"THE REFORM OF THE PERUVIAN UNIVERSITY SYSTEM: INTERNATIONALISATION, PROGRESS, CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES"

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Acknowledgments

Overview

The Peruvian university system has gone through important changes in recent years. Availability and demand for higher education has grown and diversified, mainly as a result of the expansion of the middle class and the existence of an institutional framework that has facilitated the increase in the availability of private universities. However, this development in the university system occurred without the mechanisms necessary to evaluate and ensure quality in the provision of educational services.

In this context, the Peruvian government began a process of reform of quality assurance for higher education and implemented significant changes in the policy structure, amongst which the new University Law - Law N° 30220 - that was approved in July 2014 can be singled out. This undertaking initiated by the government is in line with the efforts embarked on in other countries in the region, such as in Chile and Colombia that carried out procedures directed towards improving quality control in their higher education systems. In addition to reform processes in different countries, some global trends present challenges to innovation and adjustments in the education system, such as the internationalisation of higher education and the use of new formats and technologies put forward for use in education. (on-line teaching, Moocs, among others).

Given the important changes that have occurred in the Peruvian university system, the British Council commissioned a study in which the principal changes that have occurred in the structure and the reforms mentioned above are analysed, as well as the developments and challenges of implementation, and the opportunities that stem from international cooperation that could help cope with the existing challenges.

This study is based on the analysis of secondary information (official statistics, earlier studies, household surveys etc.) and on a qualitative exploration based on interviews with 20 experts associated with public and private universities, academics, public officials, business leaders and representatives of the diplomatic services. Each interview focused on the university system reform: its design, implementation, challenges and risks in the short, medium and long term, as well as the internationalisation of university education.

In the following section, the Executive Summary of the study is presented. In Section I, the principal characteristics of the Peruvian university system prior to reforms are analysed. In Section II, the main changes introduced through the new University Law are set out, as well as the functions of the principal actors in the new institutional framework. The remaining tasks and challenges in the implementation of the reform are also described.

In Section III, the trends in the internationalisation of higher education are analysed, in both Latin America and Peru, and its role within the quality assurance process that is central to university reform; in Section IV, the conclusions of the study are presented.

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Executive summary

Over the last decade, Peru has experienced important demographic and economic changes that have driven the demand for higher education. The increase in demand is reflected in the number of university applicants, which increased by almost 60% during the last decade. The demand for public universities continues to be from the larger group of applicants although there has been a sizeable increase in the number of applicants to private universities as well. The education made available responded to growing demand, predominantly in the expansion of provision by private universities, while the provision offered by public education increased only very slightly. This generated an increase in the variety of educational alternatives, both in terms of the cost of education as well as of anticipated salaries for graduates.

As a result, access to higher education in Peru has increased over the last decade. Between 2004 and 2014, the number of candidates admitted to universities doubled, from 130,000 to almost 270,000 students. This increase was possible because of the higher intake of students to private universities, mainly those that are relatively new and that charge fees lower than the average.

As the coverage and diversity of the university system grew, there was growing concern regarding the quality of their services. Diverse internal indicators in universities (such as the level of tutor training, the state of the infrastructure and the level of scientific research) and external factors (such as employability of graduates and salary levels) made it clear that there was a need to improve the average quality of university educational services.

The current institutional framework prior to the reform did not contribute to generating effective mechanisms for monitoring or ensuring the quality of the service. Quality regulation was based on the self-regulation of universities, and the work of internal bodies responsible for overseeing quality was at a basic level, that was not conducive to ensuring or improving quality over time. In addition to this, those participating in the system did not possess the information necessary to be able to distinguish between good and bad programmes.

Given this problem, in 2014, the Peruvian government launched the University Reform programme, with the approval of the new University Law (Law N° 30220). In 2015, the Ministry of Education provided the reform programme with details of the Quality Assurance for Higher Education Policy.

The reform has two main pillars: (I) a new institutional arrangement and (II) the creation of a quality assurance system - Sistema de Aseguramiento de Calidad (SAC). Three principal changes can each be singled out in the new institutional arrangement: i) the Ministry of Education was defined as the governing body for quality assurance in higher education, ii) a National Superintendence for Higher Education was created (*Superintendencia Nacional de Educación Superior*

Universitaria - SUNEDU) in order to supervise the quality of services provided by universities, and iii) the reorganisation of the body responsible for quality accreditation (SINEACE) was declared. The SAC was set up with the aim of ensuring that universities comply with basic quality conditions and that they continually improve on them. This system is based on four pillars: i) licensing - as a guarantee for basic quality conditions, ii) accreditation - for continual improvement, iii) reliable and appropriate information, and iv) development - in order to improve performance.

The reform was also characterised by the fact that it defined a particular "university model", which was mainly directed towards scientific output and research. Thus the reform has defined quality standards by using this particular "university model", that could be restrictive for universities with high levels of employability but not necessarily producing a great deal of science or research.

Additional changes introduced through the quality assurance law and policy included: (i) changes in the selection of administrative and academic authorities at universities, which should be carried out by a general vote, that is, through the vote of ordinary teachers and registered students with a particular distribution; (ii) changes to teaching staff, which should be composed of a minimum of 25% full-time teachers holding a Masters degree or PhD; (iii) modification of tax credit, granted whenever there were profit margins and when this was reinvested in the same university.

The majority of expert consultants mostly support the university reform, because it defines the Ministry of Education as the governing body, responsible and accountable for the quality of higher education. **However, through the interviews that were carried out, it was possible to identify a series of challenges to its implementation,** of which two can be singled out: i) creating a flexible framework that promotes the co-existence of different types of universities, and which permits their innovation and adaptation in the changing current environment, and ii) consolidating institutions that have a role in the new regulatory framework, such as SUNEDU, that require both empowerment and the necessary skills.

Furthermore, it is acknowledged that university reform in Peru is still on going and there are priority tasks still to be dealt with that have been identified. On the one hand, the publication of the details of the law is pending, which should allow the capabilities of SUNEDU to be better defined, as well as the procedures for licencing, accreditation, promotion, and other subjects included in the law. On the other hand, the absence of key components such as monitoring through academic audit is evident; the design of a structure based on incentives, to ensure that qualified teachers enter public universities to pursue a career; and the inclusion of a budgetary component defined by the law.

Another important aspect that has still to be defined is the role of the internationalisation of higher education as part of the process for improving the quality of the Peruvian university system. Academic exchanges, double degree programs and the internationalisation of accreditation are being used more and more by Latin American universities and by some Peruvian universities in order to generate and demonstrate improvements in their programs. However, these efforts

are generally uncoordinated and differentiated rather than as a part of a public policy. Furthermore, some of these limitations can be singled out and should be resolved in order to create a conducive environment for educational internationalisation, for example, the low percentage of students and teachers that are proficient in English and the poor development of systems for the recognition of degrees and qualifications.

I. THE PERUVIAN UNIVERSITY SYSTEM PRIOR TO THE 2014 UNIVERSITY REFORM

Over the last decade, the Peruvian higher education system experienced important changes to a number of different areas. In this section, the principal institutional and market changes that occurred prior to the 2014 reform are set out. In addition to this, access to higher education is analysed, as well as a series of quality indicators related on the one hand to the supply and conditions in which the training process is delivered and on the other, to the employability of university graduates and the level of scientific output at universities.

I.1. Institutional framework

The institutional framework of higher education prior to the 2014 university reform gave rise to three types of university with different management structures: public universities, private non-profit universities and profit-seeking universities, which currently coexist. The principal standards that defined the institutional framework that shaped the university system in Peru are described below.

The existence of public universities and non-profit private universities was regulated by the University Law, Law N° 23733 that applied from 1983 until the start of the reform. This law stipulated that public universities and non-profit private universities could only be created, merged or closed through legislation worked out with the Ministry of Education and it established that there could not be subsidiaries or annexes[1]. Exceptionally, universities could create faculties, within university departments and according to regional requirements.[2]

A central characteristic that Law N° 23733 defined was university autonomy.[3] This implied that universities, both public and private, had academic, regulatory and administrative autonomy, that entitled them to: i) approve their own statute and manage themselves in accordance with it; ii) organise their academic and administrative systems; c) manage their assets and income, and plan their budget and invest their funds in accordance with the law.

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1 This restriction was eliminated in 2001, with the aim of geographically deconcentrating the provision of university (Law N. ° 27504). However, in 2005, legal stipulations were restored in accordance with Law N° 23733, and subsidiaries were prohibited once again.

2 Article 5° de la Law No 23733.

3 Law N°23733 stated what was indicated by the Political Constitution of Peru (article 18): "Every university is autonomous in its legal, governing, academic, administrative and economic framework. Universities are governed by their own statutes in the legal and Constitutional framework".

Law N° 23733 also established the National Assembly of Rectors (Asamblea Nacional de Rectores - ANR)[4], an autonomous public body made up of university rectors, responsible for university activities in the country. **The role of the ANR was to coordinate, evaluate and demand quality with respect to university activity and to evaluate new universities (public and private)**. New universities, in establishing their laws, should set up Organising Committees that would manage the university for a maximum period of five years.[5] During this time, and on an annual basis, the ANR should evaluate the new university, in accordance with the law of establishment and the existing university law[6]. This mechanism sought to ensure the quality of university education and had the authority to close universities that were deemed beneath the required level.

In 1995, the National Council for the Authorisation of University Management - *Consejo Nacional para la Autorización del Funcionamiento de Universidades* (CONAFU)[7] was established, a body that belonged to the ANR, composed of ex-rectors, whose function was to deliver licences to new universities at a national level. Therefore, from that year on, CONAFU took over the responsibility of evaluating and authorising the running of private universities. In the case of public universities, in addition to evaluation carried out by CONAFU, it was also necessary for the Ministry of Finance and the Economy to set up a law of establishment and to carry out an evaluation of the government's ability to finance it[8].

CONAFU awarded provisional and definitive licences[9]. To be awarded a provisional licence, public and private universities had to go through a process of evaluation in which their compliance with basic operational conditions established by the CONAFU establishment law were verified; as well as the existence of market research that demonstrated their suitability to create a new university, which had an adequate infrastructure, availability of qualified teachers, among other factors. These basic conditions are detailed in the following table.

Table 1: Characteristics required by conafu for the granting of provisional licences

a	National and regional appropriateness, supported by a market research study of the specialisations that university will provide and projection for 10 years.
b	Academic aims, qualifications and diplomas to be awarded, as well as corresponding study programmes.

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4   Article 90 of Law No 23733.
5   Article 7, Law No 23733.
6   Article 7, Law No 23733.
7   By Law N° 26439, published on 21 January 1995.
8   Article 6 of Law N° 26439, created by CONAFU.
9   Regulatory procedure for the regulation for Opertation, Evaluation and Institutional Certification of Universities and Undergraduate Colleges under the jurisdiction of CONAFU, approved by Resolution N° 100-2005-CONAFU.

c	Availability of qualified teaching staff.
d	Adequate physical infrastructure.
e	Economic and financial provision of the university, planned for the first 10 years.
f	Previsiones que hagan posible el acceso y la permanencia de Indispensable academic services (pedagogical and sports) .
g	Provisions that make access and stay possible for students who do not have sufficient resources to cover the cost of their education.
h	Other aspects that CONAFU establishes in its regulations.

Source: Law N° 26439, Article 7.

Permanent licences were awarded when the universities in possession of provisional licences, after a five-year minimum period of evaluation, and having had one year of graduates were able to demonstrate through their annual evaluation reports that they had reached a satisfactory level of institutional development. Universities who had a permanent licence (also termed "institutionalised") moved into the scope of the ANR, while universities with a provisional licence (in the process of institutionalisation) remained in the sphere of CONAFU.

In 1996, a year after the creation of CONAFU, the institutional framework was modified once again, to allow private universities to operate as non-profit companies. With the aim of modernising the system and broadening its coverage, the Law to Promote Investment in Education was published (*Ley para Promover la Inversión en Educación* - Legislative Decree N° 882) which established that all natural or legal persons had the right to free private enterprise to set up educational institutions. This legislative change allowed profits to be distributed among the investors in a particular university. In the previous framework, surplus at the end of a financial year could only be reinvested into the institution or used for scholarships.

In addition to this, the decree **created a tax credit for reinvestment** to compensate profit-seeking universities because, in contrast to non-profit universities, they were obliged to pay 30% of their profits to the tax authorities. The tax credit decree was drawn up as follows:

"Private Educational Institutions, that reinvest part or the total of their income in themselves or in other private Educational Institutions constituted in the country, have the right to a tax credit for reinvestment equivalent to 30% of the sum that was reinvested" (Article 13 of LD882) It was also established that tax credit would be conditional to investments in infrastructure or equipment exclusively purchased for educational or research purposes and for study scholarships.

There is a consensus among the experts interviewed that this decree was effective in facilitating the growth of the private education sector. With

this new regulation, any natural or legal person could establish or operate a private university and it would only be required to comply with the requirements established by CONAFU. The central government would not have direct involvement. However, the procedure for licensing by CONAFU was questioned by the supreme body for the interpretation and control of the terms of the constitution in Peru[10]. In 2008, this body delivered its assessment and pointed out that *"both the ANR and CONAFU have incurred an act of unconstitutionality for the abuse of rights, in as much as, with the mechanical and regulatory application of the provisions that established the requirements for the licensing of universities and subsidiaries, they have undermined and strayed from the constitutional principles that this implementation should follow"* (Constitutional Court Resolution, file N° 0017-2008-PI/TC, 2010).

In addition to this, the Constitutional Court drew attention to what it interpreted as the government's withdrawal from supervising the quality of education provided by private universities, by conferring this function on the ANR and CONAFU, autonomous bodies not ascribed or directly supervised by the government and made up of rectors or ex-rectors. In this area, the Constitutional Court indicated that "the way in which the system is currently structured, and the fact that decisions related to the future of universities derive from, what could be denominated as the university circle itself, determines the probable verification of a tendency to lack objectiveness and rigorousness". (Constitutional Court Resolution, file N° No 0017-2008-PI/TC, 2010).

In short, according to the Constitutional Court, in practice no institutional mechanisms existed that would ensure the quality of services offered by universities. In this way the Constitutional Court indicated that: *"it has therefore been demonstrated that there is evidence of unconstitutionality in the regulation and operation assigned to the ANR and CONAFU with regard to the licensing of universities and university subsidiaries. Said unconstitutionality is based on the failure to comply with the duties imposed on all public authorities (...) in relation to the safeguarding of the quality of university education, and the impairment of the fundamental right to objective impartiality of public authority that decides about the exercising of rights and obligations of the human person". In this context, the Court recognised the urgency to reform the system and declared "the existence of a state of unconstitutional aspects of a structural character in the university educational system (...), reason for which it is the government's obligation to immediately adopt the necessary institutional measure to reform the university education system in the country".*

It is worth mentioning that of the 91 private universities that currently exist, 62 were created after 1995, through the CONAFU resolution. That is to say, that close to 70% of private universities were authorised by CONAFU. Additionally, only half of the universities that currently exist in Peru have complied with the requirements mentioned in order to acquire the permanent licence in 2014, (prior to the deactivation of CONAFU in the framework of the current reform). In the following chart, the number

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10 This reconsideration was expressed in the Judgement of the Jurisdictional Plenary of the Constitutional Court (Sentencia del Pleno Jurisdiccional del Tribunal Constitucional) that intended to file a claim for unconstitutionality on the part of over 5,000 citizens against Law N.° 28564, Law that revokes the Law regulating the creation of university subsidiaries and granting additional facilities to the ANR (Law N.° 27504).

of universities that existed prior to the reform is shown according to the state of their licensing and the type of management.

Table 2: Peru: Existing universities in 2014, by licence type

Type of licence	Private	Public	Total
Permanent licence	45	31	76
Provisional licence	43	10	53
With stablishment law	3	10	13
Total	**91**	**51**	**142**

Source: Dirección de Grados y Títulos, Sunedu.

In line with the Constitutional Court's criticism of the role of the ANR and CONAFU, some of the experts interviewed as part of this study considered that the increased flexibility in the creation of private universities, generated by LD882, resulted in a disorganised increase in what was provided, without mechanisms that would ensure the minimum quality standards. As one interviewee pointed out:

"When the 882 was issued, a law should have been issued at the same time that would generate an accreditation system so that the universities that were established would immediately go through a quality filter. However, this did not happen (...) That is, there is no control over the whole university process in this period, which is the period when there has been a boom in the founding of universities"

(Interviewee N°2)

The quality accreditation system was created ten years after the publication of LD882. Therefore, **in 2006, the National System for the Evaluation, Accreditation and Certification of Quality Education - SINEACE** *(Sistema Nacional de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad Educativa)* was created (Law N° 28740). SINEACE - a decentralised public body ascribed to the Ministry of Education - was set up to define and establish the criterion, standards and evaluation processes in order to ensure the basic quality standards that educational institutions should provide[11]. **That is to say, that SINEACE was created to ensure the basic quality standards of the whole education system (Basic Education, Higher University and Non-university Education)[12].**

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11 Article 3 of Law N° 28740.
12 SINEACE operated through three bodies, one for each level of education i) the Peruvian Institute for Evaluation, Accreditation and certification of Quality in Basic Education (Instituto Peruano de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad de la Educación Básica (Ipeba), ii) Council for the Evaluation, Accreditation and Certification of Quality in Non-University Higher education (Consejo de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad de la Educación Superior No Universitaria) (Coneaces), y iii) Council for the Evaluation, Accreditation and Certification of University Higher Education (Consejo de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad de la Educación Superior Universitaria (CONEAU).

Within SINEACE, the operational body responsible for university higher education was the **Council for the Evaluation, Accreditation and Certification of the Quality of University Higher Education** *(Consejo de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad de la Educación Superior Universitaria* (CONEAU), whose objective was to evaluate the quality of universities after they obtained their licences from CONAFU, until this time there was no quality monitoring follow-up mechanism after the permanent licence was granted.

The evaluation procedures that SINEACE was to promote were directed towards creating a culture of permanent evaluation, with the aim of promoting continual improvement. The majority of these procedures were voluntary, and only two principal procedures existed: evaluation for accreditation purposes and the certification of professional competence.

Evaluation for accreditation purposes consisted of public and formal recognition of quality demonstrated by an institution or educational program granted by the government, through SINEACE (and specifically through CONEAU). In order to obtain this accreditation, educational bodies were to request an external evaluation for the purpose of accreditation. This evaluation consisted of verification, through an authorised evaluation body, and information that the same educational body had collected through its own evaluation of the program or institution that it wanted to accredit. Evaluation for accreditation purposes was voluntary, with the exception of educational services linked to the training of professionals in the fields of health and education.

With regard to the evaluating bodies, the operational body of SINEACE should authorise them and was under obligation to keep a record of all authorised evaluation bodies. Also, it would recognise accreditation procedures for foreign accreditation agencies. For this purpose, each operating body had to establish the requirements for recognising these accreditations.

Certification of professional skills consisted of public recognition of skills acquired inside or outside of educational institutions by natural persons in order to carry out professional or labour functions. In the same way as accreditation, a certifying area of the operational bodies at SINEACE also granted certification. Evaluation for the purpose of certification was also voluntary, with the exception of professionals in the field of health or education.

According to SUNEDU (2015)[13], the establishment of SINEACE was the first attempt to establish a system for the quality assurance of higher education by central government. However, the corresponding Law of Establishment, conceived as the system to ensure basic quality standards, despite the fact that the objective of accreditation goes beyond ensuring basic conditions, consisted of promoting the continual improvement of educational institutions in order to achieve high quality standards. In addition to this, a recent evaluation of the accreditation model of

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13 SUNEDU: "The Model for Licensing and its implementation in the Peruvian University System" ("El Modelo de Licenciamiento y su implementación en el Sistema Universitario Peruano"), 2015 (pag. 16)

university study programs mentions among its findings *"the accreditation model was centred on procedures rather than results. The number of standards was excessive, as well as being specific, prescriptive and focused on identifying compliance based on documentation. The evaluation impinged on verification, but not in effective feedback that would contribute to improvement"*[14].

With regard to accreditation, SINEACE only managed to accredit 114 undergraduate degrees among the over one thousand degrees offered in Peru. Also, these 114 accredited undergraduate degrees corresponded to only 29 of the 142 existing universities - of which 20 are private and 9 public universities[15].

Table 3: Carreras acreditadas según Universidad

Number or accredited degree programmes by university	Universities	Total accreddited degree programmes
13	U. Nacional Hermilio Valdivazán.	13
9	U. César Vallejo, U. Nacional de Trujillo.	18
8	U. Católica de los Ángeles de Chimbote.	8
7	U. Privada Antenor Orrego, U Privada Norbert Wiener	14
6	U. Nacional del Altiplano, U. Privada del Norte.	12
5	U. Peruana Cayetana Heredia.	5
4	Pontificia Universidad Católica del Perú, U. Católica San Pabli, U. Católica Sedes Sapientiae, U. Peruana Unión.	16
3	U. Católica Santo Toribio de Mogrovejo, U. Nacional del Santa, U. Nacional Mayor de San Marcos, U. Señor de Sipán.	12
2	U. de Huánuco, U. Marcelino Champagnat, U. Nacional Alcides Carrión, U. San Ignacio de Loyola.	8
1	U. Científica del Sur, U. de Piura, U. Nacional Agraria de la Molina, U. Nacional de Huancavelica, U. Nacional del Centro del Perú, U. Peruana de Ciencias Aplicadas, U. Ricardo Palma, U. San Pedro.	8
Total	**29**	**114**

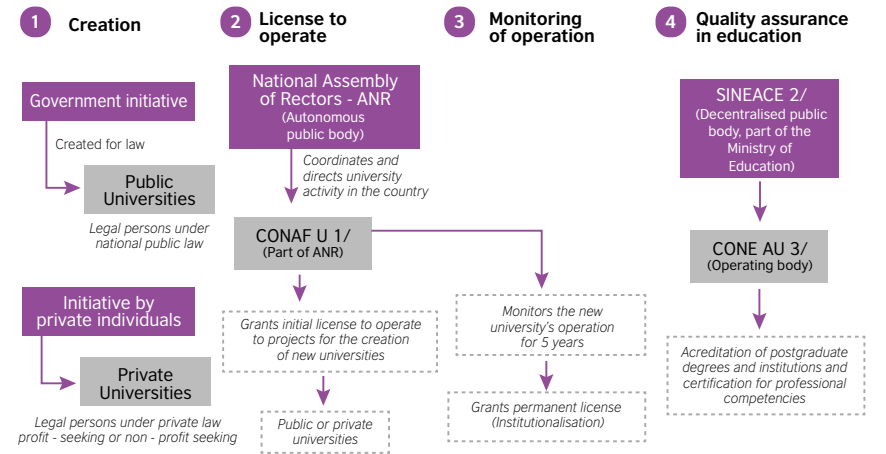*Source: Sineace.*

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14 Evaluation of the Accreditation Model for Study Programmes at Institutes and Schools of Higher Education under the charge of the Ad Hoc Governing Board, Annex of Resolution N°022-2016-CDAH-P Programas de Estudios de Institutos y Escuelas de Educación Superior a cargo del Consejo Directivo Ad Hoc),
15 SINEACE: Map of Accreditation in Peru ("Mapa de acreditación en el Perú").

The following diagram summarises the operation of the University System prior to the 2014 reform:

Diagram 1: University system operation before the reform

1 Creation **2** License to operate **3** Monitoring of operation **4** Quality assurance in education

Government initiative

Created for law

Public Universities

Legal persons under national public law

Initiative by private individuals

Private Universities

Legal persons under private law profit - seeking or non - profit seeking

National Assembly of Rectors - ANR (Autonomous public body)

Coordinates and directs university activity in the country

CONAF U 1/ (Part of ANR)

Grants initial license to operate to projects for the creation of new universities

Public or private universities

Monitors the new university's operation for 5 years

Grants permanent license (Institutionalisation)

SINEACE 2/ (Decentralised public body, part of the Ministry of Education)

CONE AU 3/ (Operating body)

Acreditation of postgraduate degrees and institutions and certification for professional competencies

1/ National Council for the Licensing of Universities (Consejo Nacional para la Autorización del Funcionamiento de Universidades).
2/ National System for the Evaluation, Accreditation and Certification of Quality in Education (Sistema Nacional de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad Educativa).
3/ Council for the Evaluation, Accreditation and Certification of University Higher Education (Consejo de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad de la Educación Superior Universitario).

In conclusion, the institutional framework underwent various changes in the years before the reform programme, the majority directed towards facilitating the creation of private universities, to increase the spread of higher education and modernise the service, However, the institutional organisation and the performance of the duties of the responsible bodies did not translate into effective mechanisms for monitoring and ensuring the quality of services offered by universities.

The low level effectiveness of the quality assurance system prior to the reform programme is evidenced by the requirement of only basic assessments, that were not conducive to ensuring and improving quality over time; and also in the low percentage of universities and degrees that were able to fulfil them, both under the scope of CONAFU and SINEACE.

Evolution in the demand for higher education

Over the last decade, Peru has experienced important demographic and economic changes that have boosted the demand for higher education. Demand for public universities continued to reflect the larger number of applicants, but there was a marked increase in applicants to private universities. Demand also remained concentrated on a small number of degree subjects.

Between 2005 and 2015, the urban population grew by 21%, rising from 18 to 24 million people, an increase that is greater than that observed in other countries in the region. In Chile, for example, the urban population increased by 3% in the same period. (World Bank, 2016) The process of urbanisation was accompanied by a robust economic growth cycle, which was characterised by strong growth in some markets such as industry, construction and services.

Diagram 2: Latin america: GDP 2005-2015 (Var. % real average
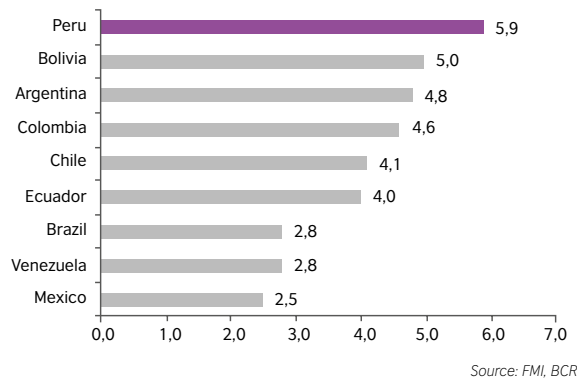
As a result of population and economic growth, a change took place in the distribution of homes by socio-economic group. As one of its principal characteristics, this change was marked by the expansion of the middle class. Between 2004 and 2015, the per-capita expenditure of families increased by almost 50% in real terms, and the middle class rose from representing almost 30% of the total homes, to almost 50%.[16]

Diagram 3: Urban Peru: Structure of households by sel (% of homes)

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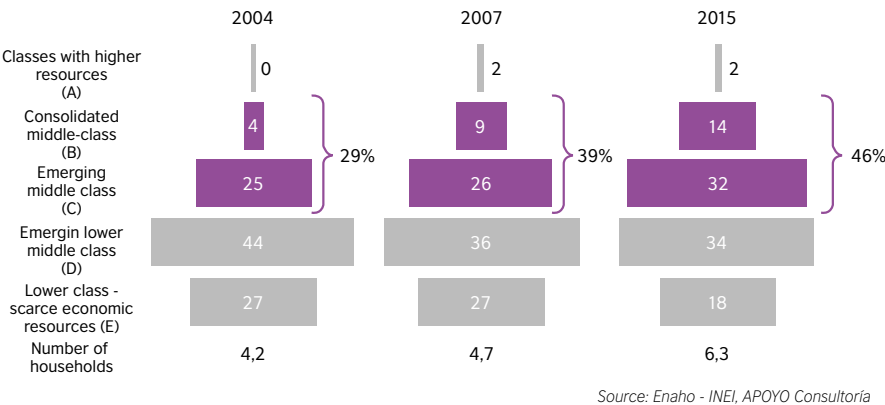
16 Enaho: National Survey of Households ("Encuesta Nacional de Hogares"), 2015.

**These demographic and economic changes increased the demand for higher education.** The strong growth in some markets boosted the demand for qualified staff or people with specific skills. The increased demand from diverse employers for qualified workers caused wage pressure in some markets. In fact, between 2005 and 2015, salaries in the private sector and in industry, construction and the service sectors increased three times faster than the average in the economy over all. In light of this, it is possible that families recognised the advantages of higher education, which is why the demand for this service increased. As shown in the following diagram, higher education in Peru is associated with the highest income compared with other educational levels.

Diagram 4: Monthly labour income by level of education, 2014
(S/ per month)
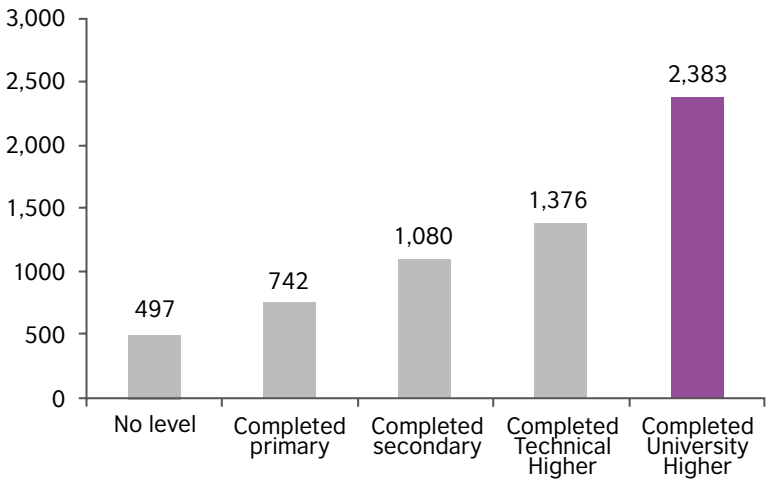
Source: Enaho 2014, Ponte en Carrera

The increase in the demand for education is reflected in the number of university applicants, which has experienced an increase of almost 60% in the last decade. Between 2004 and 2014, the number of applicants increased considerably, rising from 391,000 to 615,000. This increase was more pronounced in applicants to private universities, and represented 70% of the total increase. Despite the large increase of applicants to private universities, the demand for public universities remained the greater. (57% of applicants)

Diagram 5: Peru: Number of candidates applying to universities
(Thousands)
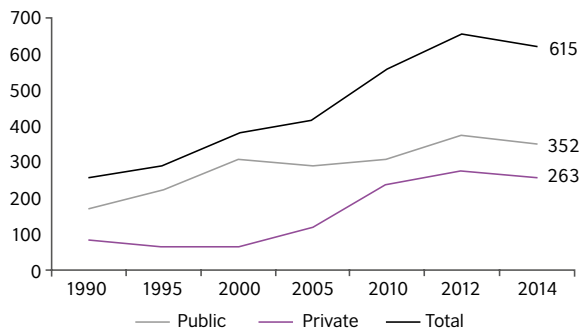
Demand for professional degrees was concentrated in five principal subjects. According to the information from the last university census (National University Census 2010), 64% of undergraduate students were concentrated in 5 degree subjects. Business Administration was in first place (15,4%), followed by Law (15,2%), Accounting (14,6%), Systems Engineering (10%) and Education (9%). It should be mentioned that compared to the previous census (1996), the most popular degree subjects have consistently remained the same. On the one hand, the position of degrees in Education has fallen, in 1996 it was the most popular degree, while in 2010 it fell to fifth place. On the other hand, Agronomy, which did not feature among the top ten most popular degrees in 1996, rose to tenth place in 1996, with a concentration of 6% of undergraduate students.

Diagram 6: Peru: The 10 groups of professional degrees in highest demand by undergraduate students, 2010 (%)
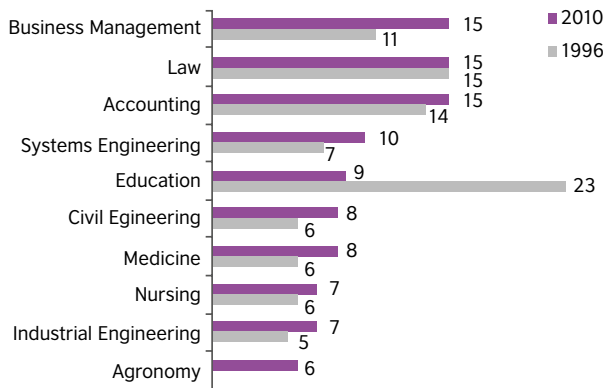
I.2. The evolution of university provision

Over the last decade, universities were able to respond to the increased demand for education, mainly due to expansion of the private university sector. In contrast, public university provision did not increase, even though the demand for this type of institution remained the majority choice. Between 2005 and 2015, 58 universities were created nationwide, reaching a total of 142 universities in 2015. Of the 58 new universities, 72% were private universities.

Diagram 7: Peru: Number of universities
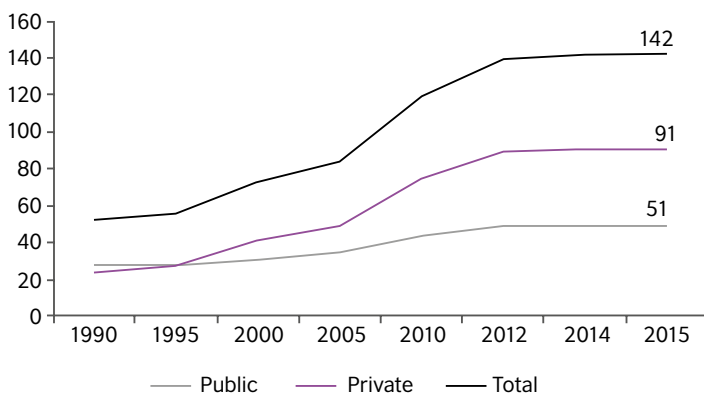
With regard to private universities, provision of services doubled over the last decade, thanks to a softening in the regulatory framework and interest from business groups, international networks and investment funds. Between 2005 and 2015, private university provision increased by 86%, rising from 49 to 91 universities in 2015. This increase occurred both in Lima and in the provinces; of the total new universities, 50% were located in Lima and 50% in the provinces.

The principal explanations for this expansion were modifications in the institutional framework, directed towards boosting private investment in higher education. Thus, in the 1990's, a process of deregulation commenced, characterised by two main factors, described in the previous section: i) the granting of licences to new universities was delegated to CONAFU, a body that was independent of the central government and which was made up of ex rectors; ii) private universities were allowed to operate as profit-seeking companies (DL 882).

In this context, there was interest among business groups, international networks and investment funds that goes someway towards explaining a large part of this expansion. A reflection of this is that over time the universities with the largest number of enrolled students have varied. Before the 1990's, universities with the largest number of enrolled students were public universities. (*Universidad Nacional*

Mayor de San Marcos, and Universidad Nacional de Trujillo). However, from 1990 onwards, private universities started to take more of a leading role. The case of *Universidad Alas Peruanas* and *Universidad César Vallejo* are outstanding, profit-seeking universities with the highest number of students nationwide (58,000 and 46,000 enrolled students respectively)[17]. Currently, 25% of the university population is concentrated in five universities, of which only one is public[18].

In contrast, the provision of public universities barely increased at all, despite the fact that demand for this type of institution was predominant. Between 2005 and 2015, only 16 public universities were established, rising from 35 to 51 universities in 2015. This slight increase was concentrated outside of Lima, as the total number of universities founded during this decade, 75% were located in the provinces[19].

Although the increase in public universities was not great, figures reveal that there was an important peak between 2010 and 2011, when 25% of the total public universities that exist today were founded during this period. However, according to the Ministry of Education, of the 13 public universities that were established during this time, only 3 continue to operate[20]. The experts that were interviewed pointed out that the founding of public universities during this time was mainly the result of political interest and was carried out without the necessary analysis of the sector:

> *"Between 2010 and 2011, the founding of public universities took place without analysis, whether it corresponded or did not correspond to local, regional and national demand…. they are located in remote places that have access to 'canon' funds*".*
> *(Interviewee 4)*

> **Canon is the share that Local and Regional Governments have access to from the total income obtained by the government from the economic exploitation of mineral resources (metallic and non-metallic)*

Among the factors that explain the limited expansion of public provision, there are two notable ones: i) the low level of resources assigned by the government, and ii) problems of performance on the part of universities that limited investment. With regard to the resources assigned by the government, it should be mentioned that they constituted the principal source of financing of public universities in Peru. Thus, in 2015, 74% of the budgets of public universities

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17 II National University Census 2010 (II Censo Nacional Universitario 2010).

18 Universidad Alas Peruanas, Universidad Privada Cesar Vallejo, Universidad de San Martín de Porres, Universidad Nacional Mayor de San Marcos, Universidad Los Ángeles de Chimbote (II Censo Nacional Universitario 2010).

19 For example, the Universidad Nacional de Jaén (Cajamarca), Universidad Nacional Intercultural "Fabiola Salazar Legua" de Bagua (Amazonas), Universidad Nacional Autónoma de Tayacaja Daniel Hernández Morillo (Huancavelica), were created, among others.

20 Ministry of Education: "A System for Quality Assurance", 2016. ("Un Sistema de Aseguramiento de la Calidad")

came from resources assigned by the government (ordinary and 'canon' resources, payments from industry, royalties, customs revenue and investments), 22% of the resources collected directly by universities; and 4% from donations and transfers.

Diagram 8: 2015: Sources of financing by type (% of total financing)

- ■ Resources allocated by the government
- ■ Resources collected directly by universities
- ■ Donations and transfers
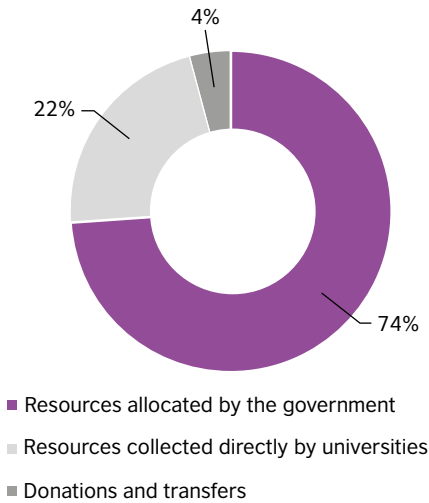
Source: SIA F-M EF

However, the resources assigned by the Peruvian government are at a relatively low level. In Peru, the annual budget assigned by the government per student in higher education was an average of $508 in 2010, in countries belonging to the OECD, this figure rose to approximately $13 958 (OECD, 2014)[21]. Similarly, in other countries in the region such as Chile and Brazil, the annual budget assigned per university student is higher than in Peru. ($2,056 and $3,122 respectively)[22].

Even if the resources assigned by the Peruvian government are low, over the last decade, the total sum that the government has assigned to universities increased by 270%. The highest increase came from customary resources, thus in 2005, 2, 769 thousand soles. This represents an average annual increase of 14,5%[23]. 'Canon' resources experienced a more moderate increase.

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21 Education at a Glance 2014: OECD Indicators.
22 Statistics from UNESCO. 2010.
23 SIAF-MEF.

Diagram 9: Peru: Evolution of the budget for public universities by source of funding (Thousands of soles)

■ Resources of Canon 1/

■ Resources directly collected by credits

■ Ordinary resources
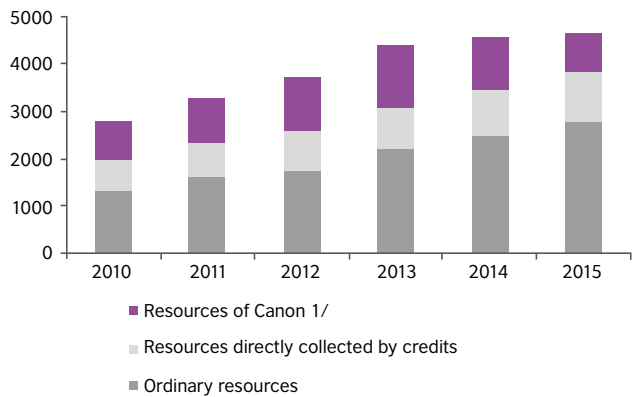
1/ Includes funds from industry sector allocated during the financial year (specific resources) and those that were incorporated and had remained in the account balance from previous year (donations and transfers).

Source: SIAF - MEF

Despite the increase in resources assigned to public universities by the government, one problem that limited its use was the operational capacity of the universities themselves. In the last 5 years, public universities were unable to use 28% of the total resources assigned by the government, which represents a total of S/ 6 574 thousand. Over half of the unused resources had been assigned by the 'canon',   to be used in scientific research activities, activities related to accreditation, public investment projects related to the objectives of public universities and the development of infrastructure and equipment[24].

Diagram 10: Peru: Budget implemented by Public Universities

PIM ■ Implemented
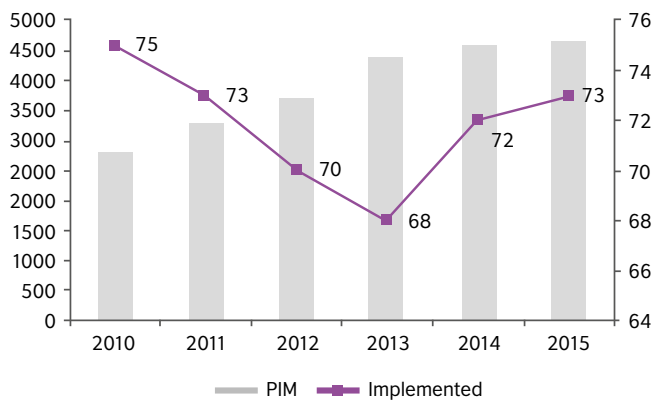
Source: SIAF - MEF, Ministerio de Educación

24 Modifications instroduced by the Law for the Pubic Sector Budget for Financial Year 2013, Law 29951.

In terms of the geographical expansion of university provision, this increased both in Lima and the provinces and the distribution did not change over time. Between 2005 and 2015, 58 universities were founded nationwide, of which 57% were located in the provinces. It should be mentioned that the geographical distribution of universities has remained constant over the last decade. So while in 2005, 63% of existing universities were located in the provinces, in 2015 it was 60%. In terms of the distribution of universities per region, the concentration was 40% in Lima; Junin and La Libertad followed (6% respectively), Arequipa (5%) and finally Cusco and Lamabayeque (4% respectively).

Diagram 11: Peru: Number of universities
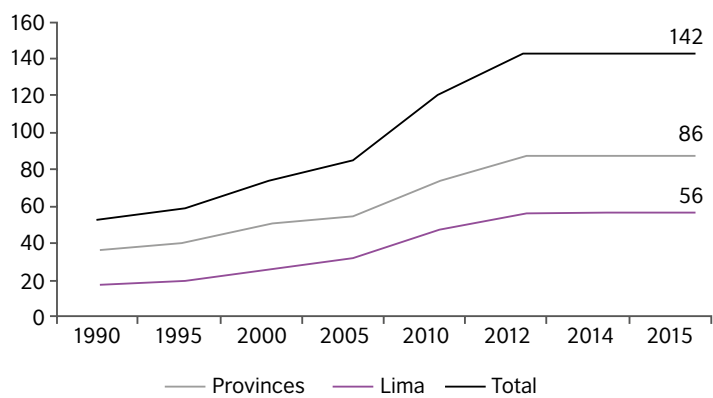
Source: Sunedu

Finally, it should be mentioned that, in addition to the important increase in university provision over the last decade, it has also diversified. In terms of the degree programmes offered, there was a clear proliferation of the programmes offered. While in 2010, 1 491 university degree programmes were offered (ANR, 2010), in 2016 this number rose to 2 673 (Ponte en Carrera[25], 2016).

I.3. Results related to access

As a result of the increase in demand for higher education and the expansion of university provision, access to higher education in Peru

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25 *Ponte en Carrera* is a web platform that provides information about available training and laboral demand to encourage improved decision making by young people about their professional future. It was developed through a strategic alliance between the Ministry of labour and Promotion of Employment and IPAE Acción Empresarial (Source: Website www.ponteencarrera.pe).

increased over the last ten years. Between 2004 and 2014, the number of new students at universities doubled, rising from 132,000 in 2004 to 266,000 in 2014. This increase was possible because of the private universities capacity to take in more students. Therefore while in 1990, 41% of candidates were able to enter private universities, after the phase in which the system was deregulated, this percentage increased to 74% in 2014. In contrast, the percentage of candidates that were successful in entering public universities remained relatively constant, at around 20% (ANR, INEI).

Diagram 12: Peru: University admissions by type
(Nº)
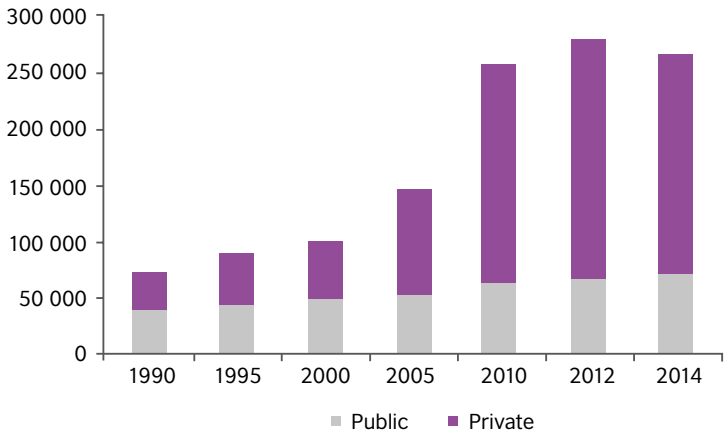
Source: SIAF - MEF

The increased admission to private universities can be explained to a large extent by the emergence of universities offering lower than average fees. Evidence exists that demonstrates that increased access had occurred in low cost private universities that had little-known quality and employability indicators (Yamada and Oviedo, 2016). In turn, this generated a large variety of educational alternatives, both in terms of fees as well as in terms of expected salaries during the first four years after graduation. For example, this occurred in the case of Business Management degree programmes, which was the degree course with the highest demand in Peru. The following graph shows the variability that exists in the cost of degree programmes, as well as the associated returns. This variability applies to non-profit and profit-seeking universities. Additionally, a direct relationship between the cost of educational services and the expected salary for graduates can be observed in private universities.

Diagram 13: Relationship: cost and average salary for a degree in business management. 1/
(Logarithms)
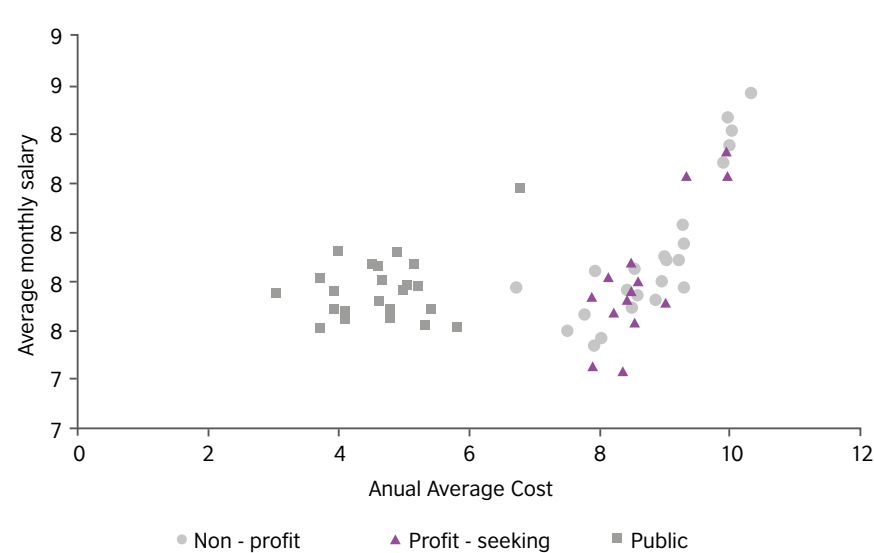
1/ Data is in levels

It should be taken into consideration that not all students that are accepted into a university actually enrol, mainly because of insufficient economic resources[26]. Taking these considerations into account, to evaluate effective access to higher education, it would be appropriate to analyse the evolution of enrolment. Thus, an important increase in the number of students enrolled could also be observed over the last decade. While in 2004, enrolment at universities rose to 515,000 students, in 2014 the number of enrolled students increased, reaching more than 1,1 million enrolled students. (ANR, INEI).

In line with what was mentioned previously, this increase in the number of enrolled students was mainly a result of increased access to private universities. Prior to 2000, the proportion of students enrolled in public universities was higher than those enrolled in private universities. However, from 2000 onwards, the situation was reversed. Thus from 2006 onwards, the proportion of students enrolled in private universities exceeded the figure that corresponded with public universities and accounted for almost 63% in 2014.

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26 Beltrán, Castro and Yamada 2008:9: "Economic limitation is the most important single reason behind the decision not to go on to higher education and to a lesser extent, to abandon studies"

Diagram 14: Peru: Students entrolled in universities by type
(% of total)

	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2014
Private	26	40	40	50	60	63
Public	74	60	60	50	40	37

■ Public ■ Private
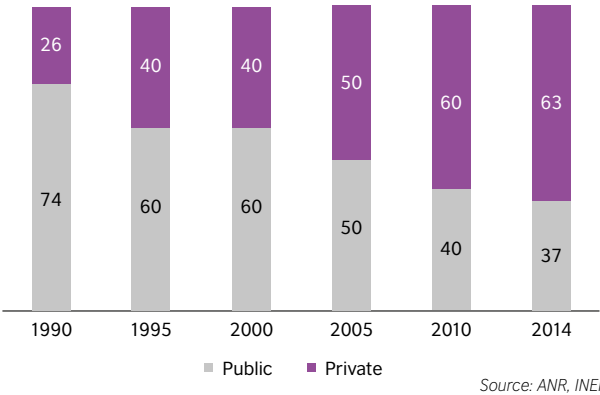
A democratisation process of the system accompanied increased access, as it allowed access to new groups of students, among which the lower income sector is predominant. Between 2005 and 2015, the percentage of secondary school leavers entering university higher education increased in 2015 from 23% to 37%. Although the increase was generalised, it was higher among young people living in poorer conditions. So while the increase among young people not living in poorer conditions increased by 11 percentage points, among those living in poverty, the increase was 13 percentage points.

Diagram 15: Transition rate to higher education 1/
(% of graduates from previous education level)

◆ Total ■ Non-extreme poverty ▲ Not poverty
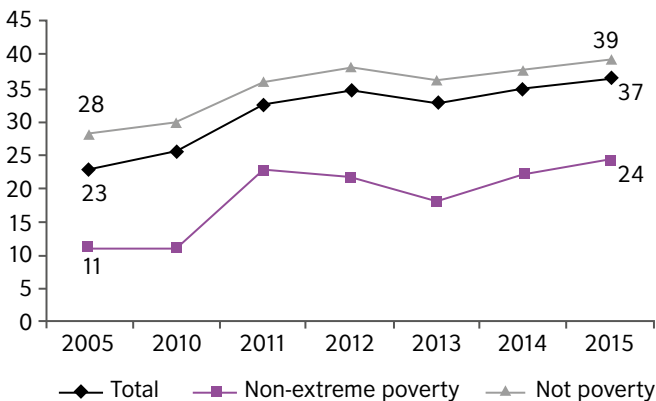
1/ The transition rate shows the percentage of students that enroll in the first year of higher education having graduated from secondary school the previous year.

This process of inclusion was particularly important from 2013 onwards. Between 2013 and 2015, the percentage of secondary school leavers living in poorer conditions that entered higher education increased by six percentage points, double the number of young people entering higher education who did not live in such conditions.

This increased access among young people who live in poor conditions which took place from 2013 onwards can be explained in part by the scholarship and credit programs offered by the Peruvian government during those years. Prior to 2011, the policy with regard to scholarship and credit programs run by the Peruvian government consisted of channelling scholarships from the national and international cooperation funds towards students with limited economic resources. It was only in 2011 that a new approach towards granting subsidised scholarships was adopted. From then on, the Peruvian government has taken a more aggressive stand with regard to the policy for scholarships and educational credits in higher education institutes.

Table 1: The evolution of the policy with regard to scholarships and educational credits granted by the Peruvian government.

Intervention by the government in matters related to scholarships and educational credits began in 1972, with the establishment of the National Institute for Scholarship and Educational Credits (*Instituto Nacional de Becas y Crédito Educativo*) **(INABEC)**, a decentralised public institution belonging to the education sector. Activites carried out by Inabec were focused on channeling international scholarships and arranging national scholarships with cooperating organisations. This institution did not subsidise higher educational studies.

Inabec operated until 2007, the year in which activities related to scholarships and educational credits were deconcentrated to an office of the Ministry of Education, called the Scholarship and Educational Credit Office (*Oficina de Becas y Crédito Educativo*) **(OBEC)**. This office ran from 2007 to 2012, a period in which, as well as continuing to channel scholarships, it began to develop a component for subsidised scholarships. In December 2011, OBEC was responsible for implementing the *Programa Nacional Beca 18*. This programme was created with the aim of improving equity in access to higher education, through the financing of comprehensive scholarships - which covered all academic and maintenance costs in technical and professional degrees -, for young people with high academic performance and low economic resources or in socially vulnerable situations.

In February 2012, the National Programme for Scholarships and Educational Credit was created (*Programa Nacional de Becas y Crédito Educativo)* **(PRONABEC)**, with the aim of providing more flexibility and autonomy in Ministry of Education management of scholarships and educational credits. From this year until the present day, Pronabec is responsible for granting scholarships and educational credits, mainly for highly academic students with scarce economic resources.

The following table shows the institutions responsible for carrying out policy in matters related to scholarships and educational credits granted by the Peruvian government, as well as the results of their achievements.

Policy with regard to scholarships and educational credits granted by peruvian government

Criterion	Inabec	OBEC	Pronabec 1/
Period of activity	1972 - 2007	2007 - 2012	2012 - 2015
Organization	Decentralised Public body belonging to the Education Center	Line Agency of Minedu	Program managed by Minedu
Management model			
Scolarships	Channelling and management	Channelling, management and start of subsidy	Channelling, management and prioritising subsidy
Educational credits	Revolving fund (12% of interest)	Revolving fund (12% of interest)	Revolving fund (4,22% of interest) Crédito 18 (3,18% of interest)
Number of scolarships subsidised by the government	0	72	69,606
Budget for scolarship and educational credit subsidies (Thousands)		27	1,693

1/ *Pronabec es responsable del otorgamiento de becas y créditos educativos actualmente. Sin embargp, el periodo de análisis considerado en el recuadro comprende el 2012 - 2015.*

Source: Pronabec.

This new approach by the Peruvian government has allowed for a considerable increase in the number of scholarships and credits that can be granted. In terms of scholarships, between 2012 and 2015 the Peruvian government granted nearly 69,000 scholarships through Pronabec. Between 2007 and 2012, it only subsidised 72 scholarships through the OBEC. Of the 69,000 scholarships granted between 2012 and 2015, 80% were awarded to students for undergraduate studies, while 20% of the beneficiaries were for postgraduate studies. Additionally, 96% of beneficiaries carried out their studies in Peru, while only 4% carried out their studies abroad[27], mainly for postgraduate studies[28].

On the other hand, 69% of the scholarships granted during this period were directed towards vulnerable populations, while the remaining 31% corresponded to scholarships for specialised studies (undergraduate scholarships, postgraduate studies abroad, scholarships for teachers, among others)[29]. It is worth mentioning that almost the total number of scholarships intended for vulnerable populations were granted though the National Scholarship Programme - *Programa Nacional Beca 18* - as shown in table 4-, the scholarship programme with the widest nationwide reach.

When it comes to educational credit, both within OBEC and the first years of the Pronabec programme, a small short-term funding scheme was in place. Between 2012 and 2015, Pronabec granted 2 115 credits through their Educational Credits Programme - *Programa de Créditos Educativos*. The majority of the credits were granted as a means of financing university studies (41%), followed by Masters degrees (24%), procedures for obtaining the university degree (12%), internship programmes and diploma courses (10%), among others[30].   Further, Pronabec recently created a long-term educational loan, - Credit 18 - *Crédito 18*[31], which contributed to an even greater increase in access to higher education.

Modality	Scolarships	Number of beneficiaries	% of total beneficiaries
Beca 18	Beca 18	44 870	64,5
	Beca 18 Internacional 1/.	209	0,3
Undergraduate scolarships for human capital	Beca Excelencia Académica and Beca vocación de Maestro.	773	1,1

27 Between 2012 and 2015, 216 Peruvian students received scholarships for higher education in the United Kingdom. The scholarships were awarded through Pronabec (Beca Presidente de la República, Beca Especialización Docente and Beca Especialización en Salud), the Ford Foundation, the British Embassy (Becas Chevening) and Concytec.
28 Information drawn from Memoria Institucional del Pronabec 2012 -2015.
29 Information drawn from Memoria Institucional del Pronabec 2012 -2015.
30 Information drawn from Memoria Institucional del Pronabec 2012 -2015
31 September 2015: Official launching of Crédito 18. The loan was directed towards students with high academic achievement who faced economic situations that limited the start or conclusion of their studies. This is an long-term educational loan that covered undegraduate studies and payment is only made after finishing studies. The annual rate is 3,18%.and the total period for repayment is 15 years for universities and 10 years for institutes.

Scolarships for PhD studies abroad	Beca Presidente de la Respública, Beca Perú China, Beca Salud.	1 265	1,8
Special Scolarships	Beca Técnico Productiva, Beca APROLAB II, Beca Amistad Peruano Ecuatoriana, Alianza del Pacífico, Beca UNILA, Beca Idioma Inglés - Escolares, Beca Idioma Francés, Beca Perú, Beca Doble Oportunidad.	11 175	16,1
Scolarships for Teachers	Beca de Especialización Docente and Beca Maestría en Educación.	11 314	16,3
Total		**69 606**	**100**

1/ Countries of study: France (109 students), Cuba (67 students) and Honduras (33 students).

Source: Pronabec.

The democratisation of education can also be observed through other indicators. In particular, we found that between 2005 and 2015, the percentage of students who belonged to families where the head of the family had only school education increased. Their participation in the total number of students rose from 49% in 2005 to 56% in 2015.

Diagram 16: Peru: Young people with access to university study by education level of head of household
(% of total)
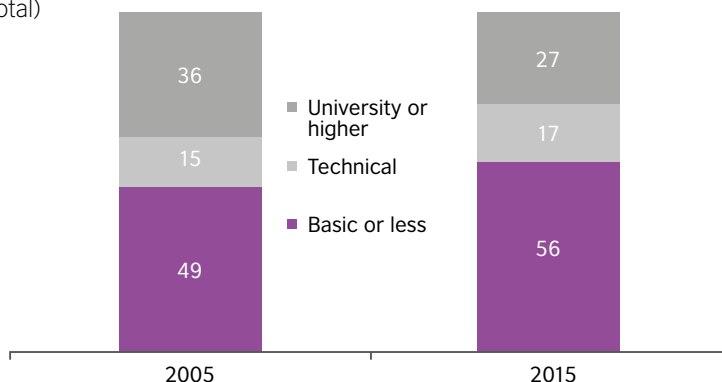
1/ Young people from 17 to 24 years of age, excludinf students who are head of their household.

Source: Enaho - INEI

The increase among women was also notable. During the period of analysis, women moved from representing 45% to 52% of the total young people between the age of 17 and 24 years old studying at universities.

Diagram 17: Peru: Young people with access to university education by sex 1/ (% of total)
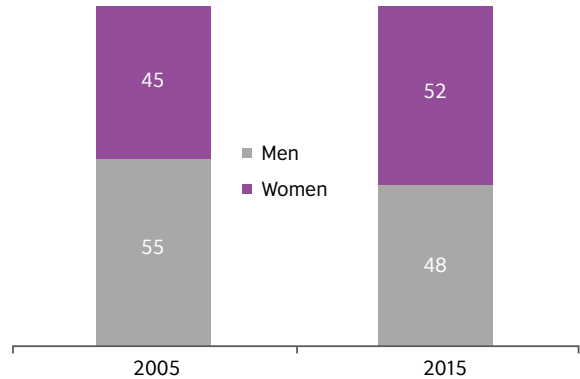
1/ Young people from 17 to 24 years old.

Source: Enaho - INEI

In short, increased access to university higher education went hand in hand with a process of democratisation in the system that allowed increased access from new sectors, such as young people living in poverty, university students who came from families where the head of the family finished their education at secondary school level, and female students, among others. The following table shows the changes that occurred in the different sectors over the last decade, both at a nationwide level as well as by type of university.

Table 5: Profile of the university student 2005 -2015

Characteristics	2005			2015		
	Public U.	Private U.	Total	Public U.	Private U.	Total
Young people with access to university education (17 to 24 years old)	215,661	178,805	394,467	343,679	494,915	838,593
1. By sex (% of total)						
Men	58	51	55	51	46	48
Women	42	49	45	49	54	52
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

2. By geographical area (% of total)						
Urban	92	97	94	89	93	91
Rural	8	3	6	11	7	9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
3. By income group (% of total)						
Quintile I (20% less)	4	4	4	5	2	3
Quintile II	7	3	5	13	7	9
Quintile III	19	7	14	26	14	19
Quintile IV	28	22	25	28	28	28
Quintile V (20% mayor)	42	64	52	29	49	41
4. By parents level of education (% of total)						
School or less	59	34	49	62	51	56
Technical	13	16	15	16	17	17
University or higher	28	49	36	22	32	27

Source: Enaho - INEI.

The information given in Table 5 show that, in addition to the sectors mentioned, there were two other interesting changes: increased access for young people in rural areas and from students that belonged to the low-middle class sectors. (Quintile I, II and III of income distribution).

The increase in access to higher education was a national trend, and despite the fact that there was a generalised increase in Peru, it was still lagging behind in comparison with other countries. From 1990 onwards, there was a general increase in admissions to higher education all over the world. Between 1990 and 2013, admissions in developed countries or countries with higher incomes grew by 21 percentage points, rising from 54% to 75%. In Latin America and the Caribbean, admissions rates for higher education rose from 22% to 45%. In Peru, higher education admissions also increased from 30% to 40.5% in 2010. However, this growth was more pronounced from the year 2000 onwards, while in other countries in the region, the increase in admissions began to accelerate from 1990 onwards.

Diagram 18: Gross enrollment in higher education (%)
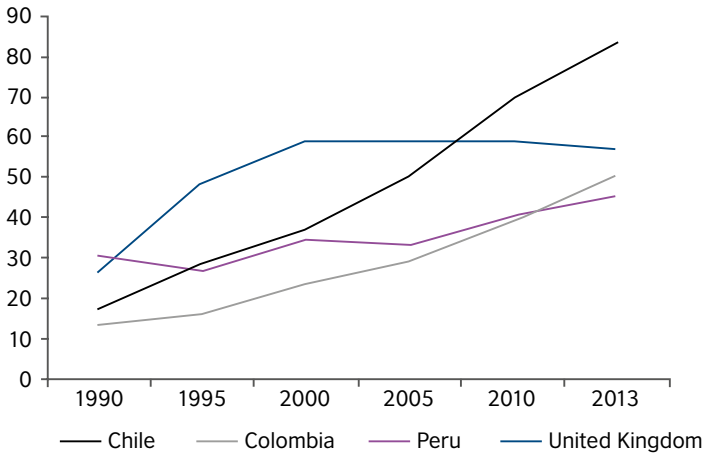
1/ There is no information available for Peru in 2013. The figure for this year was estimated.

Source: UNESCO, Stats

I.4. Results related to quality

In Peru, concern about the quality of services increased at the same time as this pronounced increase in coverage and diversification of the university system. This concern played an important role in the motivation to initiate a reform programme for the university system in 2014 and to guide its design. This was reflected in the National Policy for Quality Assurance for the University Higher Education System - *Política Nacional de Aseguramiento de la Calidad de la Educación Superior Universitaria.*

Concern about the quality of university higher education and the need to carry out a reform programme were officially recognised by the Peruvian government in 2008, when the Constitutional Tribunal - the supreme body for the interpretation and control of constitutionality - delivered its opinion and declared unconstitutional certain characteristics of the institutional framework of the university system, namely the free entry and self-regulation by the universities themselves regarding aspects related to quality. (*See section I.1*).

In addition to the points that were highlighted by the Constitutional Tribunal, the experts that were interviewed for this study agreed that the Peruvian higher education system had a low quality rating, below the levels of other comparable university systems in the region. Consequently, almost the total number of interviewees was in agreement that there was a need to reform the system.

"The reform has the great advantage that is stating that this is the problem and therefore a solution has to be found to resolve it".

(Interviewee 2)

In describing the issue of higher education quality, one central problem is the difficulty in defining "quality". Another problem, which is particularly important in Peru, is the lack of relevant and up-to-date information available to support the formulation of an appropriate diagnosis of the problem. Taking these limitations into account, the principal indicators that allow us to illustrate the issue of quality of higher education in Peru will be presented here. These indicators can be grouped into two categories. On the one hand, indicators related to input in the education process, in which the level of teacher training, the state of physical infrastructure and the level of abilities among higher education students is highlighted. On the other hand, indicators related to the results must also be evaluated, such as the employability of university graduates and the level of scientific output.

- **Indicators related to the conditions in which the process of education is carried out:**

The education process can be understood as a transformation process, directed towards developing students' abilities. This transformation process requires certain conditions, such as having qualified teachers, adequate infrastructure and the students having a sound level of school education. The situation in Peru as regards these three aspects can be described as follows:

With regard to the <u>level of qualifications among university teachers</u>, the most up-to-date information is provided by the II National University Census 2010 - (*II Censo Nacional Universitario 2010*), which indicated that there were 59 thousand university students during that year. Of these students, 53% had Masters degrees, 4% held a post-graduate degree and 14% possess some kind of specialisation.

Although the majority of university teachers had finished some kind of post-graduate studies,[32] (an average of 70%), only 16% had carried out these studies abroad. The percentage was higher among teachers at private universities. But among these, there are also differences depending on whether the university is located in Lima or the provinces. So while in Lima, 24% of private universities teachers underwent their study programmes abroad, in the provinces, the number of teachers who had studied abroad was just 9%.

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32 PhD, asters degree studies and II Specialisation is considered.

Diagram 19: Peru: University teachers with postgraduate studies abroad by location, 2010 (% of total)

Private — Metropolitan Lima 24, Provinces 9, Total 18
Public — Metropolitan Lima 17, Provinces 10, Total 13

■ Metropolitan Lima   ■ Provinces   ■ Total
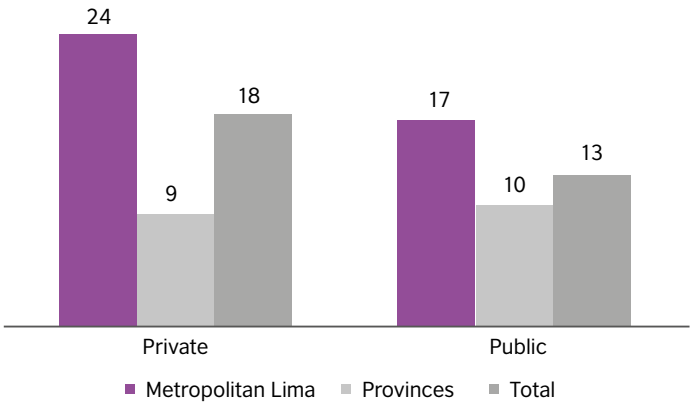
Source: INEI

Looking at it from another position, 24% of university teachers stated that they had no knowledge of the English language. However, there are enormous differences among universities, depending on their geographical location. The larger percentage of teachers that stated that they had no knowledge of the English language corresponded to teachers at private universities in the provinces (33%). In second place were teachers from public universities in the provinces. (27%). These percentages are lower than at public and private universities in Metropolitan Lima.

Diagram 20: Peru: University teachers that state that they have knowledge of the english language, 2010
(% of total)

Private — Metropolitan Lima 17, Provinces 33, Total 24
Public — Metropolitan Lima 20, Provinces 27, Total 24

■ Metropolitan Lima   ■ Provinces   ■ Total
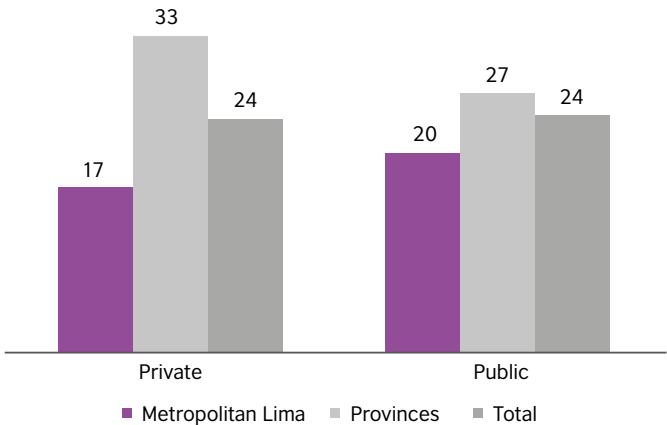
Source: INEI

The low level of qualifications among university teachers is also reflected in how satisfied students were with their experience at university. 25% of university graduates stated that the quality of their teachers had not been good or excellent. This dissatisfaction was higher among students from public universities (35%). However, 85% of students from private universities considered that the quality of their teachers had been good or excellent[33].

A second relevant indicator is the state of university infrastructure. In this aspect, it should be mentioned that the quality of the infrastructure in private universities is perceived by graduates to be better than the infrastructure at public universities. As demonstrated in the following graph, the largest deficiencies are seen to be in science laboratory equipment, workshops and computing laboratories.

Diagram 21: Peru: University graduates that consider that the quality of infrastructure of their study centre was good or excellent, 2014.
(% of total)
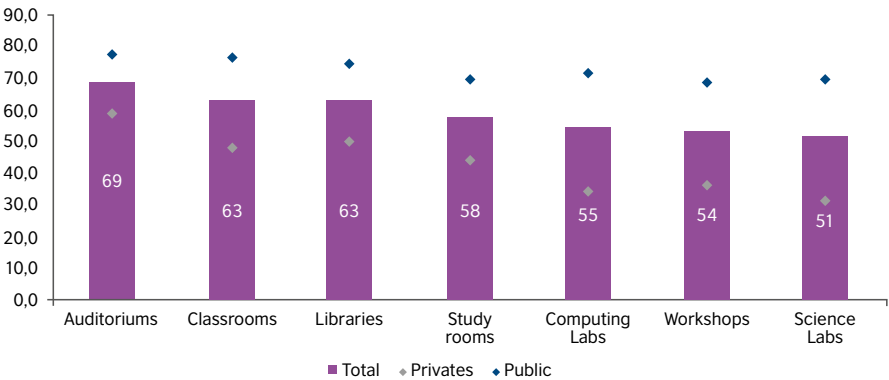
Source: INEI, APOYO Consultoría

It is also worth mentioning that almost 30% of universities in Peru do not have virtual classrooms. This percentage is higher among public universities (48%), as demonstrated in the following graph:

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33 INEI: National Survey for University Graduates and Universities, 2014 (Encuesta Nacional a Egresados Universitarios y Universidades)

Diagram 22: Peru: Universities without virtual classrooms 2014
(% of total)

Bar chart showing percentages: Total 71, Private 81, Public 53.
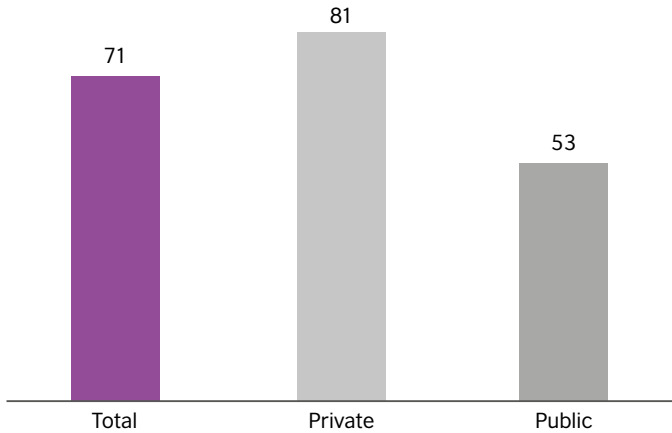
Lastly, the third indicator refers to the <u>level of students' abilities</u>. There is evidence to suggest that the distribution of cognitive abilities among university students has deteriorated over the last decade[34]. One factor that could explain this situation is the low level of basic education in Peru. This conclusion is in line with Peru's poor performance in international learning evaluation tests. The results of the last Programme for the International Evaluation of Students (*Programa para la Evaluación Internacional de Estudiantes*) (PISA), a test that was carried out in 2012 by the OECD[35], show that Peru was ranked last in Reading, Mathematics, and Science, among the 65 countries that were evaluated[36]. It should be mentioned that this evaluation measured the achievements of 15-year-old students studying some grade of secondary education or its equivalent in the competencies mentioned (Reading, Mathematics, and Science).

In short, poor quality basic education proves to be an important obstacle to entering and studying at higher education[37]. Faced with this situation, universities have had to adapt to the types of students they receive and to adjust the formative assessment

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34 Yamada, Bacigalupo, Castro and Luciana Velarde: "Increased access with lower quality higher education: some evidence drawn from the students abilities", 2013
35 Tests from the International Evaluation of Students Programme (Programa para la Evaluación Internacional de Alumnos) (PISA) aims to evaluate to what level students who are nearing the end of their education have acquired necessary knowledge for their participation in society. The areas evaluated are mathematics, reading and sciences. (Source: OECD website).
36 A total of 65 countries participated in PISA 2012; of which 35 are OECD countries and the rest are partner countries; of the total, 8 countries belonged to the region of Latin America.
37 Beltrán, Castro, Yamada 2012: 1

process to the different profiles of their students. This point was indicated by the director of a private university in a qualitative study carried out by APOYO Consultoría[38]:

"If we had a rigid profile in the admissions exams, we wouldn't have any students. We have adapted our system to the profile that comes to us: a student with deficiencies"

Qualitative Study about attributes and determinants in the quality of higher education.

APOYO Consultoría 2011.

In brief, given the poor quality and diversity that exists in the university education system, the level of dissatisfaction among students is high. In 2014, 25% of university graduates stated that given the chance, they would choose the same degree programme but at a different university; 44% would not recommend their university because they considered that the teachers were not adequately qualified and 48% were dissatisfied with the infrastructure[39].

- **Indicators related to results:**

To evaluate the results of the higher education study, it is necessary to consider the purpose of the evaluation. There are two main principles: i) the teaching - which is related to the level of professional skill that universities provide and ii) knowledge building - which is related to research work[40]. Taking these considerations into account, two quality indicators have developed: indicators related to graduate performance in the employment market and indicators related to the level of scientific output.

Graduate performance in the employment market

First, it is appropriate to analyse university graduate employability. In 2014, 15% of graduates considered that their chosen degree programme had not contributed to them obtaining their first job. In addition to this, for 40% of graduates, it took more than a month to obtain their first job and for 5% of graduates, it took over six months.

With regard to the situation of university graduates in the employment market, in 2014, 93% formed part of the economically active population. Of these, 87.5% were in employment and 12.5% were unemployed.

Among graduates in employment, 87% were salaried employees[41], 10% were independent workers and 3% were employers. However, there are differences that

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38 APOYO Consultoría 2011. Document created at request of SINEACE.
39 National Survey for University Graduates and Universities, 2014
40 Higher education in Peru: Challenges in Quality Assurance; SINEACE Investigation
41 Salaried employees in general were conidered, without making a distinction between casual and formal sectorss.

relate to the university from which they graduated. Graduates from public universities in Lima represented the highest percentage of salaried employment, while graduates from private universities in the provinces represented the lowest percentage of salaried employment.[42].

Diagram 23: Peru: University graduates in salaried employment by type of university, 2014 (% of total)
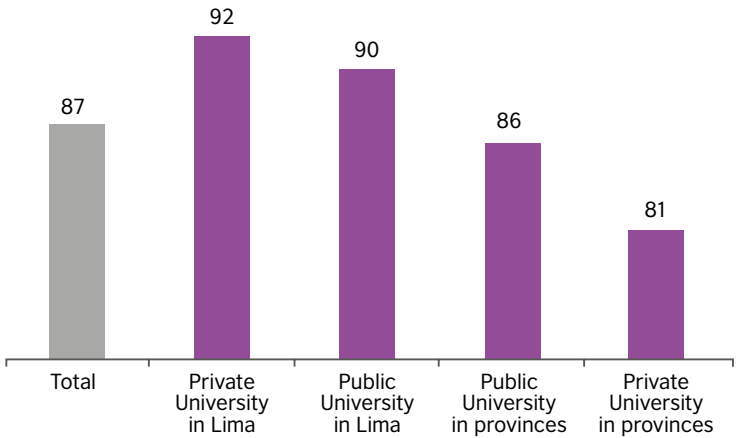
However, it is relevant to mention that not all university graduates had access to quality employment or employment that was in line with their level of education. In 2015, around 30% of university graduates held informal employment positions, without legal working benefits which were generally of poor quality and with low salaries. In 2012, 40% of university professors were underemployed, as their job required a lower level of academic quaification than that which they themselves had received[43].

On the other hand, a crucial point for analysis with regard to university graduates in the employment market are their salaries, as they are not only a reflection of work productivity, but also of the education received.

In general, university graduates were able to find better-paid employment than workers who had other levels of education. In 2015, the average monthly salary among university graduates was S/2 400, while the average salary nationwide was S/1 240. However, it was in the salaries received by workers with a university education that

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43 Lavado, Martínez and Yamada: "An Unfulfilled promise? The quality of University Higher Education and professional underemployment in Peru, 2014 ("¿Una promesa incumplida?: La calidad de la educación superior universitaria y el subempleo profesional en el Perú"),

there was the most marked diversity. On the one hand, 14% of university graduates received a monthly salary that was lower than the Minimum Living Wage (S/850) in 2015. And on the other hand, 20% of salary earning university graduates had an average monthly income of S/5 920. This difference is very steep, and could be the result of differences in abilities, productivity by zones/sectors, but also the difference in the quality of higher education depending on the universities they attended and the degree programmes they followed.

In regard to the differences by geographical location, in Peru, data shows that students that studied at universities in Lima had on average higher incomes than those that had studied at a university in the provinces. Also, in Lima, graduates from private universities found jobs with higher salaries than graduates from public universities. The opposite occurs in the provinces.

Diagram 24: Peru: Average income of university graduates by university type, 2014 (S/. monthly)
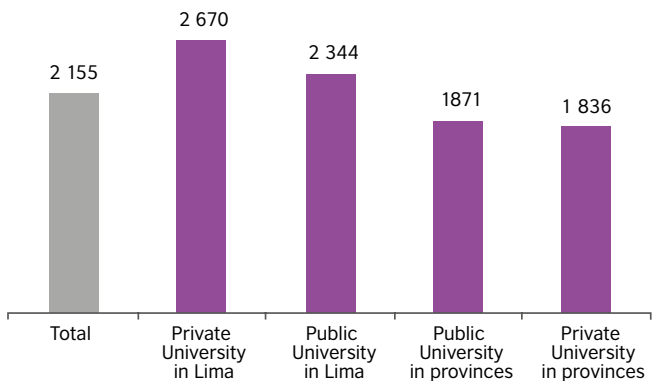
Source: INEI

On the other hand, the salaries earned by university graduates also vary within each degree programme, depending on the university they studied at. For example, graduates of the Business Management degree programme from the five highest fee-paying private universities in Lima received an average monthly salary of S/4 820. Meanwhile, graduates of the same degree programme but from the five lowest fee-paying universities earned average monthly salaries of S/2 050. This difference in income among graduates of the same degree programme but from different universities could reflect that the quality of university study is very varied.

In conclusion, it is clear that for different reasons, some university graduates do not have the profile required by employers. Faced with this situation, companies in Peru are finding it difficult to hire the employees they need. According to a survey carried out by Manpower in 2015, 68% of employers in Peru claim to have difficulties finding

qualified employees. This makes Peru the country with the greatest difficulty in finding staff in Latin America, ranked second in the world[44].

Scientific Output

In Peru, the lack of scientific output is one of the most obvious deficiencies in the higher education sector. According to the World University Ranking 2015-2016 carried out by *Quacquarelli Symonds* (QS), Peru is very behind in terms of reputation and academic citation[45]. With regard to reputation, the first Peruvian university in the QS ranking is the Pontificia Universidad Católica del Perú, ranked at 248th place. With regard to academic citations, there is no university in Peru that is among the 400 universities with the highest number of academic citations[46]. The following table demonstrates the number of academic publications in Latin American countries between 200 and 2016. The results show that Peru remains behind in the academic output sector.

Table 6: Number of publications affiliated to each country, 2000-2016

Country	Number of publications affiliated by country, 2000 - 2016
U.S.A	14,871,832
United Kingdom	4,080,568
Brazil	766,711
Argentina	200,653
Chile	121,408
Colombia	70,913
Peru	17,384

Source: Scopus.

This situation can be explained by the low importance that is given to research at both public and private universities. Nearly 30% of universities nationwide do not have research centres. It is worrying that less than half of university teachers state that they have carried out any sort of university research over the last 2 years and of these teachers, only 62% had published their results in an indexed journal[47].

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44 ManpowerGroup, 2015. In this study, 10 232 managers in America were interviewed, including Argentina, Brasil, Canada, Colombia, Costa Rica, the United States, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama and Peru.
45 The ranking in academic reputation is based on a international survey in which academics identify the institutions in which the best work is carried out in the area of competency The citations from each faculty are carried out on the basis of a Scopus database . and the number of citations per author from each university are calculated.
46 www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings/world-university-rankings/2015#sorting=2453333+region =+country=363+faculty=+stars=false+search=
47 National Survey for University Graduates and Universities, 2014

The percentage of teachers that stated that they have carried out some sort of research over the last two years is greater in public universities, where 62% of the teachers had carried out research compared to private universities where only 32% had done so. It is also worth mentioning that 68% of teachers were not subscribed to specialised publications and 38% stated that they did not use bibliographic databases for their work[48].

Given the situation described above, the Peruvian government has decided to take action to improve the state in the scientific fields and to raise its position in the Latin American and international rankings. Thus through CIENCIACTIVA[49], the National Science, Technology and Technological Innovation Council (*Consejo Nacional de Ciencia, Tecnología e Innovación Tecnológica*) (CONCYTEC) it will distribute various scholarship programmes and co-finance PhD studies abroad. In addition to this, the British Embassy in Lima, in alliance with CONCYTEC implemented a fund for PhD studies and research projects together with universities in the United Kingdom for over four million soles (a million British pounds). At an institutional level, the universities themselves signed agreements with other institutions abroad to promote research. More recently, the *Universidad del Pacífico* signed an agreement with Oxford University, creating the "Rosemary Thorp" fund to promote exchange between researchers from the two universities. Similarly, in May 2106, the Universidad San Ignacio de Loyola signed an agreement with the Chitkara University in India for the development and growth of research projects together[50].

In conclusion, although it is difficult to measure quality, the performance of various indicators provides evidence of the existence of a quality 'problem' in university higher education in Peru. As a result, Peru is lagging behind compared to the development seen in other countries. According to the Global Competitivity Index, developed by the *World Economic Forum*, in the higher education and training ranking, Peru is ranked 82nd out of 140 countries.

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48 National Survey for University Graduates and Universities, 2014
49 CIENCIACTIVA is a CONCYTEC programme designed to capture, manage and channel resources in co-financing with natural and legal persons who are part of the NationaL System for Science, Technology and Technological Innovation (Sistema Nacional de Ciencia, Tecnología e Innovación Tecnológica) (SINACYT), aimed towards the formation of highly specialised humans resources and the development of scientific investigation, the application of knowledge technology and its introduction into the market and attention to social requirements.
https://portal.concytec.gob.pe/index.php/noticias/636-concytec-y-la-embajada-britanica-entregan-mas-de-4-millones-de-soles-a-investigadores-peruanos
50 http://www.usil.edu.pe/noticias/usil-firma-convenio-en-la-india

Diagram 25: 2015-2016: Global competitivity index – Higher education and training pillar
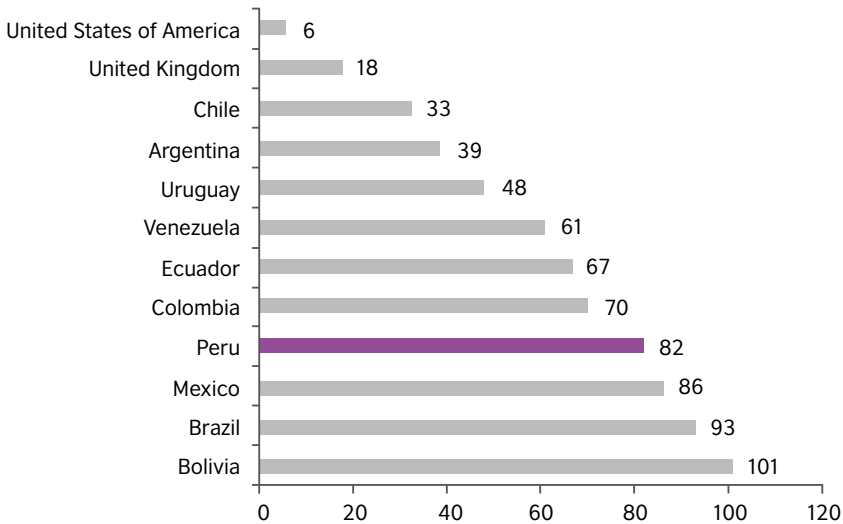
Source: Global Competitiveness Index

II. THE REFORM PROGRAMME: THE NEW UNIVERSITY LAW

In Peru, the University reform process has only recently begun, with the aim of improving the quality of higher education. This process started in 2008 when - as mentioned previously - the Constitutional Tribunal indicated that university educational activity should be permanently supervised and inspected by the government and it was urged to adopt institutional measures that would create a reform of the university education system in the country[51]. Thus, in 2012, the creation of new universities and the granting of licences for new universities and subsidiaries was prohibited for a period of five years[52] with the aim of reformulating the higher education policy and developing new legislation that would guarantee the quality of education.

In 2014 the new University Law was approved (Law N° 30220). The purpose of this law was to instil order in the higher education market, with regard to public universities, non-profit private universities and profit-seeking private universities. For this purpose, the law suggested a university model for the country, based on the following principles:

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51 Judgement reversed in file N° 00017-2008-PI/TC.
52 Law N° 29971, "the law established the deferral in the creation of public and private universities for a period of five years" published on 21 December 2012.

- Search and spreading of the truth

- Academic quality

- Autonomy

- Academic freedom

- Critical and investigative thinking

- Institutional democracy

- Meritocracy

- Diversity, tolerance, intercultural dialogue and inclusion

- Commitment and relevance to the development of the country

- Affirmation of life and human dignity

- Continual improvement of academic quality

- Creativity and innovation

- Internationalisation

- The student's best interest

- Relevance of teaching and research to the social reality

- Rejection of all forms of violence, intolerance and discrimination

- Public and professional ethics

In order to achieve this, the law provides a policy framework for the establishment, running, supervision and closure of universities, and seeks to promote continual improvement in the quality of services provided by university institutions.

One of the most important milestones, defined by the law, is the explicit mention of the Ministry of Education (MINEDU) as the governing body for quality assurance in higher education. As some of the people who were interviewed mentioned, this is an important fact, because up until now, the higher education system has lacked a governing body that would define national policies about higher education and would monitor its compliance. With regard to this factor, some interviewees mentioned:

"When it comes to training and tertiary academic activities, Peruvian universities had somehow been neglected by the government in terms of public universities that depend on it and what corresponds to private universities"

(Interviewee 15)

"The government has decided to go ahead with the university policy, a government policy (...) because in the past, with the subject of autonomy, the Ministry of education did not even state an opinion on the subject of universities, at least now this door has opened so that the possibility exists."

(Interviewee 6)

As a governing body, in 2015, MINEDU proposed a university reform programme and presented its content through the University Higher Education Quality Assurance Policy (*Política de Aseguramiento de la Calidad de la Educación Superior Universitaria*)[53]. This document institutionalised the reform process and became the principal guiding document for the process until 2021.

II.1. Centrepieces of the reform

New institutional organisation: roles and functions

In contrast to the previous model, the new model recognised that the government should "guarantee that the public university education service provide the necessary amount/funds and to an acceptable level, in order to safeguard the public faith of users of the service"[54]. For this reason, a National Assembly of Rectors (ANR) and the national Council for the University Licencing (*Consejo Nacional para la Autorización de Funcionamiento de Universidades*) (CONAFU) was established.[55]

A new institutional organisation through which MINEDU assumed the lead of the University Higher Education Quality Assurance Policy (*Política de Aseguramiento de la Calidad de la Educación Superior Universitaria*) was set up. In the new framework, it would fall under the role of this institution to direct, regulate, coordinate, supervise and evaluate the quality assurance policy for higher and technical - productive education[56].

Thus, with regard to university higher education, MINEDU exercises this function through the General Direction of University Higher Education (*Dirección General de Educación Superior Universitaria*) (DIGESU), responsible for directing, regulating, promoting, monitoring and evaluating policies for the development and quality assurance in university education. It should also propose organisational elements that would regulate the connection between MINEDU and the universities and promote the efficient use of public resources on the part of universities[57].

Additionally, the National Superintendence of University Higher Education (*Superintendencia Nacional de Educación Superior Universitaria*) (SUNEDU) and SINEACE - National System for the Evaluation, Accreditation and Certification of

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53 Supreme Decree N° 016-2015-MINEDU
54 Minstry of Education: "Policy for Quality Assurance in University Higher Education Policy", 2015 (pag. 21)
55 The task force responsbile for closure of the ANR declared the termination of the entit on31 march 2015.
56 Article 3 of the Regulation of the Organisationand Functions of the Ministry of Education (Reglamento de Organización y Funciones del Ministerio de Educación) (Supreme Decree N° 015---2015). With regard to University education, INEDU carries out this function through the General Directorate for Higher Education (Dirección General de Educación Superior Universitaria), General Directorate for technical Production and Higher Artistic Technology and the National Directorate for Teacher Development (Dirección General de Formación Técnico-Productiva y Superior Tecnológica Artística, y la Dirección Nacional de Desarrollo Docente) See MINEDU organigram in the appendix.
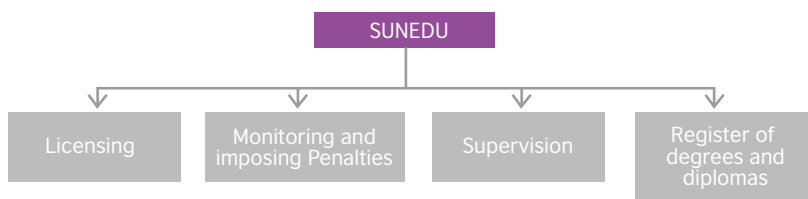57 Article 38 of the Regulation for the Organisation and Functions of the Ministry of Education (Reglamento de Organización y Funciones del Ministerio de Educación) (Supreme Decree N°   015---2015).

Educational Quality (*Sistema Nacional de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad Educativa*) were restructured. SUNEDU is a Specialised Technical Public Body that is attached to the Ministry of Education, with technical, functional, economic, budgetary and administrative autonomy, in the exercising of its functions" (Law No 30220, Article 12).

The purpose of SUNEDU is to supervise the quality of service provided by universities. Among its principal duties is to monitor the compliance of basic quality conditions in order for universities to be granted authorisation. They are also responsible for monitoring public resources and tax benefits that are granted to universities are used for educational purposes. As well as the duties mentioned, they should manage the National Register for Degrees and Qualifications (*Registro Nacional de Grados y Títulos*), and it is now empowered to impose penalties for infringements.

Diagram 26: Principal functions of SUNEDU

In terms of organisational structure, SUNEDU has a high level governing board made up of six members who are selected by Supreme Resolution, and validated by the Ministry of Education. The Superintendent, who has the highest executive authority, is appointed for a period of three years - renewable for an additional period - at the recommendation of the Ministry of Education. Additionally, one member of the board should be the holder of an executive position (such as a Director General) within the National Council for Science, Technology and Technological Innovation - *Consejo Nacional de Ciencia, Tecnología e Innovación Tecnológica* (CONCYTEC). The five remaining members are selected through public tender, and should be made up of two teachers from public universities and one from a private university. All five should have post-graduate studies and 10 years of relevant work experience.[58]

Furthermore, in order to carry out its functions, SUNEDU contains six divisions, defined by their individual aims: (i) Licensing Management (ii) Supervision Management (iii) Inspection and Penalty Management (iv) Documentation and University Information Management and Registry of Qualifications and Degrees (v) Documentation and University Information Unit (vi) Registry of Qualifications and Degrees.

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58 It should be Head Tacher or have worked as a researcher for 10 years. Additionally, the requirement for having a PhD could also be a Masters Degree for those who have 10 years of experience in management positions in the public or private sector, or in the education field.

As mentioned previously, SINEACE was established in 2006, as a public decentralised body attached to the Ministry of Education (Law N° 28740) with the aim of ensuring that educational institutions fulfil certain requirements related to the quality of their services. SINEACE was conceived as a group of organisations, regulations, structures and integrated procedures intended to define and establish standards, principles and accreditation, in order to ensure that educational institutions adhere to basic quality levels[59].

Senior Council was set up to run as the governing body of SINEACE as a decentralised public body attached to MINEDU, with regulatory, administrative, technical and financial autonomy. SINEACE was made up of three operating bodies, which were responsible for quality assurance in Basic and Productive Technical Education in non-university and university higher education. In the case of university higher education, the operator was the Council for the Evaluation, Accreditation and Certification of Quality in University Higher Education - *Consejo de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad de la Educación Superior Universitaria*[60]

SINEACE experienced a series of difficulties related to its administration. According to a document published by SUNEDU (2015)[61], the Law of Establishment stated that SINEACE was created with the aim of ensuring basic quality levels, with a purpose that was closer to that of a regulator rather than an accrediting organisation. Furthermore, according to SUNEDU, too much emphasis was placed on the fulfilment of standards at the expense of achieving results in line with the mission of each institution. Evaluation procedures focused more on bureaucratic external procedures and verifications, rather than on a continuous evaluation of results related to the culture and the quality demonstrated by particular institutions.

In the framework of the new University Law, SINEACE was declared to be in the process of reorganisation[62]. The articles that referred to its operating bodies were repealed (Ipeba, Coneaces and CONEAU) and an ad hoc governing board was created to carry out the necessary functions so that the essential operations could continue until reorganisation was approved.

In parallel, MINEDU set up a task force[63] to evaluate the system and presented a draft bill for its reform[64]. It was discovered that the autonomous group within SINEACE

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59 Artíicle 3 of Law N° 28740.
60 In the case of basic education, the operator was the Peruvian Institute for Evaluation, Accreditation and certification of Quality in Basic Education (Instituto Peruano de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad de la Educación Básica (Ipeba). In the case of non-university higher education, it was the Council for the Evaluation, Accreditation and Certification of Quality in Non-University Higher education (Consejo de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad de la Educación Superior No Universitaria)
61 SUNEDU: "The Model for Licensing and its implementation in the Peruvian University System" ("El Modelo de Licenciamiento y su implementación en el Sistema Universitario Peruano") 2015 (pag. 16)
62 Twelfth Complemetary Transitory Disposition of Law N° 30220.
63 Through Ministerial Decision N° 396-2014-MINEDU (Modified by R.M. N° 422-2014-MINEDU), it constitued the Task Force.
64 Explanatory Memorandum of the draft bill for Law N° 4534/2014-PE, page 21.

prevented the distinct and coordinated operation of SINEACE's Senior Council and its different operating bodies, and this was the cause of its lack of comprehensive overview of quality improvement in the whole educational system. The Task Force presented a draft bill in May 2015, which proposed that SINEACE be eliminated and the creation of the Peruvian Council for the Accreditation of Higher Education - *Consejo Peruano de Acreditación de la Educación Superior* (COPAES)[65]. COPAES was set up as a specialised technical body, attached to MINEDU, with regulatory, administrative, operational, budgetary and economic autonomy. Among its main functions, the following can be singled out:

- To provide institutional accreditation for universities and also for undergraduate, masters and post-graduate programmes.
- To provide institutional accreditation for higher education institutes and colleges and their programmes and the higher education programmes developed by other centres providing technical education.
- To recognise accreditation granted by national and international accrediting bodies.
- To develop the abilities of professionals and specialised technicians in evaluating the quality of services and study programmes offered at higher education institutions.
- To propose policies, regulations and strategies for the improvement of educational quality in the framework of the accreditation process.

In this new institutional organisation, COPAES would be responsible for the accreditation of quality standards in higher education. The Ministry of Labour would take over the certification of competencies and the Ministry of Education would be responsible for defining quality standards and for promoting the evaluation process in educational institutions providing basic education that do not require accreditation.

The draft bill has been evaluated and approved by the Congress of the Republic.[66] However, recently, there was a request that it be returned to Congress to carry out a more comprehensive evaluation. It is currently in the process of this re-evaluation by the Commission for Education in the Congress of the Republic[67].

Quality Assurance System

In addition to the new axis that was described, (new institutional organisation), the Policy for Quality Assurance in Education - *Política de Aseguramiento de la Calidad de la Educación* also considered a second axis, that consisted of developing a Quality Assurance System - *Sistema de Aseguramiento de la Calidad* (SAC). Its objective was

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65 Draft Bill N° 4534/2014-PE
66 Document 009-2015-2016-CEJD-VCE, of congressman Crisólogo Espejo, President of the Education Commission, requesting the incorporation of reverted judgement of the Draft 4534 (15/12/15) in the Commission's permanent agenda.
67 Document 713-2015-2016-CEJD-CR, of congressman Crisólogo Espejo, President of the Education Commission, requesting that the Project 4534 return to the Commission for further study (21/03/16).

to ensure that universities achieve and fulfil basic quality requirements and that they also continuously advance these conditions in the search for academic excellence. SAC was created on the basis of four pillars of organisation established by the Ministry of Education: i) licensing as a guarantee of basic quality conditions ii) accreditation in order to achieve continual improvement iii) trustworthy and relevant information iv) development towards improving performance.

The four pillars of organisation and their components are described as follows:

Licensing as a guarantee of basic quality conditions[68]

Licensing is a compulsory procedure through which the government is able to evaluate the fulfilment of basic quality conditions (BQC) on the part of universities, as a requirement for granting a licence that will enable them to provide educational services and award degrees and qualifications. It includes constant monitoring of these basic quality conditions and it established penalties for institutions that provided services below these standards[69].

With regard to the BQC, the New University Law (article 28 of Law N°30220), indicated that they must include the following elements:

1. The existence of academic objectives
2. Economic and financial forecasting of the university
3. Adequate infrastructure and equipment
4. The development of research programmes
5. Availability of teaching staff
6. Basic complementary educational services
7. Existence of mediation and employment mechanisms
8. University transparency

After considering these terms SUNEDU has established 55 indicators related to the 8 basic quality conditions mentioned above, which are presented in the following table.

Licensing can be classified into two groups: Institutional Licensing and Licensing for Programmes. The first authorises the running of a university to provide university educational services. The licence is granted to the university, outlining its subsidiaries and the programmes it is able to provide. The licence is temporary and renewable, with a minimum validity of six years.

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68 This subheading was created considering two main documents i) The licensing model and its implementation in the Peruvian University System and ii) the regulation for licensing procedures for pubic and private universities with provision or definitive authorisation.

69 Quality Assurance Policy. P39.

The second authorises the assigning of Licences for Programmes and consists of approving or denying applications for programmes aimed at academic and professional qualifications. For this, SUNEDU will create specific CBC's that could be applied to programmes, and it will design specific procedures for each programme. In order to apply for the licensing of new programmes, universities should already have an Institutional Licence.

During the first phase, SUNEDU will implement Institutional Licensing and later it will design and develop Licensing for Programmes. Currently, it is developing the procedures related to Institutional Licensing and the design of the CBC related to this type of licensing. Details of this can be found in the appendix. Once granted an operating licence, the Supervision Management section of SUNEDU will monitor universities to ensure the continual compliance of BQCs.

Table 7: Basic quality conditions (CBC) and indicators

Number	Condition	N° of indicators	Summary of indicators
I	Existence of academic objectives, degrees and diplomas to be awarded, and corresponding study plans.	8	Universities should have clearly defined institutional objectives, study plans for each of their programmes, a document that regulates the modalities for obtaining degrres and diplomas as well as information systems. There should also be a normative document that regulates the admissions process, information about admissions and candidates and a continual improvement plan as well as an area responsible for quality management.
II	Proposed educational provision should be compatible with aims put forward in planning tools	7	Universities should have an institutional budget projected over five years and a financing plan. The provision of education should be linked to the demand for employment and national and regional policies for university education. There should also be souces of financing and a financing plan that demonstrates the availablity of human and economic resources.

III	Adequate infraestructure and equipment for the execution of its functions	15	All university buildings should comply with the regulations for urban use and they should be used exclusively for this purpose. They should also: comply with structural security and risk prevention regulations as indicated by CENE-PRED/INDECI, have an internal and safety at work regulation document as well as security standards for the operation of laboratories. They should also have drinking water and drainage systems, electricity, telephone and internet systems and toilets. There should also be workshops and laboratories in accordance with the number of students and academic activities. Finally they should have areas for teachers in all their buildings and there should a budget and plan for maintenance.
IV	Lines of research to be developed	8	Universities should establish policies to promote and carry out research as an essential and compulsory activity at the University. A University research Body should exist, the head of which should have a PhD and lines of research to be developed. There should also be a code of ethics for research and copyright policy. There should be a register of teachers that carry out research and these should registered in the DINA. Finally, the university should have a register of research documents.
V	Verificación de la disponibilidad de personal docente calificado	4	Las universidades deben tener como mínimo el 25% del total de docentes a tiempo completo. Para el ejercicio de la docencia, los profesores deben contar, al menos, con grado de maestro o doctor según corresponda. Las universidades deben regular los mecanismos para la selección, evaluación, ratificación y capacitación de sus docentes.
VI	Verification of basic complementary educational services	8	Universities should have a health centre or outsourced health services, and they should provide social services for their students, (social wellbeing, voluntary programs etc.). They should also provide psycho-pedagogical services, sports services in at least 3 sports and they should promote cultural services. They should also provide security services in all their establishments, as well as policies, plans and activities for the protection of the environment. Finally, all universities should have bibliographic material in their study plans.

VII	Existence of mediation and employment mechanisms	4	Universities should have: an area responsible for graduate follow-up, mechanisms to support employment, agreements for professional and pre-professional practice, and coordination mechanisms strategic alliances with the public and/or public sector.
VIII	University trans-parency	1	Universities should publish institutional information on their web portal (mission, vision, admissions regulations, number of candidates and new students, number of students per faculty and programme, fees per service, curriculum, and teacher training, among others).

Source: Sunedu

Accreditation for Continual Improvement

Licensing and accreditation are essential parts in the quality assurance system. As mentioned previously, licensing is a compulsory process for universities to enable them to operate and seeks to ensure that the provision of higher education complies with basic quality conditions. The accreditation process is a voluntary procedure through which the institution is evaluated on the basis of its objectives, in addition to a group of predefined standards; it should provide a public guarantee that universities are meeting these guidelines. (SUNEDU, 2015)[70].

Thus, while licensing is necessary to begin operations, the accreditation procedure makes it possible to show progress with regard to basic quality conditions, and furthermore, that this improvement in quality is permanent. Only those higher education institutions or programmes that have a licence to operate would be able to request an external evaluation for accreditation purposes or the recognition of accreditation granted by national or international accrediting organisations.

The Policy for Quality Assurance in Higher Education is implemented on the basis of guidelines and three strategic actions related to accreditation. Guideline 10 proposes, "to ensure that the university possesses the mechanisms to be able to develop institutional accreditation procedures of their academic programmes in the search for excellence in higher education services".

The three Strategic Actions are as follows:

- The Accrediting Body defines and regulates the quality demanded for the process of accreditation. The Ministry of Education establishes the quality standards.

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70 Peru, National Superintendence of Higher University Education - SUNEDU (*Superintendencia Nacional de Educación Superior Universitaria*) (2015). The licensing model and its implementation in the Peruvian University System (*El modelo de licenciamiento y su implementación en el Sistema Universitario Peruano*). Lima, SUNEDU, p. 17.

- The Accrediting Body develops strategies and mechanisms to promote accreditation in University Higher Education.
- The Ministry of Education develops stimuli to promote institutional accreditation in universities, as well as for its academic programmes.

Considering the current process of reorganisation at SINEACE, in September 2014, the ad hoc Governing Board carried out an evaluation of the accreditation model for university study programmes. Among the findings, it was mentioned that the model was centred on processes rather than results, and this is turn could be proved to be simply the verification of documentation. Thus the evaluation was based on verification rather than on effective feedback that would contribute to its improvement. It was concluded that the model would require changes related to approach and to strategies that should be in line with international trends.[71]

In March 2016, the new accreditation model was made official, under the name "Accreditation Model for Study Programmes in Higher Education Institutes and Schools"[72]. The model aims to change the focus of accreditation to one that at present is based on the simple fulfilment of requirements to one that is directed towards promoting continual improvement and the development of the institution's capacity to establish internal procedures for permanent improvement. The model is based on four measurements: a central measurement made up of comprehensive training, a strategic management measurement, an institutional support measurement and a measurement that corresponds to the results.

In order to evaluate the achievements of each measurement, there is an assessment matrix that organises the four measurements according to 12 factors and 34 standards. However, the indicators for the evaluation of the standard to be used were not specifically defined, which could be a weakness. The categories are: not achieved, achieved (when, despite fulfilment, weaknesses exist in the solution that was implemented and when its sustainability over time is not guaranteed); and fully achieved (if fulfilment is consistent and there is evidence that it will be maintained over time). If all the standards are achieved, but one is not complete, it was established that accreditation would be granted for 2 years. When this period expires, and full achievement is reached, validity will be extended to 6 years. In the case of full achievement without any exception, accreditation is granted for 6 years.

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71 Appendix of Resolution N°022-2016-CDAH-P
72 The resolution that officialises technical policy document about the new model for accreditation was published in March 2016 (Resolution of the Chairman of the Ad Hoc Board of Directors N° 022-2016-SINEACE/CDAH-P).

Diagram 27: Dimensions of the new accreditation model

1- Strategic management	Evaluate how the institution or study programme is planned and managed, taking into consideration the use of information for continual improvement.
2- Comprehensive training	This is the central axis. It evaluates the teaching and learning process, support for students and teachers and as well as research and social responsibility procedures.
3- Institutional Support	It evaluates aspects related to the management of resources, infrastructure and support in order to ensure the wellbeing of members of the educational institution.

4- Results:

Verification of learning results or the graduation profile or educational objectives

Source: Sineace

In addition to the new accreditation model, in the context of the reorganisation process undergone by SINEACE, a draft bill was proposed (draft bill N° 4534/2014-PE) which suggests some modifications in the procedures related to accreditation.

It suggests that the accreditation process is made up of four stages: self-evaluation, external evaluation, accreditation and re-accreditation. Self-evaluation consists of a permanent evaluation that is carried out by the institution itself and is a requirement for external evaluation to begin. External evaluation focuses on procedures and results, and it takes place on the basis of an application by the educational bodies themselves and is the responsibility of COPAES evaluating peers or specialised evaluation bodies, previously qualified, registered and authorised by COPAES. Accreditation (institutional or of programmes) would consist of an external evaluation carried out by specialised national or international evaluation bodies - the academic peers of COPAES. When the period for which accreditation was granted is concluded, educational institutions may be reaccredited, upon the compliance of recommendations formulated in the accreditation.[73]

The draft bill was evaluated and approved by the Congress of the Republic, and is awaiting debate in the Plenary[74]. However, there was a recent request that it be returned to Congress for a more comprehensive evaluation. It is currently under re-evaluation by the Commission for Education of the Congress of the Republic.[75] The people interviewed for this study question whether or not it will be approved.

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73 Additioanlly, the Draft Bill links the accreditation process with Licensing. As well as maintaining licensing as a necessary condition for starting the accreditation process, it was mentioned that, if an institution or higher education programme maintained valid accreditation, the insitutions responsible for their licensing could extend its validity or focus the renewal process on specific aspects.

74 Document 009-2015-2016-CEJD-VCE, of congressman Crisólogo Espejo, President of the Education Commission, requesting the incorporation of reverted judgement of the Draft 4534 (15/12/15) in the Commission's permanent agenda.

75 Document 713-2015-2016-CEJD-CR, of congressman Crisólogo Espejo, President of the Education Commission, requesting that the Project 4534 return to the Commission for further study (21/03/16). 16-CEJD-CR, del congresista Crisólogo Espejo, presidente de la Comisión de Educación, solicitando que el Proyecto 4534 regrese a la comisión que preside para mayor estudio (21/03/16).

Reliable and relevant information

The policy acknowledges that information about operators, supplies, procedures and results related to the provision of university services are the principal means relied upon by SAC. The university higher education market presents significant disparities in information that prevents potential students from making optimal decisions and the authorities and society in general from carrying out checks on the results of educational institutions. It is hoped that having more reliable information would allow the introduction of a culture of quality that would facilitate planning, monitoring and the evaluation of public policies in this area.

A number of countries that have quality assurance systems for universities implement information systems as an important element of choice. For example, in 2007, Chile set up a National Information System for Higher Education - *Sistema Nacional de información de la Educación Superior* (SIES), since 2009, Colombia also has a National System for Information in Higher Education - Sistema Nacional de Información de la Educación Superior (SNIES) and since 2013, Argentina has promoted the Information System for the Institutional Evaluation and Improvement - *Sistema de Información para la Evaluación y el Mejoramiento Institucional* (SIEMI).

These information systems require different key elements. One of these is the provision of information, mainly from universities, the labour market. (companies and other employers) and students, on the basis of their experiences. Additionally, they are a fundamental part of the information collection, processing and quality control procedure. The latter aims to ensure that the information that is stored is relevant and reliable.

For this to be possible, the policy is based on two main guidelines. On the one hand, it aims to implement a comprehensive information system that is streamlined and accessible for university higher education, and on the other, it promotes transparency and accountability, through continual academic and institutional validation.

With regard to implementing the information system, the Policy has four strategic actions:

• To organise, make available and promote the use of a comprehensive information system that would allow university performance and the excellence of the university system to be made public.
• To establish mechanisms to promote the delivery, by universities, of information related to indicators on the Comprehensive Information System.
- To guarantee easy access and use of the information system by the academic community and members of the University system.

- To identify and establish possible offences and the consequent penalties to be imposed in order to guarantee relevant delivery by universities of information related to indicators on the Comprehensive Information System.

With regard to the relevant information that universities should deliver, this is related to the number of enrolled students, graduates, academic programmes and disciplines, teaching staff, payments from students, research projects, available and already granted scholarships and credits, financial statements, budgetary implementation, investments, among others[76].

In terms of the implementation of the Information System, the formulation and approval of the policy framework that would make it official and regulate the operation of involved parties, and the use of this information, among others aspects should be available.

Developments in order to improve performance

A system that seeks to promote continuous quality improvement and at the same time demands the fulfilment of basic conditions should be accompanied by the promotion and development mechanisms, that would assist institutions in achieving these objectives. Taking this into consideration, the development pillar seeks to facilitate access and widen coverage, to promote research and the internationalisation of education and to facilitate the coordination between the operators who are involved in the SAC and to improve their general operation.

In this pillar of organisation, the policy contains seven guidelines and 26 strategic actions. The guidelines are as follows:

1. Comprehensive organisation of operators involved in higher University education.
2. Access to quality undergraduate and postgraduate university studies, without any form of distinction.
3. Alliances between the government, universities and the manufacturing and civil sectors in order to achieve comprehensive training, both professionally and with regard to standards, which will support the country's development.
4. The university to contribute to the solution of the country's problems, through research that would provide the framework for an egalitarian, inclusive and democratic society.
5. The creation of university networks with set standards for quality, social responsibility and internationalisation.
6. Public resources that are granted to the university, to be used efficiently and responsibly.

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76 Article 11 of the University Law, Law N° 30220: Transparency in Universities ("Transparencia de las universidades")

7. Appropriate incentives for the constant improvement of the University Higher Education System.

Further the actions included the creation of strategies for economic support for students (scholarships and educational credits); mechanisms for the development of abilities, infrastructure and equipment for the development of research; mechanisms in the area of internationalisation and approval of academic programmes and agreements for the recognition of qualifications; tools and indicators to improve the implementation of public resources, management tools that facilitate the coordination of all operators involved in higher education among others.

II.2. Further changes as a result of the University Law

Although emphasis on the institutional framework remains, it appears in the governing role of MINEDU and the creation and running of SUNEDU, the law also specifies other important elements for reform in this sector.

- **University Governance in Public Universities**

Chapter VII will address University Governance - Gobierno de la Universidad (GU). This chapter is made up of 23 articles that list the members, rules, responsibilities, requirements, remunerations, character, installations, and the running and causes for vacancies of the different authorities that make up the GU. The GU should be carried out by the following authorities (Art. 55): (i) University Assembly (ii), University Council (iii) Rector (iv) Faculty Councils y (v) Deans.

The University Assembly - *Asamblea Universitaria* (AU) is a collegiate body that represents the university community, it is responsible for the discharging of university policies and it is made up of the rector - who presides - vice rectors, faculty deans, directors of the postgraduate schools, undergraduate and post-graduate students, graduates and a representative from the administration.

The AU, meets once every semester in ordinary session, and exceptionally when called by the Rector (Art. 56). Its responsibilities are, among others, to approve policies for university development, to ensure the fulfilment of the university planning instruments approved by the council, to evaluate and approve the bi-annual rector's management report and the annual report of the implementation of the budget, declare the recall or vacancy of the rector etc.

The University Council - *Consejo Universitario* (CU) is the highest body in the university in control of the management, government and execution of academic and administrative areas. It is made up of the rector - who presides - the vice rectors, a quarter of the total number of Faculty deans, the director of the postgraduate school, representatives of regular students and graduates. (Art. 58). The CU meets once every month, and exceptionally it can be called by the rector or by half of

the council members. The responsibilities of the CU are approvinge the university's general budget, the purchasing plan for goods and services, coordinating and ratifying the study plan, naming and hiring teachers after the proposal or not from academic departments, conferring academic grades, etc.

The Faculty Council - *Consejo de Facultad* (CF) The running and governing of the Council is the responsibility of a Faculty Dean, and it is also made up of representatives of the teaching staff and regular students. Its responsibilities include approving curricula and study plans, putting forward the hiring of teachers to the CU, among other duties. It should be mentioned that, in accordance with the law, payments or any other type of remuneration for the sessions in which the members of the governing bodies participate is forbidden.

Perhaps the most important milestone included in the law, in regard to university governance, is the selection of university authorities though universal vote. For the rector and vice rectors at public universities to be elected, there must be a single list from which they are chosen, for a period of five years, by universal, personal, compulsory, direct and secret vote, by all ordinary teachers and enrolled students, of a particular grouping. (See Art. 66). The choice becomes valid if over 60% of ordinary teachers and 40% of enrolled students participate. As you will note, this is one of the aspects that is most valued by the people who were interviewed, who consider that through the universal vote, university governance has become democratised in public universities and the risk of political systems and corruption within the university is reduced.

Another relevant theme in university governance at public universities is the budget. In chapter XI of the law, there are five detailed articles related to economic resources, university endowments, budgetary systems and control, budgetary allocation and public contribution. Economic resources come from the national treasury, donations, resources obtained by the university, resources from the official operation of external credit which are government-guaranteed with national and international technical and economic financial cooperation, services to pre university, postgraduate or any other educational service, etc. (Art. 110).

The Budget and Control System in public universities is included in the government public budget and control system. Thus the public treasury allocates a budget to cover basic requirements, running and operational costs, additional expenses for research activities, social responsibility, developments in sports, infrastructure and equipment, etc. (see Art.113).

- **University Governance at Private Universities**

Private universities, both non-profit and profit seeking, are obliged to abide by Law No. 30220 as well as with the statute of the university itself. In Chapter XII of the law, 9 articles are presented which provide detail about the definition, assets and

benefits, tax exoneration, reinvestment programmes and facilities which universities are subject to.

The law explicitly permits private sector participation in the university higher education market: "all natural or legal persons have the right to free private enterprise to constitute a legal entity, with the aim of carrying out activities related to university education".

Profit-seeking private universities may be constituted in the form of a company, or as an association when they are non-profit seeking (Art.115). For the promotion of private investment in education, "the reinvestment of surpluses in the case of associative private universities (non-profit seeking), and profits in the case of private universities that are set up as companies (profit-seeking) applies when it is related to infrastructure, educational equipment, research...as well as for teacher training, scholarships...", etc. They must present an annual report of their reinvestment of surpluses or profits to SUNEDU and SUNAT in order to verify their compliance with the law.

- **Teachers**

In chapter VIII, the law goes further with regard to university teachers. This chapter contains 18 articles in which the functions, operational requirements, admissions, promotions, evaluation periods, commitment schemes, duties, sanctions, suspensions, remunerations, etc., are given in detail. Teachers must carry out research, continual and permanent improvement of their skills, social engagement and university management, in the corresponding areas.

There are ordinary teachers: principals, associates, assistants, exceptional (honorary, emeriti, etc.) and recruited teachers. (Art. 79) and requirements that are compulsory for each group. Among the established requirements, in order to carry out teaching activity at universities as an ordinary recruited teacher, it is compulsory to have a Masters degree in order to be able to teach at undergraduate level, a masters or post-graduate degree to teach at Masters level or specialisation programmes and a post-graduate degree for teaching at doctoral level. Exceptional teachers may carry out teaching activities at any level of higher education and the statutes of each university must establish their characteristics.

An important point is that article 83 establishes that all university institutions, whether private or public, must have at least 25% of its teachers working on a full-time basis.

In terms of the work-commitment scheme for teachers, article 85 mentions that ordinary teachers can work on a full-time basis (teachers that provide paid services exclusively at the university), on a full-time basis (working for 40 hours per week in a timetable arranged by the university), on a part-time basis (when their working hours are less than 40 hours per week). Each university regulates its own conditions for teaching services and the respective variances, in accordance with the Political Constitution of Peru, the present Law and Statute.

Remunerations at public universities are established by categories and are provided by the Public Treasury. Although salary scales are not defined, a possible approved salary level for public employees is mentioned. Also, additional payment is permitted for productivity. For private universities, salaries are regulated in this way, as well as in accordance with the statute of each university.

- **Tax incentives for private universities**

DIn accordance with the 1993 Constitution (Article 19º), universities, institutes of higher education and other educational centres were exonerated from all direct and indirect taxation that might affect assets, activities and services related to their educational and cultural purpose. That is to say, it was a type of "immunity from taxation". However, private universities were subject to income tax[77].

Legislative Decree 882 (1996) established that, although private universities were subject to income tax, they were entitled to a tax credit to be used for reinvestment. The tax credit consisted of *"Private educational institutions, that partially or totally reinvest their income in themselves or in other private educational institutions constituted in the country, are entitled to a tax credit for reinvestment to the value of 30% of the sum that was reinvested"* (Article 13 of L.D N°882). Also, it was established that the tax credit would be limited to investments made in infrastructure and equipment used exclusively for educational and research purposes and scholarships. Similarly, reinvested money did not have to come from profits obtained during the same year, as they could receive reinvestment credit despite experiencing tax loss"[78].

The University Law (Ley N° 30220) maintained that private universities that generated profits were subject to income tax. But it also created a tax credit for reinvestment (the tax credit established by the Legislative Decree N° 882 had already expired). Thus, the University Law stated that:

- Surpluses generated by company formed private universities considered to be profits are subject to the tax regulations that apply to Income Tax. The reinvestment programmes are supervised by SUNAT and SUNEDU in order to verify that they effectively contribute to the academic development of the institution. (Article 116).

- Company formed private universities that generate profits are subject to the tax regulations that apply to Income Tax, except if they reinvest these profits in improving the quality of the educational services they provide, in which case they may obtain a tax credit for reinvestment, equivalent to up to 30% of the sum to be reinvested (Article 119).

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77 José Luis Sánchez: Tax Issues of the new University Law ("Aspectos tributarios en la nueva ley universitaria")– Law No 30220", 2014

78 José Luis Sánchez: Tax Issues of the new University Law ("Aspectos tributarios en la nueva ley universitaria") – Ley No 30220", 2014

On the basis of the articles that created tax credits that were established before and after the University Law, two main differences can be noted. Firstly, Law N° 30220 establishes that tax credits will be granted as long as there is profit. In the previous policy, one could obtain tax credit for reinvestment despite the fact that the educational institution has generated a tax loss. Secondly, Law N° 30220 indicates that profits should be reinvested in private universities themselves. The benefit established in the previous policy allowed reinvestment to be made in other private educational institutions.

Subsequent to the University Law (Ley N° 30220), the Supreme Decree N°006-2016-EF (January 2016), was published in which the regulatory standards related to tax credit for reinvestment were approved, referring to validity, the calculation of the sum to be reinvested, and requirements, among other factors. Among the characteristics that are mentioned, the following can be highlighted:

- Validity: three years, from the 1 January 2015, in accordance with Regulation VII of the Preliminary Title of the Tax Code.

- Calculation:
  - The sum for reinvestment must not be higher that the profits of free distribution with regard to the General Corporation Law, which corresponds to the results of the years in which the reinvestment will be carried out.

  - The sum for reinvestment will not apply to those parties that already possess tax benefits related to income tax.

  - The tax credit for reinvestment cannot be higher that the income taxes that corresponds to the year when reinvestment will be carried out.

- Requirements:
  - Must be a private university established as a company.

  - Profit reinvestment in seven fields[79]: infrastructure, equipment for education, research and innovation in science and technology purposes[80], teacher training, social projection, support for qualified sports and sports programmes, as well as the granting of scholarships for students with low economic resources who have a high level of academic and sporting performance.

  - The sum for reinvestment in social projection, support for qualified sports and sports programmes, as well as the granting of scholarships, must not exceed 20% of the sum for reinvestment applied to infrastructure, equipment for education purposes and in the area of research and innovation in science and technology, as well as teaching training.

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79 The definition of each field can be found in Supreme Decree N° N° 006-2016-EF.
80 Projects related to research, mobility and international internships, teacher - researchers, funding for recently graduated researchers such as doctors for the develoment of research projects in the different areas of interest for the university.

- Comprehensive institutional accreditation or international institutional accreditation recognised by SINEACE (in accordance with Law Nº 28740) must have been attained.

- The reinvestment programme, approved by SUNEDU in the established time frame, must be presented to SUNAT.

- The annual report for the reinvestment of profits in the year following reinvestment must be presented. It should contain the following information:

  o The costs, characteristics and the value of purchased goods and hired services.

  o The number of scholarships granted, specifying their value and including information about the beneficiaries.

  o The sum of the tax credit for reinvestment corresponding to the specific year.

- The sum for reinvestment should be capitalised during the year following reinvestment as a maximum period. The shares and participation received as a result of reinvestment may be transferred four years after from the date of capitalisation. Companies may not reduce their capital during the four taxable years following the date of capitalisation, except in cases stipulated by the General Corporations Law.

Table 8: Tax credit for reinvestment: principle changes introduced by the reform

Criterion	Before reform	After reform
Beneficiaries	Private corporate universities that generate profits.	Private corporate universities that generate profits during the period in which they apply for credit.
Credit subject to:	Investments in infrastructure and equipment exclusively for educational and research purposes and for study scholarships.	Infrastructure, equipment for educational, research and innovation and science and technology purposes, teacher training, social projection, support in competitive sports, and sports programmes, as well as the granting of scholarships for students with low economic resources and who have a high level of academic or sports performance.

Requirements	1. To reinvest profits in universities or other education centres. 2. Tax credit can be obtained even if the university generated tax losses. 3. Reinvestment programmes should be presented to the appropriate authority of the Education Sector with a copy to Sunat, no less than 10 working days before the due date for presenting the Annual Income tax Declaration. These reinvestment programmes will automatically be deemed approved on presentation.	1. Reinvestment of profits in the same university to improve its quality. 2. It must not have generated tax loss during the period that the credit was granted. 3. It must have comprehensive institutional accreditation or accreditation. 4. Present the reinvestment programme approved by SUNEDU to Sunat. 5. Present the annual report on profit reinvestment. 6. The sum to be reinvested must be no higher that the profits of free disposition. 7. The sum to be reinvested must not have any other tax exoneration.
Tax Credit	30% of sum to be reinvested	30% of sum to be reinvested
Validity	Not stated	Three years, beginning 1st January 2015.
Penalties for misuse of tax beneficiary	Not stated. Only the subsequent inspection that could be carried out by Sunat is mentioned.	The part that was unduly applied is eliminated that is proportionate to the declared but not implemented investment, without affecting the application of corresponding interests and penalties.

Source: SINEACE

II.3. Progress in implementing the Reform: principal results

General perception about the Law and the reform programme

A first reaction from the people who were interviewed about the university higher education law and policy was assessed.   It is important to highlight the fact that most of these people felt that the law was positive and that the activities that have been proposed and carried out up until now are the start of a process of reform in higher education for which this law is an important basis. In addition, the majority of interviewees felt that the reform was justified because of the problems in the

Peruvian university system and as a result of the budgetary pressure that funding public universities puts on the Peruvian budget.

> *"Even though the process of analysis and reconsideration of the university system had already begun in different academic areas and in the government (…), one of the clearest and significant factors of the university reform programme is the enactment of Law 30220. This law is recognised as a necessary tipping point that provided the basis that was required"*
>
> *(Interviewee 12)*

> *"It is an excellent law, not only because of its content, but because it is miraculous that it has appeared…and it should be implemented…so I feel that applying the law will be a good thing, it has already had a very positive impact on public universities."*
>
> *(Interviewee 24)*

> *"I believe that it is a reform which exists for the simple reason that the law cannot go further in the direction of what it had proposed, I think it has reached its limit and it is for this reason that some academics say that it is interventionist…. But the university is here thanks to society, and as the government finances the university, they have to inform the government how the money is spent, and why should the tax-payer pay and not know what it is being used for"*
>
> *(Interviewee 14)*

However, despite being in a minority, some of the people we interviewed considered that Law 30220 is negative, and felt that it is government intervention designed in an uninformed manner, that affects freedom of enterprise, discourages innovation and might not lead to the results that are hoped for in the long term.

> *"I wouldn't call it a reform, I would call it political intervention (…). What has happened is a modification of the requirements, some positive, some not so positive and this has generated a feeling of dissatisfaction among users."*
>
> *(Interviewee 20)*

> *"It is a reform in the sense that it changes the rules of the game quite substantially, but I do not see positive connotations in it (…) it does not have a real basis, if in 50 years there is no honest scrutiny of the reform, we will look back on this as a disaster, not as something that is in any way positive."*
>
> *(Interviewee 1)*

The majority of the people who were interviewed agreed that the implementation of the reform is taking place very slowly, putting at risk the development and sustainability of the reform itself. Some people stated their concern about the delay and slowness with which these changes are happening, although they recognise that the steps that are being taken are appropriate.

"Good, despite the problems that it has had, I think that it's good…. but of course I think that things could sometimes move a little faster"

(Interviewee 13)

"It's crawling…but the fact that it is crawling is an achievement, it a skilful child that has started to crawl before its time"

(Interviewee 3)

"As I said, a series of factors have come together which have meant that progress with implementation has been slow"

(Interviewee 12)

Concerning the Institutional framework

A second valued feature is the role of the rector at universities in this country, which the law assigned to MINEDU. As mentioned previously, a large number of the people interviewed considered that, through this law, the Peruvian government has finally taken on the rector's role in higher education and in particular in university education, a role that had been put aside in previous years. The absence of rectorship contributed to a level of disorder in the university higher education market, both in the public and private systems.

However, though the voice of the majority is important, and the majority of interviewees do not share the positive appraisal of MINEDU taking on the rectorship. In particular, the possible interference that MINEDU might have in the market, through delegating the supervision to SUNEDU, was criticised:

"The position is practically chosen by the executive authority and this is very dangerous because it implies that their interference in the supervision of quality (…), that the highest authority is delegated by the Ministry of Education seems to be a mistake".

(Interviewee 20)

One particular aspect that is considered by the interviewees to represent progress is the part of the exercise involving rectorship and the dissolution of the National Assembly of Rectors (*Nacional de Rectores*) (ANR) specified in the law. As we have already mentioned, the ANR was the body that was responsible for self-regulation at universities and it created the conditions for corruption and the isolation of the university system from the rest of the school and professional/ technical education system through a lack of accountability to members of the university system and the country in general. "…. In the past, the ANR stood alone, so it both created and "destroyed".

Along the same lines, another step forward is the creation and implementation of SUNEDU, which will be responsible for regulation in the sector and which will assume the functions that the ANR had previously been responsible for.

> *"…I think that SUNEDU, both in design and as an institution is a one of the strong aspects of the reform programme and it allows us to engage"*
>
> *(Interviewee 7)*

> *"…I really believe in SUNEDU"*
>
> *(Interviewee 3)*

Concerning the Quality Assurance System

Licensing

As mentioned previously, licensing is a process through which universities are authorised to operate and provide levels and qualifications after their compliance with basic quality standards has been verified. Until now, for the compliance of basic quality conditions on the part of the universities, SUNEDU has detailed a plan for gradual implementation, and the first step consists of universities presenting an application for licencing according to the timetable established by SUNEDU:

Table 9: Applications timetable for the institutional licensing
(Universities with Permanent and provisional licenses)

Groups	Public	Private	Total	Presentation periods for Preselection
Group 1	5	9	14	December 2015 to February 2016
Group 2	5	10	15	April 2016 to May 2016
Group 3	5	11	16	July 2016 to August 2016
Group 4	5	12	17	September 2016 to October 2016
Group 5	5	12	17	January 2017 to February 2017
Group 6	5	12	17	March 2017 to April 2017
Group 7	5	12	17	June 2017 to July 2017
Group 8	6	11	17	September 2017 to October 2017
Total	**41**	**89**	**130**	

Source: Sunedu.

If a university does not apply for licensing in accordance with the timeframe set out it will receive a severe penalty, which would consist of a fine of between 30 and 100 tax units (Unidades Impositivas Tributarias) (UIT), or the suspension of the licence to

operate.[81] Although universities created through a Law of Establishment do not appear on the timetable, these can voluntarily present themselves for the licensing procedure within the period specified in the licencing application timetable. (Groups 1 to 8).

The implementation plan grants adaptation periods so that universities are able to comply with the BQC. However, this adaptation should take place until December 2017, providing a time limit for universities to remedy any weaknesses. Thus, no university will operate without an institutional licence after January 2019, and new universities may be created from 2018 onwards.

Diagram 28: Implementation plan for institutional licensing
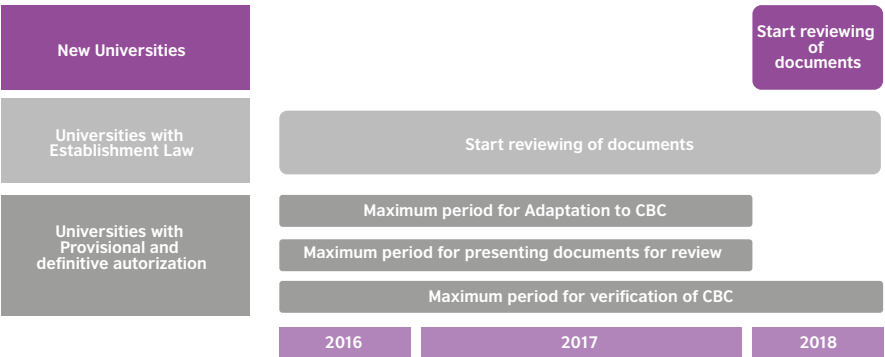
Source: Sineace

According to SUNEDU, all universities in Group 1 and 2 have presented the Application for Institutional Licensing in the established period. Additionally, four universities presented their applications ahead of time and some universities completed the process and obtained an Institutional Licence (for example, *Universidad de Ingeniería y Tecnología* –UTEC).

Interviewees recognised the ideas and general principles that were put forward by the law as final objectives of the reform programme, but they considered that licencing in itself did not include procedures that ensured continuous and dynamic quality improvement. They also criticised the slowness of its progress although the steps taken by SUNEDU are seen in a positive light by almost all interviewees, nevertheless, certain doubts exist about the sustainability of the CBC.

"It is the government that has to promote quality.... SUNEDU has been working for a year and a half on licensing, but does it have the power, or the technical capacity and the political identity to have authority over the university system? Does it have the support of the government, does it have political support? No, it does not"

(Interviewee15)

"It is also quite difficult to implement licencing, because right now for example, if you read the University law literally, all the universities have to go through a process of licensing so this means that the administrative cost of the reform in general is very high because you are going to have to go through the applications of each and every one of them."

(Interviewee 12)

"SUNEDU is making a big effort, and I know that the timetable that SUNEDU planned is being implemented in various universities, whereas in others it is still in process"

(Interviewee 6)

"In terms of implementing aims such as licensing, there has been progress in the sense that it is divided into 4 groups, all the universities have to go through the process of licensing; but here we have only started with the first group, which is now reaching the end of the licensing process, but the other groups are missing, so I would say that it is working in a way, but somehow not exactly as it should"

(Interviewee 8)

It should be mentioned that the slowness observed in the licensing process is the main area of criticism towards SUNEDU. In fact, one of the interviewees mentioned that the principal negative aspect of the law was that it demands licensing for all degree courses without SUNEDU having the institutional capacity to deal with the processes at a reasonable rate, which is the cause of "giant bottleneck".

"The university law states: all universities and all programmes provided by the university must have a licence. But there are thousands of present and potential programmes that would have to be licenced at the same time so SUNEDU has a waiting list that runs until 2020, there are programmes that are going to get their licence in 2020 and that is a huge problem"

(Interviewee 5)

Accreditation

In the case of accreditation, evaluation was less positive, as the functions and processes of SINEACE, the National Accreditation System, seem to have remained incomplete and lacking clarity. The conclusion is that there are more specific details that have not yet been defined that would make the implementation of accreditation possible.

"The role of SINEACE, which is the National Accreditation System, has lost some of its clarity in this whole situation, it is still quite complicated, there is often a strong branch of educators who are more traditional that defend certain positions and ways of thinking that perhaps the evolution of today's reality, with all the developments in technology (…), it makes you question them, (…) so I think that accreditation is not very clear in this new reform, what the roles of other institutions will be, I don't feel that there is clarity"

(Interviewee 10)

It should be highlighted, that the Establishment Law for COPAES, the institution that would replace SINEACE for accreditation purposes in higher education, is still in discussion in Congress.

Development

When discussing factors for developing quality, interviewees acknowledged that sufficient financing and a budget for universities that would allow them to cover the deficiencies in human resources and teaching materials, is absolutely essential. They mentioned the positive example of 12 prioritised public universities on which the government was concentrating its efforts as a first stage of quality improvement.

> *"So in order to develop quality in some way, unfortunately, all kinds of policy actions require financing. It has to be viable and realistic and one might take a year and another might take another year; promoting quality is one of the important pillars, developing quality standards is something important that the government should be concerned about. How to develop quality in public universities when the main investor is the government?"*
>
> *(Interviewee 15)*

Of the 12 public universities that were referred to, those who were recognised as being 'emblematic' or flagship institutions have been granted a package that consists of an additional transfer of S/ 90 million, awarded by MINEDU, for the purpose of strengthening educational quality in universities. The achievement of these objectives would allow them to receive additional resources, delivered in three phases. The sums that they would have access to varies and depends on factors such as, for example, the number of students at the given university.

The 12 public institutions receiving this package are:

- *Universidad Nacional al de Ingeniería*
- *Universidad Nacional de La Amazonía Peruana*
- *Universidad Nacional de La Molina*
- *Universidad Nacional de Piura*
- *Universidad Nacional de San Marcos*
- *Universidad Nacional del Altiplano*
- *Universidad Nacional del Centro del Perú*
- *Universidad Nacional Enrique Guzmán y Valle La Cantuta*
- *Universidad Nacional San Agustín de Arequipa*
- *Universidad Nacional San Antonio Abad Del Cusco*
- *Universidad Nacional San Cristóbal de Huamanga*
- *Universidad Nacional Trujillo*

However, interviewees agreed that the government is the principal responsible party with regard to quality development in university higher education. In general: however, it could not be clarified as to whether there is real development in this area and they criticised the lack of prioritisation and support given to public universities.

"It is about the budget of all universities, if we compare it with Beca 18, we find that the money that goes towards Beca 18 corresponds to 30% of the total budget of Peruvian universities and this 30% from Beca 18 goes to private universities so when they say, "development at 12 universities", I give 20 thousand to one, maybe I give 15 to the UNI which is nothing compared to what goes to USIL"

(Interviewee 15)

Another area that is connected to quality development is related to research and innovation, which were also identified as not being very clear in terms of the reform programme's design.

"I can see that there in not much clarity in (…) promoting innovation, when it comes to higher education…. the input that universities have in the country's innovation is very low, there are no patents for anything, the university does not have the role of a generator of research and a generator of new proposals and I think that there is not much clarity there either".

(Interviewee 10)

Information

As mentioned before, information systems are key in facilitating the right decisions from potential university students as well as carrying out follow-up of each university. For this reason, interviewees acknowledged the importance it has as part of the quality assurance system, although the aims and components of this system are not clearly defined.

On the one hand, for a portion of the interviewees, a main aim of the information system is the ability to access up-to-date information about the number of universities, but above all about graduates.

"What is important here is not what universities exist, but about the graduates and this information does not exist. Compare it to your business, if you have a company that manufactures televisions, you do some follow-up of your products, you know how the market is, and you know what is going on, you have to check out how the product is being used. Here are the graduates and they are the university's product and nobody knows what happens to the graduates…so in order to be accredited, you would have to have what could be called 'graduate follow-up;"

(Interviewee 10)

This approach is directed towards employment in the labour market, and it is limited for some because the focus is on university marketing and commercial companies, rather than academic and research information that is placed at a secondary level:

"MINEDU says that it is going to promote information that will allow one to know which university is good, which universities have researchers among the teaching staff, so that students can make their choices based on this information, I think that this is more important than company marketing".

(Interviewee 15)

On the other hand, some indicated that the information system designed by SUNEDU is incomplete. Only having information about universities means that they do not have information about the students studying at Institutes that offer professional training or research and it is important that the ministry develop higher education policies that are wider and more systematic.

"…We need the information that SUNEDU requests from the government, we need the Ministry to ask the institutions for this information, and we need CONSYTEC to give us the information about their research databases and researchers"

(Interviewee 2)

"This changes the approach to the Information System, as it can influence the students' decisions or the decision of the head of the family as well as what might be required by the institutions that are designing public policy. The (current) perspective on information is based on the student"

(Interviewee 5)

Following the same systematic logic, the interviewees that were associated with MINEDU considered that information systems should be managed by a higher authority with a wider reach than SUNEDU has access to, such as Vice-Ministry of Higher Education.

"The Ministry should manage the (information) system… I think there should be a vice-minister and the system should be run through him…. but SUNEDU has the highest access to information because they can impose penalties, as part of their role is to receive the information for identity cards. What information should these cards contain? What information about the students should SUNEDU send? Information is regulated by SUNEDU!"

(Interviewee 2)

Concerning University governance - Public University

One of the changes that was most valued among the majority of interviewees was the introduction of a universal vote for the electing of university authorities.

This is considered to be a fundamental change, which will resolve the problem of mismanagement and corruption associated at public universities.

Also, this change is considered to be part of a democratisation process in public universities. What is particularly valued is the opportunity that these democratic universal processes provide to be able to demand accountability from the authorities and the discussion of government proposals in which all the members of the university community can take part.

> *"The democratisation of the universal vote seems to me to be the essence of a greater form of direct democracy. If they choose the authorities, deans, rectors, vice-rectors directly, students from each faculty elect their rectors and vice-rectors, I think that this is positive and allows the students to choose the best candidate based on the 5 or 6 lines of their curriculum."*
>
> *(Interviewee 14)*

> *"It is very good because it is somehow as if the public universities' government is regulated better...because in effect, the public university had been self-regulated for the last 30 years, which meant that a lot of things happened that were connected to corruption and mismanagement, not only of corruption but also because there were positions held by unqualified people"*
>
> *(Interviewee 12)*
>
> *Layout needs aligning in above quote*

Further, the reform programme is seen in a favourable light because there is general disorganisation in public universities that could be evidenced in budget management that lacked transparency, interference of government policy in public universities, and other positions that were a result of the mismanagement of university autonomy. For this reason, although it is possible to interpret the implementation of the reform as a limitation on university autonomy, they still considered it to be necessary.

> *"In the case of public universities, university autonomy is very badly understood. In the case of public universities, budgetary and institutional autonomy does not imply non-accountability and this is what had been happening, so from this point of view, I do not believe that it violated autonomy"*
>
> *(Interviewee 12)*

> *"In all university systems there is public involvement about the use of public resources in universities and sometimes, the government is named as the rector. In other systems, the public form part of the council, and in others there is a monitoring system that looks at how resources are used "*
>
> *(Interviewee 3)*

Concerning University governance - private university

Generally speaking, a first look at where there has been progress in the adaptation of statutes and the renewing of official authority both in public and private universities has been positive.

> *"I think it is about 60%, 65% because what has been achieved is that now, except in the case of one or two public universities, and a very few private universities, especially the really small ones, they have all adapted their statutes to the new law. This is a point of progress"*
>
> *(Interviewee 13)*

> *" If we look at it from the point of view of what the implementation indicated, statutory assemblies, university commissioning of rectors, this is very advanced and well done, private universities with their new statutes, the public ones almost complete, in this sense there has been great progress."*
>
> *(Interviewee 8)*

> *"Now almost all private universities have adapted, let's say that here there were no major problems, they have had to make some statutory adjustments in order to comply with the law. At public universities this has been a 'trauma', which has not yet been resolved, but I understand that almost half of public universities have adapted to the new implementation"*
>
> *(Interviewee 6)*

Tax incentives for the private university

As mentioned previously, different items of legislation have provided the framework for tax incentives as a result of profit reinvestment by profit-seeking universities. On this subject, interviewees considered that these actions are beneficial to the extent that they granted the value of lower taxation, but financed by society as a whole.

> *"I would try to make it tougher in terms of the profit - higher education ratio. I mean, profit-seeking institutions have demonstrated lesser scientific output, lesser social research which is the essence of what a university, is and their graduates are not employed very quickly, in other words they are not even complying with the labour market. I don't think they should disappear because in the end they have the right to operate, but then in the end they should pay taxes like any other company, right?"*
>
> *(Interviewee 13)*

II.4. Tasks pending and principle challenges in the implementation of the reform programme

A University Model in the Country

The reform is also characterised by the fact that it included the definition of a particular type of "university model" that defined its areas of emphasis and strategy to produce uniformity in the universities' characteristics and organisation. The type of university that society requires can be interpreted, in accordance with the law, as one focused on scientific output and research. Established requirements could place more emphasis on the objective of improving the quality of research rather than on improving graduate profile and employability, but this emphasis could be too limiting for universities that are more focused on professional training.

With regard to this point, some interviewees mentioned the need to organise and classify universities on the basis of their commitment, training quality and research. They specifically mentioned the challenges faced by a university focused on the traditional scientific model, and which they considered unnecessary for a university that focuses more on professional training. Referring to international models, they suggest bringing the universities dedicated to teaching and professional training in line with those that also involve research in their activities.

> *"Some universities that are one type, and others are another type, some are public, others are private, there are some that only focus on one specialised area. Therefore this view is not very clear because it is something that is complex to put together.... the creation of a system that takes the differences in institutions into account is what is finally going to define whether the reform achieves the level of success that it should"*
>
> *(Interviewee 12)*

> *"Knowledge is a more general subject than quality of research. But how does this work when it comes to different institutions? If you don't learn to look at the differences in each one, the relevance of having different institutions when you want to regulate them as though they were all the same thing, then its over, it's as simple as that"*
>
> *(Interviewee 12)*

Strengthening the institutional framework

There was unanimous agreement among the interviewees that it should be the government that regulates the higher education system in Peru; this is because of corruption in the National Assembly of Rectors - now disbanded - and its failure as a totally autonomous body independent of the government.

"I agree with the government as a guarantor for quality in educational services provided by the state or third parties. If this is what they call regulation, then they should regulate. It doesn't need to interfere but it should regulate, by being clear about what the principles are that legitimise something like education. These principles are academic excellence, equal opportunities, the existence of research, and the existence of factual material in the classroom and libraries and laboratories where you can study. These are the assets of the whole university."

(Interviewee 16)

"The government is within its right to regulate, but what for? To achieve quality professional training and research that responds to the challenges of the country and its difficulties".

"It is good but we shouldn't be satisfied with just this, this should be a necessary step towards the next step so that this step now does not end up being an ineffective or senseless regulation"

(Interviewee 20)

However, MINEDU's new role as rector of the higher education market has exposed a series of characteristics and institutional limitations that should be remedied in order for it to fulfil its functions and roles. For example, an element that the majority of the people interviewed agreed with was the limited institutional scope of the ministry to carry out its role as rector of higher education. Developing institutional capability is difficult as the ministry is experiencing a human resources problem related to the lack of personnel who have the knowledge and competency to tackle the university sector. In this sense, an official from MINEDU acknowledged that:

"The teams are still very small, we are weak. There is a problem in the processes of change …we do not have many people who know the university system, we do have people that know about the technical education system, We need people who know about the university system and we need to strengthen frameworks and institutionalise some of our management and policy"

(Interviewee 3)

Thus the two tasks that are pending in order to strengthen the reform are, first, the possibility of creating a Vice Ministry of Higher Education (that integrates policies, scholarships, institutes, universities, etc.) and second, the strengthening of SUNEDU (it should be a technical regulator that is independent of MINEDU and more like other regulators).

In terms of the first point, an important group among the interviewees considered that a Vice-Ministry of Higher Education should be created as an authority with a higher ranking within MINEDU that would allow it effectively to carry out the role of

rector in the higher education sector. They believe that fulfilling this role with overall management would allow it to propose all the policies that are required, to inform, supervise and render accounts.

"… It needs public policies and a vice ministry, I am absolutely convinced of this idea"

(Interviewee 3)

"…We have to convince a new government that it is necessary to invest more and more effectively and to make a decision about whether we need a vice-ministry of higher education because it is not possible that the country (…) requests resources for initial, primary and secondary education, basic education institutes, colleges, universities, as though they were all the same. Today, with a new law for institutes, there is an even wider consensus about the idea of having a vice minister and this political decision (…) which is also proved because the region works this way, is another step for the reform programme"

(Interviewee 14)

With regard to strengthening SUNEDU, as was already mentioned, although its creation was thought to be positive, interviewees acknowledged that the institutional design should be revised in order to grant it more autonomy, authority and powers.

"So here the important institutional change has been the creation of the Superintendence which is independent of university shareholders, university authorities and the government because the board is elected through public tender. So here is a body that has no conflict of interest and it can enforce the law and any other regulation related to it."

(Interviewee 5)

"It should have been given more importance and I am not talking about the people, I mean the design was not well formulated, I think a National Council for Higher Education would have been better"

(Interviewee 13)

"I think we should give SUNEDU the capacity for greater action"

" (Interviewee 2).

One of the people that we interviewed suggested that, in order to grant SUNEDU more autonomy, and as a way of avoiding bias and conflict of interest, the superintendent "should not be appointed by the Minister of Education…. and its composition should be extended because there are only 4 or 5 important people in charge" (interviewee 6). In fact, it is possible to consider the possibility of SUNEDU as a regulating body, that would ensure its independence from political power (in that it would not be

affiliated to MINEDU), and be strictly professional and competent, generating its own resources and independence with regard to universities.

Converting the quality assurance system

Another issue pending is the definition of a more comprehensive quality assurance system. As mentioned, in addition to development, accreditation and licensing, the quality systems are monitored through academic audit. The latter is not considered in the reform programme.

> *"... The third level that (...) had to be taken care of is the academic audit which is the responsibility of the universities themselves, not monitored externally or by the government as is the case of licensing, where what they do is carry out tests on the basis of the enormous investment made in their own universities and they should implement graduate follow-up systems for example."*
>
> *(Interviewee 3)*

In addition to this, there are still ambiguities about the accreditation system. The legal regulations need to be worked on in order to better define SUNEDU's competencies, as well as the procedures fro licencing, accreditation, development and other aspects included in the law.

> *"In regulation, in general terms, we are developing a series of standards connected to procedures so that on the one hand we are making progress in the licensing process on an institutional level and we are evaluating what we are doing with regard to licensing correctly spelled! of programmes...but on the other hand, the programmes have still not been regulated"*
>
> *(Interviewee 4)*

> *"This law has to be regulated so that there are no loopholes, there is no way that we cannot regulate it, otherwise, it is the same law that can promote the reform and weaken it at the same time"*
>
> *(Interviewee 12)*

Public university governance

It does not include a budgetary component

The absence of a specific budgetary component in the law is an element that was mentioned by all the people interviewed as one of the downsides of the design and which would make adequate implementation of the reform programme impossible. As on of the interviewees explained:

"When an institution is no longer invested in, it should not be put in a "shock" situation, it has to have strategic investment, with strategic changes in teaching staff, administrative staff and the infrastructure, so I think that this part is negative, that there is no financial planning related to the university's development."

(Interviewee14).

The incorporation of a commitment towards budgetary increase for public universities is even more relevant taking into account that quality improvements include progress in the quality of teachers and research, activities that do not only require higher budgets but also better management.

"It hasn't been firmly addressed in the law, in terms of assigning a budget and control of expenses and in public universities, the issue of regulation, because this was one of the points that private universities were able to achieve, especially the corporate ones. I would add the part about public funding, that would be a key point"

(Interviewee 6)

Absence of a law or regulation related to the teaching profession

Beyond the specifications about the requirements for being a teacher, the law does not take into account the incentives structure necessary to ensure that trained teachers enter universities in order to develop their careers. This is especially relevant in public universities. The majority of interviewees acknowledged the precariousness of career conditions for teachers in public universities - including salaries, appointment and promotions, lack of training and research support for teachers, which is both discouraging and prevents motivation.

"If you want to have high quality teachers, you can't keep paying S/2000 to an assistant teacher and S/6000 to a principal, you just can't and if there is no concern, or an investment plan in the university for improving the teaching staff, then it is a just a reform on a political level"

(Interviewee 14)

For this reason, the interviewees mentioned the need to guarantee considerable economic support for public universities that would allow an improvement in quality and in teacher training, the standardisation of teachers salaries and appointments, promotions - but also a promotion system that is transparent - that not only include time and years in a position, but also research and academic output.

"It took 5 years to place head teachers at 6,000 soles and associates at 3,000 and assistants at 2,100... I would say that the second challenge is to improve the quality of university teachers".

(Interviewee 15)

The improvement in teacher training has to do with improving the conditions for teachers and also improving their abilities and professional and research competencies. And this is an investment in the salary offered … and you have to change the conditions of the teaching profession and change the incomes and dynamic of the teaching profession in order to change the formula that exists today".

(Interviewee 3)

"The issue of teachers is once again one of the greatest dangers that I can see because all these new standards sound really nice (…) but with the salaries that exist this is not possible".

(Interviewee 12)

"The payment scales because it really cannot be…so there has to be a payments scheme which is much more flexible and I think this can be done by the principal who I happen to know"

(Interviewee 14)

"Change the internal dynamic of operation in the university in terms of teacher recruitment and this has to be accompanied by teacher evaluation system inside the university that acknowledges academic output"

(Interviewee 3)

Concerning private university governance

It does not solve the problem of profit-seeking universities

Interviewees were divided in their opinions with regard to the existence of profit-seeking universities. On the one hand, the majority agreed that profit should not be the aim or purpose of university education, because the quality of the services offered might be sacrificed in order to generate profit, in this way negatively affecting the students. On the other hand, the majority of interviewees also considered that private profit-seeking universities had satisfied the need to widen opportunities for higher education.

The general opinion is that profit-seeking universities should abide by the same regulations and tax benefits as other universities, and that they should also maintain the same standards that guarantee professional and high quality academic training. These elements are not clearly explained in the law; for this reason, several of the interviewees considered that "the absence of clear and explicit measures regarding standards, encourages private investment towards profit-seeking higher education… and the law is a platform for development, and in this respect there is no development." (Interviewee 14)

III. INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION: ROLES AND TRENDS

In order to understand the the relationship of higher education to internationalisation, it is important to understand the various interpretations of internationalisation and how these differ in particular national and regional contexts.

For some it means international activities, such as international linkages, partnerships and projects; academic mobility for teachers and students; and new international academic programmes and research intiatives. For others it means the delivery of education to other national contexts through new types of arrangements, such as branch campuses or franchises, and the use of a variety of face-to-face and distance approaches. To many it is interpreted as the inclusion of an international, intercultural, or global dimension in the curriculum and the teaching/learning process. Still others view international projects and the increasing emphasis upon trade in higher education as internationalisation. Internationalisation, therefore, is used to describe three very different types of cross-border activities: international exchanges amnd partnerships, cross-border commercial trade ventures, and international development projects. It is also worth bearing in mind also that there is continuing debate concerning the reciprocal relationship between internationalisation and globalisation (Knight, 2005 in de Wit et al (Eds) Latin America: the International Dimension. World Bank: Washington).

At an international level the role of higher education is changing significantly. Key drivers of this change include, 'the development of advanced communication and technological services, increased international labor mobility, greater emphasis on the market economy and trade liberalisation, the focus on the 'knowledge society', increased private investment and decreased public support for education, and the growing importance of life-long learning' (Knight, 2005 ibid p.1)

The internationalisation of higher education refers to the "deliberate intention to integrate a global, international or intercultural dimension to the objective, functions and delivery of higher education, in order to improve quality and research for all students and to make a meaningful contribution to society"[82].

In practice, the internationalisation of higher education involves various dimensions. On the one hand, a group of activities such as university exchanges, the creation of regional networks or associations for discussion about the best practices for international accreditation, the signing of agreements for mutual recognition of qualifications between countries and universities or carrying out joint projects in research areas is considered to be internationalisation. On the other hand, learning methods, through distance learning or virtual education is also referred to as internationalisation. Another dimension of internationalisation is the globalisation of higher university infrastructure, for example, through the establishment of

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82 Hans de Wit: "Quality assurance and internationalization trends, challenges and opportunities", 2015

branches of universities abroad or the signing of dual degree agreements between universities. Moreover, internationalisation can also mean including an intercultural or international dimension to the course syllabus, included through the employment of foreign teachers or the inclusion of international authors in compulsory course texts, and bibliographies for students to specialise in a specific geographical region.

Over the last decade, efforts have been made in Latin America to deepen the internationalisation of higher education systems. This has not only generated interesting innovations in the provision of basic education, but it has also played a part in quality assurance in university systems. For example, the internationalisation observed in the accreditation mechanisms for the quality of Latin American Universities has been key to the generation of internal improvement procedures and to providing society with valuable information, especially when local accreditation systems are lacking. Similarly, exchanges between teachers and students, the internationalisation of programmes and international collaboration in research have been the cause and consequence of improvements to the quality of educational services. For these reasons, the internationalisation of higher education has the potential to contribute to the continual improvement of quality, which is the aim of the university reform programme in Peru.

In this chapter, the trends present in the internationalisation process of higher education in selected Latin American countries (Chile, Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and Colombia) are analysed. Then, the progress and challenges of this process in the case of Peru and its relationship to the university reform is described.

III.1.Trends in the internationalisation of higher education in Latin America

In Latin America, there is a clear and increasing trend in the internationalisation of higher education. There are certain differences about how this takes place in different countries, with the participation of different bodies (such as governments, associations or foundations, multi-lateral groups and the universities themselves), and it is generating gradual changes in the way that services are provided in the region. Even though the internationalisation process can be observed in student exchanges, it can also be increasingly noted in relatively new modalities, such as dual degree programmes and distance learning. The majority of scholarships, recognition development and quality guarantee, and the increasing cooperation between universities and other parties have been key to explaining the developments observed in recent years.

In fact, although higher education continues to be considered a public asset, under government supervision, it is proactive. Universities, international institutions and other associations and foundations nationwide, regionally and internationally, actively take part in the deepening internationalisation of higher education in Latin America.

It is possible to single out four groups of operators involved in the internationalisation of higher education:

i. **Governments and public institutions:** They are responsible for establishing the legalities associated with internationalisation. The Ministry of Education leads and is the principal actor in establishing internationalisation policies, the legal framework for signing of academic agreements, as well as the regulating and or revalidation of qualifications.

ii. **Universities:** With certain differences, universities have been the protagonists in the development seen in the region over the last decade, largely through their own initiatives, responding to specific strategic aims. The effort of some universities is notable in the signing of agreements for student mobility or scientific exchange programmes, with the aim of connecting with foreign universities and jointly offering courses so that prestigious international institutions would certify their programmes. A tension exists however in the direction of student mobility. It is interesting to see shifts in the flows of student mobility between Peru, for example, and the United States. In 2012/13 a record 2,956 US students enjoyed a study period in Peru, making it the 20th most popular country of study in Latin America after Costa Rica (8,497), Argentina (4,549), Brazil (4,223), Mexico (3,730), and Ecuador (3,438). Between 2005 and 2015, however, Peruvian students going to the US dropped from a high of 3,771 to 2,607 in 2015. Such flows in student mobility has implications for both the accreditation of student programmes and opportunities for collaboration between Latin American and US universities.

iii. **Consultants and public and private agencies that are specialised in higher education, foundations and private and public associations:** These entities usually focus on a specific axis of internationalisation. Some specialise in promoting student mobility through student scholarships, while others focus on providing consultancy services for governments and universities in terms of quality guarantees, or for the implementation of student scholarship programmes. The increasingly neo-liberal agendas within Higher education development are seeing the proliferation of private new providers within the Latin American education 'market'. Among these are International Apollo Group (University of Phoenix). Sylvan International and Oracle University. Advent International and J.P. Morgan have also increased their holdings in the ownership of ghigher education instititions in the region. A positive benefit has been a forcing of local instituyions to embrave new quality assurance procedures, a possible disbenefit concerns the drive for profit and the lack of accountability[83].

iv. **International institutions:** Other entities such as the United Nations Organisation for Education, Science and Culture (UNESCO), The American States Organisation (OEA) and the Iberoamerican Organisation for Education, Science and Culture (*Organización de Estados Iberoamericanos para la Educación, la Ciencia y la Cultura*) (OEI) represent areas for discussion and for the exchange of ideas and recommendations. Similarly, in the private sector, banks can participate in the

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83 Salmi, J 2001 'Tertiary education in the twenty-first century: Challenges and opportunities' in Higher Education Management and Policy, 3 (2), 105-130).

distribution of scholarships. For example, the *Banco Santander*, is the most active bank in Latin America and runs the *Becas Santander* programme[84]. Increases in the number and distribution of scholarships, though welcome, also raises questions concerning the accessibility of these scholarships for the very poor. Currently it is a very small elite who can afford to access universities whether public or private. If greater effort is directed towards, targeting scholarships and bursaries towards the poor then it will be a smallstep to the democratisation of universities within the Latin American region.

Next, the trends observed in selected Latin American countries will be analysed in relation to the three principle lines of action: openness and international mobility; quality guarantee and recognition of qualifications; access and sustainability, through national, regional and international activity in terms of financing student mobility and research.

III.2. Principal trends in the promotion of internationalisation in the region

Openness and international mobility is one of the most progressive areas of activity in Latin American countries. In general, student mobility is one of the most highly developed areas in the national politics of countries in different regions[85]. The signing of student exchange agreements and dual degree programmes with foreign universities has been an increasing strategy to develop student mobility among Latin American students. Both governments and universities have increased their provision of funding for financing the mobility of their students either unilaterally or with help from other national and international bodies. Virtual education and distance learning has also intensified.

Research is the other area that has undergone the most development in recent years. Analysis reveals that Latin American governments have been particularly active in trying to boost academic research. National agencies in charge of scientific and technical research have increased their involvement in international cooperation projects, particularly with the U.S.A and the European Union, and with other international institutions.

However, in the area of quality assurance and the recognition of qualifications, differences exist between countries. Countries have promoted mutual recognition of qualifications through the signing of regional agreements, but Latin American governments have experienced different levels of activity in the signing of agreements outside of the region. Argentina and Mexico have been the most active in this sector. In this context, international accreditation has developed in all countries but, in

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84 In 2015, almost 3500 scholarships were awarded in Mexico, over 3000 in Brazil and almost 2000 in Argentina. These scholarships were awarded as part of various sub-programmes,including, including one for financing of research, another for underdgraduate student mobility and one for the financing of international internships.
85 British Council. The Shape of Global Higher Education: National Policies Framework for International Engagement. 2016.

general, Latin American countries have a very low level of development in the quality assurance and recognition of qualification programmes, when compared to other countries in the region.[86]

Openness and International Mobility

In absolute terms, Peru remains underdeveloped compared with Europe and North America in terms of openness and international mobility in their universities. This is clear in the number of foreign students studying in the region as well as Latin American students studying abroad. However, in recent years there has been a rapid increase in the flow of exchange students to Latin America, and double degree agreements have multiplied, as have distance-learning modalities.

With regard to student exchange programmes, the region remains relatively underdeveloped. For example, in 2013, the U.S.A and the United Kingdom received 800,000 and 650,000 foreign students respectively, the countries that were analysed (Chile, Mexico, Brazil, Colombia received less that 120,000 students[87]). However, the increase that occurred in recent years was significant. According to the OECD (2014), between 2000 and 2012, the number of foreign students in the region multiplied by 2,5. The increase in the number of students from the United States is notable. Between 2010 and 2015, of the total number of students that left the United States to study abroad those that chose Latin America as their destination rose from 15% to almost 20%[88].

The same can be said about Latin American students studying aboard. According to the OECD, between 2005 and 2014, the percentage of students from the Latin American region rose from 3,7% to 6% of the total number of foreign students. And among the countries that were analysed, the number of university students studying abroad went from 85,000 to 100,000 between 2008 and 2013, with Brazil and Colombia having the highest number of students studying abroad. Spain received almost half of the students from Latin America, probably as a result of language.

Table 10: Total number of students studying abroad by country of origin origen, 2008-2013 (Source: UNESCO)

Country	2008	2010	2013
Brazil	23 003	27 753	32 051
Mexico	25 608	26 072	27 118
Colombia	20 106	24 391	25 509
Peru	15 598	17 282	14 204

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86 British Council, 2016

87 Institute for Statistics, UNESCO

88 Institute of International Education. "Host Regions of U.S. Study Abroad Students." Open Doors 2011 Report on International Educational Exchange. Retrieved from http://www.iie.org/opendoors

Chile	7 120	9 127	8 937
Argentina	9 304	9 753	7 166
Total	**100 739**	**114 378**	**114 985**

The increase observed in recent years has been supported by various factors, such as growing international cooperation and the individual efforts of universities themselves, as well as students exchange agreements, double degree qualification and distance learning.

With regard to international cooperation among Latin American countries and the rest of the world, the increase in cooperation with the European Union (for example: Erasmus Mundus[89]), and the United Kingdom (for example: Chevening), U.S. (100,000 strong in the Americas) and Canada (Emerging leaders in the Americas Program) is the most notable.

In terms of regional cooperation, Latin American universities have created, through the signing of multilateral government agreements, cooperation and discussion networks about openness and student mobility. For example, the **Network of Macro Latin American and Caribbean Universities** (*Red de Macro Universidades de América Latina y el Caribe*) unites 37 universities in Latin America and the Caribbean[90] (8 in Mexico, 5 in Argentina, 4 in Brazil, 3 in Venezuela, One in Chile, one in Colombia and one in Peru). This network encourages exchange and negotiations between universities in the region and seeks to accelerate the creation of agreements for student mobility.

Similarly, the Latin American Network for University Cooperation (*Red Latinoamericana de Cooperación Universitaria*) unites 24 universities in 13 countries, with the aim of encouraging academic cooperation through trips and student and teacher exchange programmes among universities in the region.

Finally, each university also has student exchange and mobility programmes. For example, the *Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México* has 18 agreements with

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89 Office of the European Union: Higher education cooperation between the European Union, Latin America and the Caribbean, 2015. The Erasmus Mundus programme for scholarships and exchange programmes between 2007 and 2013 mobilised over 6 600 students, and which has extended until 20220. Other programmes are the "Intra-ACP" programme to fund student and teacher mobility from Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific (ACP), and Edulink, a programme that seeks to improve educational and personal abilities through networkingactivities with ACP countries on three levels: institutional and management, academic and research

90 The macro universities are defined by their size (between 40 and 60 thousand students), a high number of disciplinary areas, a high concentration of public budget allocated to the education sector, an important historical and cultural heritage and a rich diversity in areas for research.

international institutions and over 1300 agreements with universities around the world. The University of Chile has signed 235 agreements with Latin American universities, including 23 students exchange agreements. In addition to this, the university has over 380 agreements with Europe, North America, Pacific Asia and the Middle East, including 134 students exchange agreements. It has also signed 50 co-tutelage agreements for PhD thesis and 35 agreements with other international and public institutions. The PUC Rio in Brazil holds 486 agreements with foreign universities, including 347 students' exchanges.

According to the *World University Ranking 2015-2016* carried out by Quacquarelli Symonds (QS), Argentina and Mexico stand out in the region for their percentage of international students[91]. In Argentina, the *Universidad de Palermo*, *Universidad de Belgrano* and *Universidad de Buenos Aires* are among 400 universities in the world with the highest number of foreign students. In Mexico, the Instituto Tecnológico de Estudios Superiores de Monterrey is also part of this group. There are no universities from Brazil, Colombia and Chile among the top 400[92], considered in this sample.

The internationalisation of education in the region is also taking place through different student exchange modalities, for example, through the increase in alternative tools such as double diplomas or joint degrees and distance learning programmes.

"Double diplomas" and "joint degrees"[93] are being used more and more as internationalisation tools in Higher Education in Latin America[94]. In practice, double diplomas are more common, as they are simpler to administer[95], but both of them are relatively new modalities that take place at individual universities.

In Latin America, it is difficult to obtain a comprehensive list of the progress in these modalities, but there is evidence that more and more Latin American universities have signed double diploma or joint degree agreements with their international peers.

Double diplomas can be studied on-site (the students spends a period of time at one university, and a period at the other university) or remotely. In the case of the latter,

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91   http://www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings/world-university-rankings/2015#sorting=2453336 +region=+country=+faculty=+stars=false+search=

92   Also, the QS ranking also proposes an index rate for the internationalisation of faculties, that measures the percentage of foreign teachers in the university faculties. In this category, the five Latin American countries that were considered have at least one university among the top 400 best universities in the world. Argentina has two, Brazil has one and Mexico has three.

93   Double degree provide two qualifications obtained from two institutions. Joint Degrees resulted in one degree, with the seal of both institutions on the same degree.

94   It should be mentioned that there is a difference between them. The first refers to a programme that is carried out between two partner universities and in the end the student obtains a quaification from each of the universities involved. The joint degree only awards one common qualification at the end of the programme.

95   "Mapping International Joint and Dual Degrees: U.S. Program Profiles and Perspectives", American Council on Education, 2012.

students follow all the courses in their home country and the exam is regulated and controlled by an institution in the country of origin of the double diploma.

Table 2: Example of the *University of London International Programme* (ULIP): :

It was initially set up as a programme of distance undergraduate courses for students who wanted to study independently; however, the programme has evolved and now many universities aside from the University of London (UoL) plan to offer the courses in the programme to students who are enrolled in their universities, upon payment of additional tuition fees.

Any foreign institution can teach the ULIP although the University of London demands that institutions that teach these courses are acknowledged by the *Teaching Institutions Recognition Framework* (TIRF), which is an additional quality indicator for these institutions.

In Latin America, there is only one university in Argentina that has received authorization to date (*Asociación Internacional de Estudios*) although there are seven universities[96] that have officially presented their request to the ULIP.

Double diplomas facilitate internationalisation among students[97], but they also operate as an indirect signalling mechanism of the quality of the institution. It is for this reason that double diplomas have become a predominant part of the initiatives and strategies of some universities.

The universities of Brazil and Mexico are the most active in this area. For example, the PUC Rio has signed 10 double diploma agreements with universities in France, Germany, Italy, Spain, the U.S.A and Peru. But other countries have also been developing agreements, for example, the *Escuela de Ingeniería y Ciencias de la Universidad de Chile* currently has a double degree agreement with the principal schools in France and in 2014 in Argentina, the *Universidad de Palermo* signed a double qualification agreement with the LSE for a degree programme in Management.

Distance education is also a growing method of education and it forms part of the process of internationalisation, according to Rama (2012). There are various advantages. First, the expense of copying the study materials is avoided; it is a relatively low cost option that provides quality courses, often from prestigious universities. Second, distance education represents lower costs and flexibility for

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96   Universidad de Palermo in Argentina, Universidad Privada de Bolivia, Universidad Santiago de Chile, Universidad de Montevideo in Uruguay and there are three in Peru: Universidad San Ignacio de Loyola, Universidad de Lima and Universidad del Pacífico.
97   "Double- and Joint-Degree Programs: Double Benefits or Double Counting?", J. Knight.

students. Finally, distance education is a way of filling the gaps and complementing programmes offered at the local university.

In some cases, distance education is linked to double degree agreements, such as in the case of ULIP that was described previously. By choosing this option, local universities have to buy learning materials, class lectures, exam questions, and the bibliography established by the foreign university in order to be able to officially offer the diploma. Local universities must purchase the copyright for the contents of the courses offered by foreign universities. This content must be respected and followed strictly by the teachers at local universities.

Recognition and Quality Assurance

Recognition of qualifications and the accreditation systems for degree programmes are essential components for the internationalisation of higher education in Peru. Without the procedures for recognition of qualifications, foreign diplomas are worthless in a foreign country. Thus, the absence of well-established procedures for the recognition of qualifications is an obstacle for international student mobility. Also the accreditation system for degrees is key to informing the different users of the system (students, universities and employers) about their quality.

The analysis of this aspect of internationalisation reveals a wide variety of models for the recognition of qualifications and even more so of quality assurance. Because of the wide variety of models, over the last few years there have been attempts at standardisation by the government, through the signing of bilateral and multilateral agreements. In this context, some universities have progressed independently towards the accreditation of their programmes through private international accreditation agencies.

The recognition of qualifications is a procedure through which students or foreign workers are able to obtain an equivalence diploma for their national qualifications from the destination country in order to be able to study or carry out their profession in that place. In other words, it is an acceptance of a qualification or diploma that comes from abroad to that country.

This implies that any person who requests a diploma through this scheme should have carried out similar studies, or studies without substantial differences, in another country. The diploma or qualification obtained in another country does not have to be exactly the same in order to be recognised abroad, if the aim is to continue their studies in the foreign country.[98]

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98   Abadie (2013).

Without this procedure, the person's studies have no value abroad. Thus, in order to attract or "export" students, a system for the recognition of qualifications that is well established, transparent and simple is necessary.

In Latin America, there are various regional schemes to encourage cooperation between countries in the region. The Andres Bello agreement (from 1970 and substituted in 1990), that included several countries in Latin America and Spain, as well as the Regional Agreement for the Validation of Higher Education Studies, Qualifications and Diplomas (*Convenio Regional de Convalidación de Estudios, Títulos y Diplomas de Educación Superior*) put forward by the International Institute for Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (*Instituto Internacional para la Educación Superior de América Latina y El Caribe*) (Unesco, 1974), the Protocol for Educational Integration for postgraduate studies in the Mercosur region (*Protocolo de integración educativa para la prosecución de estudios de posgrado en la región Mercosur*) (1996) and more recently, the Declaration of the Regional Conference about Higher Education in Latin American and the Caribbean (*Declaración de la Conferencia Regional sobre Educación Superior en América Latina y el Caribe*) (CRES 2008).

In addition to regional agreements, each country has specific legislation for the recognition of foreign qualifications and there are a wide variety of national models in this area. In general, when there are valid bilateral agreements between countries, they are the guides to the recognition of qualifications without the need for evaluation or an exam. When there is no agreement, the government validates one of several universities, very often public, to carry out this procedure. In this case, the designated university unilaterally evaluates the studies to see if they match with courses that are offered in their own faculties. If the university considers that the training is similar, they can then offer the student a validation of their qualification.

The following table presents the bilateral agreements that countries have signed with other countries that indicate mutual recognition or validation of university degrees. In fact, in recent years, the signing of bilateral agreements has been a useful strategy for the development of student mobility both inside and outside the region of Latin America.

Table 11: Bilateral agreements on mutual recognition of degrees, 2015

Argentina	Colombia	Chile	México	Brazil
Mexico	Ecuador	Argentina	Colombia	United Kingdom
Venezuela	Portugal	Germany	Ecuador	France
Bolivia	Chile	Brazil	Argentina	Germany
Chile	Spain	Spain	Spain	Paraguay
Colombia	Bolivia	France	Chile	Argentina
Dominician Republic	Mexico	Israel	France	Uruguay
Ecuador	Argentina	Paraguay	Paraguay	Venezuela
Spain	Cuba	Uruguay	Uruguay	Bolivia
Italy	Peru	Guatemala	Guatemala	Portugal
Panama	Russia			
Peru	Germany			
Paraguay	Bulgaria			
Uruguay	Costa Rica			
El Salvador				

Source: Ministries of Education in Argentina, Colombia, Chile, Mexico and Brazil.

The accreditation of higher education degrees is usually a voluntary process, requested by universities through an agency (national or international) or a public system established by the government, to evaluate and measure the quality of its educational services and programmes.

According to the Interuniversity Centre for Development - (*Centro Interuniversitario de Desarrollo*) (CINDA), accreditation systems "evaluate an institution or programme on the basis of its declared purposes and standards as defined with the relevant stakeholders and then given a public guarantee about the level of satisfaction both for their own purposes and the defined standards and criterion"[99].

Given the internationalisation process in higher education, accreditation is becoming more and more important as a tool to guarantee the quality of educational services and to facilitate student mobility and cooperation between institutions. The practice in the countries that were analysed shows some differences, which are shown in the following table. In the majority of cases, accreditation is voluntary; it allows the

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99   CINDA, 2012: Report on Higher Education (Informe de la Educación Superior).

accreditation of educational institutions as a whole or only certain programme and the negative results (in the case of those institutions that are not accredited due to a lack of quality fulfilment requirements) are penalised. There are greater differences when accreditation is connected to the funding of institutions or programmes.

Table 12: Characteristics of the accreditation model in selected countries

Country	What is accredited?	Obliga-tory?	Linked to financing	Penalties?
Argentina	Programmes	Obligatory	Yes	Yes
Brazil	Programmes and institutions	Obligatory	No	Yes
Chile	Programmes and institutions	Voluntary	Yes	Yes
Colombia	Programmes and institutions	Voluntary	No	No
Mexico	Programmes and institutions	Voluntary	Yes	Yes
Peru	Programmes and institutions	Voluntary	No	No
Spain	Programmes	Obligatory	No	Yes

Source: Higher Education policies in Ibero-America 2009-2013

An interesting tendency that has been noted in recent years is the internationalisation process in university accreditation, which can be explained by the multiplication of programmes at an international level, the rapid increase in student mobility and of teachers in the region, the development of distance education and the internationalisation of the curricula in Latin America. This internationalisation process has occurred in three principal ways:

First, on a regional level, Latin American countries have been actively encouraging the exchange of best practices in international accreditation through their participation in **International and regional multilateral accreditation networks**.

The Iberoamerican Network for Higher Education Quality Assessment (*Red Iberoamericana para la Acreditación de la Calidad de la Educación Superior*) (RIACES), made up of 14 Latin American and Caribbean countries, and of 5 regional institutions, was created in 2003 with the aim of: «promoting cooperation and facilitating the exchange of information and best practice among the different institutions and accreditation bodies for quality in higher education. In this way, it is concerned with achieving regional cohesion in terms of quality evaluation with the aim of encouraging the recognition of programmes and institutions to facilitate mobility and exchange of best practices in the accreditation and evaluation sector.

Furthermore, in 1998, member countries of the Latin American Network for University cooperation created an international Accreditation Agency, establishing an accreditation process that was "voluntary and rigorous" in order to improve the quality of institutions of higher education in the region. This agency also aimed to improve the exchange of best practices among member countries, in the accreditation sector.

The involvement of these international networks enforced the adoption of international standards in the national accreditation system in those countries and this contributed to the simplification and predictability of these procedures.

Second, international accreditation has been an element that was included in the signing of regional agreements for integration and free trade between countries, as the following table indicates:

Table 13: Regional agreements

Year	Agreement	Member countries	Characteristics
1974	Regional Agreement for the Validation of Higher Education Studies, Qualifications and Diplomas proposed by the International Institute for Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (UNESCO) (Convenio Regional de Convalidación de Estudios, Títulos y Diplomas de Educación Superior propuesto por el Instituto Internacional para la Educación Superior en América Latina y el Caribe)	Bolivia, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, El Salvador, Slovenia, Mexico, Montenegro, Nicaragua, The Netherlands, Panama, Peru, The Vatican, Surinam, Venezuela	To promote academic equivalence through a similar formative process

1978	Andrés Bello Agreement (Convenio Andrés Bello)	Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, Spain, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Dominican Republic, Venezuela, and Argentina in process of accession	Favours the strengthening of integration procedures and the setting up and development of a common cultural space. It seeks to generate general agreements and courses of action in culture, education, science and technology, with the objective that their benefits contribute to equitable, sustainable and democratic development of member countries.
1996	Protocol for the educational Intergration of Postgraduate Studies in the MERCOSUR region (Protocolo de integración educativa para la prosecución de estudios de posgrado en la región MERCOSUR)	Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay, Venezuela	Recognition of university degree qualifications by recognisd universities in each country, exclusively for postgraduate studies.
1999	The recognition of graduate and postgraduate qualifications is approved with the accreditation of partner states, exclusively for the exercising of teaching and research activities.	Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay, Venezuela	

At a subregional level, in 1992, the member countries of MERCOSUR implemented the Experimental Higher Education Mechanism (MEXA), which until 2008 was responsible for carrying out the accreditation of certain degrees such as medicine, engineering and astronomy. Later, in 2008, more degrees and universities in the region were included in the mechanism. In Central America, the Central American Council for Accreditation - *Consejo Centroamericano de Acreditación* (CCA), was set up to be responsible for certifying agencies and it guaranteed that the courses were adapted to the professional requirements of countries in the region.

Also, the majority of free trade agreements signed between countries in the region had included the enforcement of common standards between member countries in terms of accreditation and evaluation of degree programmes (Rama, 2009). In Latin America, the signing of free trade agreements between Chile, Mexico, Peru Colombia, Central America and the Dominican Republic implied the implementation of common standards in terms of accreditation and evaluation of higher education programmes and institutions.

These agreements formed the basis for encouraging international mobility between member countries. By harmonizing these procedures, it also permitted the standardization of programmes on a regional level with regard to quality. In this context, for example, the Regional Academic Mobility for Accredited Degree Programmes - *Movilidad Académica Regional para las Carreras Acreditadas* (MARCA) was created, in order to facilitate student exchange programmes between accredited and evaluated universities in force in MERCOSUR.

Finally, a third and last option to encourage international accreditation in the region has been the use of **external accreditation services (agencies or university networks)**.

On an international level, some private and public agencies have progressively extended their activities on an international level. In this context, agencies in the United States and Europe have been particularly proactive and their accreditations have been an important tool to inform regarding the quality of universities in different regions.

It is important, however, to recognise the important relationship between mechanisms of accreditation and strategies and initiatives to improve the quality of provision at higher education level, particularly teaching and learning, and improvements in the quantity and quality of research activities. Improved accreditation does not in itself necessarily result in enhanced pedagogy or improved research, rather it acts as an effective guide to what is occurring within the respective institutions engaged in collaborative activity.

There are some examples of this process. In the United States, eight agencies are responsible for the accreditation process in each region. The SACS (Association for Schools and Universities in the South of the United States are responsible for the southern states and it has recently expanded to cover five universities in Mexico

(in including the Universidad de Monterrey). Similarly, the North American agency under the name *Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology* (ABET) has valid accreditations to a university in Chile, and 3 universities in Colombia, 5 universities in Peru and 13 universities in Mexico. In Europe, the National agency for Quality Assurance and Accreditation (*Agencia Nacional de Evaluación de la Calidad y Acreditación*) (ANECA) has in Spain multilateral projects with RIACES, which was previously mentioned, and bilateral agreements with Peru, Colombia, Mexico and Costa Rica. Furthermore, in the region, the Inter-University Centre for Development (*Centro Interuniversitario de Desarrollo*) (CINDA) International Institute for Quality Assurance (*Instituto Internacional para el Aseguramiento de la Calidad*) (IAC), that brings together 40 universities in Latin America for the accreditation of various specific degree programmes.

Access and sustainability

At the heart of efforts to reform higher education internationally is the relationships between access on the one hand, and quality of provision on the other. A UNESCO report in 1995 pointed to several important trends that explain the tension between access and quality, namely a 360% growth rate for private universities and a 28% increase for public institutions between 1975 and 1995. Such a growth has not, unfortunately, been matched with corresponding improvements in the quality of provision. This can be explained in part by the role of privatisation in higher education expansion with institutions unwilling to subject themselves to regulatory oversight.

In this field, governments had clearly been the protagonists in developing scholarship programmes and for promoting international cooperation in regard to research.

- **Scholarships and sources of financing**

In Latin America, the sources of finance for student mobility have increased over time. Governments and national agencies, either unilaterally or in the context of multilateral alliances have developed scholarship programmes, especially for students with low incomes. Also, universities, in the same way as international foundations, are also more and more active in the provision of financing.

On a regional level, Latin American countries have developed scholarship programmes in order to facilitate student mobility through universities in the region. Some examples are particularly relevant. For example, the Organisation of American States (*Organización de los Estados Americanos*) (OEA), through its Alliance for Education and Training Programme (*Programa de Alianza para la Educación y la Capacitación*) (PAEC) offers a series of undergraduate and post-graduate scholarships in cooperation with Latin American universities. The Network of Macro Universities (*Red de Macro Universidades*) that was mentioned earlier also includes several scholarship programmes as part of its student mobility programme.

Regional alliances, such as the Pacific Alliance (Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru), also award scholarships reciprocally, so that students can study in one of the member countries of the Alliance.

However, <u>governments are the single most important source of financing for student mobility</u>. In Colombia, for example, ICETEX is a government institution that grants credits and scholarships for lower-income population segments. It has =, among others, a scholarship programme for foreign post-graduate students, and it is also responsible for centralising, channelling and managing scholarship offers for Colombians who go abroad. In 2008, Chile implemented the Abroad Chile Scholarship Programme (Programa Becas Chile) in order to finance the studies abroad of up to 30,000 students. Mexico also implemented the Proyecto 100,000, a similar initiative to 100,000 Strong in the Americas in 2013 to send that number of Mexican students to the United States and receive 50,000 Students from the United States to Mexico. A similar programme was created to send 100,000 Mexican students to Canada[100].

- **Funding for research**

Governments have multiplied the scholarship programmes and cooperation in international scientific projects either unilaterally or in association with private foundations, through national scientific agencies and universities. A general summary of the types of government, academic and private initiatives, on a nationwide, regional and international level is presented in the following table:

Table 14: Financing for research

Government Initiatives	Cooperation with international foundations (Max Planck) Direct cooperation with Universities (University of Chile and Birmingham University)
National research agencies	Chile: Comisión Nacional de Investigación Científica y Tecnológica (CONICYT) Mexico: Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (CONACYT) Brazil: Sao Paulo Research Foundation (FAPESP) Colombia: Departamento Administrativo de ciencias, tecnología e innovación (COLCIENCIAS) Argentina: Agencia Nacional de Promoción Científica y Tecnológica (FONCYT)
Long-term plans	Brazil: "Ciencia sin Fronteras" programme Mexico: Education Sector Programme 2013-2018 Colombia: Plan for the development of human capital 2012
Universities (examples)	University of Buenos Aires: 566 valid research scholarships University of Chile: Basal financing programme Participation in European Projects: Marie Curie Activities National Autonomous University of Mexico: scholarship programme for Instituto de Investigaciones Sociales (IIS UNAM) CODOC Project - Cooperation for PhD education in Africa, Asia, Latin America and Europe

100   David Tobenkin: Latin Americas Partnership Cross Bord, 2016

Governments are the most active operators in this field and consequently, they have increasingly encouraged cooperation between countries in the research field. For example, in 2011, the Brazilian government implemented a Programme of Science without Borders (*Ciencia sin Fronteras*) in order to improve scientific and technical innovation in the country, specifically in the mathematical, engineering and creative industry sectors. The initial aim was to invite 101,000 Brazilian students to the best universities in the world. Also, thank to the "inbound fellowships" programme, Science without Borders intended to attract 1250 researchers (young people and seniors). However, the programme was significantly reduced in 2016 as a result of the country's economic difficulties.

In Mexico, the government implemented an Education Sector Programme (*Programa Sectorial de Educación*) 2013-2018, with an emphasis on encouraging scientific and technological research and to promote the generation and disclosure of significant knowledge for the country's development. Mexico and the United Kingdom also established a visiting professorship between 24 higher education institutions in the areas of science, technology, engineering and mathematics, art, humanities and social sciences. In this programme, academics and researchers from these member institutions hold professorships and lectures in each other's countries for two weeks.

In 2012 in Colombia, for example a plan was implemented to encourage human capital, with a special focus on the development of research and international student exchange programmes.

Also, over the last few years, public-private agreements (particularly between scientific government institutions and private international foundations have multiplied. For example, through the National Commission of Scientific and technological research (*Comisión Nacional de Investigación Científica y Tecnológica*) (CONICYT), the Chilean government has signed several scholarship agreements with international foundations, such as the Alexander von Humboldt Foundation and the Max Planck Society in Germany, the National Centre for Scientific Research (*Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique CNRS*) in France, and the Fulbright Commission in the United States. Chile has benefited from the increase in Chevening scholarships awarded by the United Kingdom, through the Newton-Picarte Fund. In 2014, the public funding organisations in Chile and United Kingdom coordinated the co-funding of a research project between the University of Birmingham and the *Universidad de Chile*, one between the Roslin Institute at Edinburgh University and the *Universidad de Chile*, among others.

Public institutions have also signed research development agreements directly with universities. For example, in 2012, through the Sao Paolo Research Foundation (*Fundación para la Investigación del Estado de Sao Paulo*) (FAPESP), the Brazilian

government signed scientific cooperation agreements with the University of Edinburgh, Bangor University and the Institute of Education at University College London (UCL). This type of agreement between public research agencies generally includes scholarships for student mobility, and for doctors and teachers for specific research projects.

Individually, Latin American universities have become significantly involved in international research programmes offered by foreign governments or by multilateral projects. This includes for example, the cooperation of European (Acciones Marie Curie), North American (CIVITAS Latin America) and Canadian (*Emerging Leaders in the Americas Program*) research programmes.

International cooperation with the European Union has been particularly strong. Between 2007 and 2014, over 1500 Latin American organisations took part in over 400 projects that were registered under the Marie Curie programme. Brazil was one of the most active countries (187 projects) followed by Argentina (92), and Mexico (71)[101]. In total, there are 3,700 Latin American and Caribbean researchers that took part in the Marie Curie programme. These results are a good reflection and show that Brazil, Argentina and Mexico are the countries that have been involved the most in international cooperation with Europe in the research sector.

Finally, Lain American universities individually offer research development programmes. In April 2016, the Universidad de Buenos Aires had 566 valid research scholarships and they also provided research development programmes. Other examples are the *Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile*, that offers a research residency for foreign students given by a teacher who specialises in a specific topic of interest, and the Universidad de Chile has residencies and departments for international researchers.

Mexico has also been particularly active in cooperating with international universities for the development of their academic research abilities in science and technology. Specifically, the Institute of technology and Further Education in Monterrey has established international relations offices abroad to develop and strengthen its internationalisation strategy. For example, it established offices at the University of British Colombia in Vancouver, at Yale University, Polytechnic University in Cataluña and the Pontificia Comillas in Spain, the University of Hull in the United Kingdom and the University of Fudan in Shanghai. In 2014, the Institute of Technology (*Instituto Tecnológico*) in Monterrey initiated research cooperation in nanotechnology with MIT in the United States.

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101 Office of the European Union: Higher education cooperation between the European Union, Latin America and the Caribbean, 2015

The internationalisation process in Peruvian Higher Education

Of the top rated universities in Latin America, five countries dominate the top positions: Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Argentina and Colombia. According to a 2011 survey carried out by the University of Queensland, Australia, the Pontificia Universidad Católica del Perú stands in 34th place. This raises an important question concerning the relationship between economic and educational indicators. As of 2011 each country of the five countries mentioned above spends 4 to 5 per cent of its GDP on education whereas in Peru the figure is only 2.7 per cent. Peru, in other words, spends nearly half as much on education spending as its five neighbouring countries. Though a majority of the top schools surveyed are private institutions, it may indicate that the higher levels of funding mean that students may be better prepared when they enter a university or college, and therefore perform better in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Mexico. (Karim, S 2011)

Following the trend that has been observed in the region, Peru has also taken steps towards the internationalisation of higher education, although comparatively speaking, there is still a lack of development in certain areas. Steps towards increased development have mainly taken place on the basis of individual efforts, and without any coordination with universities[102], but that said, recently there has been a notable increase in government-funded scholarships. Underdevelopment is mainly the result of a lack of the particular conditions needed to generate a favourable environment for internationalisation, that is the level of English spoken among students and teachers and the complexity of the administrative process with regard to the recognition of qualifications and the inadequate accreditation system, all of which have already been described in this document.

As in the other countries in the region, the Ministry of Education is responsible for defining internationalisation policies for higher education, but there are also other operators that have an important role, as indicated in the following table. For example, SUNEDU is responsible for the policy for the recognition of qualifications, while PRONABEC manages the provision and assignation of scholarships abroad and CONCYTEC develops policies for the promotion of research.

III.2.1 Openness and Student Mobility

Peru is not a country that stands out in the region in terms of the number of university students taking part in exchange programmes. In 2013, only 14,000 students travelled abroad to study, which is equivalent to 0,046% of the population. This is a lower percentage compared to corresponding figures in countries such as Chile and Colombia, where the average income per person is similar to Peru. Other countries

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102 World Bank: Higher Education in Latin America, 2005

such as Brazil and Mexico "export" a larger number of students, but this may be explained by the fact that they have larger populations.

The countries that are most frequently chosen for overseas study are Spain - 24.5%, the United States 17.4%, Italy - 12.3%, Cuba - 8% and France - 5%, of the total number of Peruvian students studying abroad each year. It is notable that the percentage of Peruvian students that travel to countries that are members of the OECD (80%) is lower than in other countries such as Brazil, Colombia and Mexico (over 90%) (OECD, 2013).

Table 15: Annual "exportation" flow of university students, 2013

Country	Total Number of Students	% of population
Germany	119,123	0.148
Colombia	25,509	0.054
China	712,157	0.052
Chile	8,937	0.051
Peru	14,204	0.046
Mexico	27,118	0.022
U.S.A	60,292	0.019
Argentina	7,166	0.017
Brazil	32,051	0.016
India	181,872	0.014

Source: Unesco statistics

Additionally, according to the QS global ranking, there are no Peruvian universities among the top 400 universities in the world considered by international students. In terms of international faculties, and the number of foreign teachers and academics employed there was only one Peruvian university among the top 400 - (*Universidad Peruano Cayetano Heredia* at number 367).

There seem to be two major reasons for this: the enormous growth in the higher education system – in 1900 1,000 students were studying at universities in Peru, by the 1970s it had increased to 128,000 – and the complicated and difficult admissions system with something like 50% of school students failing the entrance exams to higher education institutions each year. With a burgeoning private sector, offering pre-university classes it means that for many Peruvian young people the road to university admission is lengthy and expensive. The result of these two factors may well explain Peru's low ranking in the QS survey.

There are different reasons for this. First, the average level of English spoken among students and teachers is a significant limitation. Second, the procedures related to the recognition of qualifications and student exchange programmes are slow and complicated. Finally, the inadequate quality accreditation system, described previously, also negatively influences the generation of necessary information that would ease exchange programmes and cooperation between universities. According to the interviews carried out as part of this study, there is general agreement about these causes, although a more structural problem was also mentioned, which was the poor quality of the average university education, which also prevents internationalisation from becoming a generalised and natural process.

Generally universities in Latin America face the challenges in both providing greater access to their institutions – particularly for the poorer students – and in raising the quality of their teaching and learning and research endeavours.

In terms of teaching and learning it is important to understand the historical and cultural factors that have shaped university development in the region. Studies such as that carried out by Gonzalez (1966, cited in Tunnermann, 1998 La declaración mundial sobre la educacion superior en el siglo XXI 16, 3-21) describe Latin American universities as:

'bookish, dogmatic, memory-based, without regard to the teaching of sciences nor scientific research, lacking libraries and laboratories, made up of professional autonomous faculties in which a union spirit takes precedence over a university one, with …faculty members on a half-time basis, with tenure held for life and part-time student bodies unable to participate in decision-making…' Tunnerman suggests that Latin American universities are facing challenges inherited from the 19th century.

'Medio pelo' is a common colloquial term to refer to the many poor quality universities – generally private ones – across Peru that act as 'degree factories' churning out certificates in return for ever-increasing fees and with no real learning or professional skills to compete in the labour market.[103] Though this picture does not apply to all universities in the region there is still much to do in terms of raising the quality of both teaching and learning, and research activity.

Recent developments in the United Kingdom have seen the introduction of the Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF) in which universities will be rated according to student learning outcomes, one of which will be employment rates of its graduates. Equally there are ways to assess the quality of research, notably the emphasis upon research impact. Internationally there has been a shift in recent years to holding higher education to account in terms of research activity funded from the public purse.

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103 Calle, G.L. 2016 Global Risks and Insights 14.10.2016

There is evidence that one of the most important consequences of collaborative research is an increase in the quality and impact of published work – the higher the proportion of articles published in collaboration, the greater the global impact.

Such collaboration for universities in Latin America needs to operate at two levels: vertically in terms of building research links between South American countries and leading universities in North America and Europe; and horizontally in terms of developing research linkages between and within Latin American countries.

In terms of the level of English spoken, the index generated by *English First* places Peru at a moderate level, similar to Chile, above Colombia, but below Argentina and the majority of countries that have higher incomes.

Diagram 29: English proficiency index

Very High	High	High moderated	Moderated	Low	Very low	
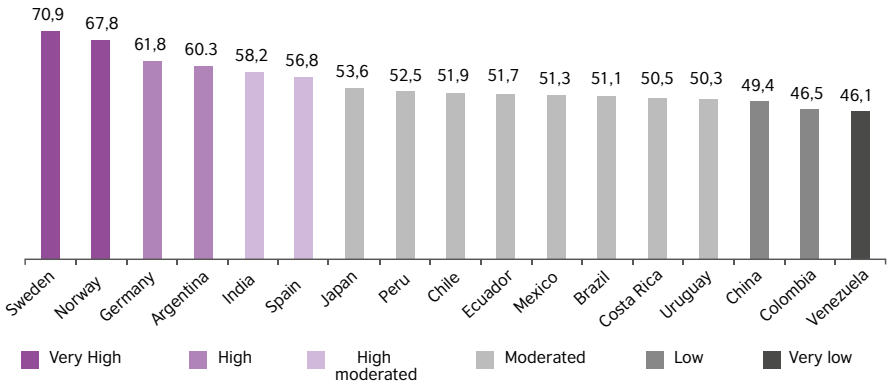
Source: EF Standard English Test

Although Peru's position in the region, in terms of the level of English spoken, is quite promising, it was generally agreed that the current level of English spoken among students represented a significant obstacle and was one of the conditions why students prefer Spanish-speaking countries as study destinations[104].

As a result of this analysis, the Peruvian government has taken a series of steps. For example, since 2014, the government has committed itself to a national strategy to promote bilingualism, lasting until 2021, with the "Perú, país bilingüe" programme, in order to improve both the learning and speaking of English at national universities. In this way, the government has set a goal of guaranteeing that over 280,000 Peruvian teachers will be bilingual, and it has also sought international cooperation as part of

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104 "English in Peru: An examination of policy, perceptions and influencing factors", British Council, May 2015.

this aim, that includes an *agreement memorandum* with the United Kingdom for their cooperation in the implementation of strategies related to the teaching and learning of the English language.

Following regional trends, innovative teaching methods, for example, the double diploma or joint degree, display openness and mobility in the steps towards the internationalisation of higher education, and Peruvian universities have intensified their efforts to encourage the establishment of agreements with foreign institutions.

In recent years, double diplomas have multiplied in Peru. For example, *Universidad del Pacifico*, *Universidad de Lima* and *Universidad San Ignacio de Loyola* have signed agreements with the University of London, through the University of London International Programme. Similarly, ESAN University has 9 double diploma agreements in place with universities in France, Germany, Spain and the United States and the *Universidad Perianal de Ciencias Aplicadas* has 20 double diploma agreements with universities in Brazil, Chile, Spain, the United States, Mexico and Switzerland.[105]

A similar trend can be observed in the development of distance education methods. The largest universities in Peru have adapted well and are developing virtual education programmes, both locally and at international levels. ESAN University is the regional leader in terms of developing distance learning, through decentralised centres abroad. (Rama 2012).

III.2.2 Recognition of qualifications and quality assurance

There are some notable differences in the case of Peru. First, Peru has been one of the most active countries in the region in the signing of bilateral agreements for the mutual recognition of qualifications. However, the experts agreed that the administrative processes are extremely slow and cumbersome and represent a real limitation. Second, in terms of quality accreditation procedures, there is a contrast between the malfunctioning of quality accreditation on the part of the government (which is to some extent motivated by the reform), and the increasingly active search by universities to obtain accreditation from prestigious international institutions, in this way developing a voluntary and modern alternative to self-regulatory mechanisms for quality.

• **Recognition of Qualifications**

Peru has been comparatively active in the signing of agreements for the mutual recognition of qualifications. Peru has signed bilateral agreements for the mutual recognition of qualifications with 30 countries, including Argentina, Brazil, Colombia,

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105 UPC: http://www.upc.edu.pe/internacional/convenios-internacionales/doble-grado

Chile, Mexico, Cuba and other countries in Latin America, as well as Spain. The last agreement was signed with France in February 2016.

The number of bilateral agreements signed by Peru is high compared with the rest of Latin America. Other countries such as Argentina - 13, Colombia - 12, and Chile - 9 have signed fewer agreements with foreign countries. Peru has also entered into negotiations with Russia to sign a new mutual recognition of qualifications agreement[106]. Peru is part of a number of regional agreements for the recognition of qualifications, diplomas and degrees, with Andrés Bello and the UNESCO - IESALC Regional Agreement for the Validation of Studies, Degrees and Diplomas (*Convenio Regional de Convalidación de Estudios, Títulos y Diplomas de Educación Superior de la UNESCO – IESALC*), mentioned previously.

However, this proactive position in the signing of bilateral agreements contrasts with the existence of very cumbersome procedures, mainly in the recognition of qualifications procedures with OECD member countries who, with the exception of a few, Peru does not have agreements with.

- **International accreditation and quality Assurance**

The account given in this study makes it very clear that the accreditation process in Peru suffers from a series of shortcomings. Further, Peru is not a part of RAICES, the main regional cooperation network for the improvement of accreditation, that was mentioned earlier, and which has hampered the incorporation of international best practices. And it must be said that these shortcomings limit the general process of internationalisation in higher education.

Faced with this reality, more and more Peruvian universities have sought to obtain accreditation for their programmes through international institutions. For example, the *Universidad San Ignacio de Loyola* has been accredited by the *Accrediting Council for Independent Colleges and Schools*; the UPC recently obtained institutional accreditation through the WASC Senior College and University Commission and the *Universidad de Lima* from the *Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business*[107]. Additionally, the Católica, Pacifico, Universidad de Lima and the Cayetano Heredia form part of the International Institute for Quality (*Instituto Internacional para el Aseguramiento de la Calidad*) (IAC) of the Interuniversity Centre for Development (*Centro Interuniversitario de Desarrollo*). However, this process of internationalising accreditation has been mostly uncoordinated and carried out on an individual basis by a small number of universities.

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106   https://www.forumspb.com/en/
107   http://elcomercio.pe/suplementos/comercial/educacion-superior/conoce-que-universidades-estan-acreditadas-nivel-internacional-1001706

III.2.3 Access and sustainability

This is the area in which the Peruvian government has been a leading figure in recent years. In Peru, the granting of scholarships directed towards internationalisation has increased, following a similar trend in the rest of the region. Some of the interviewees considered that Peru was noteworthy as one of the most proactive countries in in Latin America. This can be observed in the increased scholarship funding by PRONABEC.

In 2011, the Peruvian government began the **"Beca 18 Programme"** in order to grant undergraduate scholarships to students with low-economic resources, as a way of funding their studies in English. The scholarship has an international axis to enable students with low economic resources to study abroad.

• MINEDU, through PRONABEC, has developed the President of the Republic Scholarship programme (*Beca presidente de la República*), which allows Masters level and Post-graduate degree students to study at one of the top 400 universities in the world, according to the *QS World University Ranking, the Academic Ranking of World Universities* (ARWU) and *The Times Higher Education World University Ranking*. Between 2012 and 2016, almost 1,300 scholarships were awarded, including 133 for students in Chile, 230 in Argentina, 44 in Mexico, 572 in Spain, 38 in the United Kingdom and 145 in Australia.

• Pronabec also has a programme: Post-graduate Human Capital Scholarships (*Becas de Capital Humano de Posgrado*), where the main focus of international mobility is research. In this context, scholarships are available for the mobility of Peruvian post-graduate students to pursue studies in China or Colombia[108].

• Some special scholarships should also be mentioned: scholarships that focus on funding for more specialised cases and as part of the internationalisation process for higher education. Among these special cases, PRONABEC funds a significant number of students every year so that they can study foreign languages such as English, French and Portuguese. In this context, in order to improve their system for awarding scholarships, PRONABEC has sought cooperation from external institutions. In 2014, Peru signed an agreement with the *UK Higher Education International Unit*, in order to award scholarships for post-graduate students with low economic resources, who wanted to study in the United Kingdom[109].

The total number of scholarships with an international dimension that were offered during the period from 2012 - 2016 was almost 28,000. However, there were also some weaknesses in the momentum for the provision of scholarships issued that

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108 Minstry of Education: 100 thousand Scholarships 2016 (100mil Becas)
109 http://www.international.ac.uk/media-centre/press-releases/new-uk-peru-postgraduate-scholarship-scheme-announced.aspx

were experienced by the people we interviewed. One of the problems faced by Peru is the low level of spoken English, despite their being many sources of financing for learning. As a result, according to the British Council (2015), although many students receive financing for English language learning, it remains difficult for them to attend the more prestigious universities in the world as they usually require higher levels of English.

III.2.4 What is the position of internationalisation in the university reform?

The new University Law (Law N° 30220), which was issued in 2014, established internationalisation as one of fourteen university principles. In line with this, the University Higher Education Quality Assurance Policy (*Política de Aseguramiento de la Calidad de la Educación Superior Universitaria*), which is the principal guiding document for the current University Reform, seeks to promote internationalisation of higher education. Additionally, as part of the current reform, it considers the creation of a Policy for the Internationalisation of Peruvian Education, though publication is still pending.

It should be mentioned that, since the start of the programme, there have been a series of ventures aimed at supporting the internationalisation process. First, the establishment of the Peruvian Network for the Internationalisation of Higher Education, (*Red Peruano para la Internacionalización de la Educación Superior*) made up of the *Pontifica Universidad Católica del Perú, Universidad Peruana Cayetano Heredia, Universidad de Lima, Universidad de Piura, Universidad del Pacífico, Universidad Peruano de Ciencias Aplicadas and Universidad ESAN*. The aim of the network is to encourage technical cooperation in research and sciences among partner universities, and also with similar networks in other countries (Mexico has a Network for Internationalisation and Academic and Scientific Mobility and in Colombia there is the Colombian Network for the Internationalisation of Higher Education).

Second, Peru's participation in the NAFSA 2016 International Conference, that takes place in Denver (United States) and which is organised by the *Association of International Educators*, the most important NGO in the world in matters related to education and international exchange, is also notable. Peru's booth was staffed by representatives of the Peruvian Network for the Internationalisation of Higher Education and the United States Embassy in Peru. The country exhibited the internationalisation proposal promoted by MINEDU under the slogan: "Study in Peru: Experience what you learn", aimed at encouraging international cooperation with prestigious universities at an international level.

However, the interviewees agreed that in practice, the different processes that form part of the internationalisation of higher education have still not acquired the role that they could within the university reform programme. For example, as mentioned earlier, there is a trend towards the internationalisation of accreditation

that, if incorporated into the reform, could contribute to improving quality assurance procedures in Peru. Internationalisation could contribute to improving the quality of higher education (for example, through exchanges generated by double diploma agreements or research cooperation), but also towards continual improvement that would facilitate increasingly intense student and teacher exchanges.

Finally, there are some tasks still pending regarding conditions that must be in place in order for internationalisation to develop. One of these is the improvement of levels of spoken English for students and teachers, and the other is the improvement of administrative procedures for the recognition of qualifications and degrees.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The evolution of the higher university education market

- During recent decades, the Peruvian higher university education system has gone through a series of important changes in different areas. Demand has increased significantly. The number of university applicants has increased by almost 60% in the last decade: between 2004 and 2014 it rose from 391,000 to 615,000. This rise in numbers was steeper in private universities, where the increase represented 70% of the total.

- The provision of university level educational services also increased during the same period, mainly as a result of expansion in the private university sector. In contrast, there was almost no increase in public universities. Between 2005 and 2015, 58 universities were created nationwide, reaching a total of 142 universities by 2015. Of the 58 new universities, almost 72% were private universities. Further, between 2005 and 2015, only 15 public universities were created.

- As a result of this increase in provision and demand, between 2004 and 2014, the number of new university students also increased, rising from 132,000 in 2004 to 266,000 in 2014. This increase was possible because of the absorptive capacity of private universities to accept candidates: prior to 2000, the proportion of students enrolled in pubic universities was higher than those enrolled in private universities; however, from 2006 onwards, the proportion of private universities exceeded the figure that corresponded to that of public universities, and in 2014 it represented 63% of the total.

- Greater access to higher university education did not go hand in hand with an improvement in quality. Satisfaction indicators from university graduates that were measured in 2014 show that 25% of graduates would choose to study at a different university than the one that they studied at, and 44% would not recommend their university, while 48% were not satisfied with the infrastructure.

Further, according to data from the II National University Census in 2010 (*II Censo Nacional Universitario*), of the 59 thousand teachers at the universities that the census covered, 53% had Masters Degrees, 4% had PhDs and 14% had some type of II Specialisation. Of those teachers who held post-graduate degrees, only 16% had carried out their study abroad. In terms of infrastructure, graduates felt that it was poor, especially in the case of public universities (especially with reference to the equipping of science and computer laboratories).

- It should be mentioned that not all university graduates went on to quality employment or employment that was appropriate to their level of study. In 2015, around 30% of university graduates had casual work positions. Also in 2012, almost 40% of university graduates were underemployed and received salaries that were lower than the Minimum Living Wage (S/850) in 2015; while 20% of graduates from better universities had an average monthly income of S/5 920.

- With regard to scientific output, the country appears to be far behind in terms of reputation and academic citation. In terms of reputation, the first Peruvian university in the QS World University Rankings 2015-2016, is ranked at number 248. Regarding academic citations, no Peruvian universities are among the top 400 universities with the highest number of academic citations. Almost 30% of universities in Peru do not have research centres. Finally, less than half of university teachers state that they have carried out some type of research in the last two years, and of these teachers, only 62% published their results in an indexed journal[110].

The institutional Framework prior to the reform

- In 1966, the higher university education institutional framework was modified so that private universities could function as profit-seeking companies, in accordance with Legislative Decree N°882. Thus, the expansion of the market in the last 20 years was possible as a result of the relaxing of the policy framework that permitted the entry of corporate groups into the sector.

- In the years before 1996, the only universities that existed were non-profit public and private universities, which were regulated by University Law, Law N° 23733, which had existed since 1983. A central characteristic of Law N° 23733 was that it defined university autonomy in academic and administrative areas for any type of university, private or public. Therefore, Law N° 23733 empowered universities to: i) approve their own statute and govern themselves according to it ii) organise their own academic, economic and administrative system; c) manage their own assets and income, establish a budget and implement their funds in accordance with responsibilities imposed by the law.

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110 National Survey of graduates and universities, 2014 (Encuesta Nacional a Egresados Universitarios y Universidades, 2014)

- Within this framework, the National Assembly of Rectors (*Asamblea Nacional de Rectores*) (ANR), was created, a public and autonomous institution made up of university rectors, whose purpose was to carry out self-regulatory activities. The ANR was responsible for university activities throughout the country, and was responsible for coordinating, evaluating and ensuring quality of university activities, as well as evaluating new universities (public and private).

- Legislative Decree N°882 of 1996, added to this framework the possibility that any legal or natural person could organise profit-seeking educational institutions. This decree sought to increase access to university education in the country. As we have seen, from this moment onwards, there was a significant increase in the number of universities, applicants and students entering universities. However, there is evidence to suggest that the increase in access took place in low cost, little known private universities with low quality education and employability indicators (Yamada and Oviedo, 2016).

- Ten years after this decree, the National System for the Evaluation, Accreditation and Certification of Educational Quality (*Sistema Nacional de Evaluación, Acreditación y Certificación de la Calidad Educativa – Sineace*) was set up (Ley N° 28740). Sineace was created in order to define and establish the criterion, that is the processes, for setting standards and evaluation, accreditation and certification in order to ensure basic quality levels in the whole educational system, including university education. For this, Sineace relied on a Council for the Evaluation, Accreditation and Certification of Quality in Higher University Education (CONEAU), an institution that was responsible for evaluating quality in universities.

- According to SUNEDU (2015), the creation of Sineace was a first attempt at establishing a quality assurance system in higher education run by central government. However, a recent evaluation of the accreditation model for university study programmes observed that the model was centred more on procedures rather than results. The number of standards was excessive, as well as being specific and prescriptive and directed towards identifying conformity on the basis of documentation.

Principal changes as a result of the reform

- The reform is unlike the previous model, in that it recognises that the government should guarantee the quality of higher university educational services, and should not leave this task to the universities themselves, (who previously self regulated through the ANR). For this reason, in the new model this is recognised and a new institutional organisation was set up through which MINEDU assumed the rectorship of the Higher University Education Quality Assurance Policy.

- An initial change in the institutional framework was the elimination of the ANR and the creation of the National Superintendence of Higher Education (*Superintendencia Nacional de Educación Superior Universitaria*) (SUNEDU), whose role was to supervise the quality of services provided by universities. Among it main functions was verifying that universities fulfilled basic quality conditions in order to receive authorisation for their activities, as well as monitoring to ensure that public resources and tax credits awarded to universities were used for educational purposes, and by managing the National Registry of Degrees and Diplomas and imposing penalties in the case of non-compliance.dos y Títulos, e imponer infracciones y sanciones en casos de incumplimiento.

- Sineace was declared to be in a process of reorganisation, and an ad hoc governing board was established until its reorganisation was approved, and a task force was created to present a draft bill for the reform. The task force presented this draft bill in May 2015, in which it proposed the elimination of Sineace and the creation of the Peruvian Council for the Accreditation of Higher Education (*Consejo Peruano de Acreditación de la Educación Superior*) (COPAES). One of the principle functions of COPAES was: (i) to grant institutional accreditation to universities and undergraduate, masters and post-graduate level programmes (ii) to recognise accreditation granted by national and international accrediting institutions (iii) to develop the abilities of specialised professionals and technicians by evaluating the quality of services provided by higher education institutions and their programmes. This draft bill is currently pending approval in the Congress.

- The Quality Assurance in Education Policy, presented by SUNEDU as the axis for its governance for the next 5 years, considers a Quality Assurance System (*Sistema de Aseguramiento de la Calidad*) (SAC) whose purpose was to ensure that universities complied with basic quality conditions and that they could be continually improved. The SAC is based on four pillars of responsibility: i) licensing as a guarantee for basic quality conditions, ii) accreditation for continual improvement, iii) reliable and relevant information, iv) encouragement to improve performance. .

Main results of the evaluation

- The majority of interviewees feel that the law is positive and justified because of the problems experienced by Peruvian universities, and also because of the budgetary pressure caused by maintaining public universities. However, it also suggests that the implementation of the reform is taking place very slowly, which puts it own development and sustainability at risk. .

- Also, they valued the fact that the rectorship was assigned to MINEDU. The majority of interviewees indicated that the absence of a rector had fostered disorganisation in the higher university education market, both in public and private universities. In this sense, the elimination of the ANR and the establishment of SUNEDU are considered to be positive steps.

- With regard to licensing, SUNEDU has developed a gradual implementation plan to ensure that all universities comply with the basic quality conditions (*condiciones básicas de calidad*) (CBC). The implementation plan specifies adaptation periods so that universities are able to comply with the CBC. Adaptation should be completed during the period up until December 2017, which is the last date for universities to remedy any weaknesses that were observed.

- Although the interviewees recognised the general ideas and principles proposed by the law and the final aims of the reform, they consider that licensing per se does not incorporate the procedures for continual improvement and an effective quality improvement dynamic.

- In the case of accreditation, evaluation is not as positive as it could be, as the processes and functions for which Sineace is responsible appear to be incomplete and unclear. The conclusion is that more specific details of implemention of accreditation need to be defined.

- With regard to developing quality, interviewees agreed that one essential requirement is to be able to rely on adequate funding and a university budget. For this reason, they mentioned that all efforts had been concentrated on 12 prioritised public universities, recognised as being "emblematic" or "flagship" universities, who have received an additional allocation of S/ 90 million[111] was a positive development.

- All interviewees agreed that a robust information system was important for facilitating optimal decisions among potential students. As well as carrying out a follow-up of each university's results, this was considered to be an essential part of the quality assurance programme. However, it was also agreed that it would be necessary to define the system design, starting from who manages the system to what factors should be considered in the system.

- One of the changes that was most highly valued by the majority of interviewees was the introduction of election of university authorities by universal vote. This change was considered to be fundamental as a way of resolving the problems of the perpetuation of university authorities, and the mismanagement and corruption associated with public universities. They particularly valued the

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[111] The 12 public instituions in this package are: Universidad Nacional de Ingeniería, Universidad Nacional de La Amazonía Peruana, Universidad Nacional de La Molina, Universidad Nacional de Piura, Universidad Nacional de San Marcos, Universidad Nacional del Altiplano, Universidad Nacional del Centro del Perú, Universidad Nacional Enrique Guzmán y Valle La Cantuta, Universidad Nacional San Agustín de Arequipa, Universidad Nacional San Antonio Abad Del Cusco, Universidad Nacional San Cristóbal de Huamanga and Universidad Nacional Trujillo.

opportunity that these universal democratic processes provide as a way of demanding accountability from the authorities and the discussions about government proposals where all members of the university community are able to participate.

Pending items concerning the regulatory framework

- **Revision of a university model required by the country:** the definition of a particular type of "university model" was implied that focussed on scientific output and research. However, some interviewees mentioned that this definition would cause two problems. On the one hand, not all universities would necessarily follow this model, because as in other countries, it is possible to have universities that are focused solely on training professionals for the labour market rather than on the generation of knowledge. On the other hand, and related to this point, quality standards have been defined, and generally speaking, they have been defined by the traditional "university model" that focussed on scientific output and research, which could be restrictive for some universities.

  With regard to this point, some interviewees mentioned the need to organise and classify universities on the basis of their purpose as well as the quality of their teaching and research. Thus, making reference to international models, they propose to reconcile the role of universities dedicated to teaching and professional training with those that also incorporate research as part of their activities.

- **Strengthening the institutional framework:** The interviewees were unanimous with regard to the need for the government to regulate the higher education sector in Peru. Further, another element that the majority of interviewees agreed about was related to the limited capacity of MINEDU to carry out responsibilities of the rectorship in higher education. Following on, the two pending topics to strengthen the institutionalisation of the reform are the possibility of creating a vice minister for higher education (that would oversee policy, scholarships, institutes, universities, etc.); and the strengthening of SUNEDU (it should regulate technically and independently from MINEDU, as is the case of other regulators).

- **Improvements to the quality assurance system:** in addition to development, accreditation and licencing, the quality assurance systems are monitored through academic audit. This component is not taken into consideration in the reform. The regulations of the law would need to be developed in order to better define SUNEDU's competencies and the procedures for licensing, accreditation, and incentives, among other features included in the law.

- **Inclusion of a budgetary component:** the absence of a specific budgetary component in the law is an element that was mentioned by the interviewees as a negative in the design and which would make adequate implementation of the reform impossible. This topic is relevant if we consider that improvement implies better quality teaching and research, activities that require higher budgets, not just improved management.

- **The absence of a Teachers Law:** the University Law does not take into account the incentives structure necessary to pursue a teaching career at universities. This is especially relevant in the case of public universities. It requires a framework that clearly specifies the teaching career path.

Internationalisation

- **In Latin America, there is a clear increasing trend in the internationalisation of higher education.** There are differences between countries, with the participation of different stakeholders (such as governments, associations or foundations, multilateral organisations and the universities themselves), and this is the reason for gradual changes in the way that educational services are provided in the region.

- **The openness area is one of the most active in Latin America.** Signing agreements for student exchange programmes and double diplomas with foreign universities has become an increasingly frequent strategy for encouraging mobility among Latin American students. In connection with this, governments and their national agencies have in recent years expanded their scholarship programmes unilaterally or in the context of multilateral alliances, especially for students with lower economic resources.

- **In contrast, however, in the area of quality assurance and recognition of qualifications, there is a lack of development and the existence of differences between countries.** Countries have promoted mutual recognition of diplomas through the signing of regional agreements. However, Latin American governments have experienced different levels of progress in terms of signing agreements with countries outside the region. In general, Latin American countries have a very low level of development in quality assurance and recognition of qualification policies, when compared to countries in other regions.

- Following the trends that have been observed in the region, **Peru has also taken clear steps forward in the process of internationalisation of higher education, although comparatively speaking, there is still a lack of development in some areas.** Positive developments have mainly been as a

result of the individual and uncoordinated efforts of some universities, although more recently, expansion of government scholarships has also been noteworthy.

- **One field in which an interesting development towards internationalisation in Peru has taken place is the use of innovative training methods, such as the double diploma or joint degrees.** Peruvian universities have intensified their efforts towards encouraging the creation of agreements with foreign institutions, in this way following regional trends in this field and improving the quality of services in the use of methods and course content from the top universities in the world.

  In the area of recognition of diplomas and quality assurance there are some contrasts in the case of Peru that stand out. First, Peru has been one of the most active countries in the region in the signing of bilateral agreements for mutual recognition of qualifications. However, the experts that were interviewed agreed that the administrative processes were extremely cumbersome and constituted a real limitation. Second, in terms of the quality accreditation processes, there is a contrast between the malfunctioning of quality accreditation on the part of the government and an increasingly active search on the part of universities to obtain accreditation from prestigious international organisations, in this way developing voluntary and modern alternative self-regulatory mechanisms for quality.

- Peru's relative lack of development can mainly be observed in the conditions that are necessary to generate an environment that would favour internationalisation: the level of English spoken among students and teachers, the complexity of administrative procedures for the recognition of qualifications and an inadequate accreditation system. This is single line spacing as opposed to multiple throughout

- Despite the fact that internationalisation could play an important role in the improvement and quality assurance of higher education, in practice, the different processes that form part of the internationalisation of higher education have not yet assumed a role that they could have within the university reform. For example, international accreditation has been increasingly sought by universities as a way of improving and also of signposting the quality of their own programmes, as well as with double diploma programmes with globally recognised universities.

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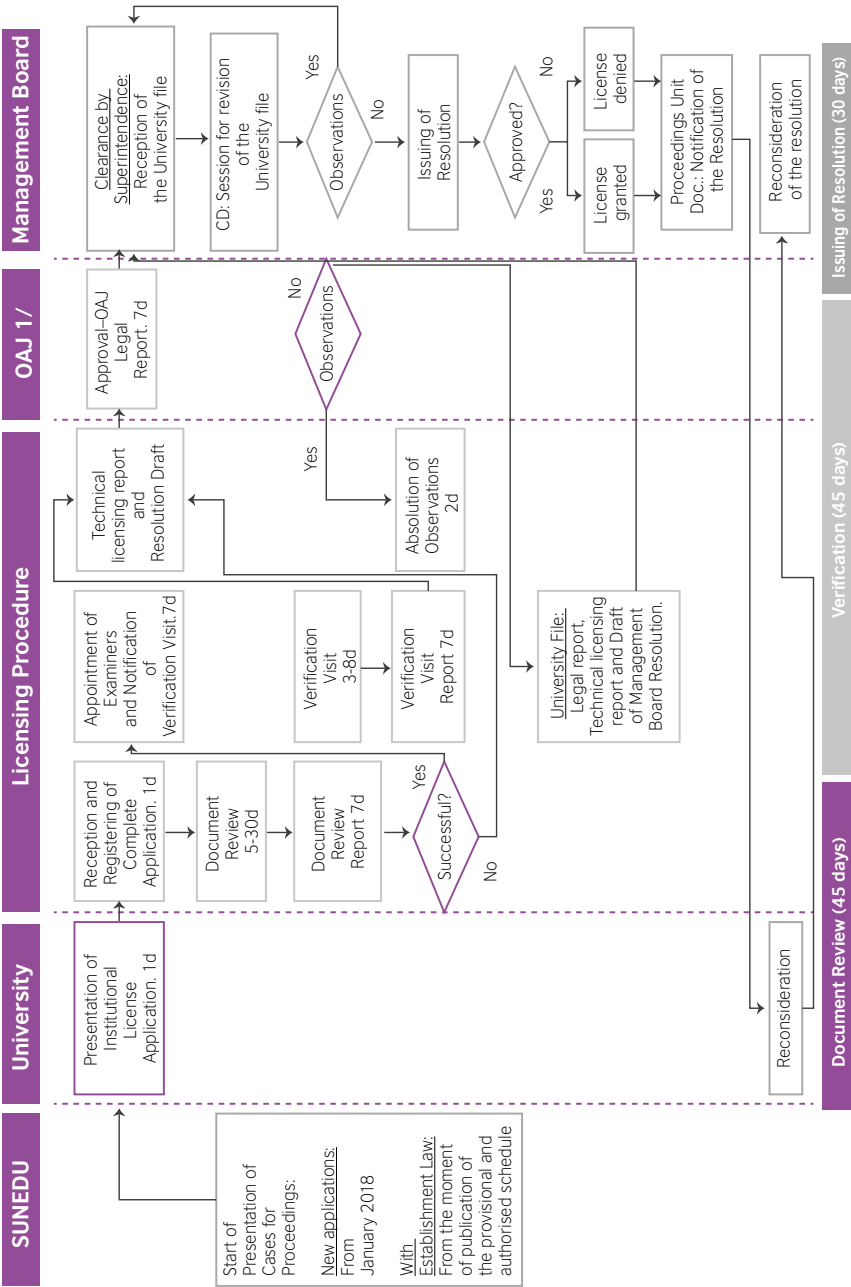2016   *Russia and Peru prepare to sign series of intergovernmental and interdepartmental cooperation documents.*

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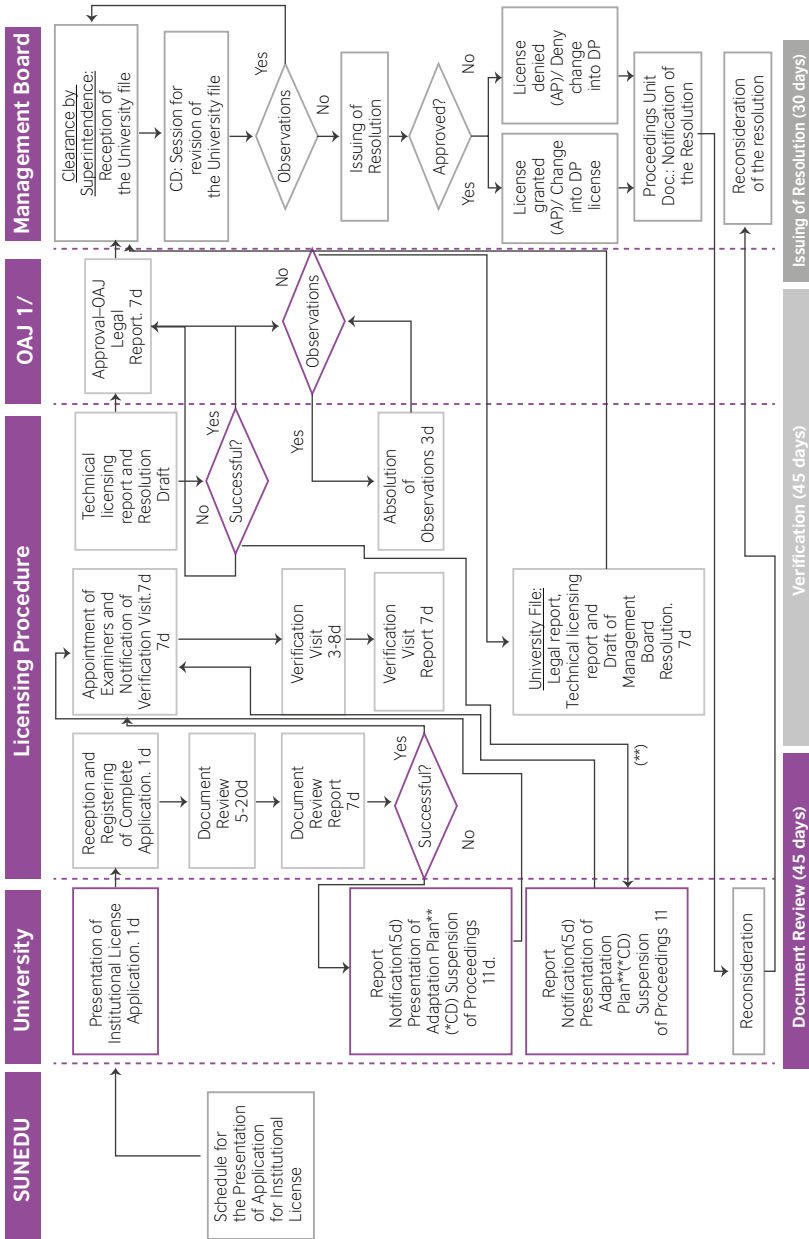
Appendix

Licensing procedures for new universities and with establishment laws

Source: Sunedu

1/ Legal Advisory Office (Oficina de Asesoría Jurídica - OAJ)

Licensing procedure for universities with provisional authorisation (ap) and definitive authorisation (AD)

Management Board

- Clearance by Superintendence: Reception of the University file
- CD: Session for revision of the University file
- Observations — Yes / No
- Issuing of Resolution
- Approved? — No / Yes
- License denied (AP)/ Deny change into DP
- License granted (AP)/ Change into DP license
- Proceedings Unit Doc.: Notification of the Resolution
- Reconsideration of the resolution

OAJ 1/

- Approval–OAJ Legal Report. 7d
- Observations — No

Licensing Procedure

- Technical licensing report and Resolution Draft
- Successful? — Yes / No
- Absolution of Observations 3d
- Appointment of Examiners and Notification of Verification Visit.7d 7d
- Verification Visit 3-8d
- Verification Visit Report 7d
- University File: Legal report, Technical licensing report and Draft of Management Board Resolution. 7d
- Reception and Registering of Complete Application. 1d
- Document Review 5-20d
- Document Review Report 7d
- Successful? — Yes / No
- (**)

University

- Presentation of Institutional License Application. 1d
- Report Notification(5d) Presentation of Adaptation Plan** (*CD) Suspension of Proceedings 11d.
- Report Notification(5d) Presentation of Adaptation Plan**(*CD) Suspension of Proceedings 11
- Reconsideration

SUNEDU

- Schedule for the Presentation of Application for Institutional License

Bottom stage bars:
- Issuing of Resolution (30 days)
- Verification (45 days)
- Document Review (45 days)

Source: Sunedu

1/ Legal Advisory Office (Oficina de Asesoría Jurídica - OAJ)
(*CD): Approval by Management Board
(**): A period for adaptation is only granted for each stage