit these qualifications towards a degree program at home or abroad. A number of major commercial education companies are acquiring established pathway programs to bolster their global footprint and their education capacity. Foundation year and transition programs are also established in key student source countries to enable international students to undertake academic preparation for university with a guaranteed place when they meet admission requirements.
High quality niche degree programs – small numbers	Universities form strategic educational partnerships to offer niche programs to meet demand in professional areas such as accounting, engineering, nursing, teacher education, optometry, etc. In some cases universities of similar standing and rank will agree to offer dual or joint degrees for mutual benefit. Doctoral training programs have served Australian universities well whereby, students undertake their doctoral program at an Australian university or under a joint doctoral program where students are jointly supervised by two partner universities. The students return to their home university to contribute to the development of their university as academics and researchers.
Meeting large scale demand	Some universities decide to meet demand by opening foreign campuses; however, the level of risk is significant. Foreign university campuses do expand the education capacity of the supply university and the host country, and provide local students with an international education at home. Offshore campuses typically require significant funding and land from the host country's government or commercial partners unless the supply university decides to rent premises on an ongoing basis. A number of Australian universities have invested in developing distance learning/education capability or online education/learning modules to achieve economies of scale and to meet high levels of unmet demand. Most undergraduate students opt for blended learning models where distant education modules are augmented by intensive blocks of face-to-face teaching, enabling students to physically interact with teaching staff and other students. Distance education and online learning courses/programs can be offered more cost-effectively when 'economies of scale' are achieved.

The Australian Value Proposition

Australian universities now have twenty-five years experience offering TNE and IEP programs internationally. While many initial efforts were not sustainable, Australian universities have been successfully developing models of TNE and IEP that are suitable for long-term horizons, and they are now more strategic and realistic when setting objectives and planning outcomes.

In the late eighties, Australian universities tended to enter TNE and IEP relationships reactively believing they could lose market share if international students were not enrolled in programs both on and off campus (overseas). Often universities would embrace opportunities that emerged without fully understanding the consequences such, as internal university tensions that would be generated as scarce resources were spread quite thinly to support onshore and offshore programs. Universities have now learnt to develop partnerships that are mutually beneficial and that strengthen both partners. Universities also tend to successfully negotiate their own partnerships rather than working with education brokers.

A number of successful TNE programs are operating today where one Australian university has emerged as the lead TNE or IEP provider in particular countries or regions, for example: The University of Wollongong in the Middle East, Monash University in South Africa, and RMIT University in Vietnam and the Mekong Delta. Curtin University of Technology, Swinburne University and Monash University (in partnership with the Sunway Group) have established campuses in Malaysia. A number of universities have established significant educational partnerships in China, Hong Kong, and Indonesia.

Over and above these established campuses or programs, universities such as the University of Southern Queensland and Open Universities Australia are offering a range of undergraduate and postgraduate programs via distance education and online education models. These programs are augmented by some intensive teaching sessions, providing a blended education experience.

The establishment of the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) in March 2000 has led to many universities rethinking their TNE and IEP strategies. AUQA audits have always included offshore programs of Australian universities, and this was welcomed by the university sector principally to ensure that all Australian universities are offering programs overseas that demonstrate the strength and diversity of Australian universities. The single most important response from Australian universities has been to mainstream decision making about TNE programs to ensure that normal academic processes approved by university senates and academic boards apply to the establishment, review and continuation, or disestablishment, of any TNE or IEP programs. Initially, some universities operated their TNE programs through commercial arms of the university to reduce the level of institutional governance and bureaucracy; however, most Australian universities have now instituted robust quality assurance processes underpinning TNE and IEP programs to ensure these programs

are successful. They have also established ongoing due diligence mechanisms that apply to faculties and controlled entities of the university. Universities have adopted appropriate risk management processes to reduce any exposure to students or to the university, including reputational exposure.

Australian universities now adhere closely to the ESOS Act, and while this legislation does not apply to TNE programs, most Australian universities still adhere to principles embodied in the Act and the AVCC Code of Practice for programs provided offshore. International students can be confident that their Australian education is quality assured and subject to continuous improvement following student feedback, benchmarking exercises (which are commonplace in Australian universities), and feedback from five-yearly AUQA audits.

In summary, the Australian value proposition for TNE and IEP is summarised below:

- proximity to Asia
- ease of collaborating in the Asian region
- a top quality education system with seven universities in the top 100 on the QS World University Rankings, and in the top 150 on the Shanghai Jiao Tong World Rankings
- robust quality assurance processes
- student-centred education
- commitment to professional recognition of academic programs
- clearly defined Australian Qualifications Framework that articulates with other education systems
- emphasis on the quality of the student experience and student satisfaction
- track record in adopting TNE and IEP models that offer an education and student experience that is underpinned by quality
- a diverse higher education system compromising university networks based on their distinctiveness, such as:
  - the Group of Eight leading research-intensive universities
  - the Australian Technology Network of Universities
  - innovative research universities
  - new generation universities
- long history of international collaboration and engagement, especially in Asia
- strong presence of successful graduates of Australian universities in Asia
- genuine commitment to education capacity building for mutual benefit
- strong nexus between teaching and research and industry.

Australian Universities' Transnational Education Programs

With 37 Australian universities offering TNE and IEP programs that have been developed with education and commercial partners in 47 countries, the profile and global competitiveness of Australian universities is increasing. The presence of Australian diplomas, undergraduate degrees, postgraduate degrees and doctoral programs in foreign countries, demonstrates the international aspirations and international competence of Australian universities. TNE and IEP programs in Australian universities have matured to the point where sustainable and sophisticated approaches to cross-border higher education have become a feature of Australian education.

Some Australian universities have been offering TNE programs since the late 1980s, including Curtin University of Technology and RMIT University; and others since the early 1990s, including the Australian Catholic University, Charles Sturt University, and the University of South Australia. In 2010, every Australian university, with one exception, is offering TNE and IEP programs in some form or other for more discriminating students who are better informed about their study options and the diversity of programs available.

According to Australian Education International (AEI) data, 75,377 international students were enrolled in TNE programs offered by Australian universities in 2009 (DEEWR 2009). Enrolments in TNE modes plateaued in the mid-2000s, but are showing signs of growth once again. This has possibly been stimulated by the global financial crisis, or through professionals seeking to upgrade their qualifications in a less robust economic environment.

Australian universities that have offered TNE or IEP in different modes in a range of countries have generously shared their experiences at conferences and workshops to enable the wider university sector to benefit from their experiences. Universities such as the University of Wollongong, the University of South Australia, Monash University, Curtin University of Technology, James Cook University, the Australian National University and the University of New South Wales, have sought to openly discuss both the upside and downside of offering programs beyond their main campuses in Australia (where applicable) and overseas. On balance the upside far out-weighs the downside if due consideration is given to a number of important factors:

1. know your university
2. know your capacity
3. know your collaborators and partners
4. know your limitations
5. know your university foundations
6. know your student catchment
7. know your accountability obligations
8. know your proposed outcomes
9. know your staff and students

10. know your distinctiveness
11. know your competitive advantage
12. know and understand your data
13. understand market forces and trends
14. provide effective leadership
15. know your competitors
16. know when to review your TNE programs and partnerships
17. understand your strengths and weaknesses
18. define what 'success' will look like
19. effectively manage risk, resources and the bottom line
20. set realistic objectives.

Bilateral Education Frameworks

Successful TNE and IEP programs earn the support of relevant government authorities in the host country and the nearest Australian diplomatic mission as they have the ability to strengthen diplomatic relations. Increasingly, education cooperation is included as a core pillar within bilateral government to government agreements. In November 2009, the prime ministers of Australia and India issued a Joint Prime Ministerial Statement, which included a commitment to developing a knowledge partnership between Australia and India.

This knowledge partnership will build on the important education collaboration being fostered by both governments through the Australia–India Strategic Research Fund, whereby both the Australian and Indian governments have contributed AUD65 million each to support strategic research collaboration focusing on predetermined priorities, such as agricultural research, astronomy and astrophysics, environment sciences (including climate change research), micro-electronics devices and materials, nanotechnology, renewable energy, marine sciences, earth sciences, information and communication technology, biomedical devices and implants, stem cells, vaccines/medical diagnostics, transgenic crops and marker-assisted breeding, nutraceuticals and functional foods, bioremediation, and bioenergy and biofuels. Researchers from Australia and India can form teams to bid for funding of up to AUD400,000 per project. The Australia–India Strategic Research Fund has generated incredible cooperation between Australia and India whilst bolstering the research output and productivity of both countries.

Universities Australia successfully launched a special shadowing program between Australian and Chinese universities in partnership with the Chinese Education Association for International Exchange. This leadership program contributes to the ongoing development of a robust bilateral relationship through collaboration in higher education and research and development. The program encourages knowledge transfer between Australian and Chinese universities, providing exposure to best practice in higher education management, and world class research and research management. The program enables

career development of senior university staff, including executives, middle managers and researchers, and has led to the strengthening of relationships between Australia and Chinese universities. Opportunities for TNE and IEP programs with Chinese universities have been generated as a consequence of collaborations focused through the shadowing program.

The program has produced strong institutional links and fostered relationships between individual staff, thereby deepening the two countries' understanding of their respective higher education systems and their different and diverse cultures of teaching, learning, research and university management. Over the past ten years Universities Australia has received substantial positive feedback from participating Chinese and Australian universities and staff members. The China–Australia University Leadership Capacity Building Program is a major achievement and a model for future bilateral initiatives.

The Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC, now Universities Australia, or UA) periodically holds joint working group meetings (or university presidents fora) with countries with which it has MoUs; these include Japan, Malaysia and India. The meeting planned for 2011 will be in India, while the 2010 meeting was held in China (Shanghai). These meetings generate an opportunity for high level discussions of joint interest, as well as networking and development of future plans, e.g. a shadowing program for India.

The Australian Government—through the work of AEI—fosters high level government-to-government engagement and cooperation to encase education, scientific and technological collaboration and exchange, for mutual benefit. The importance of the work of education counsellors and their teams at Australian embassies and high commissions cannot be overestimated, especially with respect to TNE and IEP. AEI staff maintain a watching brief over international education relationships to ensure that Australia's reputation is preserved as a leading provider of international education at home and abroad. AEI is a key supplier of market intelligence and information regarding emerging education opportunities in overseas countries.

Transnational Education and International Education Partnerships Models of the University of New South Wales (Case Study)

The University of New South Wales (UNSW) offers TNE programs in niche disciplines in keeping with its commitment to contribute to regional capacity building for mutual benefit as part of the University's 'UNSW International Strategy: 2011 and Beyond' to strengthen, deepen and broaden its engagement with Asia within collaborative bilateral and multilateral education and knowledge partnerships.

The UNSW approach is to assist selected Asian countries to meet levels of unmet student demand in the shorter term, while transferring knowledge, know-how and programs under clearly defined and agreed arrangements to the education partner to strengthen their education offerings, capacity, and their standing in their home country.

In many instances UNSW will arrange for early-career academic staff from partner universities/institutes to undertake their doctoral programs at UNSW supported by scholarships provided by their home government or an industry sponsor.

UNSW has supplied targeted scholarships for top ranked students from education pathway partners, and also supported early career and mid-career academics from tier-one universities across Asia through annual international research workshops and subsequent appointment of early to mid-career academics as visiting research fellows at UNSW.

UNSW offers selected TNE and IEP programs in niche areas for the short to medium term. The University has a strong view that any TNE programs should significantly enhance both the University's reputation and Australia's standing in host countries and internationally. While this approach might be viewed as 'conservative' it is strategic and aims to increase the education capacity of UNSW and the Asia-Pacific region in keeping with the University's International Strategy.

UNSW has two approaches to TNE and IEP. One is to offer UNSW academic programs in partnership with a high quality partner university that offers clear synergies with UNSW's research and academic programs, and alignment with UNSW's strategic direction and values.

UNSW niche MBA program: Hong Kong

UNSW offers its MBA program in Hong Kong. The program has been tailored for the Hong Kong jurisdiction in a format comprising short intensive modules delivered by UNSW academics from The Australian School of Business who fly to Hong Kong to teach the program. The UNSW MBA program offered in Hong Kong is an example of a high quality approach to internationalisation of the curriculum. UNSW MBA students in Australia are able to articulate into the Hong Kong program, and UNSW MBA students in Hong Kong can articulate into the Sydney-based MBA program. Students enrolled in the Hong Kong MBA program progress at their own pace rather than as a cohort, accumulating their courses until they meet the requirements for the degree. All marketing and student recruitment for the program in Hong Kong, together with delivery of the program, is undertaken in Hong Kong. The UNSW Hong Kong office provides necessary support in Hong Kong to ensure the program is marketed effectively, and that the administrative support for the program is commensurate with the administration underpinning the UNSW MBA program in Sydney. The Hong Kong office also assists with the negotiation of serviced accommodation for the delivery of the program.

The Hong Kong MBA is priced in Hong Kong dollars and pricing reflects the tuition fees levied by other competitor programs operating in Hong Kong. Hong Kong is a highly competitive market where both local and international competition is immense. While pricing is competitive UNSW governance requires that all programs offered in the TNE mode cover their costs.

The benefits derived from this program are the expanded education capacity for both UNSW and the host country (Hong Kong), and the opportunity to internationalise curriculum and staff. UNSW enrols more students from Hong Kong than any other Australian university. The UNSW MBA program is highly prestigious and contributes to the reputational capital of UNSW and Australian education in general in Hong Kong.

UNSW niche postgraduate degree programs in eye health, India

UNSW has been collaborating with the LV Prasad Eye Institute (LVPEI) in Hyderabad, India, for 25 years. LVPEI is a world-renowned centre for research and teaching in eye care, providing eye care for all sectors of the Indian population, and is a World Health Organization collaborating centre for the prevention of blindness.

The School of Optometry and Vision Science at UNSW has been collaborating with LVPEI for some time on joint suspension of postgraduate research students. From 2005 to 2008, the partners enhanced their collaboration by developing UNSW postgraduate coursework programs in community eye health, delivered at LVPEI. The Master of Community Eye Health and Graduate Diploma in Community Eye Health were offered for the first time in 2009.

The programs include coursework on the principles underpinning community eye health, and the masters program includes a 25% research component. This component immerses each student in a project on one of a range of topics related to eye health in urban or rural communities. The programs aim to develop the knowledge and skills that are essential for the provision of good quality eye care. More specifically, students learn how to assess the eye health needs of communities, as well as how to address those needs. The masters program develops these skills to a higher level and is aimed at candidates who will be working in roles requiring the development, management and evaluation of eye health programs serving communities.

To date the programs have been taken by eye health workers from India, but have attracted very few candidates from other countries due to the need to relocate to India. Australian students have not enrolled, but there is enormous potential for this program to benefit eye health workers in both urban and rural communities in Australia. In particular, the eye health needs of aboriginal and rural Australian communities are well documented and attempts to meet these needs include telemedicine and community eye care services. The skills required for excellent provision and management of eye care to communities in Australia and other countries in the Asia-Pacific region coincide with those developed by the UNSW Master of Community Eye Health program. To increase program accessibility to candidates outside of India, the School of Optometry and Vision Science and the LV Prasad Eye Institute have recently begun the early stages in development of online delivery of the courses within this program, with a view to offering the program by distance. This revised format would allow access to the program without the need to relocate to India.

UNSW university mentoring program, Thailand

The Mahanakorn University of Technology, Thailand, was established as a private university in Bangkok in 1990 by Dr Sittichai Pookaiyaudom, a UNSW engineering graduate and graduate of Imperial College London. The Faculty of Engineering at UNSW mentored this new university, focusing on engineering and science, reflecting the early academic profile of UNSW.

In the late 1980s Dr Sitthichai Pookaiyaudom sought permission to adopt the UNSW engineering syllabus and teaching practices at this new university, and in March 1990 a formal agreement was signed between UNSW and Mahanakorn University of Technology. Twenty years later UNSW and Mahanakorn continue to cooperate in both research and teaching, including establishing a joint Master of Engineering program with Imperial College London. In 2009, after 19 years of operation, Mahanakorn University of Technology was ranked number one by the Government of Thailand.

It was decided that Mahanakorn University of Technology academic staff would be sent to UNSW for their doctoral programs as an investment in the quality of the human capital at the University, and to professionally develop and nurture early-career researchers from Thailand. 'Mahanakorn' fully funded the doctoral programs at UNSW for 50 young academics over a 15-year period. The presence of the Mahanakorn doctoral students at UNSW has forged stronger academic links between the two universities and generated some important research breakthroughs.

UNSW UniPrep program, Indonesia

In 1995, UNSW and Monash University established a partnership to offer a foundation program known as UniPrep with UniSadhuGuna, which is an education enterprise created by the Yayasan Persaudaraan Bangbayang '66 in Indonesia. UniSadhuGuna has been delivering the foundation year program in Jakarta for 15 years and has supplied more than 1200 students— from a total cohort of 2000 students—to UNSW over this time. Monash University withdrew from the partnership in the aftermath of the Asian economic crisis when enrolments fell for the first time as Indonesia's economy weakened together with other 'tiger economies'. Over time UNSW, through UNSW Global, has reduced its share in the company, but continues to provide academic oversight of the UniPrep program, and continues to track significant student enrolments from UniPrep to degree programs at UNSW, Sydney. UNSW highly values this education partnership. It has strengthened over time, and provides a win-win situation for Indonesia and Australia. UniSadhuGuna will emerge as a high quality private university in Jakarta offering niche diploma and degree programs.

Australia–India University Collaboration

Australian universities are actively engaging with universities and institutes in India, and are finding the experience to be rewarding, as researchers from both countries have

a similar work ethic and are undertaking vital research into important social, human, medical, scientific, technological and environmental challenges and opportunities. The Group of Eight universities from Australia are currently in dialogue with the Indian institutes of technology (both established and new institutes), and Universities Australia is engaged in high level dialogue with the Association of Indian Universities.

The diversity of Australian universities is similar to the diversity of Indian universities, where universities are differentiated by size, geography, institutional focus and history.

A 2009 survey of Australian universities undertaken by the Universities Australia Secretariat has found that 28 Australian universities have active links with a cross-section of Indian universities, Indian institutes of technology, and specialist universities offering degree programs in niche areas, or are engaging in highly specialised research programs. Table 7.4 provides an overview of the collaboration being fostered by universities in both countries. The academic and research collaboration is one of the unsung success stories of the contemporary bilateral relationship between Australia and India.

Universities such as the University of Melbourne and UNSW have opened offices in Mumbai and the Queensland University of Technology has established an office in Delhi to strengthen engagement with government, education and industry, as well as alumni and future students.

In 2008, the Australian Government announced the establishment of the Australia–India Institute. The institute is based at the University of Melbourne and is supported by nodes at UNSW, Sydney and La Trobe University, Melbourne. The aim of the Institute is to foster close collaboration between universities in Australia and India in mutually agreed areas of priorities to both countries and participating universities.

The relationship between the two countries was put to the test in 2009 when attacks on Indian students were reported in Melbourne following the significant increase in visas being issued to Indian students seeking a fast-track path to migration to Australia. The attacks reflected a failure of government regulation, which has subsequently been overhauled following the Baird Review of the ESOS Act 2000. The response to this student crisis was rapid and demonstrated Australia's commitment to international education:

- Universities Australia released a 10-point Action Plan for Student Safety in June 2009.
- State governments strengthened ministerial taskforces to ensure that the quality of the international student experience was second to none.
- The Australian Government established the Council of International Students Australia; the first in Australia.
- The New South Wales Government established the first Premier's Council on International Education.

While the crisis was generated by a few unscrupulous private education providers and education agents, and ethnic unrest in the outer suburbs of Melbourne, Australia's reputation as an education destination was severely tarnished. Most Australian

universities continue to offer a first class student experience in an education sector that is both diverse and underpinned by a commitment to quality and continued international engagement.

Irrespective of this difficult experience that strained diplomatic relations between India and Australia, education cooperation has continued to be pursued by Australian universities, with the support of the Australian Government, state governments, and Universities Australia.

The Universities Australia survey of university linkages between Australia and India reveals that some universities have developed some successful partnerships that are active and achieving positive outcomes. The leading universities are: Griffith University, Monash University, Queensland University of Technology, RMIT University, the University of Adelaide, the University of New South Wales, the University of Newcastle, the University of Sydney, the University of Western Australia, University Technology Sydney, and the University of South Australia.

Table 7.4 provides a comprehensive overview of collaboration between the university sectors in Australia and India. The breadth of collaboration provides a positive platform on which to strengthen and deepen education cooperation in the future.

Table 7.4: University sector collaboration overview, India and Australia

Australian university	Name of institution	Country	Student Exchange	Study abroad program	Staff exchange	Academic/research collaboration	Year of agreement	Active
Central Queensland University	Visu Consulting	India				Yes	1996	No
Curtin University of Technology	Curtin University of Technology Anandaniketan Society for Mental Health Care	India	No	No	No	Yes	2009	Yes
Curtin University of Technology	Somaiya Trust	India	No	No	No	Yes	2004	Yes
Deakin University	Centre for Environmental Planning and Technology University	India	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	2008	Yes
Deakin University	Indraprastha College for Women	India	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	2008	Yes
Edith Cowan University	Bangalore Management Academy	India	No	No	No	Yes	2006	Yes

Australian university	Name of institution	Country	Student Exchange	Study abroad program	Staff exchange	Academic/research collaboration	Year of agreement	Active
Flinders University	International Management Institute	India	No	No	No	Yes	2005	Yes
Flinders University	Madras Christian College	India	Yes	No	No	No	2008	Yes
Flinders University	Manipal University	India	No	No	No	Yes	2005	Yes
Griffith University	Apollo Hospitals	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
Griffith University	Bangalore University	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2005	Yes
Griffith University	Chennai Dental Research Foundation	India	No	No	No	Yes	2007	Yes
Griffith University	Christ University	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2003	Yes
Griffith University	Dr DY Patil Sports Academy	India	Yes	No	Yes	No	2008	Yes
Griffith University	Innovative Studios Pvt Ltd	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
Griffith University	Madras Rubber Factory Ltd	India	Yes	No	Yes	No	2006	Yes
Griffith University	Manipal University (1)	India	No	No	No	No	2005	Yes
Griffith University	Manipal University (2)	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
Griffith University	Mudra Institute of Communications Ahmedabad	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
Griffith University	Mudra Institute of Communications Ahmedabad	India	No	No	No	No	2005	Yes
Griffith University	NALSAR University of Law	India	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	2001	Yes
Griffith University	Nirma Institute of Management	India	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	2001	Yes

Australian university	Name of institution	Country	Student Exchange	Study abroad program	Staff exchange	Academic/research collaboration	Year of agreement	Active
Griffith University	Ready To Go Animate	India	No	No	No	Yes	2008	Yes
Griffith University	Saurashtra University	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
Griffith University	Society for the Natal Effects on Health in Adults	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
Griffith University	Voluntary Health Service	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
Griffith University	Welingkar Institute of Management Development and Research	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2008	Yes
Griffith University	Whistling Woods International	India	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
Griffith University	Whistling Woods International	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
James Cook University	CMS College of Science and Commerce	India				Yes	2008	Yes
James Cook University	Rajagiri International School for Education and Research	India				Yes	2008	Yes
La Trobe University	Delhi University	India	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	1991	Yes
La Trobe University	Jain Group of Institutions	India	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	2008	Yes
La Trobe University	Lady Shri Ram College	India	Yes	Yes	No	No	1991	Yes
Monash University	Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay	India				Yes	2006	Yes
Monash University	Jawaharlal Nehru University	India				Yes	2008	Yes
Monash University	University of Calcutta	India				Yes	2006	Yes
Monash University	University of Pune	India				Yes	2006	Yes

Australian university	Name of institution	Country	Student Exchange	Study abroad program	Staff exchange	Academic/research collaboration	Year of agreement	Active
Murdoch University	Banasthali Vidyapath	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
Murdoch University	Bharati Vidyapeeth University	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
Murdoch University	Institute of Engineering and Technology	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
Murdoch University	Lovely Professional University	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	Voluntary Health Service	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	Bharati Vidyapeeth University	India	No	No	No	Yes	2008	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	Indian Institute of Management, Bangalore	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2000	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	Indian Institute of Management, Calcutta and Indian Institute of Management, Lucknow	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2001	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	Indira Gandhi Krishi Vishwa Vidyalaya	India	No	No	No	Yes	2008	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	Indian Institute of Technology, Madras	India	No	No	No	Yes	2008	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	Jawaharlal Nehru University	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	Management Development Institute	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	1998	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	National Academy of Legal Studies and Research	India	No	No	No	Yes	2007	Yes

Australian university	Name of institution	Country	Student Exchange	Study abroad program	Staff exchange	Academic/research collaboration	Year of agreement	Active
Queensland University of Technology	National Institute of Fashion Technology	India	Yes	No	No	No	2006	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	Society for Electronic Transactions and Security	India	No	No	No	Yes	2006	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	The Energy and Resources Institute	India	No	No	No	No	2008	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	Vellore Engineering College	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	1999	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	West Bengal National University of Juridical Science	India	No	No	No	No	2007	Yes
Queensland University of Technology	Whistling Woods International	India	No	No	No	No	2009	Yes
RMIT University	Anna University	India	No		Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
RMIT University	Birla Institute of Management	India	No		Yes	Yes	2009	Yes
RMIT University	Indian Institute of Chemical Technology, Hyderabad	India	No		Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
RMIT University	Indian Institute of Technology, Roorkee	India	No		Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
RMIT University	Institute of Apparel Management	India	No		Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
RMIT University	Management Development Institute	India	No		Yes	Yes	2009	Yes
RMIT University	National Institute of Design	India	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	2008	Yes

Australian university	Name of institution	Country	Student Exchange	Study abroad program	Staff exchange	Academic/research collaboration	Year of agreement	Active
RMIT University	Narsee Monjee Institute of Management Studies	India	No		Yes	Yes	2008	Yes
RMIT University	Rajagiri International School for Education and Research	India	No		Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
RMIT University	University of Madras	India	No		Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
RMIT University	Center of Converging Technologies, University of Rajasthan	India	No		Yes	Yes	2008	Yes
RMIT University	University of Rajasthan	India	No		Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
RMIT University	Vivekananda Yoga Anusandhana Smasthana	India	No		Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
RMIT University	Xavier Labour Relations Institute	India	No		Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
Southern Cross University	NALSAR University of Law	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2006	No
The University of Adelaide	Christian Medical College and Hospital	India	No	No	No	Yes	2005	Yes
The University of Adelaide	Dr MGR Educational and Research Institute	India	No	No	No	Yes	2005	Yes
The University of Adelaide	Indian Institute of Vine and Wine	India	No	No	No	Yes	2006	No
The University of Adelaide	National Geophysical Research Institute	India	No	No	No	Yes	2007	Yes
The University of Adelaide	Osmania University	India	No	No	No	Yes	1998	Yes
The University of Adelaide	Tamil Nadu Agricultural University	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
The University of Adelaide	University of Delhi	India	No	No	No	Yes	2008	Yes
The University of Melbourne	Centre for Environmental Planning and Technology University	India	No	No	No	Yes	2007	Yes

Australian university	Name of institution	Country	Student Exchange	Study abroad program	Staff exchange	Academic/research collaboration	Year of agreement	Active
The University of Melbourne	Indian Institute of Science	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	1999	Yes
The University of Melbourne	Jawaharlal Nehru University	India	No	No	No	Yes	2008	Yes
The University of New South Wales	Birla Institute of Technology and Science, Pilani	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2003	No
The University of New South Wales	Central Mining Research Institute of India	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2003	No
The University of New South Wales	Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay	India	Yes	No		Yes	2003	No
The University of New South Wales	Indian Institute of Management, Bangalore	India	Yes	No		Yes	2003	No
The University of New South Wales	Institute of Management Development and Research	India	No	No	No	No		No
The University of New South Wales	Jawaharlal Nehru University	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2005	Yes
The University of New South Wales	Madras School of Social Work	India	Yes	No	No	No	2004	Yes
The University of New South Wales	Manipal University	India	Yes			Yes	2007	Yes
The University of New South Wales	NALSAR University of Law	India	Yes				2006	Yes
The University of New South Wales	University of Pune	India	Yes	No			2004	Yes
The University of Newcastle	Indian Institute of Foreign Trade	India	Yes		Yes	Yes	2008	Yes

Australian university	Name of institution	Country	Student Exchange	Study abroad program	Staff exchange	Academic/research collaboration	Year of agreement	Active
The University of Newcastle	Indian Institute of Technology, Delhi	India				Yes	2006	Yes
The University of Newcastle	Institute of Management and Technology, Ghaziabad	India	Yes		Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
The University of Newcastle	SDM Institute for Management Development, Mysore	India	Yes				2006	Yes
The University of Newcastle	University of Madras	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
The University of Queensland	Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
The University of Queensland	Jawaharlal Nehru University	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2003	Yes
The University of Queensland	Manipal University	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2004	Yes
The University of Queensland	University of Pune	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2004	Yes
The University of Sydney	Bangalore University	India	No	No	No	Yes	2005	Yes
The University of Sydney	Indian Council of Medical Research	India	No	No	No	Yes	2007	Yes
The University of Sydney	Indian Institute of Science	India	No	No	No	Yes	2005	Yes
The University of Sydney	Indian Institute of Technology, Madras	India	No	No	No	Yes	2007	Yes
The University of Sydney	Indian Institute of Technology, Madras	India	No	No	No	Yes	2005	Yes
The University of Sydney	Rashtreeya Vidyalaya	India	No	No	No	Yes	2005	Yes
The University of Sydney	Tamil Nadu Agricultural University	India	No	No	No	Yes	2005	Yes
The University of Western Australia	Ansal Institute of Technology	India	No	No	No	No	2007	Yes

Australian university	Name of institution	Country	Student Exchange	Study abroad program	Staff exchange	Academic/research collaboration	Year of agreement	Active
The University of Western Australia	Engineers India Limited of New Delhi	India	No	No	No	Yes	2000	Yes
The University of Western Australia	Punjab University	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2009	Yes
The University of Western Australia	Punjab Agricultural University	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2009	Yes
The University of Western Australia	Punjab Engineering College	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2009	Yes
University of Ballarat	Indian Institute of Planning and Management	India	Yes	No	No	No	2007	Yes
University of Canberra	National Institute of Information Technology	India	No	No	No	Yes	1998	No
University of South Australia	Anna University	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
University of South Australia	Christian Medical College and Hospital	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	1999	Yes
University of South Australia	Dr MGR Educational and Research Institute	India	No	No	No	Yes	2006	Yes
University of South Australia	Indian Institute of Science	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2004	Yes
University of South Australia	Institute for Chartered Financial Analysts India	India	No	No	No	Yes	2008	Yes
University of South Australia	Madras Christian College and Hospital	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2004	Yes
University of South Australia	University of Madras	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
University of Tasmania	Central Institute of Higher Tibetan Studies	India	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	1997	Yes
University of Technology, Sydney	Anna University	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes

Australian university	Name of institution	Country	Student Exchange	Study abroad program	Staff exchange	Academic/research collaboration	Year of agreement	Active
University of Technology, Sydney	Chandigarh Engineering College	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
University of Technology, Sydney	Delhi College of Engineering	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
University of Technology, Sydney	Manipal University	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2008	Yes
University of Technology, Sydney	National Institute of Technology	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
University of Technology, Sydney	PSG Institutions	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2007	Yes
University of Technology, Sydney	RMD Engineering College	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2008	Yes
University of Technology, Sydney	RMK Engineering College	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2008	Yes
University of Western Sydney	INSCOL Healthcare Ltd	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2008	Yes
University of Western Sydney	Tamil Nadu Agricultural University	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	1999	Yes
University of Western Sydney	Technology Development Centre	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2006	Yes
University of Wollongong	Department of Mining Engineering, Banaras Hindu University	India	No	No	No	Yes	1994	Yes
University of Wollongong	Institute for Human Development	India	No	No	No	Yes	2003	Yes
University of Wollongong	University of Madras	India	No	No	Yes	Yes	2005	Yes
Victoria University	Tata Institute of Social Sciences	India	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	2008	Yes

Conclusion

Australian universities have sought to build strong and strategic relationships with partner universities and education providers in Asia and beyond for more than two decades. TNE and IEP programs offered by Australian universities are now extremely sophisticated and sustainable, reflecting the maturity of the sector and the quality of the education being provided across borders. Australian universities have demonstrated a strong commitment to internationalisation, and this provides enormous benefits to both the 'supply' universities and to universities and education partners in Asia. Through these established TNE and IEP programs, Australian universities have significantly increased the education capacity of our immediate region. The benefits from this significant investment in and commitment to international education cannot be overstated.

Disclaimer

The views in this chapter are the views of the author, and while drawing on data collected by Universities Australia, do not constitute a Universities Australia viewpoint.

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Chapter 8

Curtin University's Development of a Campus in Singapore (Case Study 1)

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Education is a journey, not only for students, but for institutions and governments as well. Most journeys start with high excitement and considerable planning; however, there is always an element of the unknown or unexpected. Perhaps the most memorable journeys include a satisfying mix of challenge and achievement. Launching a new international endeavour certainly has the potential to provide lots of excitement and feelings of accomplishment.

This case describes the salient features of Curtin University's (Curtin's) development of a new campus in Singapore. It begins with a brief description of Curtin and its international experience, followed by some thoughts concerning changes in international education that were influencing Curtin's offshore operations. These trends, and the fact that Singapore was a well-established market for Curtin, encouraged the University to think about developing a campus in that nation. The intent, key features, student benefits and notable milestones are discussed in this case study. The case study concludes by highlighting the importance of surfacing stakeholder expectations and building upon institutional strengths.

A Brief History of Curtin University

Curtin is Western Australia's largest and most multicultural university, and has a strong commitment to international engagement. With Australia's third largest international student population, Curtin maintains international campuses in Sarawak (Malaysia) and Singapore, as well as conducting face-to-face teaching in many other countries. Curtin is widely recognised for the practical and applied nature of its courses. The courses equip graduates with essential skills through exposure to industry and research programs that are focused on solving real world problems.

In 2009, Curtin enrolled 44,471 students and employed 6,522 staff (Curtin University 2010). However, the genesis of the University can be traced back to May 1900, when the Perth Technical School opened in St Georges Terrace. This school offered classes for trade apprentices and provided university courses under licence from the University of Adelaide (until the University of Western Australia was established in 1914). The early fortunes of technical education in Western Australia ebbed and flowed. However, by 1956 the idea of creating the Western Australian Institute of Technology (WAIT) was born, and in 1966 the state government established WAIT.

During 1969, the Western Australian School of Mines, the Muresk Agricultural College, the School of Occupational Therapy and the School of Physiotherapy were merged with WAIT. Between 1966 and 1976 WAIT experienced an incredible expansion from 2,000 to 10,000 students. WAIT emerged as one of Australia's largest and most innovative institutes in the non-university higher education sector.

In January 1987, twenty years from its inception, WAIT was reborn as Curtin University of Technology. After an extended period of consultation and development, the vision was to establish Curtin as a world-class university of technology. The words, 'look ever forward', taken from the writings of John Curtin in 1932 about the role of universities, became its new motto. Curtin continued its international focus with the opening of the Sarawak campus in 1999, and the Singapore campus in 2009.

Curtin has come a long way since its inception, from its roots in technical education through to its evolution as an institute and its rebirth as a university. For more detailed historical descriptions, see <http://about.curtin.edu.au/index.cfm>.

Curtin International

By focusing its activities on countries that are regionally close to Australia, Curtin has earned substantial respect as an international institution, attracting people from many countries to participate in the learning, research and employment experiences it offers. In turn, these people add a wealth of diverse perspectives to the Curtin experience. While Curtin's internationalisation brings with it great opportunities, the marketplace itself is very competitive; international markets are highly attractive to global institutions. Fellow Australian institutions, North American and European universities, as well as Asian universities, are all competing internationally for students and staff.

Curtin's response to this competition is to enhance its international reputation by continually improving the quality of its graduates, researchers and services. At the same time, the University intends that all international activities will contribute positive outcomes to the region. Therefore, Curtin is prepared to collaboratively address new regional opportunities guided by the knowledge of previous experience. As an international university shaping the future, Curtin aims to contribute to regional development by:

- building partnerships that enhance international reputation
- optimising international outcomes
- continuously improving internationalisation quality.

A key indicator of success in international education is growth in the size of international student enrolment. The following table illustrates how Curtin has increased enrolment and maintained its international student population proportion at approximately 42%, since 2004.

Table 8.1: Curtin University enrolment numbers 2003–09

Students (headcount)	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Curtin total	36,032	37,116	39,562	40,360	41,348	42,252	44,471
International onshore	6,375	6,846	7,553	8,269	8,809	9,735	10,310
International offshore	7,560	8,377	9,226	8,768	8,602	7,792	8,606
International total	13,935	15,223	16,779	17,037	17,162	17,524	18,916
International %	38.7%	41.0%	42.4%	42.2%	41.5%	41.5%	42.5

Source: Curtin University 2010.

It should be noted that Curtin is an international pioneer in the provision of offshore (transnational) education services. 'The WAIT bachelor of business degree in Singapore commenced in 1985, well ahead of Commonwealth guidelines for enrolling overseas fee-paying students in Australian institutions.' This course was 'the pioneer program in Australia, having broken ranks before the race for overseas students began in earnest in 1986' (White 1996, p. 274).

International Higher Education

Progressive universities have reflected on how global drivers for change will impact their activities, and in this respect, a number of pressures have been identified. Knight (2005) has noted the multiple impacts of globalisation:

> The impact of globalisation on the international dimension of education is significant. It includes:
>
> - An increased demand for tertiary education given the role of the knowledge society and economy;
> - The introduction of a market and trade approach to international education;
> - A renewed emphasis on education mobility; and
> - Advances in the use of information and communication technologies for delivery of education.
>
> (Knight 2005, p. 5)

Higher education institutions operating globally will address change and opportunity by developing marketable programs. These courses are likely to be delivered using a sophisticated mixture of accelerated face-to-face teaching together with extensive self-paced learning. Both techniques will utilise advanced communications technologies. These flexible learning approaches may not require an institutional presence in the countries that have been targeted. Teaching staff could fly in for the face-to-face sessions, and flexible learning components could utilise the internet with online delivery of material. Consequently, some institutions may not pursue formal government approvals (though in an increasingly scrutinised and regulated sector, they do so at their peril). Nevertheless, the best international institutions will collaborate with local governments, confident in their ability to deliver locally applicable and top quality educational experiences. Governments will become more interested in the performance of global learning programs because cultural and national interests are intertwined with educational outcomes:

> The more advanced HEIs which are emerging as world class centres in specialised areas are oriented more to the needs and competitive pressures of the global economy. Their operation transcends national boundaries and is the concern of multilevel governance from an equity and human and social development perspective. Similarly the delivery of distance courses to large numbers of students worldwide raises the need for multilevel governance scrutiny, regulation and support measures. (Georghiou & Cassingena Harper 2006, p. 10)

Knight (2005), in her paper on cross-border education, described a typology for 'cross-border provider mobility' (discussed in Chapter 1). Curtin has familiarity with most of the techniques described in this typology. With the establishment of the Singapore campus, the University decided to build upon a long established 'affiliation network' and develop a 'branch campus'. This was a direct strategic response to developments in the region, particularly as traditional importers of educational services, such as Singapore and Malaysia, were moving rapidly to build their capacity to compete as education exporters.

> The rapid growth of international student mobility is part of a larger context in which tertiary education in general is expanding and indeed, as more and more students access tertiary education, more and more students access it overseas. Interestingly however, as overseas student numbers increase, market shares are stabilising, and in some cases decreasing, partly as a result of a diversification of market players. Importers of educational services are now also exporting them, prompting 'traditional' destinations to develop more targeted recruitment strategies aimed at new overseas student 'sources', as well as at older ones (Lasanowski 2009, p. 2).

As these competitive choices increase, not only will Curtin courses need to be of high quality and relevant, but the provision of study flexibility and award mobility will become increasingly important. In the future, it may be the case that Curtin more often goes to the students, rather than the students coming to Curtin.

Singapore

On 9 August 1965, Singapore became an independent republic. From challenging beginnings, Singapore has gained worldwide respect as one of the world's prosperous nations built on hard work and cultural harmony. Singapore's highly developed free market economy and strong international linkages demonstrate an international point of view. By 2008, a population of nearly five million people had built an education system that achieves a literacy rate of 96% (Economic Development Board 2010b). This system includes world-class national institutions, while Singapore also welcomes the participation of private and international educational organisations.

> Since its launch in 2002, the Global Schoolhouse initiative has helped to build up the Singapore Education brand-name, drawing world-class universities ... to set up operations here. Today, Singapore is home to 16 leading foreign tertiary institutions and 44 pre-tertiary schools offering international curricula ... Singapore aims to develop a vibrant community of tertiary, pre-tertiary and corporate training institutions. Supported by a diverse range of institutions, Singapore plans to attract even more students, faculty, researchers and professionals from all over the world to make the city-state a global talent hub (Economic Development Board, Singapore 2010a).

The *Private Education Act 2009* granted powers to Singapore's Council for Private Education to ensure the overall quality of the sector. The Act details various requirements for corporate governance, academic rigour and student protection. A number of registration formalities must be complied with before EduTrust processes can be completed. EduTrust is a voluntary certification scheme that ensures students receive appropriate consumer protection, and that private education institutions provide quality services (Ministry of Education 2010).

By annunciating goals and expectations, the government is not only encouraging international participation in Singapore's education market, they are developing very useful guidelines and regulations. These are important for external investors considering entry to the Singapore educational market, because they must understand the roles, behaviours and contributions that local government expect them to provide.

Singapore represented a major market for Curtin in 2007; Singaporean students made up 7.5% of onshore enrolment and 18.2% of offshore enrolment. Curtin also has a very long history of collaboration in Singapore, with partnerships that have been very successful despite the increasing competition. However, after nearly twenty years of operation there was a need to re-energise its activities and Curtin was keen to participate in the Singapore Government's moves towards becoming a 'Global Schoolhouse'.

Developing Curtin's Singapore Campus

In March 2008, Curtin decided to develop a branch campus in Singapore. The intent was to elevate the image and standing of Curtin in Singapore and regional South-East

Asia. Partnerships and collaboration were to provide a solid foundation for this campus. Existing partnerships with Singaporean professional bodies were to be nurtured, and new administrative support partnerships developed. Of course, close collaboration with Singaporean authorities was to be maintained.

The objective was to provide a comprehensive university facility that would enhance the student experience, encourage research, and strengthen industry engagement. Campus offices and services would be available to Curtin's professional partners, boosting their identification with the University. Students would have access to a high quality, purpose built campus environment, and academics would utilise the latest learning facilities.

Curtin's successful prior experience of developing an international campus (with a partner providing facilities and services for the Sarawak campus) influenced the University's decision to follow a similar approach in Singapore. Indeed, Curtin's campus in Malaysia was commended by the Australian University Quality Agency:

> AUQA commends Curtin for the conceptualisation, establishment and successful development of the Curtin Sarawak Campus (AUQA 2009, p. 42).

Curtin's partner in Singapore, Navitas Limited (Navitas), is a corporation listed on the Australian stock exchange that specialises in collaborating with universities. After a long association in developing and operating the pathway college Curtin International College on Curtin's Bentley campus, Navitas proposed a partnership with Curtin to develop the Singapore campus in 2007.

After many months of negotiations, not only with Navitas, but also internally at Curtin, and in particular with Curtin's existing professional partners in Singapore, key features of this development were agreed:

- Partnership responsibilities for campus activities would be categorised into academic and operational tasks. Curtin would be responsible for academic tasks (for example, curriculum design and delivery, teaching and learning, assessment, etc.), and Navitas would be responsible for providing facilities and various administration processes, including specialised marketing services. These responsibilities would be encapsulated within a close working relationship, with the focus on producing top quality university experiences that would enhance Curtin's reputation.
- Navitas would acquire an appropriate venue and refurbish it to the standard expected of a high quality university campus.
- Curtin courses already available in Singapore would be augmented as market demand became apparent. Initially programs would continue Curtin Business School's long association with Singapore; however, health, engineering and humanities programs would expand the range of courses as demand rose.
- Curtin's professional partners (the Marketing Institute of Singapore, the Singapore Institute of Materials Management and the Singapore Humans Resources Institute) had opportunities to enhance their collaboration with

Curtin (e.g. through access to campus office facilities, and campus promotion of their affiliation with Curtin).

- A Curtin professor would be appointed Pro Vice-Chancellor of the Singapore campus. The task was to provide overall academic leadership, as well as facilitating coordination between the Singapore and Bentley (Perth, Western Australia) campuses. The Pro Vice-Chancellor would also facilitate campus collaboration with Curtin's professional partners and Singaporean authorities.
- The campus proposal would be presented to the Ministry of Education and the Economic Development Board (it subsequently received encouragement from both Singaporean departments).
- Cost-neutral financial projections were to be predicated for Curtin and the professional partners during the initial phase of campus development, with long-term estimates of financial and strategic benefits forecast for all stakeholders.
- Marketing investigations predicted an increase in Curtin's reputation and a consequential improvement in market positioning.

Curtin's students in Singapore were to benefit from:

- enhanced facilities (such as a library and information technology services, a food court, etc.) within one convenient location
- access to a traditional campus environment
- a stronger sense of association with Curtin
- improved student services
- increased international networking opportunities (as the campus student body expands to include regional participants)
- exposure to students from other disciplines (as the variety of programs increase)
- expanded graduate recognition (as Curtin's reputation grows).

Changing partnership arrangements that had been successful for twenty years was obviously a risk; however, Singapore's higher education environment was changing rapidly, especially as the government started promoting the nation as a regional education hub. As a result, Curtin's original twinning model was no longer considered competitive when compared against other quality institutions offering 'full' campus experiences. Curtin's risk analysis concluded that the collaborative development of the Singapore campus was the most appropriate way to manage these risks.

Notable milestones achieved during the campus's first year were:

- completion of building and refurbishments leading to the official opening of the campus by the HE Mr Doug Chester, Australian High Commissioner to Singapore, with the Honourable Mr S Iswaran, Senior Minister of State, Ministry of Trade and Industry and Ministry of Education in November 2008
- successful conclusion of a transitional summer semester (November 2008 to February 2009)

- first full semester completed in June 2009
- collaborated in a trial Ministry of Education (Singapore) review of audit procedures for private educational institutions
- completed the first full year of academic operations for 1,817 students.

Examples of future priorities include:

- regular conformation that campus plans, policies, systems and procedures, comply with Singaporean authority expectations
- implementation of Curtin surveys, such as: staff feedback (VoiceIT), student satisfaction (such as the Course Experience Questionnaire), graduate employment (using the graduate employment survey), etc.
- commencement of new courses from humanities and health sciences
- enhancing locally appropriate student career and advisory services
- facilitating opportunities for student exchange and study abroad programs
- developing a Singapore campus culture
- augmenting Singaporean research linkages and activities
- providing international pathway students with English language competency programs
- expanding executive education and consultancy opportunities.

Like any campus, Curtin Singapore continues to develop and progress. In 2010, the campus successfully re-registered all courses. Of course, reaching a shared understanding of quality assurance amongst international organisations, professional partners, local authorities and Curtin University was always going to be challenging. The campus decided to use a widely respected external accreditation procedure to focus all parties upon standard definitions of quality as the way to overcome this challenge. Curtin is using its experience with the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) accreditation to implement quality processes that are regularly audited. This activity should enable the campus to produce externally certified evidence that there will be regular conformance with recognised quality standards.

Another sign of recent progress has been the early growth of Curtin Singapore's nursing programs. Approximately 50 students enrolled in the programs and are benefitting (as at 2010) from access to specialist facilities (e.g. the campus nursing and physiotherapy venue that is equipped for inter-professional education). In 2011, these students will be joined by 350 other Curtin students who will transfer from a local partnership program. In addition, preparations are on-track for Master of Science programs to start in 2011. These types of courses attract the stringent scrutiny of local authorities, and were tailored by Curtin's Faculty of Health Sciences, in consultation with the Singapore Nursing Board and other leaders in Singaporean healthcare, to meet the specific postgraduate requirements of Singapore healthcare professionals.

Operating Across National Borders

Curtin's international experience indicates that understanding stakeholder expectations in cross-border activities requires special attention. Normal assumptions about educational operations may not be valid in another country (e.g. tax exemption). Also, governments are naturally determined to achieve their own national education priorities. Therefore, foreign institutions should enhance their international investments by complying with these expectations.

University activities conducted away from the 'main' campus cannot provide exactly the same experience (especially if the distant campus is located in another country). Cultural and other environmental differences will impact the course experience. Even so, Curtin holds to the principle that its degrees impart equivalent educational outcomes, no matter where or how courses are studied. In other words, the University strives for educational equivalence between degrees studied at its Bentley campus and degrees studied at an international campus.

This principle is evident in Curtin's control over curricula, teaching quality and assessment. Curtin recognises the need for locally applicable knowledge and for nationally appropriate learning techniques; therefore, a request for curriculum adaption would be considered on its merit, for example, to comply with national education outcomes. However, Curtin highly values the quality of its degrees and would protect the coherent characteristics of its awards.

There is more chance of appreciating government expectations if they are described in legislative acts, procedural guidelines, accreditation processes, and the like. The Singapore Government has the *Private Education Act* and has appointed a Council for Private Education to oversee compliance with this Act. These types of services greatly assist external institutions, because clear compliance standards are defined.

Students, partners, employers, professional accreditation bodies and the University will all have expectations. Of course, preparatory descriptions and plans (for an international campus) would seek to surface and incorporate the expectations of all major stakeholders; however, this is not always as easy as it sounds, because some desires may not be widely disclosed. Inclusive and attentive communication is perhaps the best method of surfacing shared understandings that will successfully underpin collaboration. A clear vision for the future, long-term determination, and robust partnerships, will greatly assist with the successful resolution of the challenges that lay ahead.

Foreign institutions will take time to become accustomed to operating within a new environment, and this is where local partner support is valuable. Institutions with long established partnerships and a sizable alumnus will have a distinct advantage over institutions entering a 'green-field'. In this regard, Curtin was greatly assisted by its long association with Singapore.

Building on areas of strength is a strategy that has obviously served Curtin well. Also, a willingness to learn as a collaborative participant is an empowering attitude when developing an international operation. However, if there is a key collaborative strategy for developing an offshore campus it would be attempting to maximise outcomes that produce valuable benefits for the majority of stakeholders, and minimising outcomes that encourage division.

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Chapter 9

South Australia's University City Project (Case Study 2)

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> 'Our aim is to position Adelaide as one of the world's great education cities.' (South Australian Premier Mike Rann 2006)

Premier Rann's vision to 'position Adelaide as one of the world's great education cities' has been the driving force behind the development of an active 'University City' strategy, and the establishment of the International University Precinct in Adelaide.

In 2003 the South Australian Government sought to 'double South Australia's share of the Nation's international student market by 2014' (Government of South Australia 2004). Since that target was set, South Australia's international student numbers have more than doubled, and international education has become one of the state's biggest export earners.

Partly as a response to this growth, a second distinct yet interwoven strategy was introduced—to establish Adelaide as a university city. Able to lay claim to more Nobel Prize winners than any other Australian city, South Australia was also able to exploit a prestigious academic heritage. There were other important economic imperatives.

South Australia's share of the national population has been declining steadily over the past two decades, with that trend expected to continue over the coming years. South Australia's population is also ageing far more rapidly than the Australian average, while the state's industrial structure is skewed toward a narrow group of industries. Population growth has remained at 1% since the second half of 2006, across a period in which it had been accelerating for Australia as a whole. The state's older age profile, together with weak population growth, risks significant 'supply shock' for numbers of potential workers. With the decline in the manufacturing sector and consequent loss of jobs,

the South Australian Government was keen to generate new opportunities through the development of an innovative knowledge economy. Establishing Adelaide's international standing as 'Australia's University City' (Rann 2006) was not only about raising the profile of the state's education sector, but also about the rich contribution it could make to the broader economy and society. Florida, for example, argues that:

> Regional economic growth is powered by creative people, who prefer places that are diverse, tolerant and open to new ideas. Diversity increases the odds that a place will attract different types of creative people with different skill sets and ideas. Greater and more diverse concentration of creative capital in turn lead to higher rates of innovation, high technology business formation, job generation and economic growth (Florida 2002, p. 249).

South Australia's ten-year goal to expand employment by 28,000 has therefore been strongly supported by the University City project through attracting high quality students. In addition, the government has introduced a number of other major initiatives such as, for example, the South Australian Government Defence Strategy, which has helped replace the jobs lost in the manufacturing sector.

Nonetheless, the creation of the University City required strong intervention by the South Australian Government. The Premier recognised that recreating Adelaide as a 'Boston of the South' would mean more than introducing additional universities into the state; a more complex strategy would need to be pursued.

The project began to take shape in 2006 with the South Australian Government establishing the 'University City' project in the Department of the Premier and Cabinet. Its task was to undertake a pre-feasibility study into how the state could build on the strengths of South Australia's higher education sector to develop as a leading centre for education, research and innovation. There would be a particular focus on the primary areas of defence, mining and energy, an attempt to address gaps where there was a perceived lack of expertise, and also, the reinforcement of Adelaide's existing profile as a leader in specific fields. With these premises, the pre-feasibility study would then identify and assess the suitability of foreign universities that might wish to establish operations in Adelaide. Developing Adelaide as a University City by attracting foreign universities to the state would require significant investment; therefore, the costs and benefits that these institutions could bring would also need to be carefully analysed.

As part of the study, KPPM Organisational Strategists were commissioned to research the key elements contributing to the success of international university cities. The consultants selected the following university cities for inclusion in the study:

- Boston, USA
- Cambridge, UK
- Newcastle, UK
- Oxford, UK
- Silicon Valley, USA
- Singapore.

These cities were considered useful for a comparative assessment because they represented different aspects of the evolution of the 'University City' concept. As the report notes:

- Boston is renowned as a University City for the sheer number of universities, colleges and research centres located in the city and the immediate surrounding area. In this model, the local economy is enhanced by the presence of a cluster of universities that attract residents, generate income and develop a level of interdependency with the local and regional economy.
- Silicon Valley exemplifies a different type of clustering. Here, Stanford, a rural university established on the traditional model aided by research funding from the US Defence Department, was able to capitalise on research outcomes through knowledge transfer to a range of entrepreneurs and small businesses. These start-up or spin-off businesses went on to develop a range of products that accelerated the development of the knowledge economy.
- Oxford and Cambridge are examples of traditional British universities and were established about 900 years ago. This model was based on establishing a centre of learning away from the metropolis to which students were attracted by the reputation of resident scholars and the opportunity to leave the city and focus on learning for its own sake.

  Over time a town, and eventually city, grew around each of the universities, and they have come to play a major role in the economy, both as a generator of employment and as a tourist attraction.
- Newcastle (UK), a region where the economy was traditionally based on manufacturing and had been through an extended period of economic decline, saw the knowledge economy as an opportunity for a regional renaissance with knowledge as a new driver for the local economy. Newcastle is now a successful, vibrant city with high levels of attraction and retention of knowledge workers.
- Singapore sought to improve its economy by capitalising on its geographical location—where 'East meets West'—and strategically targeting and attracting international universities to become the first choice destination for international students, particularly from the growth economies in China and India. Singapore is now a major competitor for the traditional universities.

It was suggested that Adelaide could learn from all these models through a consideration of how each had sought to adapt, or reinvent itself, to become a twenty-first century 'University City'.

The study established that a successful University City in the twenty-first century is one:

- That acts as a platform for engagement, connecting educational institutions, knowledge workers, professionals and the local community through a range of systems, partnerships, connections and activities.
- That acts as a magnet for attracting the best and brightest students and faculty staff.
- Where there is a high level of cooperation between educational institutions and a focus on sharing skills and resources to improve education/research outcomes and increase the overall competitiveness of the city/region.

- That develops structures and processes to support knowledge transfer from educational institutions to business, industry, the community and schools to support the local economy and foster the next generation of knowledge workers.
- Where policy makers and educational institutions recognise the value of knowledge and education to the local and regional economy and proactively engage in the development of shared strategies to enhance the contribution of education to local and regional economies (KPPM Organisational Strategists 2006).

The pre-feasibility study suggested that one of the best assets that the state had when encouraging foreign universities to establish operations in Adelaide was the city and state itself. It listed Adelaide's main strengths as:

- lifestyle
- quiet, safe environment
- immigration opportunities
- cultural and arts diversity
- international reputation as a study destination
- key research areas.

The study showed that opportunities existed to build on identified strengths by continuing to expand the number of education institutions in South Australia, and to target and attract additional cohorts of students to Adelaide. This could encompass domestic students from interstate, as well as increasing the level of international students through strong targeting (by marketing agency, Education Adelaide) of a new brand strategy that emphasised the experience of living and studying in Adelaide.

Based on these factors, the Premier, Mike Rann, and the then federal Minister for Foreign Affairs, Alexander Downer, working with the Department of the Premier and Cabinet and South Australian and Commonwealth Government agencies, initiated negotiations with US-based Carnegie Mellon University (CMU) to establish a campus in Adelaide.

In 2006, the H. John Heinz III School of Public Policy and Management (of CMU), was opened in Adelaide. It became Australia's first foreign university, and Adelaide became the first city in Australia to offer two US degrees in Adelaide. These were: a Master of Science in Public Policy and Management, and a Master of Science in Information Technology. In his speech to mark the opening, Premier Rann highlighted the University's international standing and world leadership in fields such as information technology, computer science, defence systems and technology, robotics, and media and entertainment. He also acknowledged that CMU's presence in Adelaide was the result of significant cooperation with the Commonwealth Government, paying tribute to Alexander Downer, and former and present higher education ministers of that time, Brendan Nelson and Julie Bishop, for their support.

Since this statement from Premier Rann in 2006, CMU has forged successful allegiances with existing institutions, and established strategic, geographic links to the student populations of Central and East Asia. Located in the re-furbished historic Torrens

Building on Victoria Square in the centre of the city, CMU has some of the most sophisticated educational technology currently available. Students attending lectures in Adelaide actually receive them in 'real-time' from Pittsburgh. Graduates are also issued with identical degree parchments to those received by students who have undertaken their qualifications in Pittsburgh.

The establishment of Carnegie Mellon University in Adelaide paved the way for another strategic international partnership. The South Australian Government's intention to further develop the state's strong defence industry and mining and resources sector, called for specialist workforce skills. Negotiations opened with Cranfield University, which, as academic provider and partner to the Defence Academy of the United Kingdom, was considered partly on its capacity to fill this specialist niche. As the Premier pointed out:

> Cranfield [University] is pre-eminent in Europe as a defence technology institution. It is number one in defence training in the UK, having won the UK Defence Academy training contract since 1984 (Rann 2006).

Two years after CMU's arrival, Cranfield University also established a presence in the Torrens Building (now known as Adelaide's International University Precinct).

Cranfield initially opened a business development office in the international fields of defence and new materials. However, in 2009 Cranfield University reconsidered the focus of its operations in Adelaide, giving rise to the establishment of a new identity known as the 'Torrens Resilience Institute'. The Institute seeks to improve the capacity of organisations and societies to respond to disruptive challenges which have the potential to overwhelm local disaster management capabilities and plans. Essentially, the Institute will conduct three categories of work: research, operational support, and management training. Aiming to be a national and international centre of excellence through the development of advanced thinking in the concept of resilience, its mission is to assist the federal and state governments, the emergency services, organisations and civil society in general, to enhance their leadership and management capabilities, and enable them to prepare for, and better respond to, disruptive challenges.

The Institute is a partnership between South Australia's three public universities and Cranfield University. Together they plan to develop a unique academic and research capability in areas of resilience.

The Institute comprises a Director and a small support team. Facilities are available for meetings, workshops and short courses in the Torrens Building, and it is planned to establish a resource centre with a small team of subject matter experts and post-doctoral interns working on operational support projects.

In December 2008 it was announced that University College London (UCL), currently rated fourth in the *Times Higher Education* QS world university rankings, had signed an agreement with the South Australian Government to open a new campus in Adelaide to provide executive education programs, as well as a new Master of Energy and Resources course.

This is the first time that UCL has left its shores to offer a degree program overseas. The UCL School of Energy and Resources, Australia, or UCL SERAus, is a collaboration between UCL and the South Australian Government, with substantial financial support from Santos, one of Australia's largest energy companies. Santos is also offering support through its provision of generous scholarships for students worldwide.

Students now have the opportunity to study for a two-year Master of Science in Energy and Resources at the new campus in the Torrens Building, which was officially opened by UCL in April 2010. The school also offers executive education programs.

UCL has appointed a Director and core academic staff, and the teaching model also involves the participation of academics from London teaching in Adelaide. Joint Adelaide-London research programs are being developed. UCL will ensure that the curriculum for the Master of Science in Energy Resources reflects the concerns of industry, and will seek to work with leading energy and resources sector corporations to ensure that professional training is flexible and relevant to employers' staff development needs. In addition, an Institute of Energy and Resources is being established to forge even closer links between the programs and industry.

When the agreement to open a campus in Adelaide was announced, Professor Michael Worton, UCL Vice-Provost (Academic and International) commented that:

> 'Transnational education is changing the way that students and professionals now study and develop their skills. Through our campus in Adelaide and as part of the University City there, UCL will give a global lead on industry-focused research and teaching in a global context.
>
> 'Our presence in Adelaide' he said, 'will also provide a further opportunity for students from the Asia-Pacific region to study at one of the world's leading universities. We are already a truly international university, with international students making up one third of our total student body, and this new campus will further strengthen our position as "London's global university".
>
> 'UCL is committed to working to solve real-world problems and we relish the opportunity to work not only with the South Australian Government but also with Santos and a range of other Australian and international energy companies through our presence in Adelaide.
>
> 'The School will enable UCL, in collaboration with its partners, to play its part in addressing the increasingly complex and interconnected economic, management, legal and engineering challenges arising from the development and use of energy and resources that confront the world' Professor Worton added (University College London 2008).

Professor Worton's comments highlight the importance of cultivating an international higher education focus in a rapidly increasing and interconnected global social and economic sphere.

The International University Precinct, as mentioned, has been established in the historic, heritage-listed Torrens Building. This has required the relocation of existing tenants, refurbishment of accommodation for the universities and provision of space for a range of complementary organisations. The establishment of the Precinct is a key strategy underpinning the University City vision, reflecting the South Australian Government's decision to invest in critical infrastructure to attract high-calibre foreign investment in the state's higher education and research sector.

Future activities which aim to promote international cooperation in higher education generally, as well as in science, research and technology, are being considered. The objective is, through interactivity, to consolidate and build on the knowledge agenda, particularly in specialist areas where South Australia has existing strengths, or where a niche market for new activity exists.

In summary the University City project drives the strategy within the Department of the Premier and Cabinet to raise Adelaide's profile as a globally-recognised University City and preferred destination for higher education students and researchers, as well as an attractive investment location for international higher education providers. This is being pursued through:

- Developing an International University Precinct in Victoria Square's Torrens Building by the establishment of prestigious, foreign-based international universities providing postgraduate education and/or research to complement the capacities of local universities in South Australia.
- Building a world-class research capability in the state through formalised and publicly identified international partnerships, collaborations and linkages, particularly in leading-edge specialised research fields that have strategic importance to South Australia, or respond to niche market opportunities, and/or have a high-tech focus and potential for technology transfer and commercial exploitation.
- Capacity-building and development through longer-term international relationships, which facilitate two-way exchange and scholarship (including with 'developing' and 'under-developed' countries/regions).
- Working across government agencies, universities, research institutions and industry to support international engagement in the higher education and research sectors in South Australia (e.g. facilitating shifts to regulatory processes, facilitating English language capacity and cultural support activities).
- Designing, implementing and managing innovative initiatives to contribute to the progressive development of the state's higher education and research sectors (including international region-to-region linkages at the subnational level, as well as specific European Union initiatives).

University cities take time to grow and mature, but to date the initiative is progressing well. It is recognised that there are a number of major factors that will need to be used to evaluate the Adelaide model in the long term: brand reputation, rankings, quality of research partnerships and collaborations, and importantly, graduate outcomes and levels of employer satisfaction. This will require complex interaction between the higher education and research sector, as well as the broader economic realm. KPPM conclude that:

> The most successful university cities are those where 'educational institutions, business and ... local governments recognise the mutual benefits of working closely together ... to increase the attractiveness of their city to the investors, international students and the new workforce (KPPM Organisational Strategists 2006).

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Chapter 10

University of Southern Queensland (Case Study 3)

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The University of Southern Queensland (USQ) is a medium-sized Australian university with its main campus in the regional city of Toowoomba, located 120km west of the state capital city of Brisbane in Queensland. Having its main campus located in a major regional city gives USQ a strong regional identity, and it is classified as a regional university within the Australian higher education sector. However, the University has branch campuses in both regional and metropolitan locations, boasts a large onshore and offshore international education program, and maintains partnerships worldwide, so that, in effect, it functions as a national and transnational higher education provider. Each aspect of USQ's identity supports the other. As a regional university, USQ enjoys close links with the local community, has a strong on-campus culture, and focuses its research and engagement activities on its regions. As a national and transnational higher education provider, USQ can ensure it operates sustainably, being able to not only service its relatively small local population, but also to foster a more outward looking perspective with opportunities to form national and international partnerships, and to operate globally.

USQ has enjoyed a reputation as one of Australia's leading distance education providers for over 30 years, and has the highest proportion of students studying remote from a campus—at over 70% of the student body—of any Australian university. As a major distance education provider, USQ tends to attract students who are on average older, study fewer units per semester (often part-time while employed), and come from more diverse

backgrounds than the students from more traditional research-intensive universities in Australia. USQ's teaching approaches are student-centred, employ blended learning—defined as 'learning which combines online, multimedia and face to face approaches' (DET 2003)—involve high levels of support for the students, and are flexible in order to cater for a wide range of individual needs.

Blended learning serves both on- and off-campus students, with the University striving to ensure high quality learning experiences to all of its students, and broad parity of academic outcomes regardless of location or lifestyle (USQ 2008a). This philosophy informs USQ's approach to transnational education (TNE).

Table 10.1: USQ statistics at a glance, 2009

Financial	
Consolidated operating revenue AUD(000)	211,794
Enrolment trends	
All students (enrolments)	25,657
Undergraduates (enrolments)	18,422
Higher degree – research (enrolments)	421
Higher degree – coursework (enrolments)	7,041
Total student load (equivalent full-time student load)	12,947
Student demographics	
Median age of students (years)	29
Mean student enrolment per student load	1.98
Proportion of student load who are female (%)	56.0
Proportion of student load from low socioeconomic status backgrounds (%) – proportion in Australian population = 25%	32.3
Proportion of student load from regional areas (%) – proportion in Australian population = 24%	53.3
Proportion of student load who are international students (%)	29.4
Student performance	
Student retention rate (%)	86.9
Student progression rate (%)	82.6
Staff	
All staff load (including casuals) (full-time equivalent)	1,435
Proportion of non-casual staff who are academic staff (%)	34.2

As a teaching-intensive university with extensive experience with distance education and a diverse student constituency, USQ was well positioned to enter international education. In fact, USQ was one of the first Australian universities to build a significant international education program in the 1980s; initially to students studying in their home country via distance education. Therefore, unlike many Australian universities, USQ built its international education program from a base in offshore rather than onshore provision through its distance education expertise. Since that time, USQ has developed four major channels for study by international students:

1. Study on-campus in Australia at one of USQ's three Queensland-based campuses.
2. Study on-campus in Australia at the USQ Sydney Education Centre, which is located in Sydney (Australia's largest city), and operated by an education partner, Canterbury Institute of Technology.
3. Study offshore through distance education with study supported by local education partners.
4. Study offshore through distance education as independent learners, utilising support strategies derived from the Toowoomba campus and available to all students studying off-campus from the University, whether domestically or internationally located (referred to as 'distance direct').

International students comprise around 30% of USQ's overall student load, with students enrolled in all levels from pre-tertiary enabling programs through to doctoral level. Income from international education accounts for some 15% of the University's total revenue. In 2008, USQ had 838 equivalent full-time load students (21.5% of total international student load) in channel 1, 601 (15.5%) in channel 2, 1,960 (50.5%) in channel 3 and 483 (12.5%) in channel 4; with some 120 countries represented. TNE therefore makes up the majority of USQ's international load, with its offshore operations characterised by a blended learning approach, utilising USQ learning materials, USQ's learning management system, its assessment and course examiners, and with local offshore academic and administrative support provided by well-established and trusted local partners.

During its long involvement in TNE, USQ has faced many challenges and has learned through experience the following key lessons:

1. The importance of internationalising all operations in the organisation (Knight 2003). It is USQ's belief that TNE cannot be operated effectively as simply 'an off-shoot of domestic provision'. The whole institution must be geared to operate as an international higher education provider with international clients who bring with them unique attitudes, expectations and needs that must be respected and addressed. An internationalised organisation is also positioned to take full advantage of not only the economic benefits of international education, but also the social, cultural and engagement opportunities that it provides.
2. The importance of maintaining a high quality product and service.
   It is USQ's belief that there is no place for low cost/low quality service providers in TNE, or indeed in any educational context.

3. The importance of establishing sound, mutually beneficial partnerships with organisations that share USQ's values, provide a high quality of service, and operate as reliable and secure educational organisations in their own right—as assessed by rigorous due diligence.
4. The importance of operating ethically and accepting a duty of care for all students, who can otherwise be highly vulnerable.

This chapter describes USQ's approach to internationalisation and its TNE operations, and is discussed in terms of each of the 'key lessons learned' described above.

Internationalisation at the University of Southern Queensland

In 2008 USQ updated its *International Strategy 2009–2013* (USQ 2008a). Particular emphasis was given to ensuring compliance with the increasingly rigorous regulatory environment governing international education in Australia, and to ensure the quality and business sustainability of USQ's international education enterprise. This policy was also supported by another important related document, 'USQ and Its Institutional Partnership Engagement – Past, Present and Future' (Layton 2008), which is particularly important for USQ's offshore partner-based TNE educational delivery.

Internationalisation is expressed in a range of ways at USQ. The University operates as a global education provider, has a 2020 vision with a global scope, 'To be recognised as a world leader in open and flexible higher education' (USQ 2008b), and has a culturally diverse staff and student body. In line with the definition of internationalisation put forward by Knight (2003), USQ aspires to 'progressively integrate an international, intercultural and global dimension into its purposes, activities, and the design and delivery of its programs'. USQ (2008a) sets out seven objectives to guide the development of its international education operations:

1. Develop a range of international educational partnerships that enhance USQ's domestic and international reputation, and which are: consistent with the University's strategic direction; characterised by academic and business integrity; financially acceptable to the University; and which result in satisfactory academic outcomes for students.
2. Selectively develop and deliver cost effective programs to meet the needs of international students and education partners.
3. Provide a quality student learning journey for all international students, and broad parity of academic outcomes.
4. Establish processes that will enable the University to develop curricula and learning experiences that support the graduate quality of global citizenship and provide relevant staff development for staff.
5. Engage in effective marketing and student recruitment.
6. Communicate effectively with all our stakeholders.
7. Establish industry standard policy and governance procedures.

Two foundational policies support internationalisation at USQ. The USQ policy on multiculturalism (USQ 2008c), introduced in 1995 as the first such policy by any Australian university and most recently revised in 2008, states that programs will be culturally sensitive and that staff will make every effort to respond to the diverse needs of students. The USQ Learning and Teaching Policy (including the USQ Guidelines for Good Teaching) (USQ 2006a, 2006b) is designed to ensure consistency of outcomes through parity in assessment processes, and emphasises the need to take into account differences with respect to culture, background, experience, age, learning styles and career goals.

Global citizenship, manifested in the ability 'to connect discipline-based theory and practice to the sustainability of communities, economies and environments in a global context', is a key graduate quality identified in the policy, The Qualities of a USQ Graduate (USQ 2009b). As from 2009, accreditation and reaccreditation processes for undergraduate programs require that alignment of skills with the defined graduate qualities be explicit in all course specifications.

There has also been considerable effort to internationalise USQ's curriculum through strategies, including the integration of international perspectives into learning resources and assessment tasks, the encouragement of strategies such as overseas experience and language immersion in curriculum, the co-development of programs with overseas universities, and responding to overseas requirements—such as the 'Saudization health care' policy introduced by the Saudi Ministry of Health (Hassan 2004). USQ's close involvement with its local TNE partners represents a major strategy for ensuring its programs fit well into the local context wherever they are provided.

However, despite over 25 years as an international education provider, USQ still has some way to go before it would consider itself to be a truly internationalised university. As outlined in the USQ *International Strategy 2009–2013*, a major ongoing focus will be further internationalising the curriculum and the student experience for all USQ students, domestic and international. Other priorities include taking full advantage of the cultural diversity of USQ's student cohorts, more fully realising the potential of offshore partners to provide transformative international learning experiences, the application of good practice principles for English language proficiency (AALL 2010), and the more strategic use of learning experiences provided by programs such as student and staff exchanges.

Maintaining a High Quality of Product and Service

USQ appreciates the importance of maintaining a high quality product and service in its international education enterprise. The University has built its reputation on high quality distance and blended learning, and so this represents less of a lesson learned than continued reinforcement of a key institutional principle. In servicing a highly diverse student constituency, the importance of flexible approaches grounded in high quality pedagogy, educational resources and student support, has been paramount to USQ's continued success in the highly competitive international education market.

Quality is assured through a range of practices, including the following:

- Under its establishment Act, USQ is required to maintain an Academic Board that reports to the University's governing body (Council) and is responsible for developing and ensuring compliance to academic policy and regulations. The Academic Board serves as the first line of quality assurance for USQ's academic programs. The International and Educational Partnership Committee (USQ 2009c) is responsible to the Academic Board for matters which affect policy, goals and strategies for internationalisation, and educational partnerships within the University.
- USQ is bound by the Transnational Quality Strategy framework that ensures the quality of Australian education and training delivered in other countries. This framework was endorsed by Australian Education Ministers in 2005 (Commonwealth of Australia 2005).
- As a public university in Australia, USQ is bound by the requirements of the *National Protocols for Higher Education Approval Processes* (National Protocols, MCEETYA 2007). Section 1.15 of the National Protocols states: 'In the case of international students, higher education institutions must comply with the *National Protocols for Higher Education Approval Processes* and the *Education Services for Overseas Students Act 2000* (ESOS Act), in addition to other codes and protocols that apply specifically to international students'. For TNE, this is achieved via the University's education partner agreement (contract) and partnership management framework.
- USQ recognises its responsibilities under the ESOS Act and the National Code of Practice for Registration Authorities and Providers of Education and Training to Overseas Students (National Code, Commonwealth of Australia 2007). The University regularly conducts internal National Code, ESOS and CRICOS (Commonwealth Register of Institutions and Courses for Overseas Students) compliance audits, and acts on the outcomes. In guiding institutional approaches, these Australian regulatory requirements also have a major influence on USQ's TNE provision. The University ensures that it meets all local regulatory requirements wherever TNE partnerships are in place. In practice this means that operations are conducted so as to meet Australian and local standards.
- Since 2004, the University has participated in the Australian Universities International Directors' Forum benchmarking study (Olsen 2003), which monitors eight specific aspects of international operations across Australian universities. The data obtained from this study have been integral to the development of improved admissions, compliance and operational policies and procedures at USQ.
- In 2008 an independent project between USQ and the Australian Council for Educational Research was set up to administer the Australasian Survey of Student Engagement (AUSSE 2010) to international offshore students studying with USQ through its international partners to collect information for use in continuous quality improvement.

- The University is a signatory to *Universities and their students: principles for the provision of education by Australian universities* (AVCC 2005). The University's key internal standard is: 'that USQ strives to provide each of its students with a high quality student learning journey and with parity of academic outcomes, regardless of a student's location or lifestyle' (USQ 2009a, p. 32). The fleximode learning package is the foundation of equity and quality for USQ awards. Every USQ student has access to the same package of learning resources. Fleximode provides all USQ students with access to core content in each course through a combination of digital and multimedia resources. These can be accessed online or from CD and, where appropriate, are made available in print form. Each student has access to identical curriculum material through the University's learning management system. While locally contextualising learning material, international tutors use the same core resources as lecturers in Australia. The learning package also specifies assessment, and all course results are monitored and moderated by USQ academic staff to ensure consistency across locations and modes of study.

USQ's multi-factored approach to quality assurance, underpinned by an extensive program of audit and review, provides the basis for USQ maintaining a high quality of educational provision that is both compliant with available standards and responsive to the voice of students and other key stakeholders.

Maintaining an Effective Partnership Framework

USQ offers degree programs through TNE partners in 14 countries, with over 4,000 students studying in any single semester. USQ's blended learning model involves the University providing learning materials, online and distance support infrastructure, the setting of assessment and the issuing of final grades. The TNE partner provides USQ-approved teaching staff, the physical learning environment and additional academic support services.

The contribution made by local partners adds value to the learning experience of the student by harnessing local expertise and an intimate knowledge of the local educational context. Its success is dependent on USQ choosing its TNE partners carefully, ensuring that an appropriate level of effort is undertaken to develop and maintain these good partnerships, as well as having sound quality assurance processes in place. These were lessons that USQ had to learn.

Government policy in Australia from 1996 until recently encouraged universities to grow and become more entrepreneurial by progressively reducing government funding levels per student load to public universities over time. This resulted in a major swing by Australian universities towards international education as a basis for securing much needed non-government revenue. This, in turn, put Australia on a policy pathway that unintentionally encouraged some dysfunctional behaviour—arguably the worst being the encouragement of low quality, non-university private providers into the training end

of this market that brought about problems that have necessitated major policy and regulatory reform in Australia over the past few years.

USQ's international student load grew rapidly between 2002–05, from around 2,900 to around 4,300 equivalent full-time student load, an increase of just under 50% in three years; and was associated with a significant increase in the University's offshore partnership portfolio. Following a review in 2005, it was recognised that this rapid growth was associated with significant business and reputational risks for the University's international operations, particularly with regard to the offshore partnerships portfolio which had grown too large to manage, and included a proportion of partnership arrangements that created additional and undesirable risks.

The University moved expeditiously to review the quality and effectiveness of all partnerships—decisions were made to discontinue quite a number of them, and to improve the contractual arrangements of others. As a result of this planned withdrawal from a number of partnerships in 2005 and 2006, load declined by 14% to around 3,700 equivalent full-time student load in 2007. However, the rationalisation of the partnerships portfolio, together with other reforms undertaken at the time, including an improved alignment of tuition fees to market conditions, improvements in debtor management and an increased emphasis on on-campus enrolments, served to maintain revenue despite the decline in student load compared to its peak in 2005. Consequently, revenues associated with international student load have actually increased each year, from AUD15.8 million in 2002 to AUD31.0 million in 2009.

USQ now has in place a comprehensive set of approval protocols for new partners and a rigorous process for monitoring the academic, financial and operational performance of its continuing partners. These measures have significantly mitigated the risks to which it had been exposed while improving business viability and profitability.

USQ places an emphasis on active engagement with its TNE partners. For example, the University has sought to progressively increase the level of involvement of partner-based academic staff in marking assessments. By empowering partner staff with marking responsibilities—and by providing them with the professional development required to do this proficiently—USQ academics and faculties develop closer working relationships with the TNE partners. At the same time, the use of strict moderation practices—the assurance that final grades for all students are recommended by USQ-employed course examiners—and ensuring that the awarding of grades to students follows the normal faculty board of examiners procedures, all serve to assure the highest academic standards.

Operating Ethically and with a Duty of Care for Students

International students are undertaking study under unique circumstances, which can make them particularly vulnerable. They need to be assured that their rights to information and services are respected and upheld, and that the organisation with which they are dealing is operating ethically and in their best interest.

USQ has in place a longstanding policy on Student Advice, Student Welfare and Pastoral Support (USQ 2005) that commits the University to be proactive in providing all students and prospective students, domestic and international, with knowledge of the University, its facilities, services, policies and procedures. This includes a commitment to honesty and accuracy in all University publications, the provision of faculty-based and central student advisory services involving appropriately trained staff, specialist advice in areas such as learning enhancement and financial advice, assured access by students to teaching staff, and processes for ensuring fast and accurate responses to inquiries.

As previously stated, USQ is committed to meeting the relevant requirements of the National Protocols (MCEETYA 2007) and the National Code (Commonwealth of Australia 2007), and secures the compliance of partners to these standards through the University's education partner agreement (contract) and partnership management framework. USQ uses the standards on consumer protection from the National Code as benchmarks in its management of all of its onshore and offshore international partners. USQ management protocols have also been developed with reference to the 15 good practice reports commissioned by Australian Education International (AEI 2006).

Conclusion

USQ's approach to TNE is based on blended learning, generally with the support of local educational partners. With over 25 years of experience in TNE, USQ has been obliged to learn many lessons, and is still endeavouring to develop as an internationalised university. The need for providing high quality educational experiences to all students, to work with compatible educational partners, and to respect the rights of international students, are key to the University's continued success as an international education provider both onshore and offshore.

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Section 3

The Indian Experience





Chapter 11

Overview of the Indian Scenario

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India, though being dominantly a recipient, has lately become a provider of transnational education (TNE) and some higher education institutions have recently created offshore campuses and overseas partnerships. The experience of receiving and sending educational services across national borders is raising issues relating to quality, regulation and sustainable growth in India. The scope and limitations of receiving and providing TNE are described in this section that runs from chapters 11 through 18. While chapters 11 through 15 focus on educational services coming into the country, the three case studies in chapters 16 to 18 report some of the experiences of Indian higher education institutions offering educational services in other countries.

Indian higher education is expanding and the central government monitors the process of expansion by various controls and regulations in order to maintain quality. This regulatory framework is becoming more and more transparent and it is contributing to the augmentation of competition and dominance of market forces—necessary for the operation of TNE in India. This chapter examines the regulatory framework from three perspectives. The governmental or regulatory perspective seems to be protectionist as it is evident in an analysis of the Foreign Educational Institutions (Regulation of Entry and Operations) 2010, Bill. The rationale governing this is the assumption that higher education is a 'not-for-profit' activity in India. The quality perspective of TNE examines the Indian experience of external quality assurance and maintenance of standards in higher education. It further highlights the prevailing mistrust between stakeholders and argues that only a quality assurance system can build mutual trust and confidence among stakeholders. Lastly, the institutional perspective is presented. It attempts to provide a broad theoretical framework for sustainable collaboration between Indian and overseas educational institutions. The basis of such collaboration has been found to be mutual benefit, both long term and short term, and with overarching social benefits, and not just private gain. The point is

that quality assurance is the key to building collaborations that can be fully sustained. This, however, cannot be achieved without a lot of effort.

National Context

The role of TNE in India is best understood by looking at developments in higher education in the national context. The national context demands the extension of access and equitable opportunities to youth in higher education for their productive participation in the national economy. The government seeks to provide this through public provision and private participation and also by declaring education to be a 'not-for-profit' activity. Private participation under a philanthropic mode has brought many benefits to the Indian higher education sector though there have been many slips of late.

Another point about the national context is that many higher education institutions in India are still evolving. The nation's best higher education institutions are achieving peaks of excellence, yet quality as an all-pervasive movement in the sector is yet to become a reality. This may be due to structural constraints as much as a shortage of resources. The attempt to raise quality standards was initiated by the University Grants Commission when it established the National Assessment and Accreditation Council in 1994. A large number of higher education institutions were assessed and accredited through this initiative. Presently the government is in support of making it mandatory for higher education institutions to be accredited.

Control and regulatory framework

Traditionally higher education in India has been regulated by the central and state governments. It was placed in the 'concurrent list' of the Constitution of India in 1976 making it the joint responsibility of the centre and states in managing the affairs of higher education. However the Constitution of India mandates the central government to maintain standards in higher education. Degree conferring power is vested with universities established under central and state Acts, and the twelve higher education institutions of national importance established under Acts of Parliament. The deemed universities also have the degree awarding power for the specified period of time when their deemed university status is valid. Limiting degree awarding powers to only universities and university level institutions creates barriers of access to higher education due to the limited places available in these institutions. Nonetheless, universities can 'affiliate' colleges under their jurisdiction and allow them to offer higher education programs under rules and regulations of affiliation. Most regulations are issued by governments and the University Grants Commission (UGC) monitors standards in higher education on behalf of the central government. This has limited the academic autonomy of higher education institutions. The dominance of regulation often inhibits initiative especially when higher education institutions do not find encouragement in making progressive innovations owing to a lack of clarity in the policy and directives of the Government of India. (See Chapter 12 for more details on existing regulations.)

The affiliating system with its cumbersome structure and bureaucratic procedures has resulted in failure as individual institutions are unable to develop according to their vision and local relevance. This has led to the creation of 'autonomous' affiliated colleges, which, again, are governed by guidelines of UGC, a euphemism for regulations. The reality is continuation of controls, more often restricting than freeing. It is significant to note that this control and regulatory framework, however, facilitated the expansion of higher education institutions under state patronage, though limiting academic autonomy. Control system could occasionally bring some improvement in the micromanagement of higher education, depending upon factors such as sufficient financing or visionary leadership in the case of a few institutions.

Privatisation context

Currently financial pressures in public institutions have paved the way for the growth of private institutions. Over three quarters of professional colleges in engineering and technology, medicine and health, management and teacher education are in the private sector. Private deemed universities have grown more than 100% since 2002.

In addition, private universities established under state legislation have increased from nil to more than sixty in 2010, in a little over eight years. The experience with the expansion of private universities in the initial phase under Chhattisgarh legislation in 2002 was unsatisfactory. Under the Chhattisgarh legislation a number of universities could be established without requiring individual Acts for each of the universities, contrary to the provisions of the *University Grants Commission Act, 1956* (UGC Act). It resulted in easing barriers to entry, and in the absence of effective quality control unscrupulous private providers sprang up in large numbers. The Indian judiciary intervened in 2005 to declare the establishment of 112 universities under Chhattisgarh legislation as null and void. The growth of private universities since then is permissible through legislation under the UGC Act.

More and more public institutions are acquiring characteristics of private institutions in terms of resource mobilisation. In the absence of additional public funding, they initiate self-financing programs on a cost recovery basis. These provisions and those of private institutions are covered by higher education regulations. As already mentioned, privatisation has brought both benefits and challenges to the Indian higher education sector. Growth in the number of private institutions and unclear regulations resulted in the establishment of substandard institutions affecting the overall credibility of private institutions in a disproportionate manner.

In the absence of any regulation to monitor them, other private institutions which offer certificates and diplomas have emerged. These providers may not be part of the national higher education system and therefore would be outside the regulations that apply to private higher education institutions. They find it lucrative to collaborate with overseas institutions to jointly offer diploma and degree programs of overseas institutions. The government is in an unenviable situation because for the last decade there has been an almost uncontrolled expansion of private providers in this category.

They have been left unchecked in their pursuit of partnerships with overseas providers, chiefly for profit.

Market driven transnational education

Transnational education in India is primarily market driven. Liberal public policy, among others, has triggered market dependence in providing educational services. Deregulation of the fee structure in both public and private higher education institutions as well as the policy of encouraging 100% foreign direct investment in education has brought into the country many overseas providers. The legal hurdle caused by the denial of degree awarding status to institutions other than universities and other institutions established under an Act of Parliament does not seem to have deterred overseas providers from offering TNE.

The market-driven character of TNE in India was recognised in a study by the British Council of India (Dhar 2008). The study reveals that the majority of collaborating institutions in India are private—48% are private non-affiliated institutions and 29% are private sector institutions that are affiliated with Indian universities. The study also identified that TNE providers in India are active in professional courses such as business management, engineering and technology/computer application/information technology, and hotel management and housekeeping constituting 27%, 23% and 21% respectively of the total of 641 TNE programs. The demand for these programs is largely market driven. Lastly, from sample results, it was reported that the majority of TNE programs in India cost between INR100,000 to INR200,000 (41%), 34% cost less than INR100,000 and 25% cost more than INR200,000 (AUD5,000 approximately). These fees are high compared to those charged by Indian public institutions but are determined by the forces of demand and supply.

International Context

The international context of TNE is one of opportunity, though not free from threat. The first and foremost opportunity is to create and disseminate knowledge through a vast network of institutions. Program mobility and institutional mobility are essential components of TNE which create such opportunities. Favourable demographic factors of India and the importance attached to human resources in the knowledge economy may provide TNE an opportunity to participate in the global labour market. Developed countries such as Australia, USA and UK have well-developed knowledge management in universities with a focus on research and teaching. India needs to take advantage of higher education links with the global labour market in order to exploit the emerging international context. It could adopt a two-pronged strategy. Firstly, push a few public and promote private higher education institutions into initiating programs for institutional mobility into neighbouring countries and those of Africa, the Arab and Latin American world, with its educated Indian human resource. This would facilitate the movement of human resources into higher education abroad and effectively link with the global labour market. Secondly, facilitation of program and institutional mobility from reputed

and accredited overseas universities would enhance the prestige and quality of Indian higher education institutions. However, debates in India relate to issues of priorities. Scholars feel that national priorities of expanding access with equity in order to create an 'inclusive' society should prevail over international priorities. Public higher education has much greater challenges to meet on the domestic front. They feel greater integration of market forces in higher education would undo past efforts of the government for inclusion of all sections of society in the processes of development. On the other hand, there are scholars who feel that international priorities are no less important, because the demographic advantages India has will be lost if Indian higher education does not take advantage of benefits emerging from TNE.

Thus, the national context of higher education development in India is one of control and regulation that facilitated expansion with dominant public provision, though of late private commercial interests have sprang up. It is also clear that TNE in India has developed and continues to be driven by market forces. At the same time, the changing international environment has created the space for quality delivery of TNE within regulatory control to reap the benefits of teaching and research by overseas universities. Against this background the next section examines issues around TNE from three perspectives: governmental, quality and institutional.

Governmental or Regulatory Perspective

Government has to be instrumental for the growth of higher education. Higher education almost everywhere has emerged in response to historical conditions that shaped priorities and policies of governments. Policies of governments towards TNE have varied in their effort to align national priorities with opportunities emerging from globalisation (Verbik & Jokivirta 2005a; McBurnie & Ziguras 2007). Examples from Asian countries of the importance given to TNE support this argument. Singapore, a small island country, could uplift its economy by relying more on the skill formation of its human resource as well as from abroad but it preferred to judiciously select foreign institutions and programs on a case-by-case basis through centralised government support. Malaysia suffered from a heavy outflow of students costing the exchequer heavily in terms of dollars. Malaysia also faced the growth of private higher education because of excessive demand.

Considering the government's effort to increase the skill base and to improve productivity in the economy, legislation enacted in 1996 allowed the creation of new private universities and branch campuses of overseas universities to be established following an invitation from the Ministry of Education, Malaysia. It has set up elaborate approval and review processes for TNE to operate. Thus while national policy priority shapes an approach towards TNE, there are three approaches to regulation of TNE: free market, regulation with judicious use of the market, and protectionism.

Hong Kong follows a free market approach. There is a system of registration that allows entry of reliable and internationally recognised academic and professional programs (French 1999; McBurnie & Ziguras 2001). A key function of the 'Non-Local Higher

and Professional Education (Regulation) Ordinance', which was legislated in July 1996 and came into force in June 1997 is to obtain and disseminate detailed information from providers about their offerings in order to assist students and other stakeholders to make informed choices. TNE is expected to provide competition for local institutions and will strengthen capacity building. The role of the states is confined to ensuring all participants in the market have access to information that will enable them to make informed choices.

On the other hand, the strategy of the Chinese Government includes both regulation and a judicious use of the free market in higher education. TNE offered through the joint provision of foreign sourced programs and degrees conferred through Sino-Foreign collaboration aims to increase the nation's supply of skilled human capital. The higher education sector in the China is being opened in the hope that foreign providers will support development of the higher education system and help in keeping pace with global knowledge and standards. Through cooperation, local institutions can learn from, and catch up with, the experience and practice of their foreign partners in teaching and education management. Ultimately, joint programs are expected to increase international competitiveness of the education system in China, and prepare it to meet global challenges ahead (Zhang 2003).

Verbik and Jokivirta (2005b) state that India falls into the category of transitional 'from liberal to more restrictive' policies of TNE and the strong regulatory framework has made the legislation more protectionist. India assumed the role of supporting public institutions and facilitating growth of 'non-profit' providers of higher education registered under the Trust or Societies Act.

Domestic regulation in Indian higher education chiefly refers to constitutional authority as defined in Entry 25 of List III and Entry 66 of List I of the Constitution of India as various Acts of Parliament and state assemblies, policy statements, Hon. Court judgments, and rules and regulations of regulatory bodies and universities in India. The regulation is intended to protect higher education from an onslaught of the free market system. The aim is that every Indian citizen can access higher education and the choice of programs is affordable to them. Only then can it make higher education a source of livelihood and employment in the development process of the nation.

The debate that followed in post-GATS (General Agreement on Trade in Services, a treaty under the World Trade Organization) situation in India was one of harmonising the non-profit provision with the pure academic content of TNE. The harmonising attempt, however, produces contradiction that has influenced the recently proposed legislation on the entry of foreign education providers. The non-repatriation of surplus may not be viewed with favour by many transnational providers of education. The Bill introduced in the Parliament states that 'No part of the surplus in revenue generated in India by such Foreign Education Providers, after meeting all expenditure in regard to its operations in India, shall be invested for any purpose other than the growth and development of educational institutions established by it in India.'

It, therefore, remains to be seen how TNE finds favour for large investment in a protectionist environment.

The regulatory climate, however, is changing. Though a protectionist environment continues, there is a set of policies introduced through legislation that eschews protection. Mandatory accreditation is viewed in the policy discourse as one such step that will induce quality improvement through enlarging choice of students and introducing competition among institutions. There is a strong private sector in Indian higher education. Given the spirit of the new policy regime in favour of privatisation and liberalisation, although it is not reflected in the Foreign Educational Institutions (Regulation of Entry and Operations) Bill, 2010 there is potential for collaboration of private domestic providers with overseas education providers through program mobility.

The Foreign Educational Institutions Bill is ambiguous. It does not make clear the distinction between branch campuses and other modes of collaboration. It is likely that private institutions in India will be more actively involved in collaboration or partnership or twinning arrangement with overseas education providers. It is also likely that they could easily evade regulatory restrictions in such arrangements. However, program mobility may not allow easy deception because of the elaborate conditions, built-in safeguards and other procedures required for establishing branch campuses (institutional mobility) (Government of India 2010).

To conclude, in the author's opinion, TNE operating in India will find less favour with public institutions due to strict regulation and non-profit conditionality. The branch campus cannot be made active because a surplus cannot be repatriated. However, the strong private sector will favour collaboration or partnership or twinning arrangement with foreign education providers, despite burdensome regulations regarding program mobility.

Quality Perspective

Regulatory approach to quality

The Indian higher education system has different strategies to maintain standards in quality. At the central government level, a constitutional mandate has empowered UGC to follow the fund-linked regulatory approach to maintain standards in quality. Any institution—a college or university—is entitled to receive funds under various schemes from UGC only if it attains certification under 2f and 12B of the Act. Under 2f an institution of higher learning is recognised by the UGC on the basis of meeting the minimum standards prescribed and under 12B an institution is entitled to receive funds after it has been declared eligible to receive them by the Commission. UGC has also the power to review any institution of higher learning and enforce minimum standards. Regulations of the UGC are elaborate and they govern recruitment and promotion of teachers, research involvement of teachers, duration of different qualifications, instruction hours, manner and procedure of admission and examinations, etc.

Another regulatory requirement for the recognition of university status is the creation of legislation by the central or state governments. The 'deemed-to-be-university' is an exception as the institution is conferred the status by the central government upon recommendation of the UGC. Such stipulations, however, have opened the floodgates to mediocre institutions of higher learning.

A university constituted under powers of Acts and statutes, besides following UGC regulations, sets up internal mechanisms of its own to monitor standards and to grant affiliation to other institutions or colleges. Universities and colleges are given academic autonomy to maintain academic freedom in pursuit of advancement of knowledge.

The regulatory approach to maintain standards however, could only establish the rules and regulations to be followed. Their strict enforcement, however, is found to suffer due to a number of reasons. Financial setbacks, poor governance, vested interests, state interference and the decline of the professoriate are some of the factors responsible for the lowering of quality and standards. In recent years higher education has also suffered heavily due to the profit oriented forces of commercialisation. Quality, as a result, is not an all pervasive phenomenon in Indian higher education.

External quality assurance

In 1994 the University Grants Commission established the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) to enforce quality through an external review process. In over a decade and a half NAAC has succeeded in peer reviewing universities and colleges. The external review process, in the opinion of the author, has raised awareness of quality. However, in general, it has been found that quality assurance alone is inadequate to remove constraints in order to generate internal processes for improving quality in the absence of other methods of intervention (Stensaker 2003). Quality assurance through accreditation has helped many higher education institutions develop mechanisms to ensure accountability. However it has not enhanced quality beyond the threshold level. It is not surprising that quality enhancement has suffered in a mass higher education system. Trow (1996) states that external assessment for quality assurance is based on the lack of trust between the government and university and it has not ensured accountability. Mistrust in the Indian scenario developed because policies and programs of the UGC have failed over time to motivate institutions and agents to act in accordance with central directives. Mass higher education could not sustain quality because regulations became burdensome in the university system and autonomy was lacking. However, the Indian higher education policy makers, under these prevailing circumstances, welcomed the idea of accreditation as a mechanism to ensure quality.

New perspective

Quality in higher education could be looked at from varying perspectives. From the societal point of view knowledge and inclusion are two important perspectives. Knowledge generation for nation building favours a climate where academic debate thrives through critical and constructive discourse in an intellectually free and stimulating environment.

An inclusive perspective of quality means an environment where students are from diverse socio-economic groups, ethnicity and national background and they become a part of national development. Apart from the above societal and macro dimension of quality there is another dimension of quality where the learner is at the centre. Quality, viewed from this perspective, namely the learner perspective, is the perception of relevance in education. Quality education implies whether a learner optimises learning that yields them maximum benefit or potential future income. Employability is important in this perspective of quality. Quality also has an efficiency dimension in a micro perspective or from an individual/institutional point of view. It means that resources should be used with minimum waste. It, in turn, means good governance is the pre-requisite of quality. There is the need to integrate the societal as well as individual dimensions of quality in higher education institutions. The challenge posed to higher education institutions is to achieve a synthesis of the two for developing quality. There is, no doubt, conflict and tension between the two and how the higher education system as a whole achieves synthesis is very important.

The micro perspective to improve quality is new in India. It relies on benefiting the learner. The learner should be well informed about the quality of programs an institution delivers. The learner should have flexibility of choice regarding courses. Choice-centric approach to quality is at the centre of the new perspective of quality assurance. This is in sharp contrast to the earlier macro dimension of quality where knowledge generation and its benefit through inclusion were dominant. This perspective implies the direct method of monitoring higher education through the regulated process of critical support and funding as determined by the government. Such a strategy is believed to ensure accountability.

Another strategy that is gaining prominence in India is to improve quality by enhancing transparency in governance. This includes, among other things, providing more information to students, creating grievance-redressal mechanisms and tribunals to settle disputes and handling discontent objectively. This perspective is believed to promote effectiveness by minimising regulatory control. It is along these lines that the proposed National Council of Higher Education and Research was mandated to provide a policy framework to develop universities more as self-regulating institutions with less regulation being imposed from outside.

Foreign Education Provider Bill: Heavy on Regulation and Missing the Quality Perspective

The quality context in which TNE is emerging upon the Indian scene is one where regulation for quality assurance is predominant, even though there is an attempt to emancipate it from a regulatory framework. There will be mistrust between the government and the foreign education providers and this is likely to give rise to a system of accountability through strong compliance. This is quite evident in the statement of objectives and reasons for the proposed foreign education provider bill. It is stated that a number of foreign educational institutions have been operating in the country and some

of them may be resorting to various malpractices to allure students. The rationale of the legislation is to make a meaningful assessment of operations of foreign educational institutions. It is important to note that the intent of the policy may be to create a liberal environment for foreign education providers to operate in India. Yet the statement of objectives and reasons for the bill are meant to allay fears. Nowhere is it mentioned that foreign education providers are supposed to improve the quality of Indian higher education through academic exchange or through the spirit of competition. There is the fear of a commercialisation of higher education and the entry of surreptitious operators. The fear, however, in the first instance, is sought to be allayed by three clauses:

1. Foreign education providers should offer and impart education which is in conformity with the standards laid down by the statutory authority, and is of quality comparable, as to the curriculum, methods of imparting education and the faculty employed or engaged to impart education, to those offered by providers to students enrolled in their own main campuses in the country in which they are established or incorporated.
2. Foreign education providers should be recognised by the central government.
3. Foreign education providers should maintain a corpus fund of not less than INR50 crore (one crore = 10 million; 50 crore = 500 million) or such sum as may be notified from time to time by the central government. (In January 2011, INR45 = AUD1; INR500 million = AUD11 million approximately.)

While the above clauses are supposed to allay fears, the clause that provides detailed information requires mandatory publication of prospectus, as well as information about courses or programs of study, student enrolment numbers, details of infrastructure, the location of the institution operating in India, and the manner of operations whether it is operating independently, or through collaboration, or partnership, or twinning arrangement with an Indian educational institution. The penalty clause enables the government to impose heavy penalties including withdrawing recognition as a foreign educational provider in case conditions are violated. Foreign education providers are expected to comply with many conditions to obtain recognition. Among them are: twenty years of the provider's existence, accreditation, guarantee to maintain corpus fund of INR50 crore (INR500 million or AUD11 million) and the certificate that the foreign educational institution meets the requirements to provide quality education in India. Lastly, there is an exemption clause giving exemptions from any of the clauses to institutions of excellence.

Institutional Perspective

The institutional perspective of TNE is analysed here from the point of view of the recipient country such as India. However, it is necessary to have some idea about the provider country as well when we consider building sustainable collaborative partnerships between institutions. The Academic Cooperation Association (2008) project notes, 'While financial objectives are often considered central to TNE (and indeed they do play a role in most operations), institutions are clearly not only profit driven, but consider

TNE also as a positive response to globalization, as a way to reach out to students in developing countries by making affordable higher education available locally, and by addressing issues of social responsibility' (p. 10). From the point of view of the recipient country TNE offers increased choice and opportunities to students for an education abroad.

An important issue in collaborative partnership is sustainability. Market forces that have given rise to TNE have their own dynamics and produce certain outcomes that optimise private benefits. These may not necessarily produce social benefits. Market failures can also disrupt partnerships. For these reasons regulatory intervention of universities by governments should be such as to achieve sustainable partnerships that go beyond private benefit.

Sustainability relates to mutual benefits, both short term and long term. Beneficiaries in collaborative partnerships could be students, teachers, departments, institutions and ultimately nations through externalities that collaborative partnerships give rise to.

As opposed to the rigorous criteria of a fully sustainable partnership, a quasi-sustainable partnership brings social benefits in the long term, although society may have to invest and may even incur a negative return in the short term. A non-sustainable partnership is one in which neither the institution nor the society benefits in the long term. Only individuals—students or teachers—benefit in the short term. A non-sustainable partnership thus leads to private benefits but social loss. Private benefits accrue only in the short term. A non-sustainable partnership moreover may lead to a very chaotic situation. It can give rise to oscillations with partnerships dissolving, renewed but ultimately not be sustainable in the long term.

Quasi sustainability is a situation which exists between non-sustainable and sustainable partnerships. It is a situation when social as well as private benefits may accrue but social benefits accrue only in the short term. For example, universities as well as countries may feel that teaching and learning links have produced benefits to all in the short term. However, long-term benefits may not have been achieved such as research partnerships which create knowledge. Similarly private benefits may be reaped in the short and long term but society as a whole may suffer loss in the long term.

The analytical situations of sustainable, quasi-sustainable and non-sustainable collaborative partnerships discussed above may be depicted by Figure 11.1.

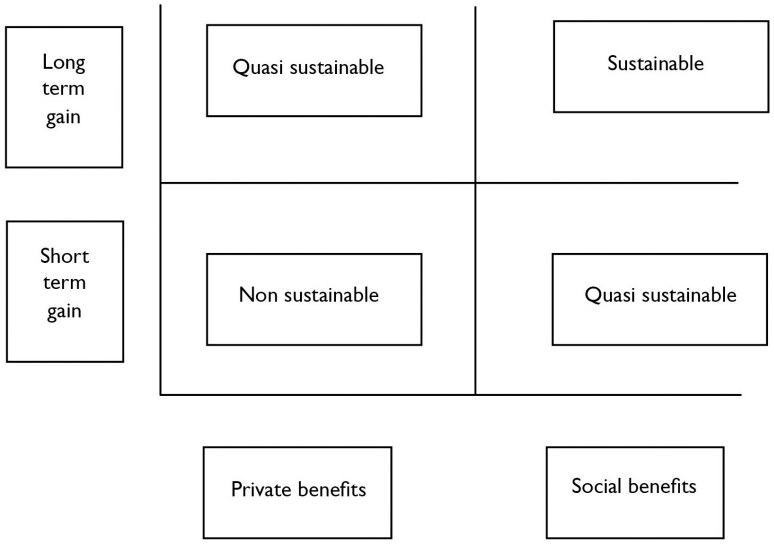

Figure 11.1: Situations of collaborative partnerships

The analytical representation given above depicts a broad framework for TNE to be sustainable on the basis of mutual benefits. While non-sustainability is not desirable, most partnerships, in actual practice, are going to be quasi-sustainable. Efforts, however, need to be made to move towards a fully sustainable basis of partnership. It is in this context that quality assurance becomes the enduring basis of accountability and that is the way forward in the march towards creating a legitimate role for TNE.

Conclusion

Indian higher education is confronted by a dilemma. Control and regulatory frameworks that makes education a non-profit activity poses a problem for ushering in TNE in India. Higher education is moving towards self-regulation, transparency and competitive forces, yet it is becoming difficult to move from the protectionist stance, as is clear from the bill on foreign education providers. If India has to take full advantage of its demography, then it is necessary that collaboration is made sustainable so that it may yield long-term societal benefit, not just private benefit guided merely by market forces. It necessarily implies that a long-term relationship is ensured only by quality assurance. Public universities and colleges affiliated to them should be encouraged to build collaborations—academic as well as research—with universities of repute in advanced areas of science and professional disciplines.

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Chapter 12

The Regulatory and Facilitative Aspects of Transnational Education in India

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The globalisation of higher education that has led to the mobility of students, teachers, researchers, programs and institutions across countries has also provided significant opportunities to learn from these cross-border country experiences. Transnational education (TNE) promotes mobility of programs and institutions across borders and creates a new environment of learning in the host countries. The operation of two parallel systems—national as well as transnational—adds to the diversity of experiences in higher education. However, it needs to be pointed out that TNE, almost everywhere, when grafted into a new country, and a new socio-cultural setup, is not free from risks. It is this proneness to risk that necessitates appropriate regulation. Whether the regulation will facilitate the operation of TNE or not will really depend on the objectives of the country that accepts TNE operations. In India there have been, to date, no branch campuses of foreign universities and there has been little collaboration in the delivery of programs with public and private universities. Hence the experience of incoming TNE operations in Indian higher education is not significant.

So far as the Indian experience of exporting education is concerned, the practice has been limited to a few privately-managed universities such as Birla Institute of Technology and Science, Pilani and Manipal University and some private institutions offering vocational training such as the national institutes of technology. Some public funded and managed universities and institutions such as Pune University and the Indian institutes of management have expressed an interest in engaging in TNE; however the Government of India does not favour such a move. The only experience so far is that of Indira Gandhi National Open University which has crossed borders in the delivery of programs. But its experience relates to distance education mode of delivery and has been limited largely to the Indian diaspora. Public universities are

not mandated by the government to open branch campuses. One of the differences between the Indian TNE experience and Australia is it is less open and transparent.

The first part of this chapter deals with forms of domestic regulation and their implication for TNE in India. The second part deals with issues facilitating TNE in India. This chapter demonstrates that the very approach of quality control that exists in India for domestic provision is one of support. Hence it is linked with funding. However, recently there has been a shift in the quality assurance approach in many countries to facilitate transparency. The result is increased public awareness of quality assurance activities and their outcomes. With this approach, institutions are left to manage quality with or without public support. Obviously in the case of TNE it is the latter mechanism that is likely to be adopted; that is quality control with the aim to measure quality, ensure accountability and achieve market viability.

Forms of Domestic Regulation

Constitutional provision and educational structure

Under the 42nd amendment of the Indian constitution in 1976, education was placed into the concurrent list together with transportation and criminal law. Under article 246 in the VII schedule, Entry 25 of List III vests the state government with the power to legislate 'education, including technical education, medical education and universities, subject to the provisions of entries 63, 64, 65 and 66 of List I; vocational and technical training of labour.' Entry 66 of List I in the VII schedule of the Constitution of India vests the central government with the power to legislate for 'Co-ordination and determination of standards, in institutions, for higher education or research and scientific and technical institutions'. The constitutional provision clearly lays down that Entry 25, List III by which the state government has the power to establish universities is subject to the power of parliament to legislate under Entry 66 to maintain the required standards of higher education. This point was made clearer by the Supreme Court of India in the landmark case of *Osmania University Teachers' Association v. State of Andhra Pradesh and Another* 1987 (Powar & Raju 2004). The outcome was the verification of the constitutional obligation of the central government to regulate standards of higher education. The *University Grants Commission Act, 1956* (UGC Act) clause (f) and (g) of Section 26 gives the Commission powers to define minimum standards and regulate the maintenance of minimum standards in universities.

The practice of establishing 'deemed to be university' under private/joint sector began in 1986. These are established under Section 3 of the UGC Act. The central government may declare the status of deemed to be university to an institution, by recommendation of the UGC, and make a public notification to that affect in the 'Official Gazette'.

Apart from universities and deemed to be universities, there are also some institutions which offer professional undergraduate, postgraduate and research programs established as centres of excellence, some by an Act of Parliament such as the Indian institutes of

technology and others at the instance of the central government such as the National Law Institute, the National Institute of Design, the Indian institutes of management, and the National Institute of Fashion Technology.

Private universities in India can be established by central or state legislature. However, to date private universities have been established only by state legislatures.

The affiliating university system is an important part of the structure of the university system in India. Under the affiliating system colleges are established under affiliation with universities. The degree awarding power is vested only with the university. Colleges run programs under the control and supervision of the university to which they are affiliated.

The education report of the Ministry of Human Resource Development, June 2010, states that there are 504 universities and university-level institutions, 243 state universities, 53 state private universities, 40 central universities, 130 deemed universities, 33 institutions of national importance established under Acts of Parliament and five institutions established under various state legislatures. There are 25,951 colleges including around 2,565 colleges for women. At the beginning of the academic year 2009–10, the total number of students enrolled in universities and colleges was reported as 13.63 million – 1.66 million (12.24%) in universities and 11.97 million (87.76%) in affiliated colleges. The enrolment of female students was 6.54 million constituting 41.40% of the total enrolment. The number of doctoral degrees awarded in 2007–08 was 13,237. Faculty numbers was 90,000 in universities and 498,000 in colleges. There are 66 academic staff colleges engaged in faculty training. With respect to technical education intake, there are 1,409,742 students in 7,272 institutions enrolled at degree level and 508,157 in 2,324 institutions enrolled at diploma level.

Enrolment in open and distance learning is about three million. The National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), as at 28 March 2010, assessed 4,094 colleges and 159 universities in an effort to improve standards of higher education.

All higher education institutions developed under the regulatory structure are mandated by the Constitution of India. Constitutional provisions have implications for the entry of foreign universities in India. There are three ways in which foreign universities can impart education leading to academic degrees. The UGC Act may provide the status of university or deemed university to any foreign education provider. Alternatively a separate act may allow a foreign university to offer educational programs and confer degrees. It is through the last route that the proposed bill, The Foreign Educational Institutions (Regulation of Entry and Operations) Bill, 2010 will permit foreign education providers to impart education in India and confer degrees. If the proposed bill is passed, the first task to facilitate a foreign education provider to impart education in India will have been accomplished.

Apex institutions for maintenance of standards in higher education

After the lawful establishment of institutions, various apex institutions have been entrusted, either by an Act of Parliament or by an Act of a Legislative Assembly or by

central or state governments, with the responsibility to regulate standards of education. For example, UGC was established by the UGC Act, 1956 to coordinate and maintain standards of university education. NAAC was established in 1994 under 12cc of the UGC Act to assess standards of quality. It assesses and accredits universities and their constituent and affiliated colleges. Similarly, the *All India Council for Technical Education Act, 1987* (AICTE Act) established the AICTE for planned and coordinated development of the technical education system in the country. Under Section 10 (U) of the AICTE Act, the National Board of Accreditation has been set up to assess and accredit technical institutions in the country and to make recommendations to the authorities concerned for recognition and derecognition of qualifications. Furthermore, the National Council of Teacher Education, Medical Council of India, Dental Council of India, Indian Nursing Council, Council of Architecture, Bar Council of India, Pharmacy Council of India, Indian Council for Agriculture Research, Rehabilitation Council of India, Central Council of Homeopathy and Central Council of Indian Medicine, Distance Education Council, etc., are among the apex statutory bodies which regulate standards of education in various professional fields.

Thus there exists domestic regulation for regulating standards. Foreign universities, therefore, will be subjected to the regulations framed by the respective councils to maintain standards.

Supreme Court judgments on commercialisation

It is worth recalling various Supreme Court judgments with regard to the commercialisation of education. The judgment of the Supreme Court in *Miss Mohini Jain v. State of Karnataka and Others* (1992) is historic. It declared that educational institutions cannot charge capitation fee as a consideration for admission. It also noted that the concept of 'teaching shops' are contrary to the constitutional scheme and is wholly abhorrent to Indian culture and heritage. Thus commercialisation was banned by the judgment which also resulted in a serious blow to the privatisation of education.

In *JP Unni Krishnan and Others v. State of Andhra Pradesh and Others* (1993) the Supreme Court ruled that commercialisation of education was not permissible. However, it permitted a differential fee structure for 'free seats' (student places that are to be filled based on merit and criteria set by the government with a nominal fee set by the government) and 'payment seats' (a cost recovery high fee structure for student places that can be filled by the institution provided candidates have the entry requirements). The scope for charging higher fees by governments for professional courses was created under the 'payment seats' structure. It further laid down that a professional college could be established and administered only by a society registered under the *Societies Registration Act,* 1860, or a corresponding Act of the state, or by a public trust; and no individual, firm, company or other body of individuals would be permitted to establish and administer a professional college.

In the *TMA Pai Foundation and Others v. State of Karnataka and Others* (2002) case, while opposing the profit motive of private non-aided institutions the court allowed

autonomy to private educational institutions to determine fees. However, the concept of 'reasonable revenue surplus' to be generated by educational institutions was not defined and as such, in practice, it was difficult to check commercialisation of private unaided professional institutions.

Regulatory discipline of commercialisation has serious implications for TNE. As per the court judgment any educational activity which is for profit cannot be undertaken in India. As a result TNE cannot operate in India to earn a profit.

Forms of Domestic Regulation

Learning from cross country experiences with respect to standards of higher education is useful but at the same time it can be difficult to adapt them to specific situations that prevail in each country. Policies and methods used for the maintenance of quality and academic standards in each country evolved over a period of time and have a historical context. Therefore, they cannot be copied and adapted as they are. There are also cross country variations in educational systems. In fact there are variations among institutions within a country. For example, Oxford in the UK is different from London University in terms of academic governance structures. Therefore, successful models and good practices of quality and maintenance of standards become situation specific.

Successful cross country experiences have to be reviewed, altered and modified to suit a country's situation. They have to be made situation specific. It is quite possible that goals of higher education may be similar, yet priorities in a specific country may vary making it difficult to adapt practices concerning quality. For example, Indian higher education needs to provide equitable opportunities to a large mass of the public. The XI Five-Year Plan (2007–12) has set the target to increase enrolment from 14 million to 21 million and government is considering setting a target to increase the gross enrolment ratio to 30% by 2020 resulting in doubling the enrolment to 42 million. Except for a few institutions India cannot afford to make a transition to excellence without catering to the needs of masses for quality education.

In this context, the issue at hand is twofold – first, to identify a successful model based on good practices of quality assessment and potential for quality sustenance in cross-border experiences, and second, and more importantly, to modify the model to suit the country's specific situation. More specifically such a model should be compatible with mass education as well as promoting research. While the first issue is relatively easier (several successful stories around the world encourage the strategy) the second issue, that of adapting to the situation as it prevails in each country, is more difficult. This is because what is successful in one country, howsoever good, may not be replicated and implemented in another country. Variations in the educational system of the host country, the nature and type of education, and human resource, but above all, its cultural and social resources may pose challenges.

The assurance of quality of TNE has to face this twofold challenge. Only TNE which is capable of meeting the challenge should be supported. It needs to promote mass

education with effective pedagogy and research capability to promote excellence. Regulation relating to the maintenance of standards should evaluate TNE with these clear objectives. Institutions with poor research outcomes may not be able to meet the challenge.

Recognition of Qualifications

Recognition of qualifications is a much vexed issue and TNE has to face it squarely. Ultimately, after earning a foreign degree the learner needs to be employable in the host country or elsewhere. Or, they should be found academically sound to pursue higher studies anywhere in the world. If a degree granted by TNE in a host country is different from the one in the home country and if it is treated differently across different countries, it is necessary to develop a broader framework for the recognition of qualifications. Unless that happens, TNE may not gain acceptability at a global level.

The recognition of qualifications is facilitated by social and government recognition. Social recognition facilitates employment but the mechanism to assess it is linked to performance. Social recognition, moreover, depends on the user who decides whether or not an overseas qualification is worth considering for employment.

Government recognition is necessary for three important reasons:

1. **Registration** for employment or higher studies requires eligibility for admission, course content of previous education, duration of programs completed, and examinations passed. Recognition in the home countries need to be considered. For professional qualification, the respective councils recommend on the basis of merit and the government issues certificates of equivalence in India, for mutual recognition of degrees obtained in the two countries. The Association of Indian Universities is entrusted with the task and its certification is valued in many parts of the globe.
2. **Employment** with government: the central or state governments may decide the equivalence of a foreign degree. In the case of Pondicherry, for example, it is the state government which decides which qualification from France is equivalent to an Indian degree for the purpose of employment of French people by the Pondicherry government.
3. **Academic mobility:** the Association of Indian Universities decides on the regulations governing equivalence of overseas higher education awards but domestic regulations streamlines the process.

When degrees earned overseas are substandard, the need arises to standardise them by means of ascertaining their equivalence to corresponding Indian awards. This has to be done by devising appropriate, objective criteria.

The issues highlighted above, associated with overseas institutions operating in India, require a review of legislation. It should be noted that there can be no dual regulation to determine the award of degrees—one for Indian higher education institutions and

another for the institution seeking entry. Uniformity in regulating conferment of degrees is essential. The amendment of the UGC Act may need to be considered for this to be achieved.

Facilitating Transnational Education in Higher Education

One objective of domestic regulations in the education sector of any nation is to enlarge the frontiers of knowledge, in a systematic manner, for the service of humanity. To achieve this a framework of opportunities, possibilities and limitations needs developing, prescribed in the larger interest of the public in a transparent manner, defining the obligations of every player (i.e. regulator, provider and receiver) in the system; so that the time and money invested for sharing and the acquisition of knowledge is meaningful.

The changing context of internationalisation of higher education imposes an additional obligation upon governments to develop regulations for different modes of supply. The changing context also demands that regulation of Indian and foreign education providers in the country be facilitating to meet the objectives of higher participation, equity and quality. The Government of India has taken steps to promote education abroad and also introduced legislation to allow the entry of TNE in India. One of the most facilitating aspects of regulation is the policy of 100% foreign direct investment in education.

Promotion of Indian higher education abroad

Indian initiatives in this context include signing or ratifying the UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) convention of September 2000 for recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees in higher education in Asia and the Pacific regions.

The central government constituted the Committee on Promotion of Indian Education Abroad in April 2002, under the chairmanship of the Secretary, Department of Secondary and Higher Education. The major aim was that the Committee would monitor all activities aimed at promoting Indian education abroad and will regulate the operation of foreign educational institutions onshore to safeguard the interests of students in larger national interest.

Under the Promotion of Indian Education Abroad scheme, during the X Five-Year Plan (2002–07), the UGC identified several countries to attract international students to India on the basis of several criteria such as country profiles (demographic and economic), present state of their higher education and training systems, skill gaps, programs in demand. The UGC also participated in the 58th Annual Conference of the Association of International Educators, at Montreal, Canada in May 2006. The Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) authorised Educational Consultants (India) Limited, a public sector undertaking of the government to act as a single window agency for recruiting international students. The government has created an exclusive scheme called Direct Admission of Students Abroad and 15% of seats have been reserved for foreign nationals/people of Indian origin/non-resident Indians in premier technical institutions

such as the national institutes of technology (formerly called regional engineering colleges) and centrally-funded institutions. Besides this, Educational Consultants (India) Limited has taken up schemes to promote Indian education abroad by representing Indian higher education institutions at overseas educational fairs.

So far as institutional mobility under TNE is concerned, there are varying conditions for the university system in India to open up campuses or centres abroad:

- Public Universities and institutions may set up campuses abroad, if so permitted under the relevant state Act or Memorandum of Association, under which a university or institution is established
- private universities can open offshore campuses in foreign countries (Establishment of and Maintenance of Standards in Private Universities) Regulations, 2003)
- deemed to be universities can open academic centre(s) in a foreign country after obtaining permission from the Government of India and the host country (UGC Act).

The MHRD introduced the Foreign Educational Institutions (Regulation of Entry and Operations) Bill, 2010 in Parliament on the 3 May 2010. The Bill has been referred to the Parliamentary Committee on the Human Resource Development Ministry for opinion but examination could not be taken up by Parliament in the winter session December 2010.

The Foreign Educational Institutions (Regulation of Entry and Operations) Bill, 2010

The Foreign Educational Institutions (Regulation of Entry and Operations) Bill, 2010 is intended to regulate entry and operation of foreign educational institutions seeking to impart higher education in India. Higher education includes technical and medical education and the award of degrees and diplomas. Every foreign educational institution intending to operate in India has to be notified as a foreign educational provider by the central government on the recommendation of the Registrar (Secretary of the University Grants Commission) according to stipulated procedures. The application has to be endorsed by the High Commission of that country in India. An existing institution has to apply within six months of the Act coming into force.

A 'foreign educational institution' is defined as any institution established outside India, which has been offering educational services for a minimum of 20 years and proposes to offer courses which shall be taught through conventional teaching method (including classroom teaching). It excludes learning in distant mode in India. The program of study offered by the foreign educational provider has to conform to standards laid down by a statutory authority (such as UGC, AICTE etc.) and ensure quality in terms of curriculum, methods of teaching and faculty as comparable to those prevalent at the provider's main campus. Every foreign educational institution has to publish a prospectus 60 days before admission and include information about fees, deposits and other charges, percentage of fees refundable to students, approved number of seats, conditions of eligibility, and details of the teaching faculty.

The Bill provides for the withdrawal of recognition in case a foreign educational provider violates any provision of the regulations. Foreign educational institutions have to maintain a corpus fund of a minimum of INR50 crores (INR500 million or AUD11 million). A maximum of 75% of any income generated from the fund shall be utilised for developing its institution in India and the rest should be invested in the fund. Revenue generated cannot be invested for any purpose other than development of educational institutions established in India. The central government may exempt any institution from complying with requirements of the Bill except in the case of penalty and revenue provisions.

Any person who offers admission to an unrecognised institution or makes misleading advertisements is liable to a minimum fine of Rs 10 lakh (up to Rs 50 lakh) as well as refunding the fees collected. Any recognised foreign educational provider who violates the law shall be liable to a fine between Rs 10 and 50 lakh and forfeiture of the corpus fund (Sanyal 2010).

Foreign direct investment regulation

The regulation relating to foreign direct investment (FDI) in India is facilitative. The policy of FDI is in five subsectors of the education services under GATS (General Agreement on Trade in Services, a treaty under the World Trade Organization)—primary, secondary, higher, adult and others—is through an automatic route. This means that any foreign enterprise can invest in the education sector either on its own or with Indian partners without permission of the Foreign Investment Promotion Board. They can transact money through the Reserve Bank of India. At present foreign investment in the education sector is small which is why it is included in the 'other' category of the service sector. At the same time there is no enabling domestic policy in education for allowing foreign education providers in any of the five subsectors.

In the absence of any policy in the service sector, foreign capital may flow in or out through offshore campuses or foreign institutions that partner with private providers in India. There is also no limit to foreign capital investment in education services. Furthermore under the UGC Act, degree granting authority is vested with universities established under a central or state Act. Therefore, foreign degree providers cannot *ipso facto* operate despite liberal FDI. Hence in the absence of enabling domestic regulation, FDI in higher education becomes ineffectual. In the primary and secondary education sector there is no such regulatory requirement. However, FDI is not forthcoming as other enabling provisions for entry are not supportive. At present entry of foreign education providers in higher education in India is unregulated. Inflow and outflow of foreign capital in the education sector, as a whole, causes concern. It is now felt that FDI in education must be guided by certain norms and controls as it is a sensitive sector and its implications should be examined before any FDI policy is implemented (Bhushan 2009).

Conclusion

Indian higher education is regulated by both the central and state governments. Degree awarding authority is conferred upon universities by public legislation. A special Act of Parliament will empower foreign institutions to confer degrees under the proposed Bill on foreign universities. Foreign universities in India will be regulated in the same way that local universities or other higher education institutions are regulated in India. In addition, foreign institutions will be subject to regulations under the provisions of the Act. There is a liberal FDI policy. However, the outflow of capital as repatriation of surplus is prohibited. Educational institutions in India are not allowed to earn a profit. Under constitutional provision, the maintenance of standards of higher education is the responsibility of the central government. Foreign educational institutions will be subject to regulatory discipline for maintenance of standards in higher education in India.

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Chapter 13

Quality Assurance of Transnational Higher Education in India

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Higher education is expanding at a rapid pace. This expansion has resulted in the emergence of varied forms of higher education institutions. Competition among providers of higher education is giving students greater choice. However it has become necessary to provide public information about the quality of those providers in order to safeguard students from receiving a poor quality education. The onus of safeguarding the interests of the students has shifted to quality assurance agencies in many countries. The emergence of transnational education (TNE) as one of the choices poses a major challenge to the quality assurance mechanisms as it necessitates a deeper understanding of diverse providers of higher education as well as the expectations of the various stakeholders.

This chapter explores the quality assurance initiatives of the national quality assurance body of India namely the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) and the role it could play in the quality assurance of TNE. It also presents the policy development in India and concerns that TNE gives rise to.

External Quality Assurance Initiatives

External quality assurance in Indian higher education is a recent phenomenon. It has been pointed out in the previous chapters that it is the responsibility of the University Grants Commission (UGC) to maintain standards in higher education. To meet this objective UGC provides funding support and issues necessary guidelines to universities and colleges. However, UGC did not have a specific mechanism in place to assure

objectively the quality of programs and institutions. External quality assurance was considered to be the desirable option to create awareness as well as transparency in the higher education system to maintain quality. Consequently, NAAC was established as an autonomous body to initiate the process of external quality assurance. NAAC has accredited 159 universities and 4,171 colleges as at September 2010.

NAAC has promulgated the concept of strengthening internal quality assurance in the country. Based on NAAC's initiative, more than 60% of the accredited institutions have repositioned themselves on the quality map by establishing internal quality assurance cells in their institutions. Institutions now regularly monitor quality issues such as curricular aspects, teaching and learning, evaluation, research, consultancy, extension, infrastructure and learning resources, student support and progression, governance, leadership and provide annual quality assurance reports to NAAC (NAAC 2005).

NAAC's quality assurance initiatives have helped higher education institutions to improve academic and administrative facilities offered to students. By involving respective managements, state governments and other stakeholders, all round awareness about quality assurance has been generated by NAAC. The accreditation status accorded by NAAC has helped funding and regulatory agencies to make some of their decisions based on quality assessment outcomes. Reports on the analyses of state-wise accreditation are evidence of the impact NAAC has made on the Indian higher education system, and these reports are publicly available on the NAAC website.

The impact NAAC has made on the national higher education sector indicates that NAAC is well positioned to extend its attention to education that crosses borders when policies and expectations are made clear.

Existing Policy and Concerns of Transnational Education

A recent study conducted by the British Council of India (Dhar 2008) has identified 641 programs under various collaborations in which 143 Indian institutions and 161 foreign providers are engaged. The study further highlights that 66 Indian partner institutions do not have any kind of external quality assurance arrangement. Studies also show that a few foreign institutions that offer programs in India (twinning or online delivery mode) have included some substandard courses that are not accredited in their own countries.

Until now UGC, the main body responsible for the maintenance of standards in the Indian higher education system has not introduced regulations on monitoring these providers. However, the All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) has introduced a set of guidelines for foreign providers offering engineering, technical and management programs. The outcome of AICTE's initiative is not very encouraging. In other words, foreign educational activity in India has, in large part, developed in an unregulated operating environment, simply guided by market pressures.

Efforts are afoot by the Ministry of Human Resource Development to formulate a regulatory framework for foreign education providers in the higher education sector.

Foreign Educational Institutions (Regulation of Entry and Operations, Maintenance of Quality and Prevention of Commercialisation) Bill, 2010 is under the consideration of the Parliamentary Committee on Human Resource Development for suggestion before its enactment. Once the enactment takes place many concerns need to be addressed.

There may be 'fly by night operators' attracted by the market demand and there is the danger that when market conditions are not favourable the fly by night operators may shut down operations placing at risk the career of students. There are concerns that foreign providers may offer only courses which are market driven that attract high fees while the publicly funded institutions might find the competition difficult due to insufficient funding from the state. There is a further danger that the rich students may be accommodated by TNE providers and that these operations will tend to be located in the urban centres. They might attract faculty from public institutions through higher salaries draining the talent from government funded institutions. There may also be a rise in fraudulent providers and 'degree mills'. While some of these concerns will have to be addressed through regulations, policy guidelines and directives from government, there are quality specific concerns that will need to be addressed by quality assurance systems.

Issues Involved in Quality Assurance of Foreign Education Providers

There exists a general quality assurance framework of NAAC (2007). It needs contextualisation or adaptation with new forms of educational delivery and new providers of education. NAAC has so far not been given the mandate to take up the quality assurance of existing foreign education providers in India. Hence there are certain issues that need to be highlighted.

First of all, there is the issue of the scope or jurisdiction of NAAC assessment. As assessment and accreditation is a voluntary process, NAAC has not been fully engaged in the quality assurance of technical education, as responsibility is with the National Board of Accreditation and under AICTE. The role of NAAC in considering the quality of TNE in technical education therefore needs discussion. If the quality assurance of all programs and institutions under TNE is the responsibility of NAAC then it will also have to develop the capacity to undertake quality assurance of technical education. NAAC will have to develop the expertise or outsource the expertise in professional areas of studies. NAAC informally collaborates with the National Board of Accreditation and the AICTE. But there is now a total restructuring of higher education occurring in the country. Hence there will be changes for the provision of TNE also. A similar situation needs attention with other professional areas studies where professional and statutory bodies have a significant role in monitoring quality.

Another important issue is to understand the various forms of program mobility. An Indian partner institute may be engaged in the delivery of full programs by the foreign education provider or it may only be engaged in partial delivery through a twinning arrangement. Twinning programs are those wherein students can complete part of their study in India and part in the partner university abroad. It needs to be settled whether

the scope of quality assurance for NAAC will be restricted to the part of the study in India or to the whole. Can a particular program be assessed only partially? If not, then it will involve working with the quality assurance body of the TNE provider's home country. From a practical standpoint, though not justified in principle, in the absence of robust collaborative arrangements with the quality assurance agencies of other countries, NAAC might have to restrict its operation to part delivery of a program in India. The feasibility of entering into numerous collaborative arrangements with the quality assurance agencies of the TNE providers' home countries is also a major issue for NAAC.

Issues in Quality Assurance of Branch Campuses

TNE delivery through branch campuses is an important mode for education service. Under this arrangement foreign universities may open their branch either as a sole subsidiary or in partnership with the Indian institution when the Bill is enacted. In such cases there are many new issues that will need to be addressed and one is about the standards of the TNE program. It will be necessary for the TNE provider to maintain similar standards in the home and host country. The quality assurance framework will need to be strengthened to ascertain that the program in the host country is the same as that followed in the main campus and a similar standard.

Another issue related to the overall educational experience provided to students is the level of involvement by the faculty from the home campus. Dependent on that, the extent of induction and training to the offshore campus faculty may need to be reinforced. More importantly, the library, e-learning and laboratory facilities will need to be examined in greater detail to ensure that parity in quality is maintained. All this is necessary because the brand and reputation of the overseas universities may not be sufficient. However well-established they are, universities may find it difficult to achieve parity in the quality of their offshore campuses.

There may also be sensitive issues around curriculum, in particular, the suitability of curricula to the needs of the local environment. For an important issue of curricula the paper by Khadria (Chapter 15), included in this book, notes that curricula and pedagogy must serve the needs and requirements of capacity building in developing countries rather than concentrating on future global knowledge in the developed source country. If it is not ensured it is quite likely that India's capacity to produce the professionals it needs may be in deficit in the long term.

Building all of the above into the existing quality assurance framework to cover TNE requires a great deal of understanding of and collaboration with quality assurance initiatives of other countries. NAAC has been progressive in ensuring relevant international collaborations in quality assurance.

International Collaborations

At present NAAC has international collaborations with a number of national, international and inter-governmental bodies including the Commonwealth of Learning; Higher Education Quality Committee of the Council on Higher Education, South Africa; Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA); Quality Assurance Agency, UK; University Grants Commission, Nepal; Higher Education Evaluation and Accreditation Council of Taiwan; British Council and Higher Education Funding Council of England, UK; UNESCO; International Network of Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education; and the Asia Pacific Quality Network. These international collaborations have the potential to pave the way towards the mutual recognition of quality assurance agencies of different countries, which in turn could facilitate the recognition of qualifications, equivalence of courses, credit transfer, and student mobility.

NAAC has put in place the necessary support system for such understandings, for example the memorandum of cooperation between NAAC and AUQA covers several important areas. AUQA aims at ensuring that the role of NAAC in quality assurance among higher education institutions in India is fully understood within Australia; and NAAC will aim to enhance awareness in India of the existence of the Australian higher education quality assurance system, its role in ensuring the quality of transnational activities, and the specific role and capabilities of the quality audit system. AUQA will aim to do this through its auditor training programs, annual auditor meetings, publications, and consultations with the Australian higher education institutions. NAAC will use the relevant fora and publications to inform the Indian higher education sector of the quality assurance framework of the Australian higher education sector. The agencies will exchange non-confidential policy documents and relevant operational information to enable staff of the two agencies to support and learn from each other. This will include the exchange of quality assurance reports, publications on quality assurance issues, manuals and handbooks on quality assurance, and newsletters. This cooperation has the potential to extend to the TNE activities of the Australian and Indian higher education institutions within the policy context that is still evolving.

Steps Towards a Robust Quality Assurance of Transnational Education

NAAC has accredited some of the Indian higher education institutions which have collaborations with foreign educational institutions. Case studies presented in this book show that Birla Institute of Technology and Science, Pilani and Manipal University, assessed and accredited by NAAC, have been monitoring the internal academic and administrative quality of their TNE operations.

In 2002–03, the Executive Committee of NAAC constituted a Committee for Implementation of Framework for International Accreditation and the Committee developed draft guidelines. The Ministry of Human Resource Development stated that 'in order to ensure that only quality institutions operate in India, there is a need to bring all these foreign educational institutions within the assessment/accreditation process

of NAAC' (unpublished document NAAC & Association of Indian Universities 2005). The UGC also in one of its commission meetings, has resolved that accreditation by NAAC should be made mandatory for foreign institutions offering courses in India.

Currently NAAC is in the process of preparing an exclusive instrument for program accreditation. When the process of accreditation becomes mandatory, NAAC will be overseeing the quality assurance of program collaborations along with institutional accreditation. The experience of quality assuring program collaborations will be useful in developing a quality assurance framework for TNE since most of the TNE operations are in programmatic areas.

In any collaborative partnership, it is necessary to avoid chaotic, conflicting and competitive elements. Collaborative partnerships could be successful if there are shared principles of quality assurance; focus on 'excellence' and effective governance; transparent and robust regulatory frameworks; good communication and information dissemination; curricula relevant to Indian needs; and funding mechanisms to accommodate all suitably qualified students. Assessing these elements will have a central role in NAAC's quality assurance framework.

NAAC's involvement in the discussions on TNE with international partners and its participation in a project on 'Mutual Recognition of Quality Assurance Outcomes' by the Asia Pacific Quality Network have thrown light on a number of initiatives that have the potential to contribute to a robust framework for the quality assurance of TNE in India. To develop a robust model of quality assurance of TNE it is necessary that quality assurance agencies develop networking, share experiences of successes and failures. The regulation of a country should also define with clarity the objectives of quality assurance.

Conclusion

It is being argued in this chapter that NAAC has succeeded in raising the awareness about quality through external assessment. In the case of TNE, however, NAAC has only been indirectly involved. Policy direction in the area of TNE is still evolving, and the introduction of the foreign education providers' bill is likely to fill the gap in policy. There are quality specific concerns relating to faculty, degree mills, curricula, and parity in quality of the branch campus programs that need to be addressed by quality assurance mechanism. It is further argued in this paper that with its vast experience NAAC is well positioned to take care of the quality assurance of program collaborations along with institutional accreditation.

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Chapter 14

Quality Assurance Mechanisms for Technological Disciplines in the Context of Transnational Education in India

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The primary purpose of the accreditation system for the education sector is to provide beneficiaries assurances about the quality of education. A definition of quality includes the concept of education being continuously improved. What constitutes high quality education is a matter not just for educationists but is of equal concern to various other stakeholders. A secondary purpose of the accreditation system is to position and facilitate recognition of accredited institutions by relevant stakeholders including employers and governments. It helps to attract better students and faculty, and to increase the capacity of these institutions to secure projects and other financial support.

The need for accreditation systems in India assumes high priority in the context of the proposed large scale expansion of programs, colleges and universities, including foreign institutions. However, the criteria and processes to be adopted for this expansion will not be the same. For example, programs offered through the distance mode present unique challenges to accreditation.

There has been widespread penetration of transnational education (TNE) in India in a variety of forms. Reliable data on the number, variety, quality and credibility of these programs are scarce. In the light of the need for encouraging reputed TNE programs to be made available to learners in India, several proposals are being considered in order to make them transparent and accountable. Since the demand for higher education in areas related to technological disciplines is relatively much higher than in other disciplines such as sciences and social sciences, issues concerning approaches to quality assurance in these areas deserve special attention, especially because TNE tends to largely address this type of demand. These are also the areas where private educational institutions are predominant. This chapter discusses current practices in quality assurance in these areas, their shortcomings and some initiatives being considered.

Imperatives of Quality Assurance for Indian Higher Education

Accreditation is the principal means of quality assurance in higher education the world over and reflects the fact that in achieving accreditation, an institution or a program of study is committed to external review, to meet certain minimum specified standards determined by chosen criteria, and also to continuously seek ways to enhance the quality of education. Criteria describe, in some detail, requirements and conditions to be met in order to achieve a standard, and therefore provide a quantitative as well as qualitative basis on which evaluation is made.

Although there are innumerable variations in the concept and process of accreditation of higher educational institutions, the inherent purpose is to assess, encourage, confirm and ensure adherence to anticipated quality norms in the education sector. Given the enormous range of programs and institutions in ever-growing categories of disciplines, such variations are inevitable. Rapid transformations in the structure, content and orientation of academic disciplines make it necessary to continuously reorient accreditation norms and procedures. Fast growing TNE schemes add new compulsions for vigilant attention to the accreditation process.

Indian higher education is a large system with more than five hundred university level institutions and twenty five thousand colleges. With respect to technical education, 28% of the higher education institutions are in technical education and they accommodate 30% of the total student enrolment in higher education. Growth in professional institutions has also been manifold.

With serious initiatives under way for a quantum increase of higher educational institutions including technical education institutions, both public and private, a mandatory accreditation system that can provide a common frame of reference for students and other stakeholders to obtain credible information on academic quality across institutions is required. Recognising this, the XI Five-Year Plan (2007–12) approved by the National Development Council provides a three point agenda in regard to accreditation; the introduction of a mandatory accreditation system for all higher educational institutions; creation of multiple rating agencies and a body to rate those rating agencies; and program-wise ratings in addition to institutional rating.

Accreditation Agencies in Indian Higher Education

Consequent on the adoption of the *National Policy of Education* (MHRD 1986) by the Parliament of India, the Program of Action that followed underscored the need for setting up a council for ensuring and enhancing quality. Accordingly the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) was established in 1994 at Bangalore with a reasonable degree of autonomy along with some controls by the UGC, which was fully funding its operation. The mandate of NAAC was to cater to the 'institutional' as well as 'program' accreditation though of late it has concentrated on the former. (See Chapter 13 for more details on NAAC.) Around the same time separate efforts were undertaken to create another body called the National Board of Accreditation (NBA)

for accrediting technical education programs. The NBA is located in Delhi and was set up under the All India Council for Technical Education with much less autonomy and identity than NAAC. The unprecedented growth of technical education in subsequent years has created enormous pressures on NBA.

Prevailing Uncertainties

Since the concept of external assessment is relatively new in the Indian context, and because of the plurality of institutions, it has been an uphill task to change the mindset of the people about the desirability of external peer review for accreditation. Despite significant change of attitudes in favour of accreditation, there are still several sections of the higher education sector that are not interested in accreditation. Many premier universities are not sufficiently convinced about the value of NAAC or NBA accreditation and their criteria. It would be necessary to seek their cooperation and develop improved criteria applicable to different sets of institutions. There is universal agreement about the need for constant review and refinement in the accreditation criteria and methodology to reflect emerging changes. The global necessity for accreditation and mandatory requirements will help to generate greater levels of acceptance of the accreditation system.

In any case, accreditation was undertaken on voluntary request by institutions with one significant difference. Publicly funded colleges and universities are now provided financial support to meet accreditation expenses by the NAAC. The NBA on the other hand charges substantial accreditation fees. The assessment criteria and grading pattern are also vastly different and have gone through considerable modifications during the last two decades.

The primary intention of assessment and accreditation is to improve quality. No doubt, a large number of institutions availed themselves of the opportunity for accreditation with this intention. Unfortunately the vast majority of institutions looked upon accreditation as a status symbol. These institutions used their accreditation rating as a marketing ploy for commercial advantage in enticing students and charging higher unauthorised fees. As a corollary, many technical education institutions occupying a dominant place in higher education in India became sources of serious allegations of unethical practices in order to gain better accreditation ratings, either on account of the demands of unscrupulous officials of accrediting agencies or by ready inducements offered by institutions. The NBA system lost all credibility and some efforts are now underway to clean up the system. By comparison the NAAC was relatively freer from such allegations, although a few institutions have found the assessment subjective and impressionistic, and therefore, unjust. Neither is foolproof; leeway exists for unscrupulous accreditors to manipulate the system. Objectivity is difficult to obtain in human judgment in general and academics too have their own prejudices. However, sound practices in academic audit would overcome some of these shortcomings.

The higher education system is growing at an exponential rate. Neither the NAAC nor the NBA has the capacity to fulfil the needs of accreditation and reaccreditation in a

reasonable time frame, especially considering the penetration of foreign institutions in the higher education space. There is a high degree of national consensus that the existing two systems of accreditation are not able to cope with existing and growing demand. The National Knowledge Commission and the Yash Pal Committee on Renovation and Rejuvenation of Higher Education in India have accorded high priority to issues concerning accreditation in the education sector. Given the vastness and diversity of higher education in India, it would be necessary to evolve a mechanism by opening regional centres of the two agencies, NAAC and NBA, to undertake accreditation of all higher educational institutions and programs of study, especially if accreditation is made mandatory. Consequently, an institutional structure to ensure mandatory accreditation is needed to provide a legal basis for it to have the force of law. The efforts relating to quality assurance of institutions or programs engaged in TNE need to also take into consideration prevailing uncertainties in order to ensure their credibility.

Manifestations of Transnational Education in India

During the past two decades there has been rapid and widespread penetration of TNE in a variety of forms and modes in India. Some of the highly prestigious foreign institutions are not interested in offering degree and diploma programs in India but are engaged in joint programs of research and training in areas of mutual interest for generation and diffusion of knowledge. Some of the reputed foreign institutions seek to establish their regional presence in India catering to growing demands for quality education not only for students in India but also from neighbouring countries A vast majority of foreign institutions are interested in establishing their programs either on their own or in partnership with Indian institutions primarily for commercial purposes.

Some are engaged in establishing, so called, branch campuses. It is known that with a few notable exceptions, they are not really campuses. 'They are, rather, small, specialised and offer limited academic programs offered offshore to take advantage of a perceived market. Not surprisingly, the most popular programs offered are in business management and information technology, with fairly low setup costs and significant worldwide demand. Except where generous hosts—such as in the Arabian Gulf, Singapore and a few other places—provide facilities and infrastructure, branch campuses become rather Spartan places, resembling office complexes rather than academic institutions' (Altbach 2010). This is true in the case of the TNE operations in India.

At present there are many overseas institutions operating in India mostly in collaboration mode with Indian partners. Reliable data on aspects such as the total number, the nature and quality of their programs, fees charged, and the credibility of their degrees and diplomas is scarce. Indian students are generally attracted towards these programs mainly because these are in the so-called high demand technology-related areas and also because of their association with foreign labels. Some are taken in by glossy advertisements and exaggerated claims. In most such cases foreign institutions and their Indian partners of these highly advertised collaborations are only interested in maximising profit. They are

not subjected to any kind of quality assurance. Even if the foreign institution has a high quality rating in its home country, there is no guarantee that its programs in India are of comparable quality. In most cases they are not so because of the nature of the facilities and competence of the faculty made available for such programs here. While Indian institutions and their programs approved by Indian agencies are subjected to quality assurance procedures, there is hardly any attention taken of the foreign programs run by the same institutions.

In April 2003, the All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) issued regulations relating to the entry and operation of foreign universities/institutions imparting technical education in India; the regulations were subsequently modified. Many institutions applied for approval to offer technical education programs in India under the AICTE regulations. AICTE permitted a few institutions. However, the Government of India did not have any regulations related to the entry into the country of foreign institutions with the authority to award degrees. As a result, AICTE could not effectively implement its envisaged regulatory practice.

Approaches to Quality Assurance

In general the assessment process for quality assurance consists of systematic gathering, quantifying, and use of information in order to judge the instructional effectiveness and the curricular adequacy of a higher education institution as a whole (institutional assessment) or of its educational programs (program assessment). It includes the evaluation of the core activities of the higher education institution (quantitative and qualitative evidence of educational activities and research outcomes).

In spite of worldwide elaborate efforts to search for internationally acceptable or comparable benchmarks for quality assurance, workable agreements among nations and institutions have proven to be elusive and will perhaps remain so for some time. Many different efforts are underway for evolving norms and standards that will be useful for purposes such as mutual recognition, professional recognition, academic recognition, admission requirements, employment, and visa processing. These issues gain significance in the context of TNE programs.

The criteria currently adopted in India for assessment of technical education are basically physical and measurable parameters such as space, faculty strength, publications, and funds—so called input parameters. These are not considered sufficient enough to yield reliable assurance of the true quality of programs or institutions. Instead of the mechanical accounting method, there are suggestions that accreditation should also assess the 'process parameters' such as approaches to teaching, learning and evaluation, student teacher interaction, guidance and counselling, and socially relevant activities.

Above all, assessment should also consider the 'outcome parameters' such as performance of products of programs or institutions, and perception of the public about products. Outcomes signify achieved results of programs or the accomplishment of institutional

objectives, as demonstrated by a wide range of indicators such as student knowledge, cognitive skills, and attitudes. Outcomes are direct results of the instructional program, planned in terms of student growth in all areas. Generally, each outcome statement should describe one effect of the instructional program, and should be clearly detailed and easily understandable by all teaching staff and students in a given area or department.

Such a comprehensive assessment cannot be accomplished in a few hours of a visit/inspection or even in a few days especially by a single organisation. Considering the formidable array of programs and the vast range of institutional categories, the accreditation process needs to be designed in a way to cover demand efficiently and effectively within a desirable time frame. This thinking has influenced the current legislative initiatives and reforms in India discussed later.

Quality Assurance of Technical Education in India

The world over, quality assurance of the professional areas of studies is treated distinctly different from other areas. In technical education, for example, the Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology lays down norms and standards for accreditation of technical education programs in the US. In India the NBA plays this role. In view of the desire to become a fully-fledged signatory of the Washington Accord, efforts are under way in India to adopt the approach of the Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology to accreditation of technical education programs. This task is not proving to be easy. A large segment of private technical institutions are resisting comprehensive norms and standards beyond infrastructure. Most of them are resisting the inclusion of criteria such as governance and management, admission policies, fee structure and outcome factors.

The Washington Accord, first signed in 1989 as an agreement between the bodies responsible for accrediting professional engineering degree programs in each of the signatory countries, covers professional engineering undergraduate degrees. It recognises the substantial equivalency of programs accredited by those bodies. It recommends that graduates of accredited programs in any of the signatory countries be recognised by the other countries as having met academic requirements for entry to the practice of engineering. NBA was granted provisional membership of the Accord in June 2007 and the move will ease the mobility of Indian professionals across the globe and the academic qualifications from all accredited institutions in India shall be considered at par with corresponding qualifications worldwide.

With the NBA seal being the only stamp of quality assurance for technical education programs in India, it is a cause for concern that over 50% of the courses are yet to be accredited by NBA. Of some 5,000 technical programs offered across institutes in the country, just some 2,200 are actually accredited by NBA as at January 2008. Only 36% of engineering courses offered, 8% pharmacy courses and 5% highly sought after masters in computer applications courses are accredited. Only 10% of management courses—one of the most popular courses—is accredited by NBA. As at July 2009, 3,444 accredited

programs were spread over 906 engineering institutions. The two-year period to accredit 5,000 courses being offered across several hundred institutes is a tight deadline. It is a tight deadline because it is a requirement under the Washington Accord to obtain program accreditation of all institutions for permanent membership. The Accord brings with it international recognition automatically to all engineering programs accredited by the NBA and yet a large number of technical programs have not undergone NBA accreditation.

Current Legislative Initiatives in India

The National Knowledge Commission (2009) has suggested the licensing of a large number of private organisations to undertake accreditation responsibility. The Yash Pal Committee (2009) has suggested that the accreditation responsibility be entrusted to a carefully chosen non-profit organisation in the public sector. The Government of India has given the issue high priority status. What is apparent is that every institution, public, private or foreign, should undergo a rigorous accreditation process before being recognised as a legitimate educational institution in India.

Keeping these factors in view the central government drafted the 'National Accreditation Regulatory Authority for Higher Educational Institutions Bill, 2010.' The draft Bill proposes the creation of a national authority for regulating accreditation of all higher educational institutions including, universities, institutions, deemed to be universities, colleges, institutes, institutions of national importance established by an Act of Parliament, and their constituents, imparting higher education beyond 12 years of schooling and awarding degrees or diplomas, whether through conventional or distance education systems.

The proposed authority (the Authority) would register and certify non-profit professional bodies and other competent institutions and organisations that would undertake accreditation of institutions in accordance with regulations governing academic quality. The criteria for assessment and accreditation will be well defined by a competent statutory agency such as the UGC or its successor body. The criteria would include the quality of outcomes associated with teaching, learning and research. It would also cover aspects such as governance structure, internal management and administrative practices, admissions and fee structure, physical infrastructure, human resources, research infrastructure, course curricula, evaluation procedures, and placement. Existing higher education institutions and their programs would be allowed a period of three years to obtain accreditation, if not already obtained.

The Authority would be entrusted with powers to promote development and regulate the process of accreditation of higher educational institutions and to monitor and audit the functioning of accreditation agencies. The Authority would also register and regulate the working of accreditation agencies; prescribe, audit and monitor a code of ethics, including aspects such as conflict of interest, disclosure of information, and while ensuring transparency in processes and procedures of accreditation.

The Authority would consist of five persons, a chairperson and four other members, one of whom shall be a woman, members will be persons of integrity, ability and standing not less than fifty-five years of age, to be appointed by the central government in consultation with the UGC or its successor body. The chairperson shall be one who is, or has been, a vice-chancellor of a university of repute or has held an equivalent position as head of an institution of national importance with experience in academic matters of at least twenty years. Four other members shall be academics being persons of ability, integrity and standing with experience of at least twenty years in various fields of knowledge. The chairperson and members would have a term of five years.

Every higher education institution and every program of study, offering a degree or diploma in India, whether owned by Indian or foreign entities, would be mandatorily accredited. While undertaking accreditation of a higher educational institution or program, the accreditation agency shall be aware of its obligations to society with regard to the principles of advancing academic quality, using a common frame of reference for assessing academic quality in any higher education institution or any program offered therein. It shall also inform stakeholders, including students and employers, about the quality of the higher educational institution or any program offered. Moreover, it shall assist higher education institutions in managing and enhancing their academic quality working towards the development of explicitly stated learning outcomes. Opportunities will also be provided to stakeholders including students, teachers and employees to participate in the accreditation process. An appeal against an accreditation of a higher educational institution or any program undertaken by the registered accreditation agency will lie with the Authority.

The accreditation agency shall be liable to pay compensation to a higher educational institution as determined by a State Educational Tribunal in case of wilful wrong accreditation and damage being caused by such accreditation. The accreditation agency will also be liable for civil monetary penalties for accreditation approval in contravention of the provisions of the Act or contrary to standards prescribed by the appropriate statutory body, to be determined by the National Educational Tribunal and also liable for criminal penalties for wilful wrong accreditation.

The Way Forward

The future of the credibility of the Indian higher education system in general and technical education in particular depends, to a considerable extent, on the reliability of the accreditation process. Since the curricular structure and content and the teaching and learning processes are undergoing continuous transformation, it becomes necessary to modify the criteria and methodologies of accreditation. The need for global norms and standards for accreditation is widely recognised. At the same time it is essential to build into the quality assurance processes certain features that relate to particular national situations.

Many illegitimate practices, as reported in the media, continue to prevail in a whole range of activities such as admission, fee collection, examination, award of grades and they are cleverly camouflaged. Governance systems may also be controlled and manipulated by close family members and their relatives or by politicians and bureaucrats. Accreditation should explicitly expose such malpractices and aberrations in quality assurance reports. Accordingly, this approach will help to reduce, if not eliminate, prevailing malpractices and enhance the credibility of higher educational qualifications. Unfortunately in India some of the accreditation agencies, particularly in technical and professional fields, have been indulging in malpractices. Hence it is necessary that the accreditation agencies themselves should be subjected to critical audit and assessment. The current legislative initiatives might provide the momentum to move forward in this direction.

After a relatively short period of accreditation experience (less than two decades), India is embarking on the reconstruction of its accreditation system and assigning it a prominent place among other major initiatives to 'renovate and rejuvenate' the higher education system. Among the imminent initiatives is the establishment of the National Commission on Higher Education and Research; creation of a new National Accreditation Board; establishment of tribunals at the national and state levels to expeditiously resolve educational disputes; enactment of law to define and discourage educational malpractices; and enactment of regulation for the entry and operations of foreign educational institutions in India. The effective functioning of the accreditation system is crucial to the success of these initiatives.

In light of the provisions in the proposed legislation for the creation of a national authority for accreditation of higher education institutions, questions to be addressed are:

1. What are the assessment criteria to obtain the true characterisation of quality of different categories of higher education institutions (e.g. colleges, universities, training institutions)?
2. Should there be a variation in the criteria among institutions/programs in different disciplines (e.g. engineering, medicine, agriculture, natural sciences, social sciences)?
3. Should some institutions be exempt from accreditation? On what basis?
4. What should be the period before reaccreditation? Should the reaccreditation process be different from the initial accreditation?
5. Would the proposal for assigning accreditation responsibilities to registered and certified NGOs be more responsive to quality assurance requirements than the present approaches of NAAC or NBA?
6. Would proposals for accreditation be sufficient for programs offered in the distance mode by institutions, such as open universities, regular universities, foreign institutions, using conventional as well as advanced learning tools?

These issues need open minded discussion before the legislation is enacted.

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Chapter 15

Some Policy Perspectives on Transnational Education

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Policies that determine pedagogy and the curriculum of universities that provide transnational education (TNE) through commercial presence in India should be clearly stated to ensure that they serve the needs and requirements of capacity building in developing countries. That is, instead of concentrating on the future global knowledge in developed source countries. The necessary condition for successful globalisation of TNE, through international trade under the World Trade Organization (WTO) regime, could be the requirement of physical presence of service providers. The sufficient condition, however, would be that contracting countries should both gain from the physical global presence of their respective entities. The paradox here is between short-term and long-term gains. In the short-term it seems the global physical presence of Indian teachers, whether in foreign TNE institutions within India or abroad, would be gainful for India in terms of employment, income, or remittances. But a long-term implication could be the depletion of India's capability to produce the kind of IT professionals, doctors or even teachers who train more of IT professionals or doctors the world would like to import from India in future. Or, there might be a shortage of IT professionals possessing generic skills applicable to all types of knowledge-generating and research activities. Schools, universities, teachers and students are inputs in the production of an intermediate product—commodity producers or service providers—not a final product that other services like banking, shipping, insurance, or telecommunications produce. Given this dichotomy, the paradox between factor-endowment and factor-use inherent in TNE must be recognised and taken care of.

In this chapter some dimensions of stocks and flows of skilled and educated manpower in India is presented. Comment on the public-private divide in the supply of professional education in India and the discrepancies in the quality of higher educational degrees are analysed. After a reflection on the demand for higher education in India, some inconsistencies in policies are explained. The chapter further highlights the dichotomy

that exists between endowment and actual utilisation of factors of production or resources in a country. It emphasises the systematic, but subtle, undermining of human capital, a preservable factor of production, which can be depleted through TNE if safeguards are not put in place. The policy on TNE must take adequate care to not deplete the most talented in the source country.

Stocks and Flows of Human Capital in India

The 'Canberra Manual' defines human resources in science and technology (HRST) professionals as people who fulfil one or the other of the following conditions: they have successfully completed education at a tertiary level in a science, engineering or technology field of study; or they are not formally qualified as above, but are employed in a science and technology occupation where the above qualifications are normally required (OECD 1995, Auriol & Sexton 2001). In 1981, India had seven million workers in professional, technical and related fields that could be classified as HRST. This rose to 10.2 million by 1991 a decade later, and has been subsequently estimated at 26.8 million in 2004. The next count will be available after the 2011 census. HRST stocks have risen from 3.1% of the total workforce in 1981 to 3.6% in 1991 and to 7.3% in 2004. The number in HRST occupations rose by 3.7% annually between 1981 and 1991 and by 7.7% between 1991 and 2004.

However, while numbers and proportions of HRST occupations and HRST qualified people have risen steadily, in 2004 only a third (35.2%) of the total HRST qualified people was pursuing an occupation that could be considered core-HRST (i.e. HRST qualified people in HRST occupations). Almost two-thirds of HRST qualified people were misemployed or underemployed. The rest had only secondary school education or less. These ratios have worsened over time. In 1981, around 43% of those people who were HRST qualified were employed in HRST professions (Khadria 2009).

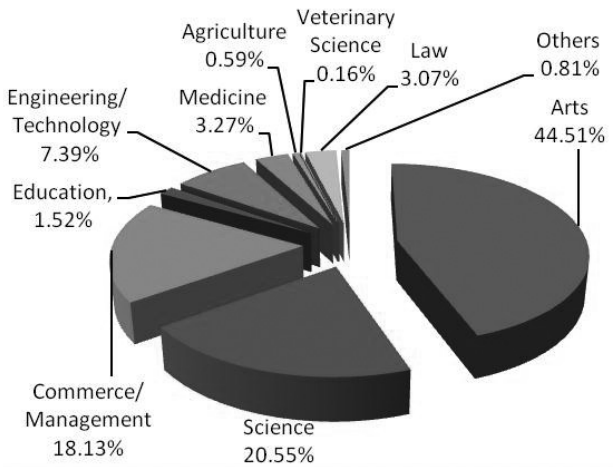
India's workforce without either a diploma or a degree—the non-HRST workforce—was estimated at around 327 million in 2004. That is about 89% of the country's workforce had high school or below as their highest educational qualification. However, the growth rate of this part of the workforce is declining. At the same time, the proportion of the non-HRST workforce employed in what could be called science and technology professions (scientists, engineers, nurses, architects, teachers, chartered accountants, and others) rose from 2% in 1991 to nearly 4% in 2004, mostly due to the fact that growth in this employment segment rose relatively more quickly in the 1990s than earlier.

Table 15.1: India's graduate pool in 2003–04

	Engineering degrees	Engineering diplomas	Arts degrees	Science degrees	Commerce degrees	All graduates
	millions	millions	millions	millions	millions	millions
Stock of graduates in 2003	1.200	1.750	11.500	4.985	5.933	21.986
Out-turn in 2004 (estimate)	0.155	0.130	1.150	0.540	0.480	2.460

Source: IAMR 2006, 2009; Ministry of Human Resources Development 2006.

In 2003–04 the total stock of graduates in India was an estimated 22 million (Table 15.1). Total enrolment in higher education was 10.4 million and the out-turn each year was 2.5 million. In 2007–08, the enrolment share of students pursuing degrees in the arts was 45%, in science 21%, and in commerce 18%. The remaining 17% of students were enrolled in professional courses (Figure 15.1). In the academic year 2008–09 there was a noticeable drop in enrolments in the arts, down to 43%, and science, down to 19%, whereas commerce remained unchanged at 18%. The professional courses experienced an overall increase to 20% (UGC 2009).



Source: University Grants Commission 2008.

Figure 15.1: Faculty-wise enrolment, 2007–08

Public and Private Sectors in the Supply of Professional Education

Until the 1990s, higher education in India had grown mainly in the public domain. Early expansion was primarily in undergraduate programs of science, commerce and the arts. The 1990s brought rapid growth of private professional higher education and proliferation of professional institutions in engineering, medicine, management, and law. Almost four-fifths of all institutions and enrolments in professional education have developed in the private sector. Recent years have seen the emergence of training institutes for entirely new career options like the airline industry, travel, clinical research and 3D animation.

In the late twentieth century, a large number of private initiatives in the field of education received degree-granting status either as 'deemed to be universities' or as fully-fledged private universities through Acts of various state legislatures. To meet unmet demand in certain professional fields, such as business and hotel management, small foreign operators have collaborated with private Indian entities, primarily operating on a profit-making principle. In contrast, there has been no significant presence of foreign education providers in science and engineering fields in India.

Most doctoral programs in India are provided by universities in the public sector. The public universities have played a crucial role in granting PhD degrees in science and engineering. Data presented in the annual reports of the University Grants Commission show that there has been a quantum increase in doctorates in these fields in India.

Although all universities are expected to be comprehensive in relation to both teaching and research, data on doctorates in science, engineering and medicine suggests that only a few institutions have a real research focus: 85% of science and engineering doctorates come out of 20 universities. There are serious and growing concerns about the quality of PhDs. The mandatory requirement of a PhD for appointment and promotion as a university faculty member has had undesirable consequences for the quality of higher education. The highest number of PhDs is not awarded by the most reputed universities, suggesting widely varying standards. In some universities, a student is awarded a PhD degree within 18 months; in others students take three to five years, sometimes longer. There have also been cases of plagiarism. Quality is a major issue in social science research as well. Doctoral theses in social sciences often apply a descriptive approach to specific and limited topics, rather than an analytical or comparative approach, and without relating the work to a wider socio-political and economic context.

The point here is that quantitative proliferation of higher education is matched neither by standardisation across the country nor enhancement of the quality of education to meet requirements of a growing international labour market. For example, reports released by India's National Association of Software and Services Companies (NASSCOM) had anticipated huge shortages in both information technology (IT) and business process outsourcing (BPO) related skills in India (NASSCOM 2005a,

2005b). The reports said that only about 25% of technical graduates were suitable for employment in the offshore IT sector, and as little as 10% to 15% of general college students were suitable for BPO industries.

Demand for Higher Education

India's demographic structure is very different from those in the developed countries of the West, Japan and China. India has a predominantly young population with 62% in the working age group. This promises a favourable dependency ratio during the next three decades, and creates massive potential demand for education in the next decade. However, a huge shortfall in trained manpower is expected in India. One reason is, as already mentioned, non-suitability of a large proportion of graduates for the jobs available. India faces the paradox of a high rate of graduate unemployment co-existing with a huge shortage of quality skills. In the last two decades, government policy has attempted to increase the vocational utility of university and college education. However, graduate unemployment has been significantly higher than overall unemployment (Registrar General & Census Commissioner India 2001).

Student demand for higher education is normally based on their aspirations, and societal and parental expectations, and not necessarily on signals from job markets. That is demand is driven by education and not the job market. Furthermore, employment opportunities are prevalently in non-HRST fields, in areas where formal tertiary education hardly provides any preparation (*India Today,* 7 March 2005).

There has been an increase in the number of students studying but a decline in the science share of enrolments. Between 1971 and 1997 this fell from 33.2% to 21.7% at the undergraduate level and from 26.1% to 22.2% at the postgraduate level. This was affected by enhanced opportunities in the fields of commerce and law. In today's market-driven social order, in most countries, students rarely choose basic science as their career. This is a more serious problem in India because many of those talented students who do take science and engineering, or those who drift to such courses in the absence of their preferred professional subjects end up going abroad (Lakhotia 2005). Furthermore, many students who focus on disciplines such as commerce do so because of the potential for finance and management careers abroad or employment with international companies in India. There is consequently a distortion of choice of disciplines and careers by short-term developments and tendencies in the global labour market. This leads to a conflict of interest between individuals and the nation during the short-term and between nation and society during the long-term.

Partial, Uneven and Incomplete Policy

The Eleventh Five-Year Plan (2007–12) of India recognised the need to take a big step forward in developing India's higher education system to face global challenges. The Plan acknowledges the need for an international dimension, including links with other

countries, and international research programs. It aims to reform regulatory bodies in higher education to enable their changing roles in the context of globalisation. It sets out to make curricula more relevant to both domestic and global needs. It states that 'Quality improvement in higher education will be brought about through restructuring academic programmes to ensure their relevance to modern market demands; domestic and global linkages with employers and external advisory resource support groups and tracer studies ...' The Eleventh Plan also recognises that existing universities do not meet global standards and proposes setting up of new institutions, 14 new central universities among them (established and funded by the central government) aiming at world-class standards. It notes that the setting up of a world class university will take time, especially to grow to full strength. But it emphasises that '... locations and initiation of work should get top priority during the Eleventh Plan so as to enable India to become the global knowledge hub and set benchmarks for Central and other universities.' The Plan also focuses on promoting strong links with other countries in the area of science and technology, including participation in mega international science initiatives. Science and technology institutions are to open up for international faculty, visits and exchanges (Planning Commission 2007). This is a tall-order, without essential advance planning to ensure necessary requirements, such as faculty manpower, to run the newly established institutions, or forward-linking to guarantee the supply of quality graduates to meet market needs. Without these supporting mechanisms, it will be difficult to achieve even half of the benchmark target of expansion in higher education.

Trends in employment and GDP (gross domestic product) growth demonstrates that the services (tertiary) sector is growing in importance while agriculture has declined. Within the services sector, other business services, including IT and related fields, have seen phenomenal growth in recent years, contributing to a significant proportion of exports. According to the World Bank (2005), India has a strongly revealed comparative advantage in the services, particularly software services, as compared to goods. The country has leveraged its rich pool of human capital with quality educational institutions and a large English-speaking population (NASSCOM 2005a). The projected age-structural-transition leading to a 'demographic dividend' in India's young population, along with the emerging global occupational structure, offers an opportunity for India to increasingly provide the workforce for global knowledge economy in the twenty-first century. Personal services, such as teaching and nursing, is set to continue to expand on a global scale. India could become a magnet economy attracting highly skilled and high waged investment capital from multinational companies, and offer high value-added services to the rest of the world. However, this would require that India adopts an outward-looking approach to reach out to global markets and focuses on sectors where it has resource advantage.

India accounts for 65% of the global industry in offshore IT and 46% of BPO in 2004. Offshore industries have been the engine of economic growth for India, accounting for 6% of the increase in GDP between 2000 and 2004, employing 700,000 people and providing indirect employment to nearly 2.5 million more. It was estimated that by 2010, India's BPO industries will account for 17% of GDP growth. This would sustain 8.8

million jobs, 2.3 million direct and 6.5 million indirect and induced ones (NASSCOM 2005b). The emigration of Indian IT professionals is now seen as the opposite of 'brain drain'. It is called, ironically, the 'brain gain' via the globalisation of Indian talent and skills. Non-Resident Indians and Persons of Indian Origin can generate not only economic benefits but also promote India in their countries of residence, it is argued. The Indian Government has opened doors to long-term relations with its scientific diaspora. An independent Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs has been established since 2004 and national celebration of an Overseas Indians Day (Pravasi Bhartiya Divas), has been instituted. Yet as noted, graduate unemployment is serious, and many classified as HRST-qualified are not working in jobs where their skills are being utilised.

The NASSCOM reports (2005a, 2005b) estimated that by 2010 the two industries mentioned above would have to employ an additional one million workers near the five major cities in India: New Delhi, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Chennai and Mumbai. About 600,000 more workers would be required across other towns in India (*Economic Times,* 13 August 2005). Now that 2010 is over, the accuracy of these 2005 estimates will soon be assessed, and new estimates for the next five or ten years be made, particularly in view of the recent global recession that gripped almost all the countries the world over. The NASSCOM reports had also said that by 2010 India would need a 2.3 million strong IT and BPO workforce to maintain its global market share, let alone increase it further (*Hindustan Times,* 22 September, 2008). The potential shortfall of qualified employees will be nearly half a million—more than one-fifth of the 2.3 million vacancies would remain unfilled—with nearly 70% of the shortages concentrated in the BPO industry. As noted, there is also a serious and growing concern about the quality of the highest academic degree, the PhD in India. Shortcomings within the Indian higher education system have opened up India as a supermarket, as the Indian media calls it, for foreign educational institutions who look to recruit and import students from India for what has been called the 'semi-finished human capital' (the term was first used by Majumdar in 1994). In this manner India loses many of its brightest students. Many students from the large and growing middle-class prefer to get educated abroad, knowing that this can open up better job opportunities in India on their return (Khadria 2007).

Three older near certainties about higher education are disappearing: that it is supplied on a national basis to local students; that it is government regulated; and that competition and profit are unknown concepts. However India lacks a well-informed reform agenda for higher education. National policy across education, training, labour market development and research is partial and uneven in its grasp of problems and solutions. Participation in higher education is vastly unequal between states and national policy coordination is incomplete in key areas that need a national approach, such as the quality of PhDs. Reforms have yet to be fully rooted in the new global realities of competition and increased national and global mobility of students and the workforce, and the emerging occupational fields. The mismatch between demand and supply of skills continues. India as yet is unable to secure full value as a national economy from the leading role played by Indian skilled labour in the global knowledge economy.

Higher Education and GATS

With GATS (General Agreement on Trade in Services) under the multilateral framework of WTO incorporating educational services, it is time educationists and economists engaged with each other, revisited their knowledge paradigms, and sorted out paradoxes that have surfaced in the race for globalisation. Keeping in mind the peculiarities of education and differentiating it from other more conventional services like telecommunication, insurance, or banking; this paper is an attempt to highlight the dichotomy between the trade policy on foreign direct investment and the quality of TNE under trade in higher education services.

To elaborate the dichotomies in the established theoretical constructs, however, it may be necessary to briefly describe what TNE would mean under the GATS mechanism that is being evolved in the WTO regime. The WTO has identified four main modes of trade in educational services under GATS. Under mode I is 'consumption abroad', which involves the mobility of students for study abroad and there is increasing competition among developed nations to attract foreign students. Initiatives in the marketing of higher education institutions, sponsored by governments, universities, or private firms, include dissemination of information, for example, through the so-called 'education fairs', which are used by governments as well as educational institutions, either directly or through education marketing agencies (WTO 1998). This is triggered not only because of educational, economic, or strategic reasons but also because the foreign students, mostly young, would help neutralise the aging population structure in the developed countries. Mode I, cross-border supply, which in education takes place through distance learning, testing services, and the supply of educational materials through the internet as well as by post, has also proliferated in the coverage and share of trade. Mode IV, the presence of natural persons or professionals through international migration between countries is to provide education through temporary stay abroad, which has been on the rise. However, it is Mode III, the commercial presence of educational institutions in a foreign territory, a more recent form of trade in educational services, which could be called the core of the TNE.

Mode III involves the actual presence of foreign educational investors in a host country through foreign direct investment and joint ventures. It includes establishing courses or entire campuses in another country. Twinning arrangements and franchising also come under the category of TNE through a commercial presence. Five levels of education have been classified for trade: primary, secondary, higher, adult, and other i.e. not classified under any of the other four (WTO 1998, Annex I). It is the last three education levels that are relevant to a discussion of TNE, the remaining two still being restricted to domestic service providers. What is important here is that TNE (Mode III of trade in educational services) itself may lead to the other three modes, viz., cross-border supply (Mode I), presence of natural persons (Mode IV), and even part-consumption abroad through student exchange programs (Mode II). Furthermore, Modes I and IV could entail 'embodied internationalisation' of education whereas Modes II and III would lead to 'disembodied internationalisation' of education. It is because of such a reclassification

that a discussion on TNE (incorporating Mode III, the institutional mobility, and Mode I, the program mobility) would be equally applicable to the other two modes.

Endowment Versus Utilisation of Resources

In the 21st century there is a growing recognition of the role of higher education in determining the comparative strength of nations (DFID 1997, 2000). This development has also led to a rush among developed countries for overseas recruitment of IT professionals, doctors, nurses, and very importantly, teachers from developing countries, quite significantly in India lately, all likely to increase multifold with TNE taking the form of foreign direct investment. It is in this context that the 21st century could be perceived as ushering an epoch of knowledge as power, and therefore change of values and rethinking in policy (World Bank 1998).

However, there is a paradoxical separation, sometimes leading, in certain parts of the world to a conflict between (a) the endowment of the factor inputs required for the generation of scientific and technological knowledge, and (b) the possession of the generated knowledge (embodied as human capital) as usable intermediate 'factor' for production of the final goods and services. To understand this paradox, one may have to first go back to the basic question that the theory of international trade has to answer in terms of what determines trade. In other words, why do countries gain by trading? The textbook answer in economics goes back more than 150 years to the theory of comparative advantage, one of the oldest and still unchallenged theories in the knowledge paradigm of economics (Sodersten 1970). According to the Ricardian version, which is the oldest version of this theory, trade offers each of two trading countries the possibility of specialising in the line of its comparative advantage and then exchanging for those in which it has a comparative disadvantage. Thus, the basic argument of Ricardo and the classical school of economics is that each country can consume more by trading than in isolation with a given amount of resources. The Ricardian theory is, however, based on productivity differentials of only one factor of production—labour, across the trading countries. Modern trade theory, on the other hand, offers another explanation for causes of trade. The Heckscher-Ohlin theory, for example, says that trade is caused by the fact that different countries have different factor endowments. It is being said that this is 'a more fruitful approach than Ricardo's, as it brings factors of production explicitly into the picture and forces us to study in a detailed fashion the interrelationships between commodity and factor prices, between amounts of inputs and outputs' (Sodersten 1970, p. 45). Taking only two factors of production, capital and labour, the theory states that countries that are rich in capital will export capital-intensive goods, and countries that have much labour will export labour-intensive goods. The limitation of the theory of comparative advantage, whether the Ricardo or the Heckscher-Ohlin version, however, is that it is a static theory; it cannot give any indication about how the economy would develop if production conditions were to change because of human capital as a factor of production, distinct from 'homogenous labour', being formed through investment in education. It is at this point that the role of education becomes important in giving rise to a paradox not only because education, particularly at higher and technical levels, is a

major determinant of change in production conditions through the generation of human capital and knowledge, but also because education produces commodity manufacturers, service providers and knowledge generators, and not commodities or services directly. The paradox gives rise to a dichotomy between endowment of a factor and use of that same factor in a given country.

The above mentioned dichotomy between factor-endowment and factor-use is a significant paradox for policy paradigms. Whereas the first (i.e. endowment) by itself does not necessarily lead to the application of modern science and technology for the betterment of conditions of life, the latter (i.e. utilisation of endowment) acts as a fundamental determinant of the 'wealth of nations'. Such an imbalance arises when the qualitatively best knowledge-inputs getting produced primarily in poorer regions and countries of the world get utilised in the richer ones for production of scientific knowledge and the state-of-the-art technologies—in information and communications, biotechnology, and so on. It is here that the distinction between quality educational services and other services such as telecommunications, insurance, banking and shipping becomes central to the issue of offshore education. The most fundamental difference between educational services and other services is that whereas most other services are geared towards the production of goods or services, quality educational services are geared towards the production of better producers of commodities and providers of services endowed with knowledge and skills rather than the production of goods and services *per se*.

Marginalisation and Alienation of Quality Skills

Why then is there a neglect of this fundamental qualitative characteristic of education in the discourse on TNE services through trade under the WTO? In terms of the textbook classification of the four factors of production in economics, viz. land, labour, capital, and entrepreneurship, knowledge inputs can now be classified into two types: (1) land-based physical inputs like flora and fauna, which get produced as gifts of nature, and (2) labour-based human capital differentiated by the quality of education and training. In economic theory, the first type had ceased to draw much attention after man-made physical capital came to be considered as the main factor of production. Following the early writings of Malthus and Ricardo, it may be said that this was partly because the availability of 'fertile' land got exhausted due to population growth, and partly because technological innovations led to the substitution of land as a 'gift of nature' by exploitation of sea space (e.g. dams, hydro-agriculture, sea-graves, floating airports) and aerospace (e.g. skyscrapers, satellites). Both of these inputs remained relegated to the background in the second half of the 20th century when the remaining two factors of production, viz. capital endowment (Solow 1957) and managerial entrepreneurship (Schumpeter 1967) dominated the scene as the prime movers of growth and development. In the 1990s, whereas 'land' can be said to have staged a comeback in the context of frontier environmental questions; 'labour'—particularly in terms of the endowments of quality scientific and technical personnel or 'knowledge workers', a term first used by Peter Drucker—is beginning to receive its due recognition only in the 21st century.

With the awareness about 'knowledge as an engine of growth' gaining ground in developed countries, education has come to be considered as a tradeable service under the WTO regime, but segregated from the development issue of the brain drain (Khadria 1998, 1999). While immigration restrictions on the mobility of professionals are made *selectively* flexible, one notices the growing marketisation of education by many developed countries—such as Australia, France, USA or the UK—in developing countries, particularly India, in terms of (a) student recruitment locally, and (b) the establishment of offshore campuses in India (WTO 1998). Whereas the first seemingly represents the demand side, the second represents the supply side of TNE. This is happening because developed countries, already having an edge in the ownership of stocks of higher education infrastructure, require economies of scale (which are otherwise dwindling because of the lack of demand from the domestic market, partly due to the ageing population structure in most developed countries) to sustain it. Whereas the developed countries are effectively integrating these long-term aspects of educational management in their strategies of trade in services, important developing countries like India, having overlooked critiques like Dreze and Sen made a decade and half ago, have continued to undermine their importance.

> Somehow the educational aspects of economic development have continued to be out of the main focus, and this relative neglect has persisted despite the recent radical changes in economic policy ... Even lucid discussion of the challenge of economic reforms is entirely silent on the subject of education ... and their possible roles in promoting the use of the economic opportunities that may be created by the reforms. Their discussion of the problem of "infrastructure" ... is confined effectively to transport and power generation. An opportunity is missed here ... (Dreze and Sen 1995, p. 13).

What is important to realise here is that developing countries like India are not aware that there could be a pitfall in the name of TNE when they offer their potential 'knowledge workers' in the form of students as well as the institutional space in the education sector to developed countries on a platter. For example higher education, being one of the largest service-sector activities in India, also facilitated the large-scale supply of Indian knowledge workers to the USA, estimated to be 100,000 a year (United Nations Development Program 2001, p. 91). Other developed countries, like Germany, UK and Australia, changed their immigration laws for wooing skilled professionals and students from India and other developing countries. Therefore the selectivity of immigration policies of receiving countries allows only those qualified in skills relevant to the host countries labour market to get priority entry. For example, presently it is the generic skills like IT and teaching, which are usable across disciplines in such diverse areas of applications such as medicine, engineering, law, accountancy and architecture that are, therefore, given priority for immigration. This is paradoxical in terms of development values inherent in welfare economic theory. While educational services are recognised as services with the purpose of adding to the factor-endowment in developing countries, the factors actually get utilised for the generation of knowledge and innovation in developed countries (*Economic Times,* 13 August 2004). Even remittances, which are considered to

be gains from brain drain, are flowing back to developed countries due to the high overseas fees that foreign students from developing countries pay. It is, therefore, vital to probe into the changing aggregate motivations and values behind this dichotomy before deliberating on policy perspectives.

Concluding Remarks

The short-term implication of the proliferation of foreign universities in developing countries like India could be a simple gainful trade in a service. But the long-term implications of the resulting TNE could be indeterminate. In the long term, it may lead to two revelations: (a) a rise in the brain drain of generic skills as the educational ethos and values of students and their parents get guided by an *ex ante* choice in favour of pursuing that education, content-wise, which is likely to get transnationalised in developed labour markets of the developed countries. Such an impact has, in fact, been visible in India lately, for example, through shifts in the choice of 'majors' (specialisation) by students entering senior secondary schooling and colleges in favour of commerce and away from science, particularly since the beginning of the 21st century; and (b) a sustaining of the infrastructure and inputs of higher education in a contracting developed country through a period of domestic recession in its higher education sector at the cost of the developing countries as, for example, educational agencies like the United States-India Educational Foundation in India or the British Council Division of the British High Commission in India would corroborate (Khadria 2001). In fact what is latent in this strategy of the developed countries is the temporariness of foreigners that work as a 'safety-valve', their turnover catering to the labour market motivations of what have been stylistically called the motivations of 'age', 'wage', and 'vintage'. That is keeping the age profile of workers in the labour force low, keeping their wage profile low, and keeping their knowledge profile as that of the latest vintage (Khadria 2009). Both these long-term implications of TNE would call for strategies aimed at mutual understanding, complementarities, and sustainable coexistence of higher education in India as well as its trading partners in the developed world.

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Chapter 16

Manipal University's Experience in Malaysia and Dubai (Case Study 4)

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In its 56 years of existence, Manipal University (MU) has emerged as a leading higher education provider in India and abroad. Spread over 600 acres of green expanse, MU is home to 20,000 students pursuing undergraduate and postgraduate programs in diverse subjects. The University has a strong alumni network of more than 72,000 members. Having students from 53 countries at its parent campus and transnational campuses in Malaysia and Dubai are a testimony to the University's reputation as a global higher education provider.

This case study highlights Manipal University's experience in handling its transnational campuses in Malaysia and Dubai and illustrates how the parent campus maintains high quality standards in its transnational education (TNE) programs. The case study describes the robustness of the University's systems with due variations required when operating across borders. Challenges faced by the University in meeting expectations of local regulators in both these campuses are presented.

MU is a self-financing university in the private sector and the tuition fee for students is fixed on the recommendation of the Committee of Experts appointed in consultation with the University Grants Commission, taking into account various inputs required, non-recurring and recurring expenditure, so as to maintain high standards in courses and disciplines. All its academic programs are recognised by relevant regulatory authorities such as the Medical Council of India, the All India Council for Technical Education, the Dental Council of India, and the Indian Nursing Council.

MU has strong quality assurance mechanisms in place at its transnational campuses in Malaysia and Dubai which are enablers for sustaining quality of education. MU's commitment to sustain quality and maintain high standards in TNE is evident from the

words of India's Minister for Human Resource Development, Honourable Shri Kapil Sibal: 'Manipal University is an institution of excellence. From the Himalayas to the Caribbean, from Malaysia to Dubai, Manipal has established a global brand in education' (MU 2010).

Malaysia Campus

The Melaka Manipal Medical College (MMMC) started in Melaka with the admission of the first batch of students in September 1997 to offer a Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery (MBBS) program. It was the outcome of a memorandum of understanding between JVMC Corporation Sdn. Bhd. and Manipal Education and Medical Group. The agreement related to the offer of credit transfer leading to the MBBS degree. His Excellency Dr Mahathir Mohamad, the then Prime Minister of Malaysia recognised the need for greater South-South Cooperation in the economic and social sectors. This led to signing an agreement in New Delhi in 1993 in the presence of Dr Mahathir Mohamad and the Honourable Late Shri PV Narasimha Rao, the then Prime Minister of India. Subsequently, the state government of Melaka expressed interest in having the project located in Melaka. In 1996 an agreement was signed for participation of the Melaka state government, through Yayasan Melaka.

MMMC is situated in 23.8 acres and the main campus is 97,707 square metres with modern buildings and facilities on campus include student accommodation and recreational units comparable to the best in the country.

At MMMC, 53 full-time faculty members and 110 part-time consultants assist in teaching and clinical training of students. The Malaysian Medical Council considers services of three part-time faculty members to be equivalent to one full-time faculty member. Six of the faculty members are not from the state of Melaka and 41 are foreign nationals. There is 40% female representation on the staff.

In February 2004, MMMC was included in the World Health Organisation's list of recognised medical colleges and in the International Medical Education Directory of the Educational Commission for Foreign Medical Graduates. The MBBS degree of MMMC is recognised by the Sri Lanka Medical Council. MMMC is also recognised by the Malaysian Medical Council. However, MMMC is not recognised by the Medical Council of India since its establishment and operation is seen only as a credit transfer arrangement between two countries.

Dubai Campus

The Manipal University–Dubai (MU–Dubai or Dubai campus) was established in September 2003, in the Knowledge Village in the TECOM Zone located within the premises of Dubai Internet City and Dubai Media City. Having witnessed an exponential growth and expansion, the campus was moved to Dubai International Academic City that provides the physical infrastructure for common resource sharing amongst institutions

from around the globe. On May 25 2010, India's Minister for Human Resource Development, Honourable Shri Kapil Sibal laid the foundation stone and dedicated the campus for Manipal University in Dubai International Academic City.

At the Dubai campus, more than 800 subjects are taught by 108 faculty members, maintaining a healthy student to teacher ratio of 16:1. Faculty members and students are from various parts of India and the globe representing a true cultural diversity.

The Dubai campus ensures compliance with regulations and guidelines of regulatory bodies like the Knowledge and Human Development Authority, Quality Assurance and International Board, Dubai International Academic City Regulations, Dubai Education Council and the ministerial guidelines of UAE. Compliance with local statutory requirements in addition to overall guidelines of the parent institution ensures smooth operation.

The Objectives of Transnational Education Ventures

The objective of the venture in Malaysia was to provide additional doctors for Malaysia and offer opportunities for students in this region to study medicine at a cheaper cost than in the West. From 1953 to 1993, Manipal University has trained more than 2,700 doctors from Malaysia. The situation changed in 1993 when the new policy on admission of foreign students to medical colleges in India put a ceiling on NRI (non-resident Indian)/PIO (person of Indian origin)/foreign admissions to 15% of the permissible intake of the medical colleges. Malaysia was unexpectedly in urgent need of training opportunities within a minimum lead period. At this juncture, the establishment of MMMC seemed to be an excellent idea.

Similarly, the MU–Dubai campus is firmly committed to be a leading campus in UAE dedicated to the pursuit of academic excellence by fostering, disseminating and applying knowledge and intellectual values to real-life situations. It strives to achieve this through its offering of academic programs in applied fields to prepare graduates who are able to develop critical thinking skills in their search for knowledge and truth by equipping them with practical skills suited to a rapidly changing global environment. The primary focus is to enable students to make sound judgments both as individuals and as members of society.

Functioning of the Transnational Campuses

Admission

At MMMC, Malaysian students are admitted annually in two batches of 150 each in March and September. The eligibility criteria are based on the guidelines of the regulatory bodies in Malaysia.

In the Dubai campus, in addition to the minimum admission criteria for undergraduate courses of 10+2 examination or its equivalent from a recognised board with at least

50% aggregate marks, adequate proficiency in English is required. A general foundation program of one year's duration is provided to students of 'O' level (British curriculum) under the regulations of the Knowledge and Human Development Authority and Dubai Education Council of the Dubai Government. It enables them to choose and pursue any graduate program offered on the Dubai campus. In both transnational campuses, the observance of regulations is of paramount importance and transparency is maintained throughout the process. Each prospective student is counselled and complete details are provided on the program structure, the date of commencement of the course, class timetables, duration and the tentative dates of semesters, scholarship procedures, fee structure, mode of payment, amounts and payment dates and credit transfer.

Curriculum

The curriculum in the transnational campuses are based on the objectives and goals set, which also guide any research or extension activities where required.

In MMMC, the five-year MBBS program is semester based (10 semesters). Credit transfer is open to Malaysians and non-Malaysians. It is conducted in two phases. Phase I consists of two and a half years or five semesters and takes place at the Manipal campus in India while Phase II of two and a half years or five semesters takes place at the Melaka campus in Malaysia. There is a shortage of basic science teachers in Malaysia; hence facilities available for teaching basic science at the Manipal campus, India are used for the first phase. MMMC provides faculty to augment patient care at hospitals and health centres. During the fifth semester, students commence their clinical training. This semester in India exposes them to the morbidity profile related to prevailing socio-economic conditions. In the second phase of five semesters at the Melaka campus, Malaysia, students continue with their clinical training at the Melaka General Hospital (800 beds), Muar Hospital (400 beds) and at the community health centres. Another 200 beds are available at the Terendak Camp Hospital to reinforce clinical training facilities. In addition to the courses and postings provided, students may undertake a clinical elective in any institution in Malaysia or internationally for a period between four and six weeks.

The curriculum of medical courses offered at MMMC is designed in line with expectations and guidelines of regulatory bodies of the Ministry of Higher education Malaysia, the Malaysian Qualifications Agency and the Malaysian Medical Council as well as MU. For example, the Ministry of Higher Education in Malaysia requires all programs to include compulsory courses in moral/religious studies and the course in Malaysian Studies achieves this. The program is licensed by the Ministry of Higher Education, while the degree awarded is recognised by the Malaysian Medical Council. The curriculum is inspected by accreditation teams involving the Malaysian Qualifications Agency and the Malaysian Medical Council in order to ensure that expected standards are met and maintained.

At present, the Dubai campus offers twenty-six programs in seven diverse disciplines such as management, engineering, biotechnology, fashion design, interior design, media and communication and information technology. Overseas credit transfer is operational

and serves to complement the curriculum pursued at Manipal University. Credit transfer arrangements with the University of Lancaster, UK; the University of Fraser Valley, Canada; and the Whistling Woods International, India augment the quality and variety of courses offered. Most programs offer elective options and visiting faculty with unique practical experience in a specialised field serve to bring a perfect academia-industry blend in the classroom. All programs are employment oriented.

Teaching and learning

Teaching and learning in the transnational campuses of MU is up to date. All courses use a judicious mix of lecture classes and practicals. Pure didactic lectures are discouraged and teachers are encouraged to use audiovisual aids. Classrooms, laboratories and other learning spaces are fitted with modern facilities to support interactive learning. Apart from classroom interactions, a variety of learner-centred pedagogic methods are followed including case presentations, industrial meetings, conference presentations, field visits, journal clubs, management games, poster presentations, quizzes, role play, seminars, self-directed learning, viva–voce and written assignments. Teaching and training focuses not only on knowledge and skills but also the development of the right attitude among students.

Teaching staff at Malaysia and Dubai campuses are selected on the basis of their qualifications, teaching and research experience, and academic proficiency. Qualifications prescribed by regulatory agencies are strictly insisted upon. The process involves strict measures to evaluate the credibility of teachers to teach professional courses. A team of management experts, human resource professionals, external experts and subject experts are involved in the selection process. Faculties from Manipal campus are hired on both transnational campuses according to need.

Examinations

The academic calendar is planned and updated each semester by the Academic Office. Internal assessments are conducted according to guidelines governing the respective courses.

Three sets of question papers are prepared for external assessment and sent to Manipal University in India. One of them is selected and the required numbers of copies are printed at Manipal University. These are then sent to the Dubai campus with tight security. The sealed envelopes are opened in the examination hall on the day of the examination in the subject concerned.

A central as well as a double valuation system is in practice. All examination papers are evaluated by internal and external examiners independently. A scheme of valuations with 'key answers' is prepared for every theory paper. If there is a difference of more than 15% marks (and this rarely happens) between the evaluation by the internal and external examiners, then the answer scripts are valued a third time by another faculty member. Results are published within thirty days after the last examination (practical or theory, whichever is later). The University communicates evaluation outcomes through the publication of marks on its website.

Student support services

There is a mentoring system providing academic counselling, personal and professional guidance, and remedial measures for students who are academically at risk.

The Dubai campus has been successful in arranging placement opportunities for its students. Graduating students in the last three years have found gainful employment in various major multinational companies. Sixty per cent is the placement success rate in the academic year 2008 and salary ranges have been reasonably high.

Research

On both transnational campuses, an Institutional Research Committee has been established to review proposals and facilitate work on research projects. In addition, MMMC, being a medical education institute, is represented on the Clinical Research Committee (Melaka) of the Ministry of Health in order to let researchers enjoy more facilities to pursue clinical research in the state of Melaka. Students are encouraged through project work to be involved in research. Adequate funding is set aside at both transnational campuses for research and associated activities.

Faculty are evaluated on teaching and research performance. It is integrated into their performance appraisal profiles. Research activities carried out by faculty are evaluated on the basis of published papers, by taking the impact factor of the published journal into account. Promotions and increments on salary are given to faculty on the basis of such evaluation.

Quality assurance

Both transnational campuses have mechanisms for evaluating their programs and resources through a diverse array of feedback mechanisms including from alumni and employers. As the MMMC medical courses are formulated according to expectations of the regulatory bodies of the Ministry of Higher education Malaysia they are assessed by the Malaysian Qualifications Agency, the Malaysian Medical Council and that of MU. This three dimensional assessment ensures the quality of programs.

Feedback collected from students, parents, alumni and employers is used to ensure that programs cater to the national interest and needs of regional industry, thus helping economic development of the nations. Feedback is discussed and acted upon, however major academic changes require approval by the MU Academic Senate. For example, at MMMC feedback from the joint coordination meetings involving the partner hospitals, the State Health Director, and the Director General of Health of the Ministry of Health create additional opportunities to make improvements. Feedback is conveyed to MU through the Joint Academic Council and through the Pro Vice-Chancellor of MU. The University has found this to be very valuable in maintaining relevance curricula and subsequent delivery.

Distinct Advantages of Transnational Education Delivery

TNE delivery from India costs considerably less than studying in the western countries. Credit transfer mechanism reduces the time spent away from home. The time spent in India gives students strong exposure to basic sciences and to morbidity patterns related to the socio-economic status and cultural practices of another country. Living on a multidisciplinary university campus at Manipal gives students a unique cross-cultural experience and builds confidence and independence. The student becomes part of an educational system with an international reputation and a worldwide alumni network.

In the case of TNE in Malaysia, the clinical phase is carried out in government hospitals in Malaysia where students work with patients and staff from different ethnic backgrounds akin to their own. Capital and recurring costs of programs are borne by MMMC. Hence partnership helps enjoy a major financial gain for the government while training large number of graduates annually.

The induction of trained faculty members from India augments specialist manpower in Malaysia. The MMMC would otherwise have drawn a large number of specialists from the Malaysian health delivery system. Faculty members at MMMC also assist the government hospitals at Melaka and Muar. This collaboration helps to create an academic and research environment in the government hospitals used for teaching, thus upgrading the quality of their care.

For Manipal University, establishment of the MMMC in Malaysia offers opportunities to:

- establish MU's reputation and brand equity at the transnational level
- establish a medical college in the minimum lead period and at favourable costs because of public-private partnerships
- retain mature links with India, having trained 2,700 Malaysian doctors at MU.
- acquire the best practices in medical education and health delivery and to prepare for global competition
- replicate the Manipal model at a transnational level and create a centre of excellence in the region
- use its strengths and facilities in the basic sciences to the optimum in order to facilitate credit transfer.

MMMC gives the MU faculty an opportunity for offshore assignments with a financial advantage and valuable exposure to education and the health sectors of Malaysia. It provides the opportunity to local partners to share the thrill of creating an institution in the service of their country and the reputation and financial gains that will accrue in the future. Joint ventures like MMMC reduce the lead period of establishing a medical college if undertaken by a single party.

Challenges Faced and Lessons Learnt in Transnational Education

Notwithstanding the developments of MU in its endeavour to establish transnational campuses in Dubai and Malaysia, the challenges are unique to individual campuses. Some of the challenges in the Dubai campuses are:

- The Dubai International Academic City is about 50km from the city of Dubai; hence commuting is tedious and time consuming, though comfortable even by public transport. Hence, flexible time schedules have to be implemented.
- Retaining and maintaining the infrastructure is expensive at a rental of 180 million Indian rupees per year, which is prohibitively high. MU is now establishing its own infrastructure in Dubai.
- As student hostels are situated about 30km from the Dubai International Academic City, commuting is not easy.
- Visa (work permit) restrictions limit movement of faculty to Dubai and UAE, prohibiting attendance at continuing medical education programs outside Dubai.
- The number of local students is limited. They prefer local universities/institutions in Dubai city to others. Hence, foreign institutions have to compete hard to recruit viable numbers and students of reasonably good quality.
- Many universities/institutions from Europe and the USA, offer a range of courses with flexible credit transfers (which may also provide an opportunity to students to visit the parent country). Local students prefer such institutions which is evident from enthusiastic responses to educational fairs.
- Medical courses offered here are not recognised by the Medical Council of India because of the difficulty of credit transfer between the two countries. Medical education in India is regulated by the Medical Council of India and the Ministry of Health. Present statutory conditions imposed by the Medical Council of India do not allow the flexibility necessary to promote partnerships between the public and private sectors.

Conclusion

It has been a very rewarding experience working with the public sector both in Dubai and Malaysia. MMMC is an example of manifold dividends of public-private partnerships. The project has also been cited as a success story by the World Bank's International Finance Corporation. Furthermore, creating educational hubs that share faculty and consultants as part-time teachers is a worthwhile case model to emulate.

Manipal University ensures transparency in all its processes from admissions (including fee structure), examinations, evaluation, recruitment of faculty, academic administration, provision of infrastructure, and compliance with regulations. They are in line with the guiding principles of a self-imposed culture and information pertaining to these processes is publicly available on the MU website at <http://www.manipal.edu>. The popularity of this culture drives further commitment and has remained with the student body, local community, and industry as a testament to its quality.

Good governance and an enabling environment have generated a trickledown effect, in that the value of such cooperative efforts has become known to all categories of employees. This facilitates excellent work relationships and promotes a participatory process which is stimulating. The regulatory process is positive with its correct focus on quality both in Dubai and Malaysia. In an incremental step, Manipal University is now exploring the possibility of offering pharmacy and allied health programs.

The success of the venture is due to the pragmatic approach of the Government of Malaysia towards public-private partnerships in education and healthcare. Similarly, with the growing demand in Dubai for technical and vocational programs in education, we at MU feel that the programs at both transnational campuses will be sustainable for the long term.

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Chapter 17

The Indira Gandhi National Open University (Case Study 5)

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The aim of this case study is to study the different aspects of internationalisation in the context of the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU). The process of globalisation of the University dates back to 1997, when it began offering academic programs outside India and provided pedagogic training and technology support in open and distance learning. The University provides seamless access to sustainable and learner-centric quality education, skill upgradation and capacity building across the country and overseas by making use of innovative technologies in distance education. The cumulative enrolment of overseas students in its programs has exceeded 32,400 and annual revenue generation is more than five crores in Indian rupees (INR) (approximately AUD1.1 million).

Indira Gandhi National Open University

Established in 1985, by an Act of Parliament, IGNOU celebrated its silver jubilee on 19 November 2009. Today, IGNOU has an impressive profile of great magnitude. With 2.6 million students, 21 schools of study and a global presence in thirty-six countries and sixty-one partner institutions, it has emerged as a major distance-learning university in the world. As a global leader in distance education, it was conferred the Centre of Excellence Award in Distance Education in 1993 and the Award of Excellence for Distance Education Materials in 1999 by the Commonwealth of Learning, Canada. In July 2010 the Webometrics Ranking of World Universities, which ranks universities on the basis of its calibre on the internet, ranked IGNOU as eleventh in South Asia (CSIC 2010a) and tenth amongst Indian universities (CSIC 2010b).

The role of a dedicated office or division is of key importance in the context of internationalisation. Acknowledging this, the international division of IGNOU was

established on the 16 October 1997 as a cell and it was upgraded to a division in 2002. The main objectives of the division are:

- Promoting the IGNOU academic programs overseas.
- Establishing bilateral and multilateral cooperation and exchange.
- Licensing course training programs for open universities/institutions overseas.
- Providing consultancy in open and distance learning to newly established universities/institutions overseas.
- Coordinating international programs with private/public international agencies.
- Providing pedagogical and technological support to partner institutions overseas.

IGNOU has established partnership arrangements in thirty-six countries through sixty-one partner institutions. They are private as well as public and are located across different regions and countries such as the Gulf region, Central Asia, Africa, members of the South Asian Association of Regional Cooperation (SAARC), Australia, UK, and Europe. Specific destinations in which it has a presence are: UAE, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Bahrain, Qatar, Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Nepal, Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Singapore, Malaysia, Spain, France, Germany, Kenya, Ethiopia and Papua New Guinea.

Models of Collaboration

IGNOU has adopted three models which integrate different aspects of internationalisation. The first approach is the generic collaboration through memorandum of agreements to establish partnerships in the field of higher education through distance education. It provides for the sharing of academic experiences, the development of strategies for designing and offering academic programs and promotion of joint research and projects. It includes ICT-enabled education and effective learner support services.

Recently, IGNOU has signed generic agreements with universities in Papua New Guinea, Malaysia, Fiji, Spain and South Africa. In such collaborations, partners are required to jointly devise implementation strategies and action plans with timelines in order that objectives are achieved. A monitoring committee with nominees from both partners assesses and evaluates to ensure that objectives are being met.

The second model is the specific agreement to offer IGNOU's academic programs under bilateral agreements. To launch its programs overseas and especially in the Gulf region, IGNOU adopted this type of collaboration as it would be easier to identify a local partner that can accept the responsibility of providing academic support, infrastructure and support services to learners. The University in this way is saved from incurring infrastructural costs overseas and passes the benefits onto learners in terms of keeping the cost of the programs down. The obligation of IGNOU is to identify a local partner through a memorandum of understanding which clearly defines the obligations and liabilities of the University as well as those of the partner institution. IGNOU provides admissions and courseware; organises training programs for counsellors/administrative staff in academic and administrative matters; provides assignments; conducts end-of-term examinations;

evaluates answer scripts; declares results and awards certificates to successful students. The partner institution, on its part, provides pre-admission and post-admission support services to learners, such as laboratory and computer facilities. The partner institution appoints counsellors and local tutors for conducting counselling sessions, evaluating assignments (examination papers are evaluated by IGNOU) and providing feedback to students in consultation with IGNOU. These agreements are generally for a period of three years and may be renewed depending on the performance of the institution. IGNOU has signed specific agreements with partner institutions which offer its academic programs and the liabilities are shared equally by the partners. IGNOU has signed specific agreements with 61 partner institutions across the world.

The third model is a licensing agreement by which study materials are licensed to be adopted or adapted under an Agreement for Acquisition of Reproduction Right which is generally for a period of three to five years with a renewal clause. The copyright of course materials is reserved by the University. IGNOU has licensing agreements with the National Open University of Nigeria, Open University of Sudan, Mauritius College of the Air, Commonwealth of Learning (Canada) and the Kenyatta University of Kenya. Of the three models, IGNOU takes the initiative to identify the partner in the second model, while in the other approaches or models the initiative is taken by the sponsored institution or agency.

In addition, IGNOU organises capacity-building workshops for teachers and practitioners of open and distance learning at the request of sponsoring agencies. These workshops have been offered in African countries such as Ghana, Ethiopia, Zambia, Sierra Leone and Madagascar, in collaboration with the UNESCO's International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa. IGNOU also offers the Postgraduate Diploma in Distance Education and Masters in Distance Education in a number of African countries. In collaboration with the Commonwealth of Learning and South Africa Development Community, IGNOU is offering capacity building programs in Malawi, Jamaica, Samoa, Namibia, Seychelles, Nigeria, Botswana, Zambia and Lesotho. Learners in this model sit for examinations at identified overseas centres and the evaluation and declaration of results lie with IGNOU.

Noteworthy Projects

To meet emerging trends of the information era, IGNOU offers programs online which are generally modular and which permit learners to progress at their own pace. Online programs have expanded the reach of IGNOU programs to isolated learners scattered throughout the world. A number of projects have also emerged building on the strengths of IGNOU's online program capability. These projects or collaborations have resulted in certificate, undergraduate and postgraduate programs offered online with IGNOU as the main content provider.

Pan-African e-network project

Under the aegis of internationalisation, the e-network project undertaken by IGNOU deserves special mention. The former President of India, Dr APJ Abdul Kalam

during the inaugural session of the Pan-African Parliament held in Johannesburg on the 16 September 2004 proposed to connect all fifty-three countries of the African Union by a satellite and fibre-optic network that would provide effective communication and connectivity among the nations. The proposed network aimed to provide tele-medicine, tele-education, internet and voice-over internet protocol service and support e-commerce, e-governance, infotainment, resource mapping and meteorological services. The Ministry of External Affairs in New Delhi is responsible for the project while Telecommunications Consultants Limited is the implementing agency. IGNOU was identified as the nodal agency for handling tele-education from March 2006. With a state-of-the-art studio at IGNOU, set up by Telecommunications Consultants Limited, the pilot project commenced in March 2007 through the teleconferencing mode and it connected two universities of Ethiopia—Addis Ababa and Harmaya.

After the successful completion of the pilot project, as part of a major Pan-African project, IGNOU signed memoranda of understanding with sixteen African countries and with the objective to offer tele-education services to all fifty-three states of the African Union. Teaching is conducted through teleconferencing mode with a two-way communication link between students of the African Union and the state-of-the-art studio setup in IGNOU. The programs delivered are at the postgraduate, undergraduate and diploma/certificate levels. The emphasis is mostly on management programs (human resource management and marketing management). The entire course content is available in the Pan-African e-network portal and can be downloaded. Students can also access recorded sessions through knowledge management systems of the portal. Students will sit end-of-term exams at the learning centres across Africa while evaluation, the declaration of results and certification is IGNOU's responsibility. Students are to submit project reports to IGNOU under the guidance of program coordinators during the course of their study. The first session of the main project was completed in April 2010 and students sat end-of-term examinations in June 2010. Approximately eight hundred students from different learning centres of the African Union registered for the July 2010 admission.

Pan-SAARC e-network project

After successful implementation of the Pan-African project, IGNOU signed a memorandum of understanding with the Telecommunications Consultants Limited in November 2008 to provide tele-education to SAARC countries for different professional courses.

The Gulf chapter

IGNOU has established its presence in six Arab countries of the Persian Gulf region. They are UAE, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Bahrain, Kuwait and Qatar. Learners are primarily from the Indian diaspora community with the majority of them working in the corporate sector or as in-service teachers. Management and teacher training programs of IGNOU are in great demand in the Gulf region and the male to female learner ratio is 52:48.

In regards to the equivalence of IGNOU's programs in the Gulf region, learners are assured employment in the private sector. However, with regard to employability or equivalence in the government sector the issue remains to be resolved. The Indian Ministry of Human Resource Development has formed a joint working group to look into the different areas and challenges related to recognition of IGNOU's academic programs in the Gulf region.

Other collaborations

In addition to the above projects, IGNOU's intergovernmental tie ups need mention. The Commonwealth of Learning, an intergovernmental agency established by the Commonwealth governments in 1987, has fostered partnerships for networking among various countries and institutions including IGNOU. For program content and delivery, the Commonwealth of Learning in collaboration with IGNOU initiated and enabled the Commonwealth Executive Master of Business Administration and Commonwealth Executive Master in Public Administration programs.

IGNOU has a partnership with the International Development Research Center. The main objective of the collaboration is to address the needs of development workers so that they are equipped to work closely and effectively with communities located in Brazil, Chile, Columbia, East Africa, Egypt, Peru, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Philippines and Thailand. IGNOU's role in the partnership is to host the global secretariat of the website that supports these collaborations namely telecentre.org.

IGNOU and the UNESCO have collaborated for joint certification of the postgraduate program in journalism which is an ideal model for media education and benefits this emerging workforce in the developing world.

Another novel collaboration is the 'Erasmus Mundus' partnership, which aims to consolidate and offer future cooperation in projects among universities. It will involve student and staff mobility at all levels of higher education, provide education/training to foreign students, and training and research assignments to staff from the countries covered under such projects.

IGNOU has launched a graduate program in applied sign language studies in collaboration with the University of Central Lancashire in Britain. The course is believed to be the first of its kind in the world. These programs will greatly support the hearing impaired. It also collaborates with partners such as the National Institute of Information Technology, India and the Queensland University of Technology, Australia on development of curriculum in identified areas and programs of study.

Foreign languages like Spanish, German, Japanese and Persian have also been developed in collaboration with the Institut Cervantes Society, Goethe Institut, Japan Foundation and Iran Cultural House which would bridge the language divide and connect people in the international arena.

Quality Assurance

It wasn't until the nineties that the subject of quality assurance at Indian distance learning institutions received consideration since the main focus was previously on 'access' and increasing learner enrolments. Towards the late nineties, however, it was realised that for transnational education (TNE) quality assurance mechanisms needed to be developed. At IGNOU, quality assurance issues are monitored by the Distance Education Council (DEC). It is a statutory body, established in 1991 under Section 16(7) read with Section 5(2) of The *Indira Gandhi National Open University Act, 1985*. As per clause 2(a) of Statute 28, the DEC is responsible for the promotion, coordination and maintenance of standards in open and distance learning in India. The mandate of DEC is 'to provide an innovative, flexible and open system of University education, for the promotion, including introduction and continuation, of courses and programmes which conform to the standards prescribed by the DEC, to maintain such standards in the institutions offering distance education programmes and to prevent, through such measures as are considered appropriate, institutions from offering courses and programmes which do not conform to the standards laid down by the Council' (MHRD 1985).

DEC has produced guidelines for quality assurance of open and distance learning. However, its jurisdiction is limited to the state open universities and other distance education institutions operating within the national framework. The accreditation of DEC covers both: institutions and programs. The quality parameters are:

- academic programs supported by learning resources
- learner support services
- infrastructure and human resource facilities
- governance
- research and consultancy
- innovative practices.

In collaboration with national agencies such as NAAC, National Board of Accreditation, National Council for Teacher Education, All India Council for Technical Education, DEC has developed quality assurance guidelines. Different areas of operations such as course/program design and development, staff training and capacity building (for counsellors and administrators), delivery modes (print and audio/video), and other multi-media solutions have been integrated into the quality assurance mechanism of DEC. Now the time has come to consider higher level criteria and indicators for assessing the quality of e-learning.

Quality assurance guidelines need to be developed in the transnational area because until now IGNOU has been only an exporter of open and distance learning. It is also necessary that standards are formulated for importing education. With the passing of the Foreign Educational Institutions Bill, which according to the Human Resource Development Minister of India 'is a milestone which will enhance choices, increase competition and benchmark quality' (*Business Standard,* 16 March 2010), significant optimism has been

generated. Comprehensive domestic regulations to safeguard the nation's interest with respect to foreign education providers should also be incorporated into the higher education policy in the context of open and distance learning as this will undoubtedly strengthen India's position in the global education scenario of distance education.

Crossing national borders has brought about many new issues; hence it is necessary for distance educators and policy makers to review current practices. The process of forging collaborations and executing them successfully is a very complex task. To achieve success in this, intensive knowledge, leadership, diplomacy, well defined strategies, mutual trust and appreciation are binding factors. The implication is that new policies have to be formulated for addressing different aspects of productivity, entrepreneurship, marketing, good practices and quality.

An important challenge in transnational distance education collaborations is to resolve the issue of equivalence of programs. Equivalence of distance education programs needs to be integrated with any general process of equivalence that a country adopts. Equivalence of distance education programs will help to achieve recognition in the national context and will facilitate its acceptability for higher studies and employment. Equivalence in content and curricula of programs will also help to achieve national and international credit transfer. Credit transfer between distance education and face-to-face education should be the ideal towards which TNE should move. It will ensure the pace of mobility of students whether they receive a degree through distance education or from face-to-face education. To facilitate equivalence, credit transfer, and mobility of students under the distance education mode, an operational mechanism needs to be put in place. International agencies may be entrusted the task of facilitating the task. There are projects such as the Transnational Education Qualifications Framework being steered by the Commonwealth of Learning that have the potential to contribute to this objective.

Ways of working together in TNE delivery needs attention. Since no single institution may have the capacity to develop diverse media components, a consortium of institutions that can develop materials in different modes needs to be established. At the organisation level all partners should be involved to provide a sense of ownership and ensure sustainability. A level playing field should be given to all the partners and the responsibility of each partner institution needs to be clearly defined. While the use of ICT would give the power of connectivity, there is need to synchronise communication technology with local socio-cultural conditions in the global platform. Needless to mention that courses offered in collaboration should be relevant to the needs of students. Also quality assurance tools should be developed jointly by all partners and administered objectively.

Intellectual property rights have a dominant role to play in making or marring distance education systems around the world. Greater attention, therefore, has to be paid to the management of intellectual property rights so rights of patent holders are well protected.

The Way Forward

Working in partnerships can be beneficial only when there is appreciation of the venture in different cultural contexts without compromising threshold quality. Addressing quality assurance issues from the point of view of both providers and receivers will facilitate the move towards this. IGNOU with its huge student enrolment, and academic programs in a number of countries, should take the lead of bringing stakeholders in open and distance learning together for meaningful discussions around quality assurance in open and distance learning that crosses borders.

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Chapter 18

Operating Across National Borders: Birla Institute of Technology and Science (Case Study 6)

Emeritus Professor LK Maheshwari

The Birla Institute of Technology & Science (BITS), Pilani was declared 'deemed-to-be-university' in 1964. Deemed-to-be-university status is conferred on higher education institutions that have administrative autonomy to offer degree and research programs independent of an affiliating university. It is regulated by both state and central government legislations and monitored by the University Grants Commission (UGC) under Section 3 of the *University Grants Commission Act, 1956* (UGC Act) by the Government of India.

BITS is a private institution and admits male and female students into programs such as engineering, sciences, management, pharmacy, and public health. The Institute has been rated as the best privately run institution in India in engineering and technology in 2009 and is among the top ten institutions in the country according to the rankings of *India Today* (Madhok 2009). The National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) has accredited the Institute with a cumulative grade point average of 3.71 out of a maximum of four and it has therefore achieved the highest 'A' grade in its assessment. BITS alumni are located throughout the world and occupy senior positions in industry, academics, business and public administration.

In the early years of its inception between 1964 and 1970, with the support of the Ford Foundation grant, BITS had the advantage of collaborating with the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in the USA. BITS operates a semester system with modular courses which incorporate continuous internal evaluation using letter grades. It has created strong institutional links with industry that integrate the curriculum with compulsory industry-based and practical components called 'Practice School' (PS). Dual degree, credit transfer, and range of electives, etc. have also been introduced into programs to augment curricular flexibility. This case study will detail how BITS accommodates these in its operations across national borders, in Dubai, and the challenges BITS has faced and the lessons learnt.

The Beginning of the Dubai Campus

The ETA ASCON Group is one of the established groups of companies in UAE with more than 12,000 employees, 99% of whom are of Indian origin. The Chairman of this company is an Arab national and the Vice Chairman and managing directors are Indians. Commencing as a construction company, it has now expanded into many other fields such as air conditioning, elevators, power generation and shipping. It has offices in Abu Dhabi, Dubai and a number of other places in UAE. The company had a turnover of USD1.3 billion in 1998.

The overall prevailing business environment in UAE and the Middle East and its growth pattern indicated a strong need, and a bright future, for education, especially technical education. Every year more than 25,000 students sit higher secondary examinations. In the absence of educational facilities for graduate level technical education, many candidates of the Indian diaspora have returned to their home countries. Considering this, the ETA ASCON Group contemplated offering degree level programs in technical education in collaboration with a highly-reputed Indian educational institution.

A team from ETA ASCON Group visited a number of institutions in India in 1998 including BITS. The BITS model, offering engineering and technology education, suited the company best. The team from BITS, led by its Director, was invited to visit Dubai to hold discussions with the executives of the company, the Indian Consulate General in Dubai and other public figures. The company indicated that of the approximately 800,000 Indians in UAE about 400,000 were in Dubai and that there were approximately 50,000 Indian students at various levels in the UAE. The Consul General of India in Dubai also endorsed the need for a reputed university/institute like BITS to open its campus in Dubai. The ETA ASCON Group conveyed its willingness to put up the entire infrastructure according to BITS' specifications and provide all local administrative support to BITS for setting up its Dubai campus.

The proposal was formulated, discussed and approved by the Senate of BITS and it also got the go ahead of the Board of Governors and the General Body of BITS. The UGC and the Ministry of Human Resource Development approved the proposal of BITS to open a campus in Dubai and complimented it for taking such an initiative. The then Prime Minister of India, Mr Atal Bihari Vajpayee conveyed his goodwill message through the Chancellor, Dr KK Birla on the eve of the inauguration of the 'BITS Pilani-Dubai Campus' and mentioned that the campus would serve three unique purposes: provide the children of Indians living in Gulf countries access to higher technical education; fulfil aspirations of indigenous students; and, serve as a bridge between the people of India and the people of the Gulf countries.

The Operational Process

Experts from BITS and ETA ASCON had detailed meetings to work out requirements such as infrastructure, faculty, support staff, and admission procedures. It was agreed

that the Al Ghurair Academy of Higher Education established by ETA ASCON Group would get a general license from the UAE Government to conduct educational programs in collaboration with other institutions. A suitable location would initially be rented. Meanwhile BITS, Pilani would identify a senior faculty member from Pilani at the level of dean to head the Dubai campus and other faculty members could then be deputed from Pilani and also recruited directly.

In order to ensure the quality of educational programs, the following broad framework was agreed upon:

1. The structure of the degree programs offered at the Dubai campus will be the same as the programs at the home campus in Pilani.
2. Curriculum and pedagogy, evaluation and flexible programs, and curricular transactions such as dual degree and credit transfer will follow the Academic Regulations of BITS.
3. Student admissions and recruitment of faculty members will be according to BITS procedures and will be fully controlled by BITS.
4. The important feature of the BITS system in providing links with industry through Practice School courses will be integral to all degree programs.
5. The Examination Committee of BITS will review courses and student performance in these courses every semester.
6. A Governing Council, with the Chancellor of BITS as its Chairman and three members each from BITS and the ETA ASCON Group, will oversee the overall functioning of the Dubai campus.

Some Operational Issues

While operating a branch campus in a foreign country, it was realised that the campus has to have firm roots in that country and to grow to the required standards. Some of the operational issues experienced by BITS are:

1. General issues:
   (a) adopting, adapting and following local rules and regulations
   (b) building a relationship with the local media
   (c) being continuously conscious of the perception of all stakeholders, namely, the parent institute, collaborators, local authorities, students, parents, etc.
   (d) marketing programs to attract quality students each year.
2. Specific issues in the context of BITS:
   (a) replicating the BITS academic system across borders to the exact standards expected by the home campus
   (b) planning and implementing strategies to start and expand the number of Practice School stations for internship projects for students

(c) establishing collaborations with international institutions of repute for student and faculty exchanges and for admissions to graduate programs

(d) inducting faculty to the BITS culture including pedagogy, evaluation methods, academic regulations, etc. of the BITS system

(e) attracting and retaining qualified and competent faculty staff

(f) organising co-curricular activities for students so that they feel they are part of the larger BITS system. Also facilitating participation of students of the Dubai campus in the cross-campus activities of other campuses of BITS in India, namely Pilani, Goa and Hyderabad.

(g) maintaining strict discipline among students as per UAE laws

(h) sustaining continuous interaction with collaborators.

Quality Assurance

While accrediting BITS campuses in India, NAAC accepted our request to visit the Dubai campus and include the Dubai campus in the overall BITS accreditation. As already mentioned, BITS received the highest 'A' grade in NAAC's assessment.

Accreditation of higher education at UAE is a legal requirement and is presently being carried out by two agencies independently:

1. The Commission for Academic Accreditation (CAA) of the UAE Government assesses all institutions in UAE.
2. The Knowledge and Human Resource Development Agency of the Government of Dubai, assesses institutions in the free zone in Dubai.

CAA carries out two types of accreditation that are valid for a minimum of two years:

1. Institution Licensure: This ascertains whether the institution has the necessary infrastructure, finance and faculty to undertake the programs it offers. This procedure is carried out by CAA officials (ordinarily three overseas assessors employed by CAA under the UAE Ministry of Higher education). The process includes extensive documentation, suggestions made by CAA for correction, modification, clarification of aspects in documents, resubmission and site inspection including interaction with the Head of the Institution and others and it takes a minimum of one year.
2. Program Accreditation: This is undertaken to ascertain whether the courses offered in a program have the requisite quality in terms of course content, laboratory facilities, etc. This is undertaken by an external expert team invited by CAA and whose expenses are fully borne by the institution. This too takes a minimum of one year involving extensive documentation on each course, pedagogy, laboratories, selection of experts by CAA, a visit of experts to the institution for five days covering all aspects of the academic processes, discussion of the preliminary report by experts, reply to the final report, etc.

The accreditation of the Knowledge and Human Resource Development Agency demands proof, both through elaborate documentation, as well as personal interaction with the CEO that the Dubai campus is comparable to the parent campus in all respects of the academic process from admission to graduation. The license is issued for one year, on meeting the demand.

The Dubai campus is located in the free zone, and therefore, does not have to undergo CAA accreditation. However, it volunteered for CAA accreditation following suggestions from CAA. CAA accreditation has certain advantages conferred by the UAE Government. The Dubai campus was issued the licensure in 2006–07 after voluminous documentation and interaction, satisfying CAA queries and after several visits to the campus.

In regards to program accreditation by CAA, most of the stipulations made by the expert committee consisting of members of the Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology were met. The members praised BITS on several counts of quality. However, CAA made accreditation conditional that the Dubai campus should not confer BITS degrees and that the nomenclature of the degrees awarded should be different. Furthermore, it commented that the 25 units of the PS and common curricula in the first two years of the program were not necessary. BITS decided not to accept these conditions as these course components have been the core strength of BITS programs over the last 35 years of its operations. Therefore, BITS withdrew its application in 2006.

Later on it applied for and obtained the license in 2007 from the Knowledge and Human Resource Development Agency.

The Experience of the Dubai Campus

The campus is professionally governed. All academic operations are the responsibilities of BITS whereas day-to-day administrative aspects are managed by the collaborators, ETA ASCON. There is close coordination between the Director of BITS and the ETA ASCON personnel. Admission, faculty recruitment, planning of teaching and evaluation, assignment of PS stations and PS projects, student placement, etc. are all managed by BITS. The leadership of the campus has continuous dialogue with accrediting agencies, professional societies like the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) and the Society of Automotive Engineers (SAE). Continuous interaction with industry for PS is also coordinated by the BITS leadership. The Dubai campus is currently engaged with over 350 industries in UAE to support student PS projects. The leadership also engages with leading foreign universities and establishes collaborations, arranges student and faculty exchange and oversees research and admission after graduation.

All courses are continuously reviewed by members of faculty who also teach them. Periodical quizzes, class tests (both open and closed book), tutorials, laboratory assignments, projects and a comprehensive examination at the end of the semester are some of the modes of evaluation of learning outcomes. Students get back their

evaluated answer sheets within one week after the test, and mid-semester performance is announced so that they know their relative standing in class. At the end of the semester, they are awarded letter grades A, B, C, D, E depending upon their cumulative performance in all tests, quizzes, etc. These letter grades represent performance quality: A-Excellent (10 points), B-Good (8 points), C-Fair (6 points), D-Poor (4 points), and E-Exposed (2 points). All are valid grades but there are restrictions on the number of E's a student can accumulate. In the Dubai campus a candidate is asked to repeat E grades. A cumulative grade point average of at least 4.5 on a scale of 10 in each semester is the minimum requirement. Students who fail to score a minimum 4.5 cumulative grade point average and have more than one E grade, and whose learning pace is found to be slow, get into the purview of an Academic Monitoring Board for further support and monitoring. All these measures ensure quality in teaching and evaluation.

Students of the various campuses of BITS communicate with each other very effectively and compare facilities and approaches of education delivery at the different campuses. The Dubai students, in particular, are very active. Special efforts have been made so that Dubai students attend student functions in other BITS campuses. Participation in these events has resulted in greater understanding among students. The Dubai campus has organised many co-curricular and extra-curricular activities in the Gulf region and participating students have earned a reputation for their accomplishments. For example, the Dubai campus has the largest number of student members of IEEE in UAE. International collaboration established by the Dubai campus has helped graduates to get admission to many top ranking foreign universities for masters and doctoral programs. Benchmarking of curriculum and other best practices has also helped ensure quality.

Innovative Practices

BITS has earned the reputation of being a unique institution in the private sector in India for delivering quality education. All the special features of BITS in Pilani have been incorporated in the degree programs offered in Dubai. The PS component that provides internship opportunities to students in Dubai industries is one example. 'Why should we take BITS students for internship?' was the common question asked by Dubai industries in the initial stages. Extra steps had to be taken to address such questions. Students had to be mentored to display a professional attitude while they carried out their PS projects. Initially only a few industries agreed to take BITS students. However, the performance of BITS students in projects and cost advantages have resulted in many industries now accepting BITS students. The feature that BITS faculty members take care of the day-to-day monitoring and mentoring of students and the interface they establish with professionals in industry have been welcomed by industries. The PS exposes students to projects relevant to industries and there are over 350 industries in UAE that currently operate BITS PS centres in, for example, manufacturing, consultancy, software, services, and construction. But, needless to say reaching this stage has been very challenging. There were other challenges too.

Challenges

A decade of operation in engineering and technology education in Dubai points to the importance of maintaining standards of the home institutions in a foreign country in all respects. The quality of programs offered has to be similar to those offered by the home institution. Perceptions of collaborators, local authorities, parents and students have to be always kept in view. Following local rules and regulations, maintaining discipline among students according to UAE laws and the importance of relationships with the local media are some factors which need to be carefully managed.

Before BITS established its campus in Dubai, the issue of student visas was based on a case-by-case basis. Efforts were devoted to address this issue and now students who are admitted are granted visas. Also in some discrete cases, visas were denied in the middle of a student's study period of four years. A contingency plan had to be provided to accommodate such students in the home institution, although they remained a student of the Dubai campus. Such provisions have been made by BITS in its Academic Regulations.

The Dubai campus also had to address the challenge of continuously orienting faculty to BITS Academic Regulations, pedagogy, evaluation methods and many other aspects because many faculty members had taken leave from their parent institutions and joined BITS for relatively short periods. After the expiry of their leave, they had to return to their institutions. Continuous orientation of faculty has contributed significantly to improve the quality of educational programs. Efforts have always been made to attract quality faculty to BITS. Periodic interaction of faculty members at both Dubai and Pilani campuses also helped to sustain quality.

The economy of Dubai has faced recessionary trends for the last few years and it has affected all higher education institutions in Dubai with lower than average enrolment in many institutions. From the very beginning, the student population comprises wards of expatriate Indians working in UAE and other nearby countries. About 40% of the total student population seeking admission into the Dubai campus is from India and there are candidates from Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Oman, and Qatar. Due to various innovative processes and unique program features, BITS was less affected by the recession than the others. However, higher education institutions wishing to establish themselves in foreign countries have to keep these trends in mind and make contingency plans to overcome such exigencies.

Conclusion

The BITS, Pilani–Dubai campus established in 2000 has been providing quality education in engineering and technology in the Gulf region for a decade. About one thousand students who graduated over the last few years have been well placed in industry, and research and development units. Many have secured admission in prestigious universities in the West. The educational process established at its Dubai campus by BITS, Pilani has emulated all the operational procedures and measures of the home campus thereby producing quality

students. Its PS courses embedded into the curriculum link theory learnt in the classroom with relevant industrial practices. This makes the BITS Dubai campus a unique institution in the Gulf region.

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Section 4

Conclusion





Chapter 19

Lessons of Experience

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Sections two and three of this book analysed the different contexts, policy developments and stakeholder perspectives on quality assurance of transnational higher education with specific attention to Australia and India. The policies relating to transnational education (TNE) in India have evolved primarily in response to the transnational delivery of education by foreign education providers in India while Australia's concern for quality assurance is seen in the context of transnational delivery of education by Australian universities in other countries. There is at present some indirect involvement of the quality assurance agency in India through accrediting Indian institutions who have collaborative partnerships with foreign education providers. However, there is direct and significant involvement of the national quality assurance body in Australia in the quality assurance of TNE of the Australian providers offered in other countries. It is important to note that while universities in India have begun to offer TNE in other countries, Australia is also becoming a recipient of TNE. As a result there is a common concern in both countries for the quality assurance of education that crosses borders in both directions and the higher education policy frameworks in both countries are undergoing major changes.

It is this common interest amidst varied experiences that constitutes the core of the book in chapters three to eighteen and chapters 1 and 2 set the global context for the TNE developments. The comparative perspectives of the book provide an insight into the change and transformation that is happening in the higher education sectors although the two countries are in different stages of development. In India the driver of this transformation is the inevitable external force of liberalisation. In Australia it is the internal compulsion to fully utilise the capacity in higher education and the desire to become more international. Drawing on these comparative perspectives, this chapter highlights the lessons from each other's experiences.

Quality Assurance is Becoming International

TNE operations, as they extend to many countries, are bound by regulations of the host countries. On the one hand, widely diverse regulations impose a heavy burden on the TNE providers. On the other hand, in countries where regulation is weak there are strong possibilities of low quality TNE providers operating in the host country. As the internationalisation of education grows it should give rise to internationally accepted regulatory practices. In particular, it has been noted that quality assurance is becoming international as TNE is growing in importance. Quality assurance imposes much less burden on the monitoring process and minimises risks from the perspective of both the provider and the recipient countries.

The case studies presented in the Australian and Indian sections highlight how higher education institutions engaged in TNE in these countries are increasingly becoming more global. Due to the long history of internationalisation in the Australian higher education sector, the national quality assurance agency of Australia has a comprehensive framework to examine the quality of international activities of the Australian universities, in particular their TNE operations.

India having a very marginal engagement in TNE in other countries has few robust examples of following-up regulation and passing the test of quality assurance. It does however show the resilience of Indian higher education institutions and their endurance in operating abroad where regulation is tough. The relatively long experience of Australian TNE and the enduring character of Indian TNE are good examples of TNE all over the globe. Whereas India may like to learn from Australia—and its tools, processes and intensity of quality assurance mechanisms—the experience of how two leading private universities from India won the confidence of regulatory authorities and followed elaborate quality assurance measures would also be of interest to the Australian higher education sector. In fact, these two Indian universities proved to be more national than many of their domestic institutions.

Exercising adequate monitoring over education that crosses national borders is not an easy task. In spite of the ten year record of quality assurance of TNE, the national quality assurance agency of Australia, the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA), acknowledges that it cannot be an expert in all the national contexts that Australian universities operate. Consequently it has established collaborative arrangements with quality assurance agencies in countries where the Australian universities have a significant presence. When AUQA audits the overseas operations of the Australian universities, a key question is about how well the Australian universities fulfil the national regulations and quality assurance requirements of the host country. AUQA also consults the national quality assurance bodies about any quality issues the Australian operations might experience in the host country.

A similar approach will be useful to monitor Indian TNE as the Indian higher education institutions expand their activities transnationally. The National Assessment and Accreditation Council has established a number of international collaborations and this should extend to considering TNE issues.

The Australian chapters present many success stories as well as instances of problematic areas the higher education sector has experienced in dealing with TNE. Some institutions deal with all the aspects of TNE through one mechanism (e.g. a TNE committee), while others 'mainstream' the various aspects of TNE work (through curriculum committee, research committee, etc.). Either approach can work, provided that quality assurance of TNE is explicitly considered by the institutions. Some institutions have shown poor quality in TNE through assuming that it needs no special attention at all.

Exporting–Importing Divide

More and more countries are becoming both exporters and importers of education. Australia, the fifth largest exporter of educational services in the world, reported in 2009 that education was its third most profitable export industry (after coal and iron ore). Other countries make similar observations about the value to them of an 'educational export industry'. Until recently, export of education was seen as being solely from the developed to the developing world ('north-south') but this strong 'import/export' categorisation is breaking down, as exporters import and importers export. Thus though the divide exists it is no longer very strictly true. India, too, exports education to the Middle East, Africa, and elsewhere; Australia imports education through the overseas universities that operate in South Australia.

The case study on the University City Project where the South Australian Government invited overseas universities to operate in South Australia presents useful information on Australia as an importer of higher education. Similarly, the Dubai campus of the Birla Institute of Technology and Science (BITS), the Malaysian campus of the Manipal University and the operations of the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) in countries with substantial Indian diaspora are typical examples of India becoming an exporter.

The volume of TNE that is offered by Indian higher education institutions in countries with an Indian diaspora is already significant and in the years to come this will increase. Monitoring the quality of these operations will become a critical responsibility for the Indian quality assurance bodies. However, the current discussion in India on quality assurance emphasises the challenges related to incoming education. While the case studies present some fine examples of India becoming a TNE provider the policy debates continue to be around incoming TNE.

As the divide between importers and exporters is diffused, countries realise the need to develop a balanced quality assurance framework that would consider the issues related to both export and import. At this point, questions around standards and their interpretations become challenging (e.g. what standards should one apply to education that comes into the country? What standards should be applied for the education that the domestic institutions send to other countries? Should there be different standards for domestic providers and TNE providers?). At face value, these questions may seem to be simple and have an obvious answer but when interpreted in the context of public good,

value for money, national development, comparability in learning experiences etc. the issue becomes complex. When the policy frameworks are finalised in India, interpreting them and implementing them effectively will involve addressing these questions. The various initiatives of Australia to develop a balanced regulatory and quality assurance framework have been a useful learning experience for India.

Emerging Evidence Against Popular Perception

There is a perception that TNE providers offer low-quality provisions and that the receiving countries are exploited by the revenue generation approach of exporting countries. There is, however, some evidence to show from this study that transnational delivery of higher education can respond to human and social development needs, provide new opportunities, widen access and increase the possibilities for improving the skills of the workforce if managed appropriately. TNE programs of the University of Southern Queensland, offshore campuses of Curtin University, capacity development programs of IGNOU offered in Africa, the rationale behind the South Australian Governments' strategy to invite overseas universities to Australia, the reason for the opening of the campuses in Dubai and Malaysia by the Indian institutions are all evidence of the benefits of TNE.

The Australian experience indicates that the benefits of Australian TNE are demonstrable in countries such as Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong where the national regulation and quality assurance arrangements for TNE have evolved and become more mature and progressive, and policies are transparent and facilitative. TNE is seen by these countries as a contributor to capacity development. A similar recognition for the value of Indian TNE can be observed from the experiences of Manipal University, IGNOU and BITS.

It is necessary to be able to differentiate the 'low quality' from the 'good quality' and to encourage good providers a robust quality assurance system that is sensitive to the objectives of the program and the benefits it can bring to the receiving country. Both Australia and India need to ensure that their policy frameworks and the consequent interpretations are transparent to facilitate good TNE providers.

Sensitivity to National Regulations

Even in countries that give higher education institutions a great deal of autonomy, government legislation, policies and funding, have a major impact. Australia would not be a leading TNE exporter were it not for government policies on institutions being more self-sufficient. The government policy to reduce funding encouraged the higher education institutions to use their spare capacity to offer student places to international students onshore at full cost recovery basis. This business model gradually increased momentum to recruiting offshore international students through various TNE arrangements. One could see a similar policy impact in India but in a different way. The Indian section observes that there has been a long record of a lack of regulation prompting all sorts

of foreign education providers to operate in India. The very fear of exploitation delayed the process of regulation with the resultant effect that at present TNE delivery into India lacks quality assurance by Indian authorities. The entry of excellent providers of education is by default restricted. India might have enjoyed more foreign provision of high quality education within the country had the government initiated regulation with quality assurance of TNE. Sometimes well-intentioned policies and actions are not well-considered and do not achieve the intended results. The proposed Bill on the entry of foreign providers should add clarity to the national regulations of TNE. Having identified program mobility as a priority to be followed up with mobility of reputed educational institutions, interpretations of the various elements of the Bill should be made clear.

Although TNE can have significant advantages, it is also true that increasing instances of unscrupulous providers operating without appropriate approvals and providing low quality educational services while aiming at maximum profit are being reported. Low quality providers might slip through the cracks if quality assurance agencies and regulatory bodies do not have clear policies and mechanisms to monitor TNE

In many countries including India, there is a general mistrust about TNE providers. They are seen as commercial low-quality providers who might operate with revenue generation alone as the agenda. As a result, the regulations being put in place by the various bodies that might share the quality assurance responsibilities tend to be so restrictive that even quality institutions that offer TNE programs as a part of their internationalisation strategy, without any revenue generation approach, have to face very bureaucratic and unhelpful rules and regulations. The TNE programs of Manipal University and BITS highlight how they faced certain difficulties in spite of their strong internal quality assurance, external quality assurance in the home country and the reputation they enjoy. The BITS case study highlights how its innovative practice school concept was not understood by a quality assurance body and that BITS had to withdraw from the quality assurance process.

As the regulations develop, the quality assurance aspects that are over and above the legal aspects need attention. While regulations may curtail some good innovations, it should be noted that TNE is not free from pitfalls however capable the institutions are. Even where a qualification is provided transnationally by a reputable university, it is still necessary to see whether the course content is the same as that provided at the home institution, whether there is appropriate cultural sensitivity to the local requirements; whether the methods of teaching are appropriate for achieving the objectives of the course and taking account of local cultures; whether the physical, administrative, communication and other resources are adequate to support successful learning. The extent to which the exported system is built into the receiving country's planning and quality systems is a major policy matter.

Australia has laid a strong foundation through the criteria it has established for overseas and domestic institutions in the National protocols for higher education approval processes (National Protocols) and provision for quality assurance beyond the legal framework is

integrated into that. For example, the Australian campus of the US-based Carnegie Mellon University that was allowed to operate in Adelaide, after scrutiny under the National Protocols, underwent a quality audit by the national quality assurance agency in 2010. The criteria of the National Protocols and the quality assurance framework of the national quality assurance body (AUQA) were useful reference points for the quality assurance exercise. The overseas provider was audited like any other similar Australian higher education institution and the audit report is a public document. The proposed Foreign Educational Institutions Bill is expected to provide a similar framework in India.

Changing Perceptions

Ten years ago education as a trade commodity was not acceptable to many countries. Trade in primary goods and manufactured goods such as minerals and cars are not new to us. Similarly trade in services such as technical advice in information and communication technologies is growing. However, considering education as a service that can be traded has been controversial. Criticism about the trade aspect started in many countries as a reaction to for-profit domestic providers (providers operating within their national higher education systems). The prevailing view is that education should be provided as a public good without allowing for profit. This view extends to TNE.

In countries where Australian TNE providers operate this perception has been influenced by the positive experiences in prudent educational operations. The negative perceptions towards trade and profit in education are giving way to cautious and constructive business models that have enough safeguards to protect educational principles and the public good. Recipient countries such as Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong where Australian TNE has a significant presence are not asking `how do we stop transnational education' but `how effectively can we look at the quality issues of transnational education'. There is an understanding that exported higher education is not inherently a threat, and may in fact be a major assistance and benefit. There was a time when TNE was seen as a commercial venture which is not in the best interests of the receiving countries. That perception is gradually changing now. The countries mentioned above have realised that there are ways to protect the interests of both parties and they see quality assurance and collaboration as the best way to do that. This has not been achieved overnight and there is a long history of collaboration and commitment to serving the national development between the Australian TNE providers and the countries where they operate. That trust and collaboration needs to develop in any country that wishes to benefit from TNE.

In India, concerns about the impact of TNE on national development continue. Providing convincing answers to the concerns raised in the higher education sector is the best way to gain the confidence of the sector. The Indian section cautions that the policy on TNE must take adequate care against the depletion of human resources in the long term. There are concerns about parity and comparability between the home and host countries in areas such as program quality, faculty quality and their training, and learning resources including library and laboratories. There are questions about the

scope of the national quality assurance bodies in monitoring twinning arrangements where only a part of the program is delivered in another country: Will quality assurance be restricted to only what is done in the host country or will it try to understand what is done in the main campus of the foreign university as well?

It is important to reflect on these concerns collectively and networking among quality assurance agencies and the sharing of experiences will enable this.

Support for Good Providers

Universities are often seen as conservative and slow to accept changes. The rapidity of the growth in TNE shows that they can move quickly. However, this growth has also revealed that it is not easy to do TNE and that it is possible to be too hasty. Governments and institutions must liaise thoughtfully to ensure that the right policy settings are in place and that the appropriate planning occurs.

The value that TNE providers add to the host countries depends on the facilitative approach of the host countries. For instance, in Australia, Carnegie Mellon University has received funding from the South Australian Government while the establishment of the offshore campus of Curtin University at Sarawak received support for land and infrastructure from the Sarawak Government. The Dubai campus of BITS in the free zone is another instance of a host country extending support to identified TNE providers.

Policy support to TNE providers from their own governments and the higher education sector is also crucial. Australian universities have good policy and support from the governments and through their collegial forums that help the TNE providers to share information and learn from each other. Indian Government support for the Indian TNE providers needs a boost and more initiatives along the lines of PIHEAD (Promotion of Indian Higher Education Abroad) to create opportunities for sharing of information with national and international colleagues. The Indian Government has been promoting policies to attract foreign students to study in Indian universities. However, promoting Indian institutions to become TNE providers has not received much attention. Institutions should also get together and use their collegial forums to share their successes and failures.

Conclusion

Thus, the issues that TNE brings forth are many and there is a growing awareness among quality assurance agencies that they have to work together and address these quality assurance related challenges—both national and transnational. The questions that arise in India about monitoring TNE are useful guiding points for the Australian TNE providers to ensure that their programs are relevant, of good quality and contribute to the national development. The integrated and comprehensive framework the Australian higher education sector has in terms of the policy, legal and quality assurance context are useful reference points.





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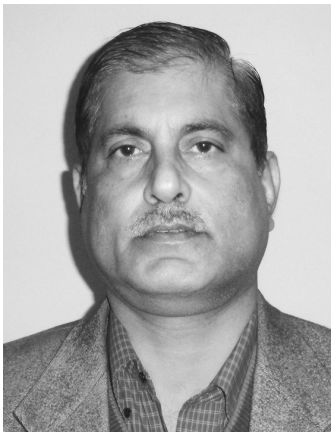

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Emeritus Professor LK Maheshwari is Advisor to the Chancellor at Birla Institute of Technology and Science (BITS), Pilani. He has served on the faculty of BITS since 1971, and has held the offices of: Chief, Instrumentation Centre; Dean, Research & Consultancy; and Deputy Director, Director, Pro Vice-Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor of BITS, Pilani.

Prof. Maheshwari has published over 100 research papers in the areas of semiconductor electronics, instrumentation, educational development and university-industry linkages, etc. both in national and international journals and conference proceedings. He won the Scientists of the Year award (India), and in 2008 received the Science Councillor Award – 2007 from the Indian Society of Health, Environment, Education and Research. He is a Fellow of the Institution of Electronics and Telecommunication Engineers (India), and a member of the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, USA.

Dr Grant McBurnie is senior associate in the School of Global Studies, Social Science and Planning at RMIT University, Australia. He has worked in higher education for over twenty years, including serving as director of transnational quality assurance programs at Monash University, Australia. His writings on international education have been published in several languages and by international organisations, including the OECD and UNESCO. In 2007 Routledge published *Transnational education: issues and trends in offshore higher education,* written by Grant McBurnie and Christopher Ziguras. Dr McBurnie has recently been involved in a ten-country comparative study of the governance of cross-border higher education. The project was funded by the Australian Research Council.

Mr Dennis Murray is Executive Director of the International Education Association of Australia, a position he has held since the establishment of the Association in 2004. For 20 years prior to this he held senior and executive management positions in international education in a number of Australian universities. He has extensive international experience in Asia, Africa, Europe and North America. Mr Murray has researched and published widely in international education, as well as in strategy and policy in higher education more generally. He has substantial consulting and project management experience across a wide range of international education matters, and has a particular interest in international education public diplomacy and public policy, and in research and professional development of international education practitioners. Dennis is also a Director of Murray-Goold International Pty Ltd, a company specialising in international education policy, research, strategy and management.

Ms Paula Nagel, BA (Hons.) Fellow of the Australian Institute of Company Directors (FAICD) was a lecturer at a teachers college prior to a long career with the Australian Broadcasting Corporation. In recent years her major focus has been on international education, including working as a consultant with the Department of the Premier and Cabinet, South Australia, in the initial development of the University City Project.

She served as Chair of Education Adelaide from 2001 to 2005, where, during her tenure, South Australia's international student numbers grew at a rate significantly above the national average. She is a member of the Council of the University of South Australia; on the Board of the Governor's Leadership Foundation; on the Executive Committee of the International Association of Educating Cities; and is on the Academic Board of Le Cordon Bleu Australia. Previously she has held a number of other board and honorary consul positions.

Professor Silima Nanda is Deputy Director, International Division at the Indira Gandhi National Open University (New Delhi), a prime central open university.

Professor Nanda has coordinated the academic and international operations of the mega-university since 2006. She is a state specialist on gender and pedagogy, and was therefore seconded to work on the Jharkhand Education Project Council for the Government of Jharkhand. She has written several books and literary articles, and has been published in several journals of national and international repute.

Prof. HA Ranganath is currently Director of the National Assessment and Accreditation Council. Prof. Ranganath has served the University of Mysore for over three decades in different capacities. He has made original contributions in the area of genetics of speciation and evolution. During March 2006, he was appointed Vice-Chancellor at Bangalore University, and it is in this position that he has taken several initiatives to enhance the quality in the university in the areas of teaching, research and administration.

Prof. Ranganath has published many papers in highly reputed journals. He was awarded the Prof. YT Thathachari National Award for Science (2003), Aryabhata Award (2008) and Sir M Visvesvaraya Vijnana Puraskar Award from Swadeshi Vijnana Andolana – Karnataka (2010).

Dr MS Shyamasundar is Deputy Adviser of the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), an autonomous organisation of the University Grants Commission, which is responsible for quality assurance of higher education institutions in India.

Dr Shyamasundar has been involved in various academic and administrative activities related to assessment and accreditation and overall planning of the organisation. This facilitates deliberations among academics to get their valuable inputs to fine tune NAAC's instruments. He has published a few articles in regional dailies and national level journals. He has worked as co-ordinator for the revision of manuals and promotional materials, and has organised various academic activities in different parts of the country. Dr Shyamasundar has been actively involved in the state-wise analysis of accreditation reports for various states in India.

Dr Antony Stella is Audit Director at the Australian Universities Quality Agency and head of its international activities. She has led audits in Bahrain, Fiji and Mauritius, and facilitated quality assurance developments in Cambodia, Vietnam and Timor Leste.

Dr Stella has authored reports, desk-study overviews, case studies and training materials on quality assurance for organisations such as UNESCO, the International Institute for Educational Planning, the World Bank and OECD. She wrote reports on the quality assurance arrangements of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation economies and the Brisbane Communiqué signatories for the Australian Government. She was a member of the UNESCO–OECD expert group that drafted guidelines for quality assurance of cross-border education. She is the Vice-President of the Asia-Pacific Quality Network, for which she has steered a number of projects.

Prof. Sukhadeo Thorat is currently Chairman of University Grants Commission. Earlier he served as Professor in the Center for the Study of Regional Development at Jawaharlal Nehru University. He has been visiting faculty at American universities during 1989–91. He specialises in the area of agricultural development, problems of marginalised groups, and the economics of the caste system. He was awarded Padmashri for Literature and Education from the Government of India in 2008.

Prof. Thorat has published a number of books and research papers. His most recent book is, Dalits in India: search for a common destiny, through SAGE publications.

Dr David Woodhouse has led quality agencies in Hong Kong, New Zealand and Australia for the last 20 years. Currently, he is Executive Director of the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) which audits the academic quality assurance procedures of Australia's universities, other higher education institutions and higher education accreditation agencies. AUQA also offers publications, workshops and consulting on quality assurance. Dr Woodhouse undertakes many national and international quality assurance activities, and has provided advice and training on educational quality assurance to governments, agencies and institutions in many countries. He has published widely on quality assurance. He served as President of the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE) from 1997–2001, and again since 2007, and was co-founder and subsequently Secretary/Treasurer of the Asia-Pacific Quality Network (APQN) from 2003–08.

Dr Christopher Ziguras is Associate Professor of International Studies in the School of Global Studies, Social Science and Planning at RMIT University in Melbourne, Australia. He is currently Deputy Dean (Learning, Teaching and International) in RMIT's School of Global Studies, Social Science and Planning. His research explores various aspects of the political economy of international education, and he has written widely on the growth and cross-border delivery of tertiary education, international education policy, and the impact of trade agreements on education services. His books include: *The international publishing services market* co-edited with Bill Cope (Common Ground Publishing Pty Ltd 2002); Self-care: embodiment, personal autonomy and the shaping of health consciousness (Routledge 2004); and Transnational education: issues and trends in offshore higher education with Grant McBurnie (Routledge 2007).

About the Critical Readers

After collegiate in India, **Dr A Gnanam** got his Doctorate in Biochemistry at North Carolina State University and taught briefly at Cornell University, USA. Over the years he had established a good school of research and the first Department of Bio Technology supported national Center of Plant Molecular Biology at the Madurai Kamaraj University. Dr Gnanam has been Vice-Chancellor at three universities over nearly 15 years. He was the President of the Association of Indian Universities, Chairman of the National Assessment and Accreditation Council, a member of the Central Advisory Board of Education, and a co-chair of the Asia-Pacific Quality Network prior to its incorporation.

Dr Gnanam is a recipient of the Rafi Ahmed Kidwai prize in plant genetics, and Doctor of Science and Doctor of Letters (honoris causa). He is a Fellow of the Indian National Science Academy. He is also a fellow/advisor of several national and international bodies.

Prof. KB Powar secured his PhD degree in Geology in 1967 from the Banaras Hindu University. He served as Professor of Geology, Poona University (1977–86) and was later appointed as Vice-Chancellor at Shivaji University in 1986. He was Secretary General, Association of Indian Universities, during 1993–2002, and is presently Advisor to the Chancellor at Dr DY Patil University, Pune. His research relates to the geology of Kumaon and Ladakh Himalaya, and of the Deccan Volcanic Province. He has published 83 research papers, edited three research volumes and authored four textbooks in geology. He was elected a Fellow of the Geological Society of India (1966), Fellow of Maharashtra Academy of Sciences, (1984) and Fellow of the National Academy of Sciences, India (1988). Prof. Powar has made important contributions to research and policy planning related to higher education, quality assurance and economics of education. Some of his books include, *Accreditation in higher education: An Indian perspective* in 1996, and *Quality of Higher Education* in 2005.





Abbreviations

AALL	Association for Academic Language and Learning
AAUCS	Australian-Asian Universities' Cooperation Scheme
ACT	Australian Capital Territory
AEI	Australian Education International
AGPS	Australian Government Publishing Service
AIEC	Australian International Education Conference
AICTE	All India Council for Technical Education
A-II	Australia-India Institute
AIU	Association of Indian Universities
APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation
APQN	Asia-Pacific Quality Network
AQF	Australian Qualifications Framework
AUCC	Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada
AUQA	Australian Universities Quality Agency
AusAID	Australian Agency for International Development
AusLIST	The Australian list of institutions and courses around the world
AUSSE	Australasian Survey of Student Engagement
Austrade	Australian Trade Commission
AVCC	Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee
BITS	Birla Institute of Technology and Science
BPO	business process outsourcing
CAA	Commission for Academic Accreditation
CD	compact disk
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CEPES	Centre Européen pour L'enseignement Supérieur (European Centre for Higher Education)

CMU	Carnegie Mellon University
CRICOS	Commonwealth Register of Institutions and Courses for Overseas Student
DEC	Distance Education Council
DEEWR	Department Education, Employment and Workplace Relations
DEST	Department of Education, Science and Training
DET	New South Wales Department of Education and Training
DVC	Deputy Vice-Chancellor
ELICOS	English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students
ESOL	English for speakers of other languages
ESOS	Educational Services for Overseas Students
EU	European Union
FDI	foreign direct investment
GAA	Government Accreditation Authority
GATE	Global Alliance for Transnational Education
GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
GDP	gross domestic product
GNP	gross national product
HDI	Human Development Index
HE	higher education
HEI	higher education institution
HESA	Higher Education Statistics Agency (UK); Higher Education Support Act (Australia)
HRDF	Human Resources Development Fund
HRST	human resources in science and technology
ICT	information and communication technology
IDP	International Development Program

IEAA	International Education Association of Australia
IEEE	Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
IEP	international education partnership
IGNOU	Indira Gandhi National Open University
INQAAHE	International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education
INR	Indian rupees
IRD	L'Institut de recherche pour le développement
ISO	International Standards Organization
IT	information technology
KPPM	Kristine Peters Project Management (known as this from 1994 to 2006 only)
LVPEI	LV Prasad Eye Institute
MBA	Master of Business
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment Training and Youth Affairs
MCTEE	Ministerial Council for Tertiary Education and Employment
MHRD	Ministry of Human Resource Development
MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
MMMC	Melaka Manipal Medical College
MoU	memorandum of understanding
MU	Manipal University
NAAC	National Assessment and Accreditation Council
NALSAR	National Academy of Legal Studies and Research
NASSCOM	National Association of Software and Services Companies
NBA	National Board of Accreditation
NCVER	National Centre for Vocational Education Research

NRIs	Non-resident Indians
NSAI	non self-accrediting institution
NUEPA	National University of Educational Planning and Administration
OBHE	Observatory on Borderless Higher Education
OE	overseas experience
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PIHEAD	Promotion of Indian Higher Education Abroad
PIO	person of Indian origin
PRC	People's Republic of China
PS	Practice School
PVC	Pro Vice-Chancellor
QS	Quacquarelli Symonds
RMIT	Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
SAE	Society of Automotive Engineers
SAI	self-accrediting institution
SARS	severe acute respiratory syndrome
TEQSA	Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency
TNE	transnational education
TQS	Transnational Quality Strategy
U21	Universitas 21
UA	Universities Australia (formerly AVCC)
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UCL	University College London
UCTS	University Credit Transfer Scheme
UGC	University Grants Commission

UniSA	University of South Australia
UK	United Kingdom
UMAP	University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UMIOR	University Mobility in the Indian Ocean Region
UNSW	University of New South Wales
US	United States
USA	United States of America
USQ	University of Southern Queensland
VET	Vocational Education and Training
WAIT	Western Australian Institute of Technology
WTO	World Trade Organization

Quality Assurance of Transnational Higher Education

In 2009, the Australian and Indian governments established a joint working group on various education-related matters, including quality in higher education. The group endorsed a number of joint initiatives to enhance mutual understanding of quality-related issues in both countries. One of these initiatives is a study on quality assurance issues, which has resulted in this joint publication by the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA), and the National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA) of India.

The nineteen chapters in this book were written by eminent academics, policy makers and quality assurance professionals from both countries, and edited by Dr Antony Stella from AUQA and Professor Sudhanshu Bhushan from NUEPA. The book covers areas specific to the trends, emerging challenges and opportunities related to the quality assurance of higher education as it crosses national borders. Study of this area will be of benefit to both Australia and India, since both countries have become exporters as well as importers to varying degrees. The quality assurance arrangements in the two countries are undergoing changes, with specific attention to monitoring transnational education.

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