

## EMERGING ISSUES AND SUGGESTIONS IN THE MANAGEMENT OF TRANSNATIONAL EDUCATION

**Catherine Amimo\***

University of Eastern Africa, Baraton, P. O. Box 2500-30100, Eldoret, Kenya

**Joseph Bosire**

Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology  
P.O. Box 210 - 40601 Bondo – Kenya

\*Corresponding Author E-mail: amimoc2002@yahoo.com

### Abstract

Though Transnational Education (TNA) is historical, it has gained momentum under the auspice of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) administered by World Trade Organizations (WTO). Under this provision Higher education has been marketed a cross boarders with some degree of success. This desktop research delved in analysis of past research on the topic. The objective was to establish the rationale for transnational higher education, and emerging issues over the providers, mode of supply, the potential of the market; pedagogy and curriculum. Past research reveals that Transnational Education (TNA) is anchored in economic, political, cultural and educational rationales. The global market for TNA is largely uneven and asymmetrical between nations. While some nations are largely exporters (UK, US, Australia), others are primarily importers- Africa, Latin America and Central Asia. The modes of provision include cross boarder supply, commercial presence and presence of natural persons. The potential of the market is promising- commercial presence being the largest. The emerging issues include competition, apartheid and cultural imperialism, pedagogical differences, autonomy and control of higher education, loss of learner autonomy and mutual respect, confusions on qualifications and transfer of academic credits, escalated costs, commercialization and commoditization of knowledge, dominant use of English language, and de-contextualizing of curriculum. Quality assurance and accreditation is also at stake since the national/states capacity for regulating the supply of trans-national education is limited. Literature reveals on going debates and emerging responses such as the development of Code of Good practice in the provision of TNE. The study recommends that educational policy makers, researchers and senior administrators should work in collaboration with government, non-governmental organizations and higher education institutions to discuss the various issues raised in view of informing the future direction of TNE.

**Keywords:** Transnational Education, Transactional Theory, Cross-border Education, Global Curriculum, Pedagogy, Virtual Universities, Globalization, Higher Education

### Introduction

The World Trade Organization (WTO), through the General Trade Agreements (GATS), acknowledges education as one of the 12 services for trade across nations. Under this provision, Transnational Education (TNA) is offered. According to UNESCO, TNA refers to all types of higher education study programs, or sets of courses of study or educational services in which the learner can study in a foreign institution without leaving the home country. Such programs or institutions may belong to the education system of a state different from the state in which it operates or may operate inde-

pendently of any national education system (UNESCO, 2013; 2014). As a developing mode of higher education the justification for TNA is still unclear- just as its trends in terms of mode of supply, providers, and potential. Its' different modes of supply has led to terminological and conceptual confusion, besides the emerging issues over its management. This desk top research explored these issues in view of finding suggestions for effective management of TNA. The following questions guided the study;

1. What is the rationale and trends in transnational education in terms of mode of supply, providers, and the potential of the market?



2. What are the emerging issues in the management of transnational education?
3. How can existing national and international quality assurance systems and devices address the quality of programs offered by transnational education providers and the related issues?

### **The Rationale and Trends in Transnational education (TNA)**

In spite of evidence of growth in transnational education in many developing countries, research reveals that the rationale for offering TNA is not fully understood by countries that would potentially benefit from this provision. Such lack of awareness is revealed in the fact that many host countries have very scarce data on the operations of TNA providers within their borders. This section discusses the rationale and trends in transnational education.

#### **Rationale for Transnational Education**

Economic, political, cultural and educational rationales have been used in support of trans-national education. From economic perspective, it is argued that postindustrial development depends on information as the main commodity. This makes education a prime target for trade. Since the national and international demand for higher education is great, especially in developing countries, transnational education fills in the gap. According to UNESCO, education must remain a public good, and knowledge should be availed - freely on the web, and by any other means; especially higher education that serves economic, social, cultural and political needs of nations. World Bank correlates higher education with economic development of emerging countries (Lambert & Brenton, 2006). A study by the British Council revealed that 14 out of 25 countries participating in TNA will attain more than 4% annual economic growth between 2012 and 2014 (British Council, 2013). Besides, TNA is also cost effective. Countries whose governments lack the financial capacity to sustain higher education have permitted new foreign private providers (non-profit and for-profit) to deliver specific education and training programs (Knight, 2006; British Council, 2013; 2014).

Politically, countries have also used educational cooperation to foster diplomacy. This is mani-

festated in increased recruitment of foreign students and international education advisory services. The Organization for Economic Cooperation (OECD) feels that globalization issues on economic and academic realms are essentially political choices; and universities could be the mediators between the state and the civil society, as well as the custodian of the new ethics in response to global challenges. Transnational education is the cornerstone for cultural exchange- it helps to export national, cultural and moral values; increase inter-cultural knowledge, skills and research; expand social learning and development of individuals (Knight, 2006).

Educationally, TNA provides for international dimension of research and teaching; and strengthens the core structures and activities of higher learning institutions; creating sensitivities to multicultural and cosmopolitan globalization effects. It benefits learners in cases where the national system does not; offer a kind of program, provide higher education in minority languages, is too expensive or does not provide opportunities for learning parallel to work. In a study by the British Council and DAAD 85% of TNE students admitted that TNE enhances professional skills, analytical thinking (88%), international outlook (87%), adaptability to change (87%), and problem solving in complex situations (85%)- (British Council, 2014).

It is also argued that innovations in information and communication technologies (ICTS) have offered opportunities that can best be exploited through virtual education. There is also the prestige of studying in a foreign institution, and prospects in migrating to the nation. American immigrant policies encourage high-skilled graduates to migrate- such as those in ICTs and research- though Tsiligiris (2013) argues that TNE has the potential to combat brain drain. Another rationale for TNA is the growing number of mobile jobs in fields such as business, ICTs, engineering, technologies and scientific research. A British Council study showed that a majority (62%) of TNE students believe that their earning potential is enhanced as employers (61%) are positive to TNE graduates (Knight, 2006; Breton, & Lambart, 2006; British Council, 2014).

#### **Trends in TNE: Mode of Supply and Potential of the Market**

Transnational education is supplied in three different forms- namely cross boarder supply, com-

mercial presence, and presence of natural persons. Cross boarder supply (offshore supply) is the provision of service where the service crosses a boarder (This does not require the physical presence of the consumer). It comes in the form of distance education, e-learning and Virtual universities. It is currently a relatively small market; but with great potential, considering increased use new ICTs, especially the internet. Commercial presence represents categories of service providers who establish commercial facilities in another country in order to render educational services. It comes in the form of local branch or satellite campuses, twinning partnerships, and franchising arrangements with local institutions. Franchising is the form of TNE in which a higher education institution (franchiser) from a certain country grants another institution (franchisee) in another country the right to provide the franchiser's programs/qualifications in the franchisee's host country (Knight, 2006).

Mostly, the franchisee only provides the first part of the programs, which is recognized as partial credits towards a qualification at the franchiser's in the context of a "program articulation" - a joint arrangement in which two or more institutions define study credits and credit transfer. In this case students enrolled in one institution have their credits recognized by the other in order to continue their studies. These may -or may not- lead to joint or double degrees. There are also large corporations and international institutions who organize their own higher education program which does prescribe the any one educational system. They many have several branch campuses in several countries; though they are seldom recognized by the host country (Vignoli, 2004; Tsiligiris, 2013). There is growing interests and strong potential for future growth of the commercial presence mode of higher education. However, it is most controversial as it sets international rules on foreign investment. The last mode of supply is presence of natural persons. It involves persons travelling to another country on a temporary basis to provide service -such as professors, teachers, and researchers. This mode of supply, potentially, has a strong market given the emphasis on globalization of professions and mobility of professionals (Knight, 2006).

Currently, the market for TNE is unlimited because it operates on a full capitalist basis. For example, in countries such as Australia and UK the export market can expand freely without cutting on the unit value of global positional goods. The English speaking countries lead in the provision of TNE since English is the preferred language for global business and academics.

There is particularly strong demand for American and British education. UK is the world's 2nd largest market (13% of market) and the fastest growing provider of TNE. Between 2012 and 2013 UK earned 496 million pounds on TNE revenue. Statistics indicate that Australia is also coming up aggressively in the educational trade. An analysis of transnational cooperation indicates that the universities of Melbourne, Monash and Murdoch have developed into global institutions with satellite campuses in Malaysia, South Africa, Africa, London and Italy. There is a transnational capitalist alliance of 21 universities - 'universitas 21' in ten countries; including Australia, China, Canada and UK-offering on line courses with the motive of looking for the "World Best Practice" (Marginson, 2006; Currie, 2006; Ninnes, 2005).

Research shows that the leading market for global education is the Ivy League universities such as Harvard, Stanford and Oxford; which exercise great symbolic power as producers of the highest value of education. Their global status has caused concerns as they overshadow and put other universities in subordinate positions. The Asia -Pacific region which constitute over half of the worlds' population (China, India, Indonesia) has potential for growth in demand for transnational education. Marginson observes that ten of the 16 world cities with over 10 million people are in Asia Pacific-indicating potential for increased demand for higher education. China, Thailand and Indonesia are also hot market destinations, given the increasing demand for tertiary education by the middleclass (Marginson, 2006). Latin America, Africa and Central Asia participate minimally in the global market of education; often as importers. The largest subject market comprise of business studies, information technology, computer science, and widely spoken languages such as, English, Spanish and German (Adam, 2001; Knight, 2006).

### **Issues in Management of Transnational Education (TNE)**

Transnational trade in higher education is deeply entrenched with issues related to autonomy and control, qualifications and transfer of academic credits, quality assurance and accreditation, costs, commercializing and commoditization of knowledge, brain drain, competition, apartheid and cul-



tural imperialism, as discussed in this section.

### **Confusion on Qualifications and Transfer of Academic Credits**

The wide spread of cross boarder deliveries of education has resulted into compromises on quality, as there are confusions on qualifications and transfer of academic credits. The regulatory frame work to deal with the diverse providers is insufficient, as governments lack the capacity to license, regulate and monitor both private and foreign providers, to make sure they operate within national policy objectives. Furthermore, there is need for cooperation among nations, to harmonize domestic/regulatory framework with international framework (Knight, 2007), though it is still debatable whether this move would strengthen rather than weaken the domestic/regulatory framework.

### **Quality Assurance, Accreditation and Recognition**

Where as there is critical need to regulate the global space of higher education to ensure quality (Breton, 2006), nations lack the capacity to address accreditation and quality assessment procedures for academic programs of new private and foreign providers. According to the British Council research, India, Nepal, Srilanka and Turkey hosts foreign institutions without any formal regulatory structure. The research revealed that ten host countries did not have consistent and extensive data on the operations of the foreign institutions (British Council, 2012; 2013). The same report indicates that the processes of achieving accreditation are vague (in Nigeria and China) and restrictive (in Vietnam). The National quality assurance is not only challenged by the complexities of the international education environment, but at times run parallel. For example, in federations such as Canada and Germany, certain GATS conditions that require that all providers, domestic and foreign, be subjected to the same processes and procedures are not honored. A critical question related to quality assurance is whether the recognition/accreditation of the mother institution can be transferred to the branch campus in another country (Rauhvargers, 2004), because “the franchisee is not always recognized in the host country, even if the franchiser’s programmes/qualifications delivered in the home country are recognised in the host country” (Vignoli, 2004).

While program articulation will always be recognized, franchised institutions, branch campuses,

offshore institutions and distance learning will some times be recognized and non- official, international institutions, corporate universities and virtual universities almost never be recognized. There is no possibility for recognition in cases where there are no legal/normative instruments and no “good practice” has been developed in dealing with TNE. A situation where legal/normative instruments exist without implementation procedures could result into a legal framework which is relatively restrictive. Other issues on quality include concern on violation of intellectual property rights. According to Knight (2006) commercialization and commoditization of knowledge production potentially threatens research and scholarly works. Measures taken to stream line quality are, in some cases, too rigid and compromise the national autonomy over its own higher education- when nations are turned into watchdogs- by strict external audits and evaluations and when individual institutions want increased autonomy from government regulations (Knight, 2006; Cloete &Maassen, 2007).

### **The Question on Access and Escalated Costs**

While on one hand liberalized higher education opens access to the highly demanded higher education, on the other hand it commercializes education- in terms of escalated costs; thus threatening the public good nature of educational services (Knight, 2006). Knight wonders if foreign education providers would quench the thirst for higher education in countries with limited access, and whether the governments would give the providers the same grants, subsidies and tax incentives given to public providers under the national treatment obligations of GATS. If this were to happen, he sees a problem of public funds spreading too thinly between domestic and foreign providers. One ethical concern is the fact that, the international trade in education seem to favor countries with the capacity for export. Even though UNESCO endeavors that mobility of courseware does not cause money to flow from poor countries to rich countries, this is often the case (Knight, 2006; Breton, 2006).

### **Commercialization and Commoditization of Knowledge**

Trade – Related Aspects of Intellectual Prop-

erty Rights (TRIPS) agreements on research and scholarly work have the potential of commercializing and commoditization of knowledge production. This has been seen in the over emphasis of research, at the expense of the traditional role of university- teaching, research and service. In addition, a commercial approach to higher education has the potential of jeopardizing the academic relations of countries and institutions, by undermining training/programs (student exchange, internships) which do not have financial benefits, but have spinoff effects on research, curriculum development and teaching for partners. It is even debatable that bilateral and multilateral education agreements would automatically enhance rather than jeopardize research, curriculum development and other academic aspects. As long as the trade concept dominates, the educational rationales for higher education such as social, cultural and scientific developments could be compromised (Tan & Mok, 2004; Knight, 2007).

### **Competition, Apartheid and Cultural Imperialism**

As Marginson (2006) observes, the education global market is largely uneven and asymmetrical between nations; with the English speaking countries dominating. As reported by Mohamedbhai (2006) in some countries there is a perceived threat of a “coup” by foreign providers. Institutions have responded differently to the looming threat; while some have “asked their governments to protect them from the ‘foreign invaders’, and the government has responded by imposing a moratorium on new distance education” p.170, others have responded by competing in the global market. For example one South African institution was granted a contract, against competition from British institutions, to offer distance health education programs in Turkey and Israel. Still, other institutions respond by forming partnerships with the private and foreign providers; adopting an entrepreneur approach (the European Consortia of Innovative Universities- ECIU). Those with financial constraints have opted to open their borders to global foreign providers (Mohamedbhai, 2006).

Global apartheid is felt as the universities in the North dominate the platform for global knowledge production. During a summit on sustainable Development (WSSD) President Mbeki, in his address to a crowd of protesters remarked that “the greatest enemy to development is global apartheid” (Moja, 2006). Elements of segregation are evident in international organizations’

treatment of education. For instance, EOCED is keener in fostering partnership and funding of higher education in China-the world’s fastest growing economy than in Africa and South America. This sentiment confirms Mishra-Tarc, Ng-A-Fook, and Trilokekar (2013) fears that TNA could be reviving colonialism.

The issue of hybridization and fusion of cultures (acculturation) through cross boarder supply of education is a major concern; particularly, the argument that there is growing lack of sensitivity to the cultural bias of exported education, and the greater risk of undermining certain indigenous cultures and compromising the very spirit of internalization (Knight, 2006; British Council, 2013; Tsiligiris, 2014). There are concerns over partnerships that could perpetuate inequalities between institution and students in the same institution. For instance, in a partnership between Tufts and Makerere Universities in a political science course, poor students who can not afford technological equipment get short changed (Mohamedbhai, 2006).

### **Theoretical Challenges**

A theory is a synthesis of knowledge accumulated in a given field, often represented in symbols, diagrams, or models which assume authority as more and more scholars and researchers find it useful. The usefulness of a theory depends on how well it helps in describing, explaining, predicting and offering guidance in understanding a given phenomenon. As Petrella (2006) argues there are theoretical confusions surrounding globalization agenda, as it relates to TNA. Theoretical weaknesses are realized in the non-critical approaches and humanization (social regulation) of knowledge- that is the susceptibility of academics to the demands and ideas of the dominant political world. The theses on information and communication society are scientifically weak, hence a weak theoretical foundation for TNA. If we are to adopt modernization theory that seem to be driving TNE, then the whole binary and logic that “developing” countries need leap frog to the standards of the developed countries (Ninnes, 2005) is illogical since the developed countries themselves did not “leap frog” to where they are today.

### **Pedagogical Issues in Trans-national education (TNA)**



Alexander (2006) defines pedagogy as “the discourse which attends the act of teaching” p. 724 thus “combines the act of teaching and its attendant discourses” p.725. He clarifies that in all practical sense teaching is not the same as pedagogy, because teaching is both a practical and an observable act. Pedagogy covers “that act with the purposes, values, ideas, assumptions, theories and beliefs which inform, shape, and seek to justify it” p 724. The teaching act comprises of activities, interactions and judgments which are framed by space, student organization, time and curriculum, and by routines, rules and rituals- it actually makes teaching a cultural activity. The class processes and procedures are closely related to greater questions of culture, region, agency, policy, and power control (Alexander, 2006; 2009). The different pedagogies practiced by different educational systems create problems in transnational education (TNA). This section discusses pedagogical issues.

### **Confusion arising from Pedagogical Differences**

Alexander (2006) carried a comparative pedagogical analysis study of five countries and identified six prevailing constellations of teaching as follows; (1) teaching as transmission (2) teaching as induction (3) teaching as facilitation (4) teaching as negotiation (5) teaching as acceleration (6) teaching as a technology. In teaching as transmission model, the teachers see their role as passing of information. This model is predominantly practiced in India. Teaching as induction treats knowledge as a cultural good; the methods are expository and recitations, extending into argumentative talk by the learners in a bid to make sense of what they learn. France education system was the most inductive among the five countries studied. Teaching as negotiation represents a democratic pedagogy. It rejects the traditional domination-subordination relationship between teacher and students. In this model the child is an active agent in his/her learning, and the classroom a workshop or a laboratory. The study revealed that the model was best practiced in America.

Teaching as facilitation advocates for the principle that children have their own way of thinking seeing and feeling. As observed by Alexander (2006) It is based on Piagetian idea that children go through the same developmental processes though at different rates, and Rousseau’s and Froebel’s ideas that learners should not be pushed but be let to learn at their own pace when they feel ready. The teachers’ role is

to facilitate not to direct. United States and England demonstrate use of this pedagogy. Alexander asserts that teaching as acceleration derives from Vygotsky’s famous maxim that “the only good teaching is the one which outpaces development” p. 726. This model is diametrically opposed to the principle of readiness. It aims at capturing the momentum of a lesson and driving it forward; it requires a proper balance between the cognitive and interactive (cultural). Finally, teaching as a technology is guided by the principles of structure, economy, conciseness, and rapidity, and implemented through standardized procedures and materials. This model of pedagogy is common in eastern and central Europe, Bohemia, Germany and Russia.

This comparative analysis reveals pedagogic differences that hinder TNA success. For instance, Indian/ Asian students who study in an American university are likely to encounter pedagogical difficulties because the American democratic pedagogy is antithesis to the Indian pedagogy of transmission. Likewise, the Indian/ Asian students who study in a France university may not cope with the required disputations, since their style is passive. Students from the Asian cultures, in particular, are more used to lecture style of teaching, and may be uncomfortable with online interactions and learning styles of many Western universities. Students from cultures which emphasize passive learning and respect for authority may not have the skills to engage in independent, self-directed learning, and critical/analytical thinking required by Western education. Assessment mechanisms of the Western cultures discriminate against the preferred learning styles of international students (Alexander, 2006; 2009). The different pedagogical encounters of students taking a foreign education can lead to the psychosocial dynamics inherent to the “shock” of cultural differences (Mishra-Tarc, Ng-A-Fook and Triloke, 2013).

### **The Dominant Use of English Language in TNE**

As pointed out by Ziguras (2007) and Tsiligiris (2012, 2014) the use of English as the medium of instruction in transnational partnerships and offshore delivery can be problematic for the real quality of education. Tsiligiris reasons that, neither the instructors nor the students in host countries “have the ability to perform at their full capacity as teachers and learners respectively using English”. In other

words, the use of English could actually hinder the teaching and learning experiences and not really reassure quality and comparability as often suggested by the awarding institution. Tsiligiris (2012) points out the irony of internalization without use of other languages of the world in higher education. He argues that “the use of English as the dominant language in transnational higher education increases the intensity of the arguments inside host countries that transnational education distorts national cultures and promotes homogenisation towards a globalised society”- these sentiments are supported by Morris (2005).

### **The Effect of the Amount of Transactional Distance on Learning Outcome**

Since transnational education is mostly through e-learning, the transactional distance that is created in the encoding, decoding, reception and noise is a great concern. According to Moore (2008) transactional distance is positively related to the size of the learning group, familiarity of language and dialects, and the qualities of the medium through which the signal is transmitted. These include issues of noise, speed, and lag. A textbook and study guide with only internal dialogue would be considered to have a high transactional distance. A synchronous discussion carried out by audio conferencing would be lower (Martindale, 2002). The issue that arises from this is the effect of the amount of transactional distance on learning outcome.

### **Questions on Learners’ Autonomy and Mutual Respect**

In technologically enhanced learning, the instructor’s role which is usually technical, managerial, social, and pedagogical, may promote a greater intensity of control. This combined with the rigidity of programs violates the learner’s autonomy; thereby contradicting the flexibility always assumed in distance and on-line education. Violation of the learners’ autonomy further interferes with the principle of mutual respect with regard to ‘privacy’ of the student. The main concern here is, how can discipline be maintained? How can abuses and poor teaching be controlled? (Sherry, 1996; Cormier, 2008).

A study by Kanuka, Collet and Caswell (2002) revealed that before teaching an online course the faculties are more concerned with the structural and dialogic issues such as technological operations and

creating collegial relationships; the later being more challenging. In this study the faculty confessed that they were beginning to see the students as email addresses or “little red flags” rather than people, and they missed seeing the physical features, paralinguistic cues, and other types of changes that people make over a semester. Instructors reported difficulty in knowing when to give feedback to the group and when to give it individually by e-mail. As observed by the researchers, the separation of learners and teachers can profoundly affect both teaching and learning, because it creates psychological and communications spaces that can potentially lead to misunderstanding between the inputs of instructor and those of the learner.

### **Emerging Curriculum Issues**

Among the curriculum issues noted is the question on the content of the curriculum; specifically, how to integrate the local curriculum, such that the knowledge from the host country is accommodated. UNESCO’s assistant director warns that there is danger in selling education outside the frontiers of a country as this attempt to impose same standards everywhere and dissociate education from the social, cultural and political origins of a country (Ziguras, 2006, citing James). Such de-contextualized ‘globalized’ curricula, which only reflects the context of the curriculum developer, inhibits genuine participation of the students; because it fails to recognize their prior skills, community knowledge, understanding, and experiences they bring into the classroom (Moriss, 2005; Ninnes, 2005). There are fears that the seemingly highly skilled graduates do not necessarily address the local skill gap. However, if programs are to be adapted to the needs of the host country, will they still be the same degrees/qualifications as in the sending country? (Rauhvargers, 2004; British Council, 2014). Lecturers also get challenged on how to design a course so that the material engages students’ prior knowledge and their skills (from diverse backgrounds), and on whether the intent should be to build on that knowledge, interrogate it, or situate new ways of thinking; yet, observing student differences provides valuable clarity for both students and instructors; and enriches the teaching and learning experiences (Tarc, Mishra-Tarc, Ng-A-Fook, & Trilokekar, 2013).

Another concern is that attempts to orient the



curriculum to the imperatives of globalization, often centers on Euro-American culture. As noted by Curriculum Corporation, "For centuries Europeans considered themselves to be at the worlds' center... these Eurocentric views and images still persist" p.3 (cited by Singh, 2006, p.124). Critics are of the opinion that globalization agenda for education should promote local knowledge and identities. They shun the current domineering of knowledge networks by American symbols, culture and linguistics. Singh (2006) proposes that "in order to replace the Euro-American forms of global/national history, it is strategically important to engage Majority World interpretations and analyses on equal bases" p. 124. The world has amassed great store house of knowledge "from China to India, Africa to the Arab world, from Greece to Rome, to the Amerindas and Kant" (Petrella, 2006, p.131) - this would form a global curriculum.

While it is the responsibility of full-time members of faculty, grounded in the body of knowledge a particular discipline, to draw up the curriculum for the specific courses, some of the universities exporting higher education have relegated the assignment to adjunct lecturers. This often leads to lack of coherence in the course design and development; and further discrepancies between the main campus curriculum and those of satellite campuses (Swenson, 2006). The problem is compounded, especially when the outsourcing of content is between educational providers and technological companies; and when the course design and content development is separated from the process of testing and assessment (Currie, 2006). The academic staff are also concerned that squeezing programs into modules or 'unit standard methodology, and the construction of qualifications from multiple units of learning, are inappropriate foundations for certain academic programmes' (Ensor, 2007 p. 18).

### **Suggestions on Effective Management of Transnational Education (TNE)**

As a result of the many issues raised in the management of TNE, a set of regulations have been structured at regional and national levels to enhance good practice. Examples are the UNESCO/Council of Europe code for good practice for provision of TNE and Good Practice in Transnational Education a guide for New Zealand. Among other things these two guides point out that it is important to; have a written agreement between TNE partners, ensuring equivalence

in curriculum, teaching materials and assessment, adhere to specific requirements of national legislation; recognize the cultures and customs of both countries, and embed the curriculum in the same- so that students can reflect on the similarities and differences of experiences at global, regional, national and local context. Research suggests that adherence to these regulations will enhance good practice. For effective management, TNE should be considered as part of a well thought out international business strategy, rather than a peripheral activity. This involves exploring the current phase of the market life cycle and future prospects (Ziguras, 2007; Tsiligiris, 2014).

The providing institutions should dedicate resources to supporting the future development and transformation of its TNE operations in response to market cycle demands, especially capacity building efforts in host countries. Further, higher education institutions should set up bilingual programs embedded in a real international dimension. Recognition of certification can be enhanced by the systematic use of the diploma Supplement (DS) developed as an initiative of the European Commission, the Council of Europe and UNESCO/CEPES (Vignoli, 2004; Ninnes, 2005; Tsiligiris, 2014). Regulation difficulties can be solved by use of regional regulation frameworks, though this may injure the autonomy of national educational systems. Vignoli has particularly noted that countries with more open regulatory frame works such as Austria, Netherlands and Norway have fewer problems with TNE because they tend to absorb non official higher education by formalizing it as it comes-this model allows for some degree of control.

According to Vignoli the quality of franchised programs/qualification can be enhanced by integrating the programs/qualification in the official system of the awarding country. In this case, the exported program must be recognized in the original country. Similarly, offshore and international institutions can have their courses legitimized through alliances with well established institutions. Label quality can be obtained by acquiring international accreditation by private agencies in thematic areas. All these measures should be done with some flexibility because rigid control may be in conflict with the regional or international laws. A better approach would be to create mechanisms or incentives which encourage transnational institutions to submit to the quality assurance procedures that apply to official



higher education in the host country (Vignoli, 2004).

To strengthen the theoretical foundation for TNA, particularly the pedagogical aspects, a number of theories have been suggested - the theory of social reconstruction, the pedagogy of the oppressed, Holmbergs theory of teaching distance education, Kegaans' theory of integrating teaching and learning, Garrisons' theory of communication and learner control and Moores' transactional theory (Garrison, 2000; Rando, 2008; Bernath, & Vidal, 2006). While the theory of social reconstruction seem appropriate for innovative curricula and pedagogical strategies -that contribute towards construction of a new consciousness of collective international social cooperation, educators such as Freire argue that it is the pedagogy of the oppressed that will help to arouse this consciousness (Garrison, 2000).

Transactional theory seem to get more acceptance in recent research- the argument being that it logically in cooperates the concepts and the physical attributes that describes the use of electronics in e-learning, blended learning, and wired/wireless telecommunication in online learning and distance education. Out of the 93 authorities cited at 17 conferences of international Council for distance education between 1938-1995, the theory of transactional education was third in position. The chapter on transactional distance in Keegan's theoretical principles of distance education is the second most widely cited item. In spite of this much support, critics argue that transactional theory is too descriptive (Moore, 2007; Ramdoo, 2008).

To solve the pedagogical issues instructors are advised to embrace techno- social pedagogies-using technology for knowledge and cultural reproduction and teaching students the right terms, symbols and routines required to interact with technology (Jon, 2004; Brown, 2006; Moore, 2008). In response to disjunctive national/global flows, Singh (2005) suggests that there should be "vital learnings" across the curriculum to enable students to take advantage of the historical, ideological, and localizing practices of globalization-producing worthwhile knowledge from the prospects there in. Referring to Stiglitz, Breton and Lambert (2006) suggest that "for globalization to benefit all there is need to share growth in a more equitable manner" (p. 173) and the establishment of Global Development Learning Networks (Ninnes, 2005).

## Conclusion

The manner in which TNE is provided is provoking more debates and questions than clear cut answers about its impact and implications for higher education. The debates come from a wide range of issues ranging from the management, pedagogical and curriculum. Questions on these three aspects have only generated a few responses from scholars across the globe. A major concern is lack of awareness on the operations of TNA providers in the host countries, based on the evidence of scanty data found in host countries; meaning that quality can easily be compromised if there as no audits. While the quality issues have received a lot of attention, the pedagogical and curriculum issues have not been fully exhausted in past research. The researchers recommend that Educational policy makers, researchers and senior administrators should work in collaboration with government, non-governmental organizations and GATS officials to discuss the various issues raised in view of informing the future direction of transnational educational.

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