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1. WHAT IS TRANSNATIONAL EDUCATION?

Many universities in industrialized countries maintain branch campuses overseas, and have students who are learning (face-to-face, blended, e-learning) in countries that are different from the country of the academic institution. This approach of internationalization in postsecondary education is referred to as transnational education (Allport, 2002; Goodfellow, Lea, González, & Mason, 2001). What are the factors that explain the emergence of transnational education? How does transnational education differ from other concepts like comparative education, international education, and global education? What are the perspectives related to transnational education? What are the challenges and issues related to transnational education? These represent a few among many questions that people tend to ask about transnational education. The purpose of this chapter is to provide some short tentative answers or reflections in the following paragraphs. The focus of this chapter is on transnational higher education. However, practices of transnational education involve P-20 (i.e., Pre-school through Graduate education) and non-formal education.

ABOUT TRANSNATIONAL EDUCATION

In simple etymological terms, the word “transnational” implies actions, practices, or contacts that extend or go beyond national boundaries. Used in a combination with other concepts, the term transnational will still imply the idea of transactions across national borders, but will also hold specific contextual meaning. In that context, the Asia-Pacific European Cooperation (APEC) defines transnational education as

... all types and modes of delivery of higher education study programs, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based. Such programs may belong to the education system of a State different from the State in which it operates, or may operate independently of any national education system. (APEC, 2013)

This is in alignment with the UNESCO and the *Revised Code of Good Practice in the Provision of Transnational Education* developed by the Council of Europe and UNESCO, and recognized by the U.S. as good practice in that area. Also, the

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revised code of good Practice in the provision of transnational education recognizes transnational arrangements, which refer to

... an educational, legal, financial or other arrangement leading to the establishment of (a) collaborative arrangements, whereby study programmes, or parts of a course of study, or other educational services of the awarding institution are delivered or provided by another partner institution; (b) non-collaborative arrangements, whereby study programmes, or parts of a course of study, or other educational services are delivered or provided directly by an awarding institution. (APEC, 2007, p. 4)

The UNESCO/OECD guidelines for quality provision in cross-border education explains that cross-border higher education “takes place in situations where the teachers, student, programme, institution/provider or course materials cross the national jurisdictional border” (UNESCO/OECD, 2005, p. 5). According to the British Council, transnational education refers to situations where “students study towards a foreign qualification without leaving their home country” (British Council, 2013, p. 6). The British Council (2013) acknowledged that its conceptualization of transnational education is inspired by definitions provided by leading multilateral agencies such as Council of Europe, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and The German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD). It is worth noting that the definition of the British Council focuses exclusively on the mode of delivery aspect of such concept. However, other definitions have captured facets of transnational education that go beyond delivery mode. For example, the Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE) asserts that transnational education involves

any teaching or learning activity in which the students are in a different country (the host country) to that in which the institution providing the education is based (the home country). This situation requires that national boundaries be crossed by information about the education, and by staff and/or educational materials. (GATE, 1997, p. 1)

Similarly, the UNESCO/Council of Europe asserted that transnational education includes:

All types of higher education study programmes, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based. Such programmes may belong to the education system of a State different from the State in which it operates, or may operate independently of any national education system. (Council of Europe, 2002, para. 28)

Transnational education is also referred to as borderless education, cross-border education or offshore education (Healey, 2015). Transnational education includes

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not only the provision of educational programs and services that transcend national borders, but also the policies and scholarship that are link to such provision. In a nutshell, transnational education concerns (a) educational activities or programs, which implementation requires regular and sustained academic contacts, between learner and academic provider, across national borders of a provider's country and one or more host's countries; (b) scholarship reflecting trends or patterns across nation-states; and/or (c) involving learners located in a nation-state that is different from that of the providing institution. As a result, scholars and practitioners concerned by transnational education can be located at the national and international levels.

The scholarship about educational practices across national borders is an integral part of transnational education. For example, a scholar who is investigating patterns of education reforms across the South American countries would be conducting a transnational educational research study. In that context, such researcher would be interested in patterns that go beyond one single nation-state. The purpose will not necessary be to make comparison like a researcher in comparative international education would do. The focus would be on exploring patterns across all the countries concerned by the research study. Obviously, the exploration of patterns that go beyond the reality of any given country would undoubtedly include facets between the nations. It is not possible to look at transnational patterns without considering the national contexts first. By the same account, transnational patterns can be uncovered only after cross-national patterns have been explored. In other words, the transnational research study on education reforms across the South American countries would involve national data, comparison of national data, and exploration of trends or patterns beyond comparisons of individual countries.

Further, a higher education administrator who makes a decision to open a branch campus overseas is automatically involved in leadership for transnational education. The leadership practice of such administrator may or may not reflect transnational mindedness. Regardless, such administrator is still leading a transnational education program. An instructor who decides to teach in a joint degree program overseas is automatically involved in transnational education. The utilization of a transnationally oriented pedagogy may not be automatic. However, the interactions and the context of such instructional practice are still transnational. A scholar who is conducting research on the negative consequences of offshore campuses by industrialized countries in developing countries is automatically involved in transnational education. The involvement in transnational education does not automatically signify the support for such phenomenon. By the same token, a scholar who has studied and critiqued globalization is not an apologist, but a scholar on globalization studies. In other words, a scholar who is critical of transnational education would be considered a scholar in transnational education studies. A scholar who is interested in teaching and learning practices or students' experiences in transnational education programs or activities would be equally a scholar in transnational education studies. The same would be true for research on intercultural interactions, or language issues,

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or financial implications, or policies and regulations, marketing, or other similar topics in relation to transnational education activities or programs.

PERSPECTIVES ON TRANSNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

Through transnational education programs, students have the opportunity to earn degrees from a foreign postsecondary institution without leaving their countries of residence. As indicated earlier, transnational education is based on a philosophy inspired by the practices of transnational corporations that constantly seek to expand their markets by reaching customers across national borders. In that context, transnational education programs and activities enable market-oriented colleges and universities, mostly in Western countries, to generate extra income that can help them face the challenges of budget cuts (Cruz, 2010; Keller, 2011; Labi & McMurtrie, 2010; Spongenberg, 2010). Students involved in transnational education programs are expected to adapt to curriculum and instructional practices dictated by foreign institutions that they are attending while leaving in their home countries. It is not uncommon that faculty and other educational stakeholders challenge the ethics, purpose, value, quality, relevance, as well as teaching and learning practices of transnational education. On the other hand, one may argue that transnational education is rooted in a philosophy of self-transcendental learning, which is the idea to seek interests beyond one's self. Therefore, transnational higher education is not just about mode of delivery, but also has philosophical and pedagogical implications that existing definitions fail to capture. I argue that transnational higher education programs can exist through multiple perspectives, which can be philosophical, pedagogical, and delivery mode oriented.

Philosophical perspectives: The philosophical perspective concerns the borderlessness nature of transnational education. Transnational education enables higher learning to crossing and building bridges across nations in the world regardless of geographic boundaries. Although there is a utilitarian and market-based facet of transnational education, it nevertheless carries some seeds for self-transcendence learning. Therefore, transnational education expresses a way of seeing the world that has potential to foster transcultural understandings over time. Therefore, transnational education programs may aim to train graduates who will have transcultural knowledge and skills (a) to work on issues at the local, regional, national, or transnational levels; (b) work for or lead local, regional, national, international or transnational institutions or organizations; or (c) to critically study, and analyze transnational education arrangements and programs. In other words, transnational education concerns not only the aims of related programs, but also the scholarship (i.e., theories, research, and critiques) about such programs.

Pedagogical perspectives: The pedagogical perspectives concern the academic aspects of transnational education, which emphasizes on curriculum and instructional approaches that make the local, regional, or national context, an integral part of the teaching and learning practices, to foster transcultural understandings. In other words, transnational education involves globally informed pedagogy, which

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accounts for learning style preferences and cultural dimensions, glocal awareness, glocal knowledge, and glocal competence (Jean Francois, 2015).

Perspectives related to mode of delivery: The perspectives on mode of delivery are related to the modes of provision of higher learning by an institution of a country to learner who are physically located in another country or across nation-state borders (transnational students), based on the model of transnational corporations. Transnational education includes various transnational arrangements (i.e., dual degrees, double degrees, franchising, branch campuses).

TYOLOGIES OF TRANSNATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Transnational education in its substance has been around for a long time. Distance education programs that enroll students from another country were an early form of transnational education. Rai and Quinn (2008) from the University of London asserted that the creation of the University of London External System, in 1858, enabled to award degrees to students who received instruction from their curriculum while such students were physically located in a different countries. Open University started in 1969 to provide distance education for British citizens, especially the military service members living overseas. However, by the end of 1980, Open University enrolled students from several other European countries, such as Belgium, Holland and Luxembourg (The Open University, 2015). The provision of online education, in the late 1990s, for overseas students is another early form of transnational education.

According to the World Trade Organization (2015), “The GATS distinguishes between four modes of supplying services: cross-border trade, consumption abroad, commercial presence, and presence of natural persons” (para. 1).

Cross-border supply concerns “services flows from the territory of one Member into the territory of another Member” (WTO, para 1). This service crosses the borders of nations, but does not require the physical movement of members of the nations or countries involved. A distance education program or an online program offered by an institution located in a country “A” attended by a student of a country “B”. This would not be possible in the context of an international education program. The student would need to leave country “B” to travel to country “A” to study. The student would need to satisfy the immigration requirements in order to be granted entrance and temporary residence within the national borders of country “A”. In a transnational education program, the immigration policies do not apply to the student. Only the academic and the financial requirements matter. Therefore, lack of permission for entrance and temporary residence into the national border of country “A” cannot prevent the student from country “B” from earning a degree from an institution located in country “A”.

In consumption abroad, a consumer moves from his/her national place of residence to another country in order to receive a service. A student who participates in a joint degree program between two universities would constitute an example of consumption abroad.

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Commercial presence refers to the fact that a service provider from a country establishes a physical presence in another country to offer its services. A university in a country “A” that starts a branch campus in a country “B” is an example of commercial presence within the GATS framework.

Presence of natural persons occurs when a representative of a service provider travels to another country to provide services on behalf of its company or institution. A faculty from a university “A” who travels to teach courses to students in a country “A” is an example of the presence of natural persons within the context of the GATS.

Transnational education includes various facets of branch campus abroad (Kinser & Levy, 2005), off-shore institution established in a host country (Vignoli, 2004), franchising (Vignoli, 2004), cross-national degree programs by international institutions (Vignoli, 2004), and distance learning arrangements and virtual universities (Kinser & Levy, 2005; Vignoli, 2004), and partner-supported delivery (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). The delivery of transnational education programs involves a providing institution or a provider country and a host institution or a host country.

AN ALTERNATIVE TYPOLOGY OF DELIVERY MODE OF TRANSNATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

I argue that there are three major types of delivery mode in transnational education services: Distance models, in-country delivery models, and blended models.

Distance Models (DM)

Distance models include the delivery mode that involves only the mobility of program and curriculum without any physical contacts in curriculum and instructional practices between the learner and the providing institution. Some examples of distance models are online learning, instructional audio/visual, correspondence education, and Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC).

Online learning: Transnational online education is provided when a learner studies or receives a degree from his/her own country via the Internet, from a provider institution located in a different country. The Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC) offer an evolving version of transnational online education. MOOCs can be taken by an unlimited number of students from any country, provided that one has access to the Internet.

Instructional audio/visual: Transnational instructional audio/visual education occurs when an academic program is delivered by a providing institution from a provider country to students residing in another host country, either by radio or television. The courses can be taken via live transmission or rebroadcasting.

Correspondence education: In a transnational correspondence education program, a providing institution from a provider country provides instructions to students in a host country via printed, audio, or video materials.

In-Country Delivery Models (IDM)

The in-country models involve the fact an institution of one country establishes a physical presence in another country (directly or through a third party) in order to provide educational services or programs. In-country delivery models include overseas branch campuses (OBC), franchising, validation, dual/double degree without student mobility.

Overseas branch campuses (OBC): As the name implies, an overseas branch campus is a satellite campus established by a postsecondary institution of a provider country in another host country to grant some or all academic programs offered at the main campus.

Franchising: Franchising is a form of transnational arrangement through which a higher education institution from a provider country authorizes a host provider in another country to offer academic programs and services to learners in the host country, while the degrees or diplomas bear the seal and signatures of the provider institution.

Validation: Validation is an agreement between a provider institution of a country and a host institution in another country whereby the provider institution grants degrees to students for courses taken at the host institution, based on a curriculum and quality assessment by the provider institution. In other words, a host institution develops a program, and teaches the courses. Then, a provider from another country assesses the curriculum and quality of the program developed by the host institution, and decides to grant degrees to students based on the results of such assessment.

Dual/double degree without student mobility: A dual/double degree approach occurs when an institution from a provider country and another institution from a host country agree to offer programs through which students receive a degree from each institution. A double degree without student mobility combines face-to-face (at the host institution) and distance (from provider institution) instructions without leaving his/her own country, but receives a degree from each institution.

Blended Models (BM)

The blended models include transnational education activities that require a short-term physical presence of the representative (s) of an institution of one country in another country or some student mobility within the context of a transnational arrangement. Blended models can be in the forms of twinning, fly-out-approach, double degree with student mobility, joint degree, and consecutive degrees.

Twinning: Twinning is a form of articulation between a postsecondary institution in a provider country and another institution in a host country that allows learners to complete part (courses) of an academic program with the host institution and receive credits to be transferred towards the completion of a degree bearing the seal and signatures of the providing institution, at the provider country.

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Flying approach: The flying approach is a transnational arrangement whereby a providing institution is responsible to send its faculty to provide short-term intensive courses in another country, and the rest of the courses will be taught either by local faculty or by distance.

Dual/double degree with student mobility: In a double degree with student mobility, the learner receives face-to-face instructions in both the host and provider countries, and receives a degree from each institution.

Joint degree: A joint degree program is a transnational articulation whereby a provider institution of a country and a host institution in another country agree for students to study during specific periods at each institution, and receive one degree bearing the seal and signatures of both institutions.

Consecutive degrees: In a transnational consecutive degree program, a student receives two successive degrees from an institution in a provider country and another institution in a host country with various levels of mobility, as determined by a transnational arrangement.

TRANSNATIONAL EDUCATION AND THE *TGICE FAMILY*

I use the acronym *TGICE family* to refer to transnational, global, international, and comparative education. The *TGICE family* concern theories, practices, and scholarship that include at least two different national education systems. Transnational education is related to comparative, global, and international education. All the aforementioned concepts convey the idea of an education that does not involve just one national education system, although there can be an exception for comparative education (i.e., comparative education can be within a nation or between nations). However, there are conceptual differences between (a) transnational education and comparative education, (b) transnational education and global education, and (c) transnational education and international education.

Transnational education and comparative-international education: Transnational education includes some facet of comparative education, which is comparative-international education. Comparative education is not necessarily about the comparison of national education systems. Comparative education research can be conducted inside one nation-state, to compare two educational units (e.g., schools, school districts, programs, regions, instructional practices, or units). This comparison may not have anything to do with what is happening outside the borders of a country. On the other hand, comparative education research can focus on two national education systems or aspects or units of the educational systems of two different countries. This would be an activity within the domain of comparative international education. In that context, there is a relationship between transnational education and comparative international education. While comparative international education focuses primarily on similarities and differences between the nations being compared, transnational educational research would focus on patterns across the nations under consideration or on educational practices, issues, or challenges

regarding the provision of education by an institution located in a country different from that of the learners. In order to identify patterns across or beyond two or more nations, some form of comparison is necessary. In that regard, comparative international education is a facet of transnational education.

Transnational education and international education: In a nutshell, international education refers to educational activities that involve two nation-states or citizens of two different countries within the pre-existing system of nation-states and international relations. International education is defined in contrast to national education, which is the education system of a single nation-state or country. Traditionally, international education takes place within the context of international or diplomatic relations between two countries. The practice of international education is regulated by international laws (Jean Francois, 2015). International education is a form of cultural exchange between two countries, and it is regulated by the immigration systems of any given country. Countries in the world have multiple international relations. However, specific diplomatic relations exist between two countries. This does not prevent multi-lateral agreements that exist within the larger framework of international organizations (e.g., United Nations) or regional entities (e.g., African Union, Arab League, Association of Southeast Asian nations, European Union, and Organization of American States). Contrary to international education, the new trends in transnational higher education programs has unfolded due to the adoption of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), coming into effect through the creation of the World Trade Organization (WTO), in 1995, which includes higher education, not just as a form of cultural exchange between nations, but also as a tradable service on the global market. The GATS considers the following 12 service sectors (excluding governmental activities and air traffic) as tradable: Business; Communication; Construction and Engineering; Distribution; Education; Environment; Financial; Health; Tourism and Travel; Recreation, Cultural, and Sporting; Transport; and “Other”. Transnational education involves transnational activities related to teaching and learning. Portes (1999, p. 464) defined transnational activities as “those that take place on a recurrent basis across national borders and that require a regular and significant commitment of time by participants.”

Transnational education and global education: The British Council (2015) defines global education as “a way of extending students’ views of the world by exploring their perceptions and connections.” (para 1). Additionally, the British Council argues that “Global education can be understood through four concepts that provide a conceptual framework for thinking about issues and activities within the curriculum: social justice and equity, diversity, sustainable development and globalization, and peace and conflict” (The British Council, 2015, para. 1). Most of the definitions of global education emphasize on a world perspective, on a view that individuals are planetary citizens, and therefore should acquire the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are necessary to participate in that interconnected global community. In other words, the globe or the global community is considered as the ultimate operational

setting of global education. Global education conveys the idea of oneness. As a result, the barriers of nation states are less relevant. Diversity is accounted for within a framework of unity: One world, diverse people and cultures; unity in diversity. Further, global education as a concept is primarily inspired by the phenomenon of globalization, which “eliminated” geographical, political, cultural, and economic barriers, through progress in Information and Communication technology (ICT) and new political and economic agreements among world countries. Global education promotes ideas of global citizenry and citizenship, thus makes the case for a more homogenous world. Contrary to global education, transnational education focuses more on patterns between/among nation-states, among nations within regions of the world. Therefore, in transnational education, nation as a unit and combinations of nations are equally relevant. There is no transnational education without educational activities that actively involve at least two different nations. However, global education activities can take place inside one single nation, as long as the perspective is globally focused. Research on global education can involve a single nation-state, because the focus would not be necessarily on the nation-state, but on the global perspective in relation to a given nation or country. On the other hand, research on transnational education will necessarily involve at least two different nation-states. The focus will not be necessarily on the nation-state, but on cross-border patterns related to specific nation-states concerned by a given transnational education research study.

Global education aims for efficiency in a global village. As a result, proponents of global education argue for policies and practices that should reflect the needs identified across the countries of the globe, regardless of specific local needs. While such approach has the potential to produce a more inclusive world, it also carries the risk of dismissing, alienating, and excluding many local contexts. Contrary to global education, transnational education aims to provide educational programs and services that are globally oriented, but locally differentiated and adapted to local needs and contexts.

Overall, as [Figure 1.1](#) illustrates,

- *Transnational education* refers to educational scholarship and practices between, across, and beyond the boundaries of two or more nations or countries.
- *Global education* involves educational scholarship and practices for all nations or countries in the globe, within the context of the globalization phenomenon;
- *International education* is about educational scholarship and practices between two countries within the pre-existing system of nation-states and international relations;
- *Comparative-international* is about the comparison of scholarship and practices between two or more nations or countries;

As you may notice, transnational education carries aspects of education related to comparative (comparison of 2 nations or more), international (scholarship and practices between 2 nations), and global (scholarship and practices for all nations),

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Figure 1.1. The TGICE family

as well as facets not captured by the aforementioned: Patterns across and beyond a single nation or country.

TRANSNATIONAL PUSH – PULL IN HIGHER EDUCATION

I borrow the push-pull concept from the transnational push-pull theory in international migration which explains that rational actors make cost-benefit analyses to move from one place, with factors that push them away to another location that pulls them in because of better conditions (Martin & Zurcher, 2008). Obviously, there are limitations to the explanation of international migration offered by the push-pull theory (Arango, 2004). However, this chapter does not review such literature. The intent is to borrow the concepts “push-pull” to attempt to explain current transnational activities in higher education.

TRANSNATIONAL PUSH

As Figure 1.2 indicates, there are transnational push factors such in provider countries that contribute to create a rationale for the planning and implementation of transnational education programs. International students, non-traditional adult students, minority students are the targets in this alternative. There has been an increasing demand for transnational education around the world (Jones, 2002; Marginson, 2004; Wyatt, 2001). The emergence of transnational education was facilitated not only by globalization in higher education, but especially by a push-pull

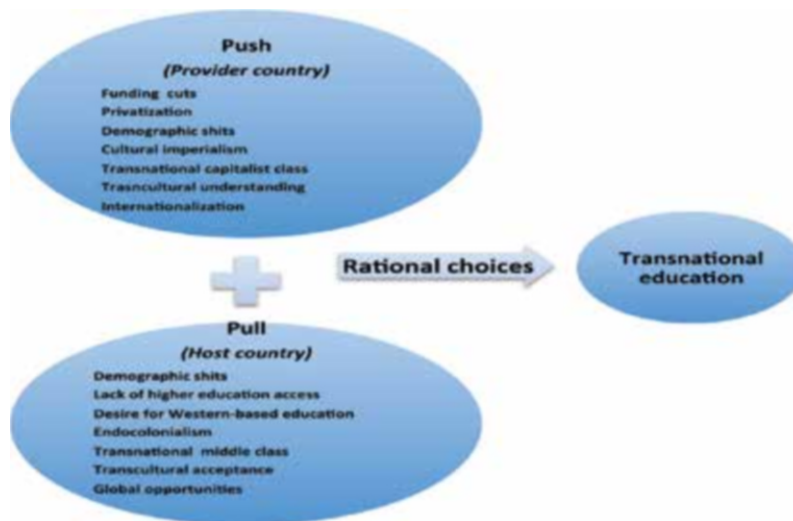


Figure 1.2. Transnational push-pull (Author, 2015)

dynamic in both industrialized and developing countries. Marginson (2004) argued that transnational education is driven by insufficient supply in local postsecondary institutions, globalization of workforce, and the potential prestige associated with holding a foreign degree. In other words, there are transnational push in sending countries and transnational pull in receiving countries that concurrently explain various transnational arrangements leading to transnational higher education programs. Funding cuts, privatization, demographic shifts, cultural imperialism, transnational capitalist elites, transcultural understanding, and internationalization push western postsecondary education institutions to explore and develop transnational education programs, partly as an alternative income generation strategy.

Push by funding cuts: Over the past decade, and especially in response to the financial recession of 2008, funding cuts have negatively affected postsecondary education institutions in Australia (Jump, 2013), Europe (Spongenberg, 2010), India (Sreeja, 2013), and the United States (Mitchell & Leachman, 2015). With less funding available, institutions have to be creative in exploring and finding alternative income generation initiatives. Transnational education has attracted postsecondary institutions as an option, given the fact that higher education has become a service tradable offshore, within the context of the GATS.

Push for privatization: Internationalization in higher education is not just about contributing to a global citizenry. There is a larger strategy to privatize higher education through internationalization, although internationalization itself is not a strategy of privatization. Internationalization can contribute to genuine global and transcultural understandings. However, some stakeholders in the global capitalist market see in

internationalization an opening to privatize higher education worldwide and create a new market to compete for profits. The GATS has defined higher education as “an international service industry to be regulated through international trade agreements” (Basset, 2006, p. 4). The ability to trade higher education helps make a great case for capitalist entrepreneurs to push for transnational higher education in countries where markets are identified.

Push by demographic shifts: Over the past 6 decades, Asia (from 55.5% in 1950 to 60.3% in 2010), Latin America and Caribbean (from 6.6% in 1950 to 8.5% in 2010), and Sub-Saharan Africa (from 7.4% in 1950 to 12.4% in 2010), have increased as a percentage of the total world population (Shackman, Xun, & Ya-Lin, 2012). On the other hand, Europe (from 21.6% in 1950 to 10.7% in 2010) and North America (from 6.8% in 1950 to 5% in 2010) have decreased as percent of total world population (Shackman, Xun, & Ya-Lin, 2012). In other word, the market for higher education has potentially increased in Asia, Latin America and Caribbean, and decreased in Europe and North America. According to data published by UNESCO (2015), Japan, the United States, and West European countries have seen moderate increases in student enrollment in postsecondary institutions, during 1990–2007. The trends is likely to continue, because The British Council (2013) projected that by 2025, the majority of college student population will come from developing countries. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2014), the total undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions was 3% lower in 2013, compared to 2010. As a result, many institutions have sought to recruit international students, through traditional international education channels, but also using opportunities offered by transnational education. In fact, transnational education has become a significant income generation strategy for universities in Australia (Australian Government Department of Education, 2014), the United Kingdom (Department of Business, Innovation and Skills, 2013), and the United States (Kinser & Levy, 2005).

Push for cultural imperialism: The establishment of transnational education programs is facilitated by linguistic imperialism, which is identified by Jean Francois (2015) as one of the purpose of global education. Language is one of the most reliable factors to transmit cultural values from one society to another. This is why languages like English, French, and Spanish, just to name these three, continue to influence the post-colonial lives of former colonized countries. Transnational education programs do not use the language of the host country, but that of the provider country. This opportunity to offer instructions in the language of the provider institution constitutes a push factor that makes transnational education a realistic and viable opportunity for providers. English is the dominant language in transnational education programs, and helps further western educational diplomacy as a force for western-style democracy in developing countries.

Push by transnational capitalist class: The transnational capitalist class has developed the model of transnational corporations resulting from the globalization phenomenon. For Sklair (2001), a transnational capitalist class has emerged from globalization. Sklair (2001) argued that this transnational class controls the process

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of globalization through transnational corporations. The West's Encyclopedia of American Law (2008) defines a transnational corporation as a corporation with "headquarters in one country and operates wholly or partially owned subsidiaries in one or more other countries" (para. 1). According to Sklair (2001), the transnational transcends "nation-states in an international system in some respects but still having to cope with them in others... private rather than national interests prevail across borders." (p. 3). The development of transnational education programs is influenced by (a) the model of transnational corporations and (b) the GATS, which is an instrument for transnational arrangements and transnational service provision.

Push for transcultural understandings: Given the interrelations and interdependence among cultures and societies facilitated by globalism and globalization (Jean Francois, 2015), there is constant push for transcultural understandings in transnational organizations and transcultural communities. For example, the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) promotes intercultural dialogues through education. Similarly, the American Council on Education (ACE, 2005) had listed principles to be used by educational institutions to increase and promote global education in the U.S., in order to nurture global and transcultural understandings. The principles include, but are not limited to (a) revising curriculum to foster international understanding, (b) expand study abroad opportunities, (c) and creating partnership to improve capabilities and inter-institutional collaborations with local schools and communities. Partnerships in study abroad and international education for transcultural understanding have the potential to lead to the exploration and development of transnational education programs, by offering opportunities to test feasibility of particular forms of offshore delivery within the framework of the GATS.

Push for internationalization in higher education: Leaders in political, social, cultural, and economic sectors are all pushing for the internationalization of higher education in order to train graduates who can perform productively in the global market created by globalization (Barrie, 2004; Dower, 2003). As a result, many postsecondary education institutions have explored opportunities to create linkages overseas through various types of partnerships or collaborations, including transnational arrangements. The push for transnational higher education found an economic rationale in recent scholarships on internationalization. Maringe and Gibbs (2009) found that universities with high levels of internationalization attract more foreign staff and students, contribute more to local and regional economic development, but also have high annual income turnovers and highly diversified income generating sources.

TRANSNATIONAL PULL

Pull factors in developing countries have equally enabled the development and implementation of transnational education programs. These pull factors include demographic shifts, lack of access to higher education, desire for western-based

education, endocolonialism traditional middle class, transcultural acceptance, and quest for global opportunities.

Pull by demographic shifts: The United Nations Educational Scientific Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2015) indicates that for the past two decades, there have been significant increases in students seeking for higher learning, coming from developing countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America (UNESCO, 2015). This demographic reality certainly contributes to a pull for student recruitment in developing countries. However, given the limitations for some students to leave their home country because of immigration policies in many industrialized countries, as well as the inabilities for overseas students to pay for auxiliary costs of education abroad, many universities have decided to reach out to students where they are, without them leaving their home countries.

Pull by lack of higher education access in developing countries: There is an ongoing issue of lack of opportunities for access to higher education in Africa (Karanja, 2009; Lankarini, 2011; Lindow, 2009), Asia (Organization for Economic and Development, OECD, 2009), and Latin America (Long, 2012). The number of university places available is significantly less compared to the number of applicants (Long, 2012). Consequently, Students in foreign and developing countries are receptive to Western-based degree programs without leaving their home countries. Transnational education programs offer such opportunity.

Pull by desire for Western-based education: Western-based education is very well respected in developing countries despite sentiments of nationalism that are critical of THE negative impact of imperialist policies with in Africa, Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean. The constraints to justify funding abilities and post September 11-immigration policies make it difficult for some individuals in developing countries to earn degrees from Western colleges and universities. Many Western colleges and universities understand the availability of this facet characterizing the transnational education market in developing countries, and develop programs to attempt to fill the gap left by lack of enough postsecondary education opportunities and desire for Western-based degrees.

Pull from endo-colonialism in developing countries: Most developing countries have experienced some form of Western-related colonization or occupation. With independence and decolonization, former colonized countries exist in a post-colonial period. The post-colonial period is characterized in many cases by endo-colonialism, which is the reality of societies ruled by principles and mindsets largely influenced by models acquired from colonial experiences, but implemented by local leaders and elites instead of a Western European colon. The prefix “*endo*” comes from the Greek “*endon*”, which means “within, inner, absorbing, or containing”. In other words, colonization is over, but colonization mindset is still influencing the lives and decisions of former colonized countries through endo-clonialism. A local colon replaces the foreign colon. In many cases, this occurs through international education used as an instrument of educational diplomacy and cultural imperialism. Endo-colonialism develops a mindset of comparing the quality of education exclusively

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through the standards of quality set by Western countries. Therefore, the value of a college degree is based solely in comparison to Western qualifications. This mindset contributes to a favorable terrain pulling transnational education programs.

Pull from transnational middle class: The middle class in most developing countries includes a large pool of professionals with vocational and undergraduate education. Members of the middle class in most developing countries have profiles that are similar to non-traditional adult students in the United States (Jean Francois, 2014). They want to pursue a degree program, especially in a Western country, but occupational and family obligations make it difficult for them to travel to study overseas unless they receive a scholarship. However, they have minimum financial means to afford a Western-based education program that would not be disruptive of their professional lives by requiring a residence time overseas. Transnational education programs offer an attractive alternative to members of middle class in many developing countries. They represent a pull factor for such programs.

Pull for transcultural acceptance in national and transnational communities: International migration from sending countries has contributed to the development of transnational communities in sending countries. Despite their transcultural integration, members in transnational communities tend to be stateless. They are not fully accepted as “*authentic enough*” by citizens of their countries of residence. This is due partly because their assimilation is never and can never be complete. Individuals will always carry with them cultural capital acquired from their country of birth or citizenship. On the other hand, there is a suspicion in sending countries that immigrants living in receiving countries have lost their identities. Therefore, they are not as full as citizens compared to others who never lived abroad. Consequently, members in transnational communities tend to nurture implicit or explicit desires for transcultural acceptance. They make ally with ideas and activities that have potential to foster transcultural acceptance. Transnational education programs happen to offer such opportunity to foster transcultural acceptance. Consequently, transnational communities have become a pull factor for transnational arrangements.

Pull for global opportunities in higher education: Leaders and policy makers in industrialized countries encourage postsecondary education institutions to take advantage of the opportunities offer by globalization to conquer new market as strategy for branding, recognition, and alternative income generation. Transnational education is a very attractive approach to help implement such strategic goal.

RATIONALE CHOICES

I argue that the push factors in the provider country and the pull factors in the host country combine with rationale choices that are based primarily on cost benefit analyses to determine whether a postsecondary institution decides or not to engage in transnational educational activities. The rational choice theory asserts that individuals make choice decision that is a sequence of binary choices, weighting

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costs and benefits (Michael, 2002). Choice decision is influenced by factors such as utility, expectations, and motivation. For example, the decision to open an overseas branch campus or provide online education to students residing in another country may be based on various costs and benefits variables that are related to utility (i.e., profitability, market, location, opportunities), expectations (i.e., needs, desires, readiness), and motivation (i.e., vision, will, prestige, competitiveness, sustainability) at the time the decision is made. Other institutions may run their rational choice decisions based on regulatory opportunities that they can take advantage of. Sequences of binary choices may vary from one institution to another.

CRITIQUES OF TRANSNATIONAL EDUCATION

Transnational higher education is mainly viewed from the perspective of western educational institutions. Consequently, little to no literature exists on the impact of transnational education on the receiving countries (McNamara, Knight, & Fernandez-Chung, 2013). I argue that transnational higher education initiatives and theoretical frameworks can emerge and be implemented in western and non-western societies, as well as in industrialized and economically developed countries. In other words, borderlessness is not unilinear, but multilinear. Therefore, perspectives on transnational higher education should be multifaceted. Transnational higher education has provided the opportunity to study in one's country and receive foreign qualifications and credentials without going overseas. However, it is considered mainly as a market expansion strategy by institutions from the sending countries (Maginson, 2004). According to Blackmur (2007), the UNESCO-OECD guidelines on transnational education have underestimated the long-term negative consequences of transnational education. Blackmur (2007) argued that transnational education opens the door for the control of higher education within nation-states by foreign entities with all possible ideological agendas. Castle and Kelly (2004) also argued that there is a quality assurance challenge posed by the proliferation of transnational education programs. Cheung (2006) provides a counter narrative that there is an intrinsic value in the provision of transnational education. Cheung (2006) asserted that issues related to transnational education can be diagnosed and overcome. For example, Gift, Leo-Rhynie and Moniquette (2006) suggested the creation of a regional accreditation system to address the quality assurance procedures for transnational education programs in the Caribbean. They also point to the fact that transnational education is unidirectional: From Western/Industrialized countries to developing countries. They argue for transnational education programs to be developed by developing countries as well, as a means to export, and not just import education.

The aforementioned concerns raised by Maginson (2004), Blackmur (2007), and Castle and Kelly (2004) constitute a sample of challenges that point to an opening for a scholarship related to critical transnational education. A critical transnational education is in itself a facet of transnational education that focuses on analysis

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and reflections regarding experiences, perspectives, and impacts of transnational policies and practices in educational leadership, and curriculum and instruction. For example, transnational education involves curriculum and instructional practices developed by outsiders from one cultural context for consumption by insiders in a different cultural context. There is a reason to be concerned about the validation of such curriculum and instructional practices for insiders' learning style preferences and academic experiences. On the other hand, faculty involved in transnational education programs are transnational educators who experienced can be equally challenging because of their own cultural backgrounds and the specific contexts of transcultural interactions. There may be plenty of other curriculum issues in transnational education, such transcultural relevance, faculty transnational/transcultural competence, learner's transnational readiness, unequal partnership, quality assurance, transnational/transcultural differentiation, and intercultural communication. Scholars and scholar-practitioners have opportunities to engage in glocal inquiries (Jean Francois, 2015), which can contribute to enrich the scholarship on transnational education. In other words, there are opportunities for new scholarship addressing questions, such as: (a) What is the transcultural relevance of transnational education programs? (b) What faculty transnational/transcultural competencies are required or effective in transnational education programs? (c) How do transnational education providers handle issues of learner's transnational readiness? (d) To what extent the unequal partnership in some transnational education programs affect the effectiveness of teaching and learning? (e) Can quality teaching and learning occur in transnational education programs? (f) How do leaders of transnational education programs address challenges related to transnational/transcultural differentiation? (g) What the experiences and perspectives of stakeholders with respect to intercultural communication in transnational education programs? (h) What does it mean to be a transnational education? (i) To what extent the experiences of transnational students differ from these of international students? These are just a few, among countless of questions that scholars may pose in further a scholarship on critical transnational education.

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