THE EXPATRIATE AND TRANSNATIONAL DISTANCE STUDENT

PHENOMENON: A SERIES OF INVESTIGATIONS

by

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ABSTRACT

The scale and scope of distance education has changed significantly over the last 250 years. Technology, from the early days of correspondence courses to radio, television and satellite broadcasting, has continually increased the scope, scale, and access potential to education. Distance courses and programs, however, were typically serving local, regional, or national communities. The Internet, by contrast, has transformed distance education by enabling access to education by virtually anyone, anywhere in the world. Students are no longer limited or constrained by geography or residency, yet how such potential has been conceptualized, identified, and subsequently researched has been limited by homogenous frames of reference. The homogenization of student conceptualizations and classifications for distance students situated outside of a national context has resulted in both unclear discussions, as well as the omission of differing perspectives.

This dissertation investigated the phenomenon of transnational distance education, and particularly the expatriate and transnational distance student perspective from a vantage point in the Republic of Korea across three related studies. The first investigation, an exploratory study, proposed a framework that organized and defined four distinct types of student (national, international, expatriate, transnational) and subsequently collected demographic and program characteristics of expatriate and transnational distance students from 33 survey respondents. The second study utilized a multicase approach to collect data on the experiences of expatriate and transnational

students and document their experiences, similarities, and differences by examining eight cases. The third study, a grounded theory approach, explored the motivations and decision-making process of expatriate and transnational students and why/how they choose their education programs with a sample of 10 participants.

Though the three samples were not representative of all foreign-residents in Korea, they provide additional perspectives to the distance, transnational, and international education literature, as well as scholarship on university attendance. Key findings from study one suggested that expatriate and transnational students were disproportionately male, and most likely completing distance programs in their home countries. Findings from study two described how, as first-generation adult immigrants in Korea, students were funneled into the same career path by virtue of national/linguistic background which prompted them to seek out further higher education opportunities to become qualified in their fields. Lastly, findings from the third study suggested that the concept of repatriation (i.e., return to their home countries), whether realized or not, played a recurring role in their decisions to pursue higher education, and was similarly related to their reasons for choosing distance programs usually in their home countries. Moreover, these findings suggested an ecosystem as both a push and pull factor where various obstacles (e.g., no background knowledge on university programs, no information available in participants' L1) to entry in the local educational ecosystem pushed them to choose educational opportunities mostly in their home countries as a path of least resistance to achieving their educational goals.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ICT	Information and Communications Technology
L1	Native Language
L2	Second Language
MoJ	Ministry of Justice
MOOC	Massively Open Online Course
TCK	Third Culture Kid
VLE	Virtual Learning Environment

CHAPTER I

Introduction to the Studies

Distance education has become a relatively common experience today, and notably one that is increasingly global (Allen, Seaman, Poulin, & Straut, 2016; Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2018; Harasim, 2000; Lee, 2017; Means, Bakia, & Murphy, 2014; Ortagus, 2016; Watts, 2016). At present, millions of students take distance classes *annually* at open universities, in addition to students who take online courses offered from brick-and-mortar institutions (Allen et al., 2016; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012). Distance education participation numbers are even more staggering when considering that *average* enrollment in a *single MOOC* (from well-known North American providers such as Coursera, Udacity, edX, HarvardX) is around 45,000 students with the upper end of enrollment numbers sometimes reaching hundreds of thousands (Jordan, 2014, 2015; Onah, Sinclair, & Boyatt, 2014) with students hailing from all over the world (Christensen et al., 2013; Glass, Shiokawa-Baklan, & Saltarelli, 2016; Nesterko et al., 2013; Shah, 2017). With so many new students gaining access to online courses and entering online classrooms, it is worth re-examining who distance students are in the 21st century (Jones, 2001; Latchem & Ryan, 2013), as well as the complex landscape of distance education itself.

Statement of the Problem

The currents of globalization, demographic changes, advancements in ICT, and the proliferation of the Internet have all affected the composition of the distance student body (Furham, 2012; Gunawardena, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Harasim, 2000). Earlier scholarship and models that assisted in categorizing and understanding distance students have limitations, particularly in terms of a wider view of global trends and circumstances. Although descriptions of expatriate, international, and transnational students have surfaced in the form of various terms and descriptions (e.g., Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016; Ziguras, 2008), their voices have otherwise been poorly recognized and represented (Rensimer, 2016), if heard at all (Andrews & Tynan, 2010). While some prior scholarship has recognized this student phenomenon in a limited capacity (e.g., Dobos, 2011, Gunawardena, 2003; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Hoare, 2012; Selwyn, 2011a, 2011b; Ziguras, 2008), only more recent literature displays a clearer and deliberate distinction among distance students (e.g., Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Stewart, 2017).

In this dissertation I have posited that the Internet has had a transformative effect on distance education, and this transformation is evident when comparing the scope, scale, and complexity of early correspondence programs like the Society to Encourage Studies at Home in the United States with current programs. For example, over a 24-year period from 1873-1897, the program enrolled approximately 10,000 students from the Boston, Massachusetts area (Casey, 2008; Gibson, 2008). The scope, scale, distribution, and diversity of the student body today, however, is a remarkable contrast with students potentially hailing from all over the world. The impressiveness of the scale and potential

global access notwithstanding, the increased connections between diverse groups of students, instructors, resources, and universities in a dynamic virtual space is at the heart of transnational distance education (Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Harasim, 2000; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Sidhu & Christie, 2013). Transnational education "refers to the crossing of various kinds of 'borders' - geographical, sectoral and conceptual" (Garrett, 2003, p. 113), as well as identifying those settings in which "learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based" (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2001, p. 86). Investigations of the characteristics and motivations of transnational and expatriate distance students as well as the makeup of online programs themselves in transnational contexts is currently lacking.

The differences between seemingly similar students of these kinds have not been disambiguated in both distance education and transnational education literature. There is no clear distinction or consensus on what an "international" student is in the distance education literature, or how this differs from a "transnational" distance student (Kosmützky & Putty, 2016). Moreover, the term "international" is used as a research analytic to describe so many different situations that it becomes unhelpful (Madge, Raghuram, & Noxolo, 2015; Rensimer, 2016; Stewart, 2017). Further, the lack of differentiation overlooks the potential for expatriate distance students in international, transnational, and distance education literature. Thus, the purpose of the three studies in this dissertation was to clearly investigate two distinct student scenarios (defined by three criteria) which are presented below in Table 1. These distinctions served as the analytical foundation for the three studies in this dissertation which were situated in the Republic of

Korea as one microcosm of demographic, technological, and globalization-related changes.

Table 1   Stewart's Model of Distance Students

Term	Description
National A-A-A	A student who is a citizen of country A, attending university at a distance in country A, while living in country A. They are most likely classified as a "regular" student by the university.
International B-A-B	A student who is a citizen of country B, attending university at a distance in country A, while living in country B. They are most likely classified as an "international" student by the university.
Expatriate A-B-A	A student who is a citizen of country A, attending university at a distance in country B, while living in country A via a non-tourist sojourn status. They are most likely classified as a "regular" student by the university.
Transnational A-B-C	A student who is a citizen of country A, attending university at a distance in country B, while living in country C via a non-tourist sojourn status. They are most likely classified as an "international" student by the university.

The Korean Context

The Korean peninsula is located in East Asia, situated south of China and to the north of Japan. Historically, however, the territory of the Korean kingdoms stretched into modern day northeast China in the Liaoning, Jilin, and Heilongjiang provinces; this region is also commonly known as Manchuria (Kim, 2017). Historical activity on the peninsula dates back some 4500-5000 years with the founding of the first Korean kingdom ascribed to the god-king Dangun. Over the millennia, the peninsula has been home to numerous kingdoms (e.g., Silla, Balhae, Baekje, Koguryo, Kaya, Puyo), imperial dynasties, and internecine conflicts which eventually resulted in a unified governance at

the end of the Josun Dynasty in the late 14th century, which lasted for approximately 500

years until the formation of the unified Daehan (Great Korea) Empire in 1897 (Kim,

2017). In 1910, the independence of the state fell to Japanese colonial rule for 35 years

until its liberation from Japan by the Allied forces at the end of World War II in 1945.

Shortly thereafter in 1950, a proxy war broke out between two governments established

by the Allied powers north (Soviet) and south (American) of the 38th parallel

respectively. In 1953, an armistice agreement was signed between the two governments

and the peninsula has since been home to two nations: The Democratic People's Republic

of Korea (DPRK) and the Republic of Korea (ROK).

The Republic of Korea, also referred to as South Korea and simply "Korea",

covers a landmass of approximately 100,000 sq. km, making it comparable in size to the

U.S. states of Indiana or Pennsylvania, or countries like Iceland or Hungary (CIA, 2019).

The terrain is mostly hilly and mountainous (about 70%), and relatively arid with heavier

rainfall in the summer. The national population is estimated to be around 51 million as of

2019, though the distribution is highly disproportionate to lowland regions (CIA, 2019;

Joo, 2019). The capital, Seoul, is home to roughly 10 million people and the surrounding

metropolitan area adds an additional 15 million for a total of around 25 million people or

roughly 50% of the population (CIA, 2019, Kim, 2017), and it takes up less than 12% of

the nation's land area (Joo, 2019). Seven other large urban cities (i.e., Busan, Incheon,

Daegu, Daejeon, Kwangju, Ulsan, Changwon) have populations ranging from 1.0-3.5

million for a collective total of approximately 14 million (CIA, 2019). Combined with the

capital metropolitan area's population, some 39 million people or 75% of the population

live in dense, urban areas, in cities with one million or more residents. Such heavy urbanization has not always been the case, however.

The modern developed nation and population distribution is the result of impressive periods of industrial and economic development, and internal migrations from the 1960s onward that transformed the non-industrialized agrarian nation into the global economic and technological force that it is today (CIA, 2019; Joo, 2019; Kim, 2017). This period of growth and development is not without controversy, however, as it also coincides with nearly 40 years of military dictatorships, periods of intense civil unrest, and economic crises (Kim, 2017). Nevertheless, one element considered integral to the success of Korea's transformation is education (CIA, 2019; Kim, 2017; Mani & Trines, 2018). Distance education opportunities have served Korean citizens since the 1950s (Im, 1992), and more prominently since the 1970s (Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Park & Kim, 2004). Numerous distance programs, formal online courses, private and public distance classes, and even local MOOC platforms (e.g., KMOOC) have proliferated since then (Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Shah, 2017). Several explicit transnational programs have also formed over the last 20 years to meet different and growing educational demands (FAU, n.d.; FSU, n.d.; GNUCR, n.d.; IGC, n.d.; IFEZ, n.d.; Jon, Lee, & Byun, 2014; Mani & Trines, 2018; UCRX, n.d.). At the same time, notable changes in the national demographic makeup have also occurred.

Korea has experienced significant immigration since the mid 1980s. The foreign resident population has grown from approximately 30-40,000 to over 2.5 million in a period of only 35 years (Kim, 2014; MoJ, 2016; Shin & Moon, 2019; Socinet, n.d.). Though the nation's demographic makeup has remained predominantly homogeneous

compared to other relatively more diverse countries or regions (e.g., the United States, Europe), this fact understates rather rapid changes in the national makeup given the Korean peninsula's 5000 years of otherwise relative homogeneity (Kim, 2017). These demographic changes have given rise to a foreign-resident population that has moved beyond just unskilled migrant labor (Shin & Moon, 2019), and whose educational needs/goals are not necessarily being recognized or met in the same way as those of its native population. Even Korean returnees (i.e., Korean citizens who typically lived abroad as children or adolescents), or members of the Korean diaspora can experience a similar lack of appropriate or viable education opportunities upon ethnic return migrants (Kim, 2018; Shin & Moon, 2019). How members of the foreign resident community overcome challenges to education by means of distance education abroad is the focus of this dissertation.

The literature includes research in varying capacities on foreign residents (Shin & Moon, 2019) who are academics (Froese, 2012), corporate workers (Jun & Gentry, 2005), international students (Jon et al., 2014; Lee, 2011), and marriage migrants (Kim, 2014; Socinet. n.d.) in Korea, and further research that examines the "heterogeneity and multiplicity of migrants in Korea within the broader categories of migrant workers" is needed especially since there has been a steady increase in skilled labor migrants (Shin & Moon, 2019, p. 603). The reasons underlying why foreign-residents choose to study abroad at a distance are not clear. The experience of studying at a distance while situated in a culture different from one's own is under described in the literature (Harrison, Harrison, Robinson, & Rawlings, 2018). Nor is it clearly understood why some long-term foreign residents in Korea, with no plans to return to their home nations, do not take

advantage of local education programs, especially when comparable programs exist. The decision to forgo both local national or transnational program opportunities is particularly intriguing since students are choosing methods (i.e., at a distance, asynchronous, digitally mediated) that generally require more technical knowledge, self-directedness, and independence, in addition to incurring avoidable tuition costs, as there are various scholarships (e.g., Global Korea Scholarship [GKS], Korean Government Scholarship Program [KGSP]) that cover tuition and living stipends for foreign students (Study in Korea, 2019). Moreover, there are various undergraduate and graduate programs taught in English as a common international language that should make such programs viable, if not compelling, options (Jon et al., 2014; Kim, 2018; Stewart, 2017). As such, these questions have been asked and investigated, the results of three-related studies are presented herein.

Study one is an exploratory and descriptive study that proposed a model of distance students that accounted for various difficulties and discrepancies described in the literature over the last 10 years (Stewart, 2017). Further, study one tested the constructions of two proposed categories of students (i.e., expatriate, transnational) and collected demographic data about students, as well as the characteristics of their distance programs. Study two built upon this relatively simple foundation in the form of a multicase study that explored and documented the experiences of expatriate and transnational distance students, in addition to looking for commonalities across all of the cases. Study three was a grounded theory that explored the motivations and thought process of these two categories of students and ultimately presents a theory grounded in their experiences that approximates and suggests why these particular individuals chose

to study in distance programs "abroad" rather than at universities (both local and transnational) in Korea.

Summary

This chapter has posited how modern ICT (and the Internet in particular) has enabled newer categories of distance students. This evolution can be seen by examining the a) nationality and sojourn status of a student, b) their geographic location as well as that of the university, and c) their administrative designation as either a regular or an international student. The three studies in this dissertation use this analytical lens to explore how this phenomenon is made manifest in the Republic of Korea where significant demographic changes have occurred over the last 35 years (Shin & Moon, 2019), and where a growing diversity among the migrant population requires greater attention.

CHAPTER II

A Review of the Literature

<u>Introduction</u>

The world is increasingly dynamic and multifaceted in the 21st century. Digital information and communications technology (ICT) continue to increase the breadth and depth of connections between people, places, and resources. Small, dispersed and regionally confined populations have been transformed through ICT into an increasingly connected, global community (Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008). This phenomenon of global interconnectedness, or globalization, is multifaceted and socially, politically, economically, and culturally complex (Aman, 2013). In the context of education, the effects of globalization can also be seen in the increasing reach of education as it extends beyond national boundaries; namely through various modes and formats of transnational education, distance education, and ultimately transnational distance education. While distance education has traditionally served as a pathway to education for underserved or underrepresented populations (Casey, 2008; Harasim, 2000; Lee, 2017; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Saba, 2011; Simonson et al., 2012; Sun & Chen, 2016), the distance education space continues to be shaped by broad social forces through migration, demographic, and technological change (Aman, 2013; Haughey, Evans, & Murphy, 2008; Yelland, 2000). Moreover, the parallel developments of new technologies continue to complement and evolve the practice of teaching and learning at a distance (Casey, 2008; Tracey & Richey, 2005).

With each particular technology used, there have been paradigmatic shifts in methodologies, approaches, and pedagogies (Harasim, 2000, 2012; Holmberg, 1986; Lane, 2009; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Simonson, 1999; Simonson et al., 2012; Tracey & Richey, 2005). Over time, distance education has evolved from servicing typically a local region/nation (see Allen et al., 2016) to offerings that are now potentially global in reach (Li, 2018; Means, Bakia, & Murphy, 2014; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Simonson et al., 2012). From the earliest days of distance education nearly 200 years ago until the present, this change in scope and access has enabled increasingly diverse and complex educational settings. This growing complexity and nuance are the research focus of this literature review.

In distance education, international education, and transnational education literature, there is no disambiguation between types of distance students (Kosmützky & Putty, 2016). Thus, when the term international is used (in distance education) to refer to students, it is not clear what is meant beyond the student simply not being a "national" student. Similarly, in a transnational context (where the home institution is located in a different country than the student), simply studying at a distance appears the same as an "international" student. Moreover, the term "transnational" is often readily used by scholars, though not necessarily with the same meaning (Pieterse, 2007). The terms *international* and *transnational* used throughout this dissertation have much narrower and more specific definitions than is conventionally used at present in either the distance or transnational education literature bases (see Table1). Thus, the specific objectives of this literature review are to:

1. trace the origin and development of distance education;

2. examine the impact that the Internet has had on distance education;

3. analyze the characteristics of distance learners;

4. synthesize the characteristics and additional complexities of transnational distance education and relevant considerations;

5. analyze the literature for recurring themes in the transnational distance education space.

Distance Education

Education, as traditionally experienced, takes place when students and teachers meet face-to-face for a set period of time typically at a fixed location. This experience is (and has been) a familiar one to nearly everyone in the world. Distance education, by contrast, is not necessarily so familiar or uniform (Allen et al., 2016; Harasim, 2000; Lee, 2017; Lowenthal, Wilson, & Parrish, 2009). While distance delivery of formal and informal learning experiences has continually been evolving and expanding and is no longer a fringe educational experience (Allen et al., 2016; Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2018; Harasim, 2000; Means et al., 2014; Ortagus, 2016; Watts, 2016), it is still a minority one to a certain degree (Allen et al., 2016).

Moreover, distance education has a complex history that lacks a standardized set of terms in both the past and present, not to mention a constantly shifting landscape of practices and models. The resulting lexical variety, at times, can make the goal of a clear and systematic discussion somewhat challenging (Larraeamendy-Joerns & Leinhardt, 2006; Lorenzo, 2015; Lowenthal et al., 2009). Furthermore, distance education can often be misperceived as a relatively new phenomenon enabled by the

Internet (Lee, 2017; Lowenthal et al., 2009). Rather, distance education is a generic

term that perhaps deceptively encompasses a diverse set of practices and technologies

spanning over 240 years (Bower & Hardy, 2004; Casey, 2008, Lee, 2017; Lowenthal et

al., 2009; Saba, 2011; Sun & Chen, 2016). Characteristics of this diversity are

subsequently discussed.

<u>Definitions and Characteristics</u>

In the 1980s, the U.S. Department of Educational Research and Improvement

described distance education as "the application of telecommunications and electronic

devices which enable students and learners to receive instruction from some distant

location" (Casey, 2008, p. 45). One notable limitation of this definition, however, is its

era/technology specific frame of reference. This technological focus, however

unintentional, excludes the much longer history of distance education facilitated by

other means (Lee, 2017). More appropriately, Bower and Hardy (2004) discussed how

the United States Distance Learning Association described distance education as "the

acquisition of knowledge and skills through mediated information and instruction,

encompassing all technologies and other forms of learning at a distance" (p. 5). They

pointed out how this definition is technology-agnostic so as to include all forms of

technology used historically (i.e., printed media and the post office), not solely the

technology employed in the latter part of the 20th century or the beginning of the 21st.

Definitions of distance education have been described at length in the literature.

Schlosser and Anderson (1994) provided an extensive overview in regard to what

distance education is citing Perraton in 1988, Rumble in 1989, Keegan in 1988,

Holmberg in 1986, and Garrison and Shale in 1987. All of the definitions from these

scholars, despite their differences, described a geographical and temporal separation between learners and instructors, two-way communication between the groups, and ultimately a technology to mediate the process. These characteristics, of course, are all captured in the definition described by the United States Distance Learning Association (Bower & Hardy, 2004). Moreover, the merit of the definition can be seen when examining the development of and changes in distance education over time from a technological perspective.

<u>Early Distance Education</u>

<u>Correspondence Courses</u>

The genesis of early distance courses begins with print media and the postal service. As early as 1728 in the United States, the *Boston Gazette* printed advertisements for distance shorthand lessons (Bower & Hardy, 2004). Formal distance education (i.e., from a university), however, is considered to have originated in Europe in Sweden in the 1830s with a university offering composition courses (Bower & Hardy, 2004). Around the same time in Germany in 1840, Charles Toussaint and Gustav Langenscheidt established distance courses in Berlin, while the Phonographic Correspondence Society in England began offering its own correspondence courses (Bower & Hardy, 2004; Lee, 2017; Schlosser & Anderson, 1994; Simonson et al., 2012). Meanwhile in the United States, the first vocational course conducted at a distance was the Pitman Shorthand training program where "self-taught secretaries would mail their exercises to the Phonographic Institute in Cincinnati, OH, and, after completing the required coursework, receive a certificate of expertise in stenographic shorthand skills" (Casey, 2008, p. 46). Distance education programs from Boston to

New York ultimately came into existence providing alternative access to education, and eventually well-known American institutions of higher learning such as Illinois Wesleyan began offering bachelors, masters, and doctoral degrees in 1877, as did the University of Chicago shortly thereafter in 1892 (Bower & Hardy, 2004; Casey, 2008; Schlosser & Anderson, 1994). While not all of these correspondence programs lasted (for various reasons e.g., waning interest, concerns regarding quality), the utility of correspondence courses for reaching underserved or remote populations was a lasting change.

As noted earlier by Haughey et al. (2008), in addition to the challenge of providing education to remote and distributed populations in the United States, other social forces such as the Lyceum movement in 1826, the Chautauqua movement in 1873, and the Society to Encourage Studies at Home created an increasing public interest in education (Casey, 2008; Gibson, 2008; Lee, 2017; Saba, 2011). As Holmberg (1986) noted, there were numerous reasons for the proliferation of early distance courses, including the need to generally increase access to education for the betterment of society, the recognition of working adults as potential students, the need for ongoing vocational training for workers, and the desire to provide a social service to the underprivileged. Elsewhere around the world, distance education programs were implemented for similar reasons.

In Australia, for example, correspondence courses began in the "state of Victoria at [the] secondary level in 1909 and at [the] primary level in 1914 and [were] soon followed by the other states" (Stacey, 2005, p. 253). While correspondence courses were available for teachers to complete their academic credentials in 1910,

Australia developed and deployed a large-scale distance education program for young learners, whereas most programs described in the literature in the late 1800s and early 1900s primarily served adult students (Stacey, 2005). In Mexico, Castañeda (2005) described the "the distribution of educational materials designed for independent study and subsequent visits by educators to students' places of residence, as in the cultural missions created in 1923 to provide service to rural professors in their own community" (p. 229). In Russia, vocational/training courses began in 1870 for workers in Moscow and St. Petersburg (Moiseeva, 2005). Even in more recent history, in nations where modern telecommunications technology or ICT infrastructure is inadequate, correspondence courses (typically in conjunction radio and/or TV broadcasting) with print materials, cassette tapes, etc., are still a viable and effective method of delivery (Simonson et al., 2012).

The literature provides ample evidence of early technological forms (i.e., asynchronous correspondence) of distance education and non-traditional student populations (e.g., women, farmers, workers, rural inhabitants) (Lee, 2017). The purposes of these early programs ran the spectrum of informal learning situations (e.g., the Lyceum and Chautauqua movements), formal yet non-academic learning (e.g., vocational training), primary and secondary school levels (e.g., Australia), to undergraduate and graduate study (e.g., Illinois Wesleyan and the University of Chicago). Correspondence courses would evolve, however, with further technological development and the subsequent advent of broadcast communications: namely the radio and soon thereafter the television.

Broadcast Courses

In the 1920s, the use of radio broadcasting marked a shift in the scope and possibilities of distance education (Casey, 2008). Live educational broadcasts could diminish the asynchronicity inherent to correspondence courses and the speed limitations of the postal service; the radio also "allowed students to hear their instructor" (Casey, 2008, p. 46). By 1921 in the United States, "educational radio licenses were granted to the University of Salt Lake City, the University of Wisconsin, and the University of Minnesota" (Casey, 2008, p. 46; Saba, 2011). Elsewhere during the 1920s in the United States, "at least 176 radio stations were constructed at educational institutions" (Schlosser & Anderson, 1994, p. 4). Later by extension, television broadcasting was experimented with in the 1930s at the University of Iowa, Purdue University, and Kansas State College (Schlosser & Anderson, 1994). In 1945, Iowa State University applied "to the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) for an education television (ETV) license" and became "the first ETV broadcaster in the world" (Saba, 2011, p. 12).

In 1963, the FCC gave further support for broadcast education through the creation of the Instructional Television Fixed Service (ITFS) (Casey, 2008). The ITFS was a band of 20 channels made available exclusively to educational institutions to "provide a low-cost, fixed-range, subscriber-based system capable of being utilized for the distribution of broadcast courses" (Casey, 2008, p. 46). These courses became more accessible through the later development of satellite technology throughout the 1960s that ultimately became financially viable in the 1980s (Schlosser & Anderson, 1994). México's Telesecundaria, launched in 1968, is a good example of the reach broadcast

courses enabled to rural communities (Gulati, 2008). Though 50 years has passed since its founding, the Telesecundaria program still exists to this day serving students in rural communities (Mantilla Gálvez, 2018; Telesecundaria, n.d.). The widespread adoption of broadcasting technology would ultimately lay the foundation for the modern era of distance education (Bower & Hardy, 2004; Harasim, 2000; Holmberg, 1986; Lee, 2017; Moore & Kearsley, 2012).

Modern Distance Education

From the 1960s onward, open or exclusively distance universities were created. The founding of the Open University of Great Britain in 1969 is considered to mark the beginning of the modern distance education era (Bower & Hardy, 2004; Holmberg, 1986; Lee, 2017; Moore & Kearsley, 2012). Schlosser and Anderson (1994) noted that "the Open University brought heightened prestige to distance education, and spurred the establishment of similar institutions in industrial nations such as West Germany, Japan, and Canada" (p. 5), and similarly but to a lesser extent, in nonindustrialized nations such as Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Additional examples of open universities from around the world include the Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (UNED) in Spain, the Autonomous University of Mexico, the University of South Africa, the FernUniversität in Germany, Moscow State Open University, Moscow State Pedagogical University, the Korea National Open University, Athabasca University in Canada, the Brazilian Ministry of Education's Proformação, and the Penn State World Campus in the United States among others (see Castañeda, 2005; Davis, 2001; Gulati, 2008; Moiseeva, 2005; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Park & Kim, 2004; Schlosser & Anderson, 1994). Today, open universities, in addition to numerous types of distance

programs at all levels of formal and informal study can be found virtually anywhere in the world (Allen et al., 2016; Moore, 2013; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Simonson et al., 2012; Shah, 2017).

Where correspondence courses were relatively limited in reach by the postal service and complicated by time delays, the cost of delivery, and even lost mail, the technological evolution of radio and television broadcasting marked significant changes and improvements in efficiency, presence (the degree to which students can construct meaning [cognitive] and project their identities [social]), and allowed for the combined use of print *and* audiovisual media (Bower & Hardy, 2004). The development of computers and networking technology in the 1980s and 1990s changed the distance education landscape with the invention and widespread adoption of the Internet (Harasim, 2000). Broadcast methods and analogue multimedia formats have not disappeared, however. Rather, they have been reinvented in the form of streaming audio-video services such as YouTube or podcasting platforms like Apple Podcasts; these "traditional" delivery methods have simply merged with (and been augmented by) modern digital systems (Moore & Kearsley, 2012). Nevertheless, computers and the Internet have changed the practice significantly (Harasim, 2000).

Computer Networked Distance Education

Harasim (2000) documented the evolution and development of communications technology from the invention of the telegraph in 1861, the telephone in 1876, the ARPANET in 1969, email in 1971, and computer conferencing technology in 1972. Universities began to augment/supplement their courses with these newer technologies. According to Harasim (2000), the first completely online course (for adult education)

was conducted in 1981, making the 1980s a practical starting point to examine the beginnings of online classes as they are known today. As Harasim (2000) noted "[computer] networking changed the means of educational communication beyond what any [one] had [previously] imagined" (p. 44).

Since computer networking enabled the creation and delivery of the first fully online course, various online programs followed with networked classroom models in the K-12 sector, non-degree granting mini courses and executive education programs, online undergraduate/graduate courses, and ultimately fully accredited online degree programs by the mid 1980s (Harasim, 2000; Simonson et al., 2012). Newer asynchronous, semi synchronous, and synchronous methods of interaction, teaching, and learning became more practical (Bower & Hardy, 2004; Harasim, 2000; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Sun & Chen, 2016). The growth and development of distance programs in the 1980s was impressive since it occurred prior to the widespread use of the Internet. The subsequent global interconnection of all computer networks, which characterizes the Internet today, was profound (Harasim, 2000).

This global network has ultimately enabled not just the possibility of greater local and/or regional access to education, but potentially global educational access and opportunities for anyone, anywhere in the world. The increasingly diverse student demographics later seen in the 21st century would not be possible without the ability to transcend local boundaries (e.g., a city or state), and ultimately national borders which has been afforded by the Internet (see Dobos, 2011; Gemmell, Harrison, Clegg, & Reed, 2013; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Gunawardena, 2003; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Heffernan, Morrison, Basu, & Sweeney, 2010; Hughes, 2013;

Selinger, 2004; Selwyn, 2011a, Selwyn, 2011b; Wilkins, 2016; Ziguras, 2008). The central meeting place for students and instructors in this interconnected digital space is the online course, though defining the online course is not a simple task (Lowenthal et al., 2009).

<u>Online Courses</u>

Since the networking technology and the first digital spaces of the 1980s and 1990s were not deliberately built for educational purposes, the development of virtual learning environments (VLEs) and subject-specific tools/software began in order to overcome these limitations (Harasim, 2000). VLEs evolved into complex, web-based software applications like Blackboard or Moodle which provided structured access to educational resources in digital form (e.g., pdf documents, images), audiovisual multimedia (e.g., recordings, videos), communication methods (e.g., discussion forums, messengers), and provided education-specific tools (e.g., gradebooks, rosters, etc.) (Lane, 2009). VLEs and other ancillary tools have not remained static, however. Just as the technology used in earlier distance education practices changed over time, so too have the tools in the digital space. Earlier forms of educational technology such as audio cassettes, CDs, DVDs, and print media which facilitated aspects of early distance courses were either replaced by newer forms of educational technology, or merged with more specific computer-enabled means (Anderson, 2007; Hanna, 2003; Harasim, 2000; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Simonson et al., 2012).

The convergence of these technologies with the Internet also coincided with the evolution of web-based technologies. These tools have evolved from static content delivery to dynamic user content creation, in addition to newer ways of interaction and

participation in online communities (Anderson, 2007; Harasim, 2000; Lafuente, 2017; Moore & Kearsley, 2012). This paradigmatic shift is referred to as the second generation of the Web or Web 2.0 (Anderson, 2007), and these tools are commonly used today (Lafuente, 2017). The Internet and tools within a broader ICT ecosystem have continued to change in markedly different ways from the days of Web 2.0. An emerging paradigm is present and characterized by technology that is "continually assessing and capturing the user's profile, and the information produced and shared on the web" that is adaptive, personalized, and semantic (Lafuente, 2017, p. 73). Lafuente (2017) described the semantic aspect of the third generation of the Web, or Web 3.0, by being "smart" or intelligent. It is important to note, however, that the delivery technology is but one aspect of distance education that has changed during this time period.

Harasim (2000) described the emergence of two types of online classrooms (i.e., collaborative/interactive and the traditional didactic lecture style), and these have also continued to evolve and change in response to technological affordances and related pedagogical changes (Harasim, 2000). While we may use the generic term "online class" for the sake of simplicity or efficiency, it overlooks a significant amount of variety and nuance (Lowenthal et al., 2009). Moreover, transnational education delivery modes can add more complexity to the discussion on what an online class is or is not (see Francois, 2016). Prior to adding an additional layer of complexity from the transnational education space, a discussion of the potential richness of online class formats follows.

Online Format Variety

Harasim (2000) distinguished online education in three distinct modes: adjunct, mixed, and totally online. Similarly, over the last 13 years, Allen et al. (2016) and the Online Learning Consortium (OLC) have categorized online courses in three distinct types (plus the default face-to-face class). The OLC's categories are based on an arguably arbitrary percentage of content/activity that occurs online. They are labeled: web-enhanced, blended, and fully online courses (Allen et al., 2016). Blended learning (BL), however, further complicates the discussion on online class formats since BL also encompasses a wide range of modes or models which can facilitate various aspects of class (Horn & Staker, 2014; Sethy, 2008). Sethy (2008) described how "virtual classroom education which is considered as residential education is based on synchronic and verbal interaction, while distance education is mainly realized in asynchronic [modes]", but carefully noted how "BL [blended learning] blurs these sorts of education" (p. 34). While online learning may often be perceived as a homogenous concept, we would be wise to avoid such oversimplification (Lee, 2017; Lowenthal et al., 2009).

There are multiple attempts in the literature at conceptualizing and characterizing forms of online classes and blended learning, three of which are outlined in Table 2 and 3. The landscape is so large that no one model can completely encompass the diversity of online learning scenarios, as well as fairly account for differences in corporate, vocational, K-12, and higher education sectors (Hanna, 2003; Horn & Staker, 2014; Lowenthal et al., 2009; Waha & Davis, 2014). Therefore, the models presented here are to serve as examples of the complexity and variability

inherent in online learning and the online course, rather than as a comprehensive overview. The complexity of online classes and blended learning approaches will be added to by an additional layer of transnational delivery modes (see Table 2).

Table 2   **Perspectives of Online Class Formats**

	Harasim (2000)		Allen et al. (2016)
Adjunct Mode	Networking to enhance traditional face-to-face or distance education.	Web Facilitated 1-29% online	Course that uses web-based technology to facilitate what is essentially a face-to-face course. May use a learning management system (LMS) or web pages to post the syllabus and assignments.
Mixed Mode	Employs networking as significant portion of a traditional classroom or distance course.	Blended / Hybrid 30-79% online	Course that blends online and face-to-face delivery. Substantial proportion of the content is delivered online, typically uses online discussions, and typically has a reduced number of face-to-face meetings.
Totally Online	Networking as the primary teaching medium for an entire course or program.	Online 80+% online	A course where most or all of the content is delivered online. Typically has no face-to-face meetings.

Table 3   **Horn and Staker's (2014) Models of Blended Learning**

Model	Description
Rotation Model	Students rotate on a fixed schedule between learning modalities, one of which is online. 1. Station Rotation - classroom-based stations in which whole-class, groups or individual students rotate. All students rotate through all stations. 2. Lab Rotation - campus-based stations in which whole-class, groups or individual students rotate. At least one lab is predominately online. 3. Flipped Classroom - students rotate between face-to-face guided practice in the classroom and online delivery of content from a remote location. 4. Individual Rotation - classroom-based stations in which students rotate based on individual need. Not all students will rotate through all stations.
Flex Model	Most content is delivered through the Internet or online, and students move between online and face-to-face based on individual need. For example, the face-to-face interactions may include targeted interventions for tutoring or some kind of small group instruction or project.
Self-Blend Model	Students self-blend their curriculum by taking one or more courses completely online, through a supplemental program for example. The online courses *may* be supported by an on-site school lab.
Enriched Virtual Model	Students meet a face-to-face instructor for a course or a subject a few times weekly or monthly, but otherwise complete course work remotely (i.e., online).

Online Interaction Modes

While the experience of face-to-face classes tends to be a relatively uniform

experience from person to person, the literature shows that a far greater range of

circumstances can potentially be met with various online course formats, transnational

delivery modes (generally where learners are located in a country that is different from

where the degree is awarded from, see Table 5), and blended learning concepts. One omission in the modes and/or class models from Harasim (2000), Allen et al. (2016), and Horn and Staker (2014), however, is the type of interaction/communication (i.e., synchronous, semi synchronous, and asynchronous) utilized to facilitate the class. It is important to note that "although asynchronous [interaction] has been the primary method for interacting in the online setting, technological advancements have made it possible for students and instructors to interact in a more face-to-face like setting" (Watts, 2016, p. 30).

Broadcast and online courses have been viewed the same way despite the availability of technology that can enable more synchronous or semi-synchronous methods of interaction (Anderson, 2007; Casey, 2008; Watts, 2016). This distinction between interaction modes is not to imply that one method is superior or inferior, but rather that each interaction mode can be effective when appropriately applied (Watts, 2016). Furthermore, other contextual dimensions (e.g., formality, setting, synchronicity, pacing) and course characteristics (e.g., teacher and learner roles, class size, learner demographics) can help frame our understanding of the complexity of online education (Lowenthal et al., 2009). One relevant and noteworthy variable, enabled by computers and the Internet, is the potentially global pool and massive scale of participants.

Online Class Size

Tomei (2004) attempted to compare the workload between face-to-face and online classes in order to compute an "ideal" class size (based on a number of assumptions) ultimately arriving at 12 students per class for online classes. Orellana (2006) conducted a descriptive study of online classes and calculated an average of roughly 20 students per online class. Taft, Perkowski, and Martine (2011) synthesized the academic literature and created an overview of a given class size range organized by educational framework and a set of qualifying dimensions. They recommended that (based on a synthesized view of a constructivist-interactivist continuum, the Community of Inquiry Model [CoI], and Bloom's Taxonomy) classes based on objectivist approaches that target the lower levels of Bloom's Taxonomy (knowledge, comprehension) with a limited CoI implementation could enroll 30 or more students, whereas online courses based on achieving the upper levels of Bloom's Taxonomy (analysis, synthesis, evaluation) through a constructivist approach and a full CoI implementation should enroll 15 students or less. While there is no single number that would satisfactorily address the "perfect" enrollment number in an online class, the ranges presented by Tomei (2004), Orellana (2006), and Taft et al. (2011) are not notably different from traditional face-to-face course sizes. By contrast, various forms of telecourses (e.g., live broadcast, taped broadcast, videotape) saw enrollment numbers range from "typical" class sizes from 20-40 students, to more than 700 per class in the late 1980s and throughout the 1990s in the United States (Allen, Bourhis, Burrell, & Mabry, 2002). While the utilization of telecourses has been supplanted largely by online courses, there are cases today such as the Indira Gandhi Open

University (IGNOU) in India where telecourses still serve millions of students (Panda, 2005; Panda & Mishra, 2007; Subba Rao, 2006). Nevertheless, Taft et al., (2011) noted that there is theoretically no upper limit in online classes which take an objectivist approach (i.e., one-way interaction). The relatively new phenomenon of Massive Open Online Courses or MOOCs is demonstrative of this theoretically limitless state, although MOOCS are not necessarily limited to being objectivist.

<u>MOOCS</u>

MOOCs are relatively new in the domain of distance and higher education and are among more recent creative ways to reduce common access barriers to higher education through tuition-free (not necessarily administrative cost free) class models (see Stoessel, Ihme, Barbarino, Fisseler & Stürmer, 2015; UoP, n.d.). Sharrock (2015) noted how the *New York Times* described 2012 as the year of the MOOC where it was predicted that MOOCs would disrupt the traditional higher education paradigm and be an end to university campuses as we know them. The open, global access to high quality, university education from renowned institutions would democratize education and act as a catalyst for change (de Freitas, Morgan, & Gibson, 2015; Christensen et al, 2013; Glass et al., 2016; Major & Blackmon, 2016). However, this major paradigmatic shift has not, at least as of late 2018, changed the landscape of higher education significantly or disrupted higher education as originally touted (Christensen et al., 2013; Schmid, Manturuk, Simpkins, Goldwasser, & Whitfield, 2015). The theoretical application of MOOCs and their actual uses have been going through a period of trial and error (Sharrock, 2015). MOOCs are continuing to be developed and their precise place in the world of higher education is still being articulated. Furthermore, like online

courses, MOOCs can take a number of formats. Some formats described in the literature include xMOOCs, cMOOCs, and pMOOCS, in addition to various hybrid formats (Fidalgo-Blanco, Sein-Echaluce, & García-Peñalvo, 2016; Lowenthal, Snelson, & Perkins, 2018).

The difference between xMOOCs and cMOOCs is similar to the original two different philosophical underpinnings of online courses that Harasim (2000) described in the 1980s (i.e., collaborative/interactive and the traditional didactic lecture style). Lowenthal et al. (2018) noted that at least one way scholars have differentiated MOOCs is by examining the role of instructor in them. For example, in xMOOCS, instructors serve a traditional didactic role and such courses are "instructivist and individualist, use classic e-learning platforms and are based on resources" while cMOOCs position the instructor as a guide and the courses are "connectivist and are based on social learning, cooperation and use of web 2.0" (Fidalgo-Blanco et al., 2016, p. 14). pMOOCs are "problem" oriented where instructors guide students in addressing or solving a particular issue (Lowenthal et al., 2018). While three common MOOC formats have been presented here, there are other possible categorizations described in the literature (see Lowenthal et al., 2018). In addition to the numerous potential formats of MOOCs, there are also many potential uses. These cases range from the specific usage of a MOOC for the replacement of large introductory college lecture courses (Blackmon, 2016) to subsequent credit validation for use in degree-granting programs (Sharrock, 2015).

Other issues related to legal, ethical, and privacy concerns still need to be fully addressed given the massive scale and status of participants, and whether or not they

have the same rights/protections/expectations that "official" university students do (Hutchens & Hulbert, 2016). Many MOOC instructors also have little online teaching experience prior to facilitating MOOCs (Lowenthal et al., 2018). Moreover, proverbial best practices still need to be developed and refined in so far as course designs, development, and implementation methods are concerned (Manallack & Yuriev, 2016; Ossiannilsson, Altinay, & Altinay, 2016; Park, Jung, & Reeves, 2015). Some instructors have also expressed various concerns such as the quality of MOOCs given the massive scale and difficulty in providing feedback to individual participants (Lowenthal et al., 2018). Growing pains and trial and error aside, there are trends in MOOCs that are noteworthy.

      <ins>Notable MOOC Trends</ins>

      Jordan (2014) analyzed a variety of publicly available MOOC data which suggested that the average MOOC enrollment is around 43,000 students, while the higher end of enrollment can be in the hundreds of thousands (Jordan, 2014; Jordan, 2015; Onah et al., 2014). While course attrition/retention is a complex topic, MOOCs tend to have comparatively low completion rates around 10% or less (Jordan, 2014). Nonetheless, it should be emphasized that the complex interplay of student motivations for taking MOOCs (e.g., casual interest, novelty, lifelong learning, skill improvement), the intentional absence of gatekeeping or prerequisites, and the massive scale of delivery (i.e., tens of thousands of students per course) requires a highly nuanced analysis. The large attrition rates alone are not necessarily an indicator of the relative quality, success, or failure of MOOCs (Glass et al., 2016; Jordan, 2014, 2015; Means et al., 2014; Semenova & Rudakova, 2016).

For example, if a typical MOOC services roughly 50,000 students and only 10% successfully complete it, 5,000 students have still benefited from having taken the course (Glass et al., 2016; Jordan, 2014, 2015). The course completion number for a single MOOC is still far greater than any typical face-to-face or online class can achieve (cf. Taft et al., 2011; Tomei, 2004; Orellana, 2006). Furthermore, the motives of major universities in offering MOOCs may be more for marketing purposes in order to attract students to university programs after the fact by virtue of brand name recognition, rather than just an altruistic desire to provide open learning opportunities (Glass et al., 2016; Howarth, D'Alessandro, Johnson, & White, 2016).

From a demographic perspective, Glass et al. (2016) referred to MOOCs as "masculine" open online courses in light of the overwhelming gender disparity among participants. Some surveys indicated that not only are the instructors disproportionately male, but so too are students (Glass et al., 2016). This gender imbalance contrasts with enrollment trends in distance education that indicate a slightly higher percentage of female students over all (Christensen et al., 2013; Glass et al., 2016), as well as with face-to-face education (Hoyt & Simon, 2016). Other demographic trends tend to portray the typical MOOC participant as relatively young, western, English-speaking, and male, as evidenced in data from courses from high profile providers such as HarvardX, MITx, edX, and Coursera (Christensen et al., 2013; Glass et al., 2016; Nesterko et al., 2013; Veletsianos & Shepherdson, 2016).

While this student profile can be correlated with the geographic location (i.e., North America) and linguistic profile (i.e., English-speaking) of these providers (Veletsianos & Shepherdson, 2016), the geographic data from these studies (i.e.,

Christensen et al., 2013; Glass et al., 2016; Nesterko et al., 2013; Veletsianos & Shepherdson, 2016) suggests that this relationship is not necessarily the case. In the data from edX, Coursera, and HarvardX, roughly two-thirds of total participants were located outside of the United States, with one-third clustering in the European region, and the remaining third distributed throughout other countries/regions (Christensen et al., 2013; Glass et al., 2016). Information from Coursera and edX indicate a more complex linguistic portrait that may contribute to this geographic dissonance.

Currently, Coursera and edX allow prospective students to search available MOOCs by the language of instruction. edX lists courses being available in 16 languages, though the top three (in descending order) are English, Spanish, and Mandarin. English, however, is by far the most prevalent language of instruction on the platform (see edX, n.d.). In Coursera, it is more difficult to obtain a global view of the instructional languages offered since only individual subject areas are searchable by language. A cursory search of three subject areas yielded the following linguistic profiles by subject. Life sciences, for example, shows MOOCs offered in 28 different languages, information technology has courses in 10 different languages, and the arts and humanities category lists courses available in 26 different languages (Coursera, n.d.). While MOOCs offered in English make up the largest number by volume, the total number in each subject area is not as disproportionate as the current edX catalogue. To put it mildly, North American MOOC offerings also have a complex linguistic landscape. Moreover, MOOC platforms are not exclusive to North America (Shah, 2017).

Glass et al. (2016) noted that the "educational level of MOOC students mirrors [their] socioeconomic status" (p. 44) and that second or foreign language ability (English in the case of North American MOOCs) could also be an indicator of higher socioeconomic status. As noted earlier by Shah (2017), MOOC providers are not unique to the United States as many nations are home to MOOC providers. Table 4 is illustrative of the variety that is available at present.

Despite being available freely or at relatively low cost, MOOCs largely reach the "most motivated and affluent learners" in their respective countries (Glass et al., 2016, p. 44). As noted by Pearce and Rice (2013), "demographic differences, access, skills, interests, and infrastructure all represent kinds of costs and barriers" (p. 722). The massive scale and increased access to MOOCs may unintentionally exacerbate a socioeconomic and related digital divide around the world (Glass et al., 2016; Pearce & Rice, 2013).

Table 4   **A Survey of MOOC Providers from Around the World**

Region	MOOC Platform(s)	Country
North America	edX, Coursera, Udacity, Canvas Network, HarvardX	United States
	méxicoX	México
Europe	FUN	France
	Iversity, OpenHPI	Germany
	FutureLearn	United Kingdom
	Miríada	Spain
	Open Education, Federica.eu	Italy
	Open Education	Russia
	Prometheus	Ukraine
Middle East	Rwaq	Saudi Arabia
	Edraak	Jordan
Asia	NPTEL, SWAYAN	India
	ThaiMOOC	Thailand
	IndonesiaX	Indonesia
	CNMOOC, XuetangX, Zhihuishu	China
	Ewant, Open Education	Taiwan
	KMOOC	Korea
	Fisdom, Gacco, OpenLearning, JMOOC	Japan

Region	MOOC Platform(s)	Country
Oceania	Open2study	Australia

Summary

The history and development of distance education shows a field that has evolved from encompassing relatively simple methods and technology (i.e., correspondence courses, print media, transmission models of information) into an umbrella term that is deceptively simple despite increasing methodological and pedagogical complexity tied to parallel advancements in technology (Lee, 2017; Lorenzo, 2015; Lowenthal et al., 2009; Tracey & Ritchey, 2005; Watts, 2016). Distance education is a more common experience in society today, and it is one that is increasingly global (Allen et al., 2016; Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2018; Harasim, 2000; Lee, 2017; Means et al., 2014; Ortagus, 2016; Watts, 2016). Moreover, with the prevalence of many western educational programs crossing borders electronically around the world, cultural biases and imperial/colonial overtones can stand out (Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Heffernan, Morrison, Basu, & Sweeney, 2010; Montgomery, 2014; Kanu, 2005; Larreamendy-Joerns et al., 2016; Pyvis, 2011; Sadykova & Dautermann, 2009; Ziguras, 2001). Such overtones can be reinforced through the use of single/national frames of reference when importing and applying western educational paradigms, values, and traditions into non-western contexts and peoples (Gunawardena, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008).

As Allen et al. (2016) noted, 28% of college students in the United States alone take online courses each year. Elsewhere in the world there are large, open universities

serving tens of thousands of students annually (see Castañeda, 2005; Davis, 2001; Gulati, 2008; Means et al., 2014; Moiseeva, 2005; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Park & Kim, 2004; Schlosser & Anderson, 1994), in addition to brick and mortar universities offering their own catalogues of distance programs at virtually all levels of education (Means et al., 2014; Moore & Kearsley, 2012). Furthermore, mega-universities (with more than 100,000 enrolled students) such as the Open University of China (OUC), Anadolu University in Turkey, or the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), have emerged with student enrolment in the millions (Latchem, Özukel, Aydin, & Mutlu, 2006; Li, 2018). The emergence of MOOCs has brought with potentially global, otherwise uncommon scales (cf. Arulchelvan & Viswanathan, 2008; Govindaraju & Banerjee, 1999; Panda, 2005; Panda & Mishra, 2007; Sharma, 1999; Subba Rao, 2006) of enrollment in a single course (Jordan, 2014, 2015; Onah et al., 2014), and there are thousands of MOOCs available around the world (Shah, 2017). With so many new students gaining access to online courses, it is worth examining and reexamining who distance students are in the 21st century (Jones, 2001).

Distance Students: A Complex Portrait

The academic literature is plentiful and varied when it comes to the study of distance students, their salient characteristics, and the relationship of those characteristics to online courses success in particular. Current research spans virtually all fields and levels of study from secondary schools through graduate studies (Means et al., 2014). Dabbagh (2007) suggested that a definitive archetype of distance students only exist in simple terms. Misperceptions of distance students can also be compounded to some degree by national or homogenous frames of reference (Gunawardena, 2003, 2014;

Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Jayatilleke & Gunawardena, 2016). While distance

students do share a broad range of demographic and situational characteristics on the

whole, they are still heterogenous (Dabbagh, 2007; Veletsianos & Shepherdson, 2016).

Distance students also increasingly present the researcher with diverse educational,

cultural, and situational backgrounds (Aman, 2013; Dabbagh, 2007; Dobos, 2011;

Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Lorenzo, 2015; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016). However,

prior to exploring the limitations and/or gaps in the literature regarding distance students

in a transnational context, a more generic view of distance students is presented.

Ideal versus Actual Online Students

An analysis of the academic literature yields a profile of the successful online

student as one with strong emotional intelligence, self-awareness, self-regulation abilities,

self-discipline, time management knowledge, organizational skills, interpersonal

communication adeptness, technology fluency, and an internal locus of control (Colorado

& Eberle, 2010; Dabbagh, 2007; Glass et al., 2016; Kauffman, 2015; Means et al., 2014).

While such ideal online students do in fact exist (Colorado & Eberle; Dobos, 2011),

many real-world factors and conditions limit the applicability of this profile (Means et al.,

2014). Means et al. (2014) noted that distance education is often paradoxical in this

regard; the students who need distance courses (or might benefit the most from them) can

often be the most ill-suited for the conditions, demands, rigors, and requirements of

learning at a distance. Moreover, distance courses can often be a second or last chance for

some students (Means et al., 2014). In other cases, distance courses may be the only

realistic option available given local course availability, geographic location, or other

cultural, political, or socioeconomic factors (Dobos, 2011; Gunawardena, 2003; Hewling, 2005; Means et al., 2014; Selwyn, 2011a, 2011b).

Aragon and Johnson (2008) conducted a study in the American Midwest examining the "difference in demographic characteristics, enrollment (hours enrolled), academic readiness, and self-directed learning readiness between students who complete and do not complete online courses" (p. 147). They noted that students had a greater chance of completing online courses if they were enrolled in more hours. Moreover, they found that the higher a student's prior GPA, the greater chance of completing the course. For working adults and students with limited or no higher education backgrounds, however, the effects of these conditions were more prominent. Similarly, Hachey, Wladis, and Conway (2013) investigated whether or not it was worth restricting access to online courses based on prior GPAs given high online course attrition rates as a preventative measure. They concluded, however, that the cut off GPA (3.0) would exclude the majority of eligible community college students in their study and run contrary to the goal of education access, though such a measure would reduce the attrition rate. Hachey et al. (2013) clearly noted that any policy deliberately limiting educational access, particularly for public universities and community colleges, would be paradoxical if not impractical.

Roblyer and Davis (2008) built a predictive model of success based on data from a virtual K-12 school and argued for increased and more targeted support systems rather than restriction, while Liu, Gomez, and Yen (2009) suggested the need for early identification of at-risk students coupled with effective intervention programs. Prior familial educational attainment often showed a strong a relationship to subsequent

education success (Davis-Keane, 2005), and similarly prior online course experience displays a similar correlation (Hachey, Wladis, & Conway, 2012). This paradoxical situation is yet another example of the challenges that many distance students face (Means et al., 2014).

Prior Experience, Expectations, and Motivation

Dumais, Rizzuto, Cleary, and Dowden (2013) examined the educational generation status (i.e., first time college students in a family versus students with parents who attended university to any degree of completion) to better understand "information about the individual's educational history, online learning experiences, access to educational support services, work–family demands, and employment attitudes and perceptions" for students in Louisiana (p. 103). They found that first generation adult online students were likely to cite their workplaces as obstacles to balancing school and life commitments, in addition to interactional difficulties with online course instructors. From a different perspective, Kelly and Schorger (2003) conducted a study on rural students in Cyprus and southern Colorado/New Mexico in an international/transnational program for special education teachers that exposed a varied set of computer literacy skills among participants. That is, students came to class with different levels of technology skills, but there were notable differences between students from families with prior academic experience and consequent online performance and successful course completion.

Kelly and Schorger (2003) reported that links between prior experience and subsequent success are logical, however, Hachey et al.'s (2012) investigation highlighted more nuance with the link between prior online course experience and online course

success. They found that attrition rates in online courses were markedly higher in the first semester of the academic year versus the second, suggesting that the first semester served as a period of acclimatization. This particular nuance furthered the discussion by recognizing that a lack of familiarity with distance courses and/or online learning was an additional factor that could be addressed proactively. Such difficulties or obstacles are not necessarily limited to the inexperienced learner, however.

Tyler-Smith (2006) argued that even for mature, adult learners, their first experience in distance education can result in cognitive overload, serving as a possible cause for attrition. And even if one has prior online course experience, it may not be experience with the same type of online course, since they vary dramatically in type, size, purpose, formality, synchronicity, etc. (Lowenthal et al., 2009). Nevertheless, the resulting implication was that online courses should be designed in a way that initially reduces or limits cognitive load, and *then* scales up the load as the course progresses. He suggested numerous load-scaling interventions (e.g., face-to-face orientations, technology workshops, early course or module access, short entry courses in a program, minimal tasks early on), as well as ongoing student support and intervention strategies. While helping students gain experience in online courses may minimize course difficulties and improve attrition/retention rates, students may not have realistic expectations of the intrinsic workload or degree of difficulty.

In rural Wales, Packham, Jones, Miller, and Thomas (2004) provided questionnaires to students who withdrew from their distance program in order to develop a better sense of the reasons underlying the withdrawals. They ultimately suggested that some students did not have realistic expectations of the time needed to do the course

while balancing demands from employers and/or families. Their analysis resulted in eight reasons for withdrawal, which fall either into an extrinsic or intrinsic category. Ultimately, both extrinsic and intrinsic factors could be addressed with increased and/or better student support. Similar to the recommendations of Tyler-Smith (2006), Packham et al. (2004) suggested interventions such as orientation, training, and trial/sample courses before students actually enroll in courses. Realistic expectations notwithstanding, student motivation also plays a key role in course success.

Yoo and Huang (2013) conducted a qualitative study investigating the motivational factors and engagement levels of adult graduate students and their online courses. The findings from their study showed that women had higher degrees of intrinsic motivation, and that "[p]articipants in their twenties, thirties, and forties reported a higher level of relevance in their short-term and long-term extrinsic motivation than the rest of the age groups" (p. 160). They ultimately suggested that "[o]nline degree programs targeting adult learners must incorporate workplace related considerations and career development opportunities in order to fully engage online adult learners before, during, and after the participation in the degree programs" (p. 160). Broadly speaking, prior experience, accurate expectations, and intrinsic motivation contribute to the complex profile of online students. Socioeconomic status, as I now show, complicates this picture even further (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Dabbagh, 2007; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Hewling, 2005, Jones, 2001, Lorenzo, 2015; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Wilkins, 2016).

Socioeconomic Factors

Kaupp (2012) explored the implications of ethnic/racial minority status with Latino online students in the United States. He found that "[i]n most cases, students pay a

penalty for enrolling in online classes, and this penalty is [relatively] larger for Latino students than for White students" (p. 15). This penalty (as described by Kaupp) is indicative of not only socioeconomic differences between students, instructors, and the academy, but the intersection of these factors. By extension, this disparity may exist for other minority groups due to similar social forces being in effect, and heterogeneous worldviews (Aman, 2013; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Kaupp, 2012; Salvo, Welch, & Shelton, 2019; Smith & Ayers, 2006).

Xu and Jaggars (2013) investigated how well students adapted to online learning with a dataset containing information on student performance from over 500,000 courses taken by over 40,000 community college and vocational students in Washington state. They suggested that, while overall for many students there is a decrease in online student performance when compared to face-to-face courses, certain groups were more at risk for lower performance. This included racial minorities (African Americans in this particular study), younger students, male students, and students with a relatively low prior GPA. These results echo the findings and suspicions of Kaupp and are still found at present (see Salvo et al., 2019).

In Germany, Stoessel et al. (2015) conducted a quantitative study with data from the FernUniversität that similarly identified high and low categories for risk based on demographic characteristics. The high-risk group included those who were "full-time employed students, migrant students, and female students" (p. 242) whereas the low risk group contained students who were older (i.e., 50 years and above) and parents. The main finding was that "some sociodemographic student groups face, in fact, a higher risk for attrition from distance education programs than others" (p. 244).

Summary

Although distance education has been labeled and viewed as a democratizing force in education (Bower & Hardy, 2004; Casey, 2008; Glass et al., 2016), the online learning landscape is not a neutral space or level playing field for all participants (Aman, 2013; Glass et al., 2016; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Means et al., 2014; Pearce & Rice, 2013; Stoessel et al., 2015). While achievement gaps were explored here with research largely from the United States, the greater attrition rates and disadvantages for minority students may also be amplified in multicultural, polycultural, and transnational educational settings (Aman, 2013; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Hoare, 2013; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009; Stoessel et al., 2015). On one hand, the literature contributing to the profile of online learners is helpful in outlining broad strokes of student features and characteristics, but on the other, it also shows the limitations of single/national frames of reference, especially when importing and applying the paradigms of western educational values and traditions into non-western contexts (Gunawardena, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008). Thus, any discussion on distance education and online students should involve a transnational education perspective.

Transnational Education

While the definition of distance education was discussed and defined earlier in this review by the United States Distance Learning Association as "the acquisition of knowledge and skills through mediated information and instruction, encompassing all technologies and other forms of learning at a distance" (Bower & Hardy, 2004, p. 5), this definition does not explicitly address the conditions of distance education in a transnational context. There are numerous reasons, both historically and currently, that

are responsible for migration, emigration, and immigration in the forms of military postings, missionary work, overseas corporate assignments, international education, self-initiated expatriation, or marriage, to list but a few (Froese, 2012; Jon et al., 2014; Jun & Gentry, 2005; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). Moreover, there are less benign reasons that also cause the movement of people such as military conflicts, invasions, civil wars, natural disasters, or socio economic and political crises (Dobos, 2011; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009; Selwyn, 2011a). However, the Internet has unbound the individual from any particular geographic location. Students, instructors, and even the academy are not necessarily confined to a single geographic location (Garret, 2003; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016). Students now have the option to avoid the costs and difficulties of relocation and can still attend an educational program as a matter of choice (Hewling, 2005; Gunawardena, 2003).

The intersection of these circumstances is evidenced by the formation of transnational cultures that are not organic to any one place (Dobos, 2011; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008). A few examples include the Korean Joseonjok, Koryeoin/Koryeosaram diaspora communities located in China and various former Soviet Republics, the Japanese diaspora communities such as the Nikkejin in Brazil and Peru (Seol & Skrentny, 2009), or the Zainichi Koreans in Japan (Lee & Tanaka, 2018). Transnational cultures are characterized by an interconnected, close, and constant contact with their "home" cultures by means of modern ICT and transportation technology (Guo, 2015; Pieterse, 2007), as well as fluid identity between host and heritage cultures (Lee & Tanaka, 2018). Earlier immigrant communities, by contrast, had one-way, fixed journeys marked by a "sharp and definitive break from their ancestral

homelands" (Guo, 2015, p. 7). Such complex liminal spaces also create new challenges when conceptualizing the situations that students can exist in (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Harrison et al., 2018; Dobos, 2011; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016). Academic institutions have long made distinctions between national and international students in the student body for various practical, logistical, and legal purposes, but this traditional dichotomy is inadequate in modern face-to-face and distance educational settings (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Harrison et al., 2018; Dobos, 2011; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016). Rensimer (2016) critiqued, "[t]he overlapping language of all things international—international students and international institutions in (inter)national spaces—appears to have made the term all but redundant as a useful research analytic in a globalizing era" (p. 79). Moreover, the distinction between being an international distance student versus a transnational one is unclear in the literature (Kosmützky & Putty, 2016). While a uniform consensus does not exist in regard to transnational and adult education policy (Knight, 2016; Milana, 2012), there is a general consensus on transnational education delivery modes and sub formats.

These delivery modes and sub formats, like well-established blended learning models or common online class formats (Table 2; Table 3), provide some insight into the complexity in the transnational education space. This insight is especially useful when these modes and sub formats overlap/merge with the diverse practices of distance education. However, just as it was necessary to follow the lineage of distance education in order to better understand how computers and the Internet have enabled a variety of online courses formats, it is equally necessary to understand what transnational education is, and how it is uniquely manifested in various delivery modes (Francois, 2016).

Definitions and Characteristics

Garrett (2003) wrote that borderless higher education "refers to the crossing various kinds of 'borders' - geographical, sectoral and conceptual" (p. 113). McBurnie and Ziguras (2001) noted that a hallmark of transnational education is when "learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based" (p. 86). The Global Alliance for Transnational Education also echoed this geographic requirement (GATE, 1997). Nevertheless, all of these definitions are vague since the crossing-of-borders can happen in numerous ways. Adding to the difficulty of discussing transnational education is the lack of consistency between terms, definitions, and usage which vary based on the educational service provider or the students attending it (Caruana & Montgomery, 2015; Knight, 2016; Wilkins, 2016). Francois (2016), however, outlined a fairly comprehensive overview which is provided in Table 5.

Francois (2016) also provided additional (and more specific) definitions from the Asia-Pacific European Cooperation (APEC) describing a situation "in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based" (p. 3). UNESCO and the OECD defined transnational education as when "the teachers, student, programme, institution/provider or course materials cross the national jurisdictional border" (Francois, 2016, p. 4). The British Council defined it as when "students study towards a foreign qualification without leaving their home country" (Francois, 2016, p. 4). Dobos (2011) cited the Australian Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) when "programs/courses that are delivered/assessed by an accredited/approved/recognized provider in a country other than Australia, where delivery includes a face to face component" (p. 19). By extension, it is easy to see how

distance education can also fall into the realm of transnational education as any given education program, its resources, students, and faculty can all cross borders electronically (Singh et al., 2012). Physical or digital cross-border movement is not necessarily all that characterizes transnational education, however.

Mason (as cited in Selinger, 2004), in a 1999 keynote address at the *National University Telecommunication Network Conference* by contrast, viewed transnational education more stringently with five distinct components:

- students distributed over more than two continents;

- a deliberate focus on marketing to and enrolling students abroad;

- a truly transnational curriculum unique to a given program;

- robust institutional and technological support structures designed around a global student body;

- operations at a scale with the number of transnational programs greater than one, with more than one curriculum area (i.e., not just education or science), with more than 100 students.

For Mason, transnational education requires more than just the mechanics of physical or digital cross-border movement to be fully realized, and his criteria are both a valid and valuable critique on what it may mean for a program to truly be transnational.

Knight (2016) argued that an overlooked nuance in transnational education is "whether the TNE [transnational education] program involves collaboration between a foreign and local provider" versus "situations where only facilities are provided by a host country HEI [higher education institute] or organization" (p. 38). The same advice that Lowenthal et al. (2009) offered about not allowing a simplified discourse to affect (i.e.,

oversimplify) our perceptions of online courses is equally valuable and warranted in the transnational context as well. Not all transnational programs and course modes are the same despite the common thread of physical or digital cross-border movement. Knight's (2016) collaborative factor is but one example that illustrates the push-pull between generalizations, particular situations, and nuance. One area of transnational education that is robust, however, are the modes and sub formats that enable transnational programs.

Modes of Delivery

Since distance education requires some form of technology to mediate the process, it comes as no surprise that Francois (2016) classified all methods of distance education, from correspondence, broadcast (radio, television, satellite), and online courses as potential enablers of transnational education. However, the Internet has acted as a catalyst and enabler of transnational education in ways and scales that are fundamentally different prior to the Internet's existence (Andrews & Tynan, 2010). The emergence of international distance student enrollment, the phenomenon of transnational and expatriate students (Stewart, 2017), "home" students abroad (Gemmell & Harrison, 2017), and the staggering number of globally distributed students that enrolled in MOOCs is arguably indicative of this change. For example, there can be more students enrolled in a single MOOC (see Jordan, 2014, 2015, Onah et al., 2014), from all over the world (see Christensen, 2013; Glass et al., 2016; Nesterko et al., 2013), than an entire brick-and-mortar university will enroll on a yearly basis.

Ultimately, the key take-away from Francois (2016) is that from the perspective of transnational education, distance education is simply a part of the family. Francois (2016) outlined various ways that an institution of higher learning can establish a

physical presence in a country abroad which characterizes in-country delivery modes, whereas the various blended transnational modes combine aspects of both in-country delivery and a mediating technology, as well as in-country delivery and the subsequent physical movement of students or faculty across borders. An overview of the variety of potential transnational delivery modes is presented in Table 5.

Table 5   **Overview of Transnational Education Delivery Modes and Methods**

Mode	Format	Characteristics	Source
In country	Overseas / Offshore Branch Campus	run or managed directly by the home institution offering programs and degrees	Francois, 2016; Latchem & Ryan, 2013
	Franchise	home institution licenses a local institution to offer various education programs and products that are recognized and honored by the institution of origin	Francois, 2016
	Credit Validation	credit is transferred between institutions by applying to transfer course credit after it has been assessed for equivalency	Francois, 2016
	Dual Degree Programs	students enrolled in one program can simultaneously earn a degree or certificate from the other without having to relocate	Francois, 2016
Blended	Twinning	credit has already been certified between institutions and transfers without question by means of memorandums of understanding (MoU)	Francois, 2016
	Fly-in / Fly-out	certain courses are taught exclusively by faculty from the home institution who are sent out to the local site, while other courses may be taught by local faculty	Francois, 2016; Latchem, & Ryan, 2013; Arunasalam, 2016; Hou, Montgomery, & McDowell, 2014, Smith, 2014
	Double Degree with Mobility	students earn two degrees but spend time taking courses in both the home and host nations	Francois, 2016
	Joint Degrees	students spend some time studying in both countries but earn a single degree bearing the names of both institutions	Francois, 2016

Table 5   **Overview of Transnational Education Delivery Modes and Methods**

Mode	Format	Characteristics	Source
	Consecutive Degrees	students earn an initial degree in one country (e.g., an Associate's degree) and earn an additional, consecutive degree in the other country (e.g., a Bachelor's degree), or a graduate certificate in the home country fulfills portions of a Master's degree abroad	Francois, 2016
Distance	Online	courses are conducted online 100% online	Francois, 2016
	Hybrid	some degree of the course is conducted online	

Despite the inclusion of distance education in the overall body of transnational education, student voice is weakly represented in transnational distance education scholarship (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Wilkins, 2016). By contrast, there is more work describing modes of transnational delivery (e.g., Caruana & Montgomery, 2015; Francois, 2016; Knight, 2016; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012) and faculty experiences (e.g., Wilkins, Butt, & Annabi, 2017; Ziguras & Pham, 2014). There are investigations into the "international" student experience (see Erichsen & Bolliger, 2010; Habib, Johannesen, & Øgrim, 2014; Gemmell et al., 2013; Selinger, 2004; Selwyn, 2011a, 2011b; Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013), however, this single homogenous label oversimplifies potentially more complicated relationships between students and their institution(s) (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Harrison et al., 2018; Rensimer, 2016; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016). The complexity of transnational delivery modes can be better understood by examining a few tangible, real world examples.

Transnational Locations and Programs

The variety of formats (as outlined largely by Francois) in transnational education is not merely hypothetical. There are numerous programs currently running, as well as numerous research studies conducted on/at various programs around the world. Hou, Montgomery, and McDowell (2014) identified 511 transnational programs in China alone at both the undergraduate and graduate level of study. There are other transnational programs and offshore branch campuses in Malaysia (see Arunasalam, 2016; Dobos, 2011; Sidhu & Christie, 2013; Wilkins et al., 2017), the Middle East (see Miller-Idris & Hanauer, 2011; Wilkins et al., 2017), Vietnam (see Ziguras & Pham, 2014), Taiwan (see Yung-Chi Hou, Morse, & Wang, 2017), Indonesia (see Sutrisno & Pillay, 2013), Pakistan (see Kanu, 2005), Korea (see FSU, n.d.; IFEZ, n.d.; IGC, n.d.; UCRX, n.d.) and Singapore (see Dobos, 2011) to list but a few. While the variety of delivery methods presented above in Table 6 may seem overwhelming with seemingly trivial differences, the outline is meant to bring the complexity of partnership agreements, local/foreign accreditation standards, and government regulatory compliance to the foreground. The delivery modes simply represent a number of creative responses to meet these diverse educational scenarios.

Diverse Global Circumstances

Distance education has often been advertised as a practical solution for providing students with flexible education options by enabling the ability to learn anytime, anywhere, at one's own pace (Bower & Hardy, 2004; Casey, 2008; Dobos, 2011; Lee, 2017; Saba, 2011; Simonson et al., 2012; Sun & Chen, 2016). Hewling (2005) noted this prevailing idea, but also suggested that at the very least on "a broader level, diversely

located students spread nationally, or internationally, may be able to attend programs previously only accessible to students willing and able to accept the disruption of physical relocation" (p. 337). For example, even K-12 international schools can be characterized by student mobility or institutional/instructor mobility (Bunnell, Fertig, & James, 2016). Nevertheless, such geographic mobility is not always so straightforward. While large segments of the population may live on continental landmasses both geographically near and far from the university, Singh et al. (2012) highlighted students from the South Pacific region who live across small island chains that can be "separated by vast expanses of ocean" and where "enormous distances between islands [sic] nations have made higher education less accessible" (p. 71), and may necessitate island hopping as a method of commuting.

The notion of convenience and flexibility is not necessarily the only appeal of distance education (Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Pyvis, 2011; Selwyn, 2011a), or transnational education (Selwyn, 2011a). There are other more contextually pertinent reasons that draw students to distance education beyond the benign idea of anywhere, anytime learning. Moreover, Selwyn (2011a) cautioned that there is a "need for educators, educationalists and policymakers alike to remain mindful of the limitations of globalised distance education in the twenty-first century" (p. 381). Rather than enabling flexible learning, participants in this study highlighted a "discrete, private and often socially empty enterprise" that necessitated rigid structures and routines (p. 381), and ultimately was more challenging than anticipated. Nevertheless, there are multiple reasons that make distance learning an appealing prospect beyond the notions of flexibility or convenience (Pyvis, 2011).

Socio Political Circumstances

Selwyn (2011a) noted that there can be comparatively simple reasons that influence the decision to enroll in distance programs such as the lack of local educational opportunities. For example, students in the Caribbean wishing to enroll in a law program often could not take classes because they would often be cancelled due to low enrollment. He also highlighted more complex cases of ethnic discrimination for Serbians living in Bosnia, or the preference/privilege granted to ethnic Malay students applying to university over non-Malay minority groups in Malaysia. Even in the United States, certain religious/theological students sought courses related to theological matters that were not viewed as having "undesirable religious agendas in their curricula" (Selwyn, 2011a, p. 374). Selwyn also brought attention to the circumstances of the nomadic professional by highlighting an interview with a student who stated:

> I actually live all throughout the year in three different places between
> Gabon, Liberia and Greece….At one point I had planned on going back to
> the States and pursuing a master's or even a PhD but then I met my
> husband [in Liberia] and life continued here and realised I was not going
> to obtain that goal. (Selwyn, 2011a, p. 373)

A core characteristic of this nomadic, transnational life compared to working professionals with fixed residency is its "irregular circumstances" (p. 373). Since geographic mobility has been increasing around the world due to technological change and development (Furham, 2012; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008), these circumstances may not be so "irregular" anymore.

As pointed out earlier by Gunawardena and LaPointe (2008), we are moving toward being a global or planetary community that is "evidenced by transnational cultures that are not wholly based in any single place" (p. 52). This trend can also be referred to as *glocalization* which is characterized by the "blending and connecting local and global contexts while maintaining the significant contributions of the different cultural communities and contexts" (Patel & Lynch, 2013, p. 223). Nevertheless, even without such benign or negative circumstances affecting student motivation to pursue distance education opportunities, differences in geographic origin may indicate other challenges like the lack of relevant ICT skills and knowledge (Aman, 2013; Gunawardena, 2014; Pearce & Rice, 2013; Pyvis, 2011). The umbrella term used to denote such potential difficulties is the digital divide (Aman, 2013; Habib et al., 2014; Pearce & Rice, 2013).

The Digital Divide

When using a VLE in an onsite program, Habib et al. (2014) noted and described different usage patterns among international students. They labeled two distinct behavioral trends as the Global South and Global North. In their definition "students from the Global South have probably experienced the so-called digital divide, a divide in terms of economy, access, knowledge and power" and "are lagging far behind the North when it comes to technological infrastructure and penetration of personal technology" (Habib et al., 2014, p. 197). Some students, by virtue of their geographic origin and socioeconomic status, may lack the necessary skills to effectively use modern educational tools required in distance education, and they may struggle to successfully navigate the cultural paradigms underpinning these delivery tools (Aman, 2013; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014;

Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Pearce & Rice, 2013). Similarly in Korea, Lee (2011) conducted a quantitative study where international students described different role expectations of the online teacher compared to their Korean peers. He noted that Korean universities (among others) had not paid much attention to the socioeconomic and/or cultural factors of "international" students until relatively recently. Given the greater breadth of student circumstances and educational scenarios in transnational educational settings, university administration and faculty should take these considerations into account, and even take on new roles and responsibilities.

Mindfulness

While it may be appealing for faculty to want to teach online or in transnational environments (or both), the transition from a familiar frame-of-reference to a transnational one can be difficult (Leung & Waters, 2017). Additionally, Boling, Hough, Krinsky, Saleem, and Stevens (2012) noted that faculty, despite being subject matter experts, do not necessarily have the appropriate training or know how to teach effectively online. Lowenthal et al. (2018) noted this similar lack of experience for instructors interested in teaching MOOCs. Faculty can frequently experience difficulties with students' written or oral proficiency in a second (L2) or third language (L3), impeding communication (Dobos, 2011). More problematic, however, are difficulties encountered as the result of heterogeneous worldviews and cultures coming into contact (Dobos, 2011; Gunawardena, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2009; Patel & Lynch, 2013). Dobos (2011) reported that faculty felt it was difficult to adapt their teaching methods to meet the expectations of students. And such difficulty may be perpetuated by the assumption that faculty and students will automatically adapt successfully to a

multicultural environment in a national setting (Hall, 1959; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009; Smith & Ayers, 2006), let alone a transnational context (Hoare, 2013; Leung & Waters, 2017). While there are indeed students and faculty who have little to no trouble with successful acculturation to different teaching/learning methods and environments, tools, and role expectations by making various accommodations (Sadykova & Meskill, 2019), it is difficult to predict (Gunawardena, 2014), and is often a highly individualized response (Furham, 2012; Gunawardena, 2014; Jun & Gentry, 2005). One consequence of cultural insensitivity (or the lack of awareness thereof) can be student harm.

Hoare (2013) noted that "reference points were at best negatively skewed and at worst ethnocentric and ill-informed" for some of the instructors in her study (p. 564). Some intercultural faux pas (e.g., different role expectations, differing perceptions of time) were expected as par for the course, but other more serious intercultural transgressions (e.g., discussion prompts about topical but controversial topics, ethnocentrically informed practices, intercultural power imbalances) simply went unnoticed (Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Harrison et al., 2018; Hoare, 2013; Lee, 2011; Patel & Lynch, 2013). These types of situational challenges may be exacerbated when instructors and administrators also experience adverse professional treatment by the home institution, a burdensome load of administrative responsibilities, the need to create new teaching materials for local effectiveness, as well as determining how strictly to adhere to a standardized curriculum that may not be effective in a different setting (Dobos, 2011).

<u>Summary</u>

To summarize, the motivations and circumstances that lead to transnational distance education are varied and complex. For some students, the allure of flexible and convenient learning opportunities may be fulfilled, but this cliché in distance learning is not globally applicable, nor necessarily the most salient reason that draws students to choose distance education. The addition of more diverse sociopolitical, economic, linguistic, and cultural conditions requires that institutions, instructors, and students be mindful of how these complex circumstances and relationships differ from their own worldviews, and that students varying from those default perspectives does not equate to being wrong or less in any way (Aman, 2013; Dervin & Hahl, 2013; Germain-Rutherford & Kerr, 2008; Furham, 2012; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Hall, 1959; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009; Pyvis, 2011; Sadykova & Meskill, 2019; Shi-Xu, 2001). And while this mindfulness is equally true for students, the power imbalance between the instructor and student can make the interaction challenging since "[i]ntercultural communication is situated in the context of imbalance in power and inequality" such as between the East and the West, the North and the South, men and women, etc. (Shi-Xu, 2001, p. 287), and imposing labels on others could be considered an abuse of cultural power (Dervin & Hahl, 2013). Therefore, more than being just mindful, these conditions need thoughtful consideration so that transnational distance students are afforded equitable educational opportunities and experiences.

Transnational Distance Student Considerations

The academic literature thus far has shown that distance education can transcend national borders, and that this seems to be happening with increasing frequency (Wilkins

& Huisman, 2012). Evidence for this expansion includes traditional face-to-face and hybrid transnational programs (e.g., Arunasalam, 2016; Dobos, 2011; Francois, 2016; FSU, n.d.; Hou et al., 2014; IFEZ, n.d.; IGC, n.d.; Kanu, 2005; Miller-Idris & Hanauer, 2011; Sidhu & Christie, 2013; Sutrisno & Pillay, 2013; UCRX, n.d.; Wilkins et al., 2017; Yung-Chi Hou et al., 2015; Ziguras & Pham, 2014), the emerging recognition of transnational distance students and possible ways of categorizing them (e.g., Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison et al., 2018; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016; Ziguras, 2008). While ICT (and the Internet in particular) has enabled potentially global access to distance education opportunities, the difference that institutions, instructors, and students have in values, expectations, and social and cultural norms are arguably greater than any technological challenge facing those wanting to take advantage of these opportunities (Gunawardena, 2014). The task of understanding the needs of prospective and current students will continue to challenge instructors and universities unless appropriate considerations are made (Aman, 2013; Dervin & Hahl, 2013; Furham, 2012; Gunawardena, 2003; Gunawardena, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Jun & Gentry, 2005). This point is particularly important for education that is increasingly offered globally (Wilkins, 2016; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012).

These factors affect not only classroom dynamics but the designs of virtual learning environments, curriculum architecture, and pedagogical approaches (Germain-Rutherford & Kerr, 2008; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Hewling, 2005; Morrison et al., 2011; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009; Pyvis, 2011). On one hand, subtle external circumstances (e.g., no local access, discrimination) may influence students' decisions to take online courses but these cues

may not be apparent to others in the digital space. On the other, students' unique, and complex cultural identities can be more obvious to their peers through classroom interaction (Germain-Rutherford & Kerr, 2008; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Hewling, 2005; Smith & Ayers, 2006; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). One of the most written about considerations is culture. I also state here for the reader that when culture is discussed throughout this review, any particular culture referenced is but one of many, and equal to all others.

Recognizing Cultural Paradigms

Culture is comprised of numerous dimensions (Hall, 1959, 1976; Hofstede, 1983). Moreover, people in general tend to have multiple cultural identities (Gunawardena, 2014; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009), in addition to the fact that cultural identities are fluid and can change in relation to the surrounding environment (Hewling, 2005; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). Even when students share the same national background, this does not necessarily mean they share the same cultural understandings as their peers (Aman, 2013; Furham, 2012; Gunawardena, 2014; Hewling, 2005; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). Consider how any

> individual may choose to identify in general with the cultural norms of a nation, but this is by no means the only way in which individuals may locate an idea of culture for themselves. Furthermore, an increase in cross-border movement of people around the world means that many individuals are operating within at least two nation-based frames of cultural reference. (Hewling, 2005, p. 339)

Many of the studies on culture in the distance education literature exhibit limitations by

presenting generalized views, or by not recognizing their Western-centric constructs

(Fougère & Moulettes, 2007; Gunawardena, 2014; Hewling, 2005; Jung & Gunawardena,

2014; Miike, 2004; Sadykova & Dautermann, 2009). Further, culture is often equated

with "membership in a particular nation state" (Hewling, 2005, p. 338), though when

cross-border movement is taken into account, the accuracy or utility is arguably lessened.

Culture-related studies are often broad in scope, taking a national level view of behavior,

oversimplifying culturally diverse nations/regions, and glossing over subcultures and

polycultural identities (Furham, 2012; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Hewling, 2005;

Jayatilleke & Gunawardena, 2016). Moreover, cultural dimensions and their expected

behaviors such as power-distance (i.e., the degree to which lower ranking people in a

society accept or expect unequally distributed power) may prove to be the opposite of

expectations online since the Internet can appear as a socially neutral or liberating space

due to the absence of physical attributes, visible cues, and social markers (Gunawardena,

2003; Gunawardena & Jung, 2014). For example, one study with Mexican and U.S.

participants found the online medium to enable more equitable power-distance behavior

for Mexican students despite Mexican culture typically being rated as a high power-

distance culture, as did another study with Sri Lankan and Moroccan Internet cafe users

(Gunawardena & Jung, 2014). Even more pressing, however, is that prevalent culture and

communication research (e.g., Hall, 1959, 1976; Hofstede, 1983), with its western

origins, is built on non-western cultures as the basis for analysis, and does not so

reciprocally with other cultures for theory building (Miike, 2004; Gunawardena & Jung,

2014; Jung & Gunawardena, 2014). As I stated earlier in this review, any culture is but

one of many constructs, and all cultures are equal to one another which makes the unilateral research and analysis approach limiting. Gunawardena and Jung (2014) summarized several critiques of Hofstede's cultural dimensions in seven points:

> (a) limitations of bipolar dimensions, (b) assumption that members of a national culture are homogeneous, (c) sample based on a single multinational organization, (d) participants predominantly middle-class males, (e) neglect of subcultures within various countries, (f) dated results as cultures are not static but change over time, and (g) the danger of stereotyping individuals of a particular culture. (p. 22)

Nonetheless, with these important caveats in mind, a discussion of more specific, potential cultural considerations in the literature continues beginning with various models of culture.

Models of Culture

According to Hall (1959), "for anthropologists culture has long stood for the way of life of a people, for the sum of their learned behavior patterns, attitudes, and material things" (p. 42). Hall (1976) later elaborated by stating that "culture is man's medium; there is not one aspect of human life that is not touched and altered by culture" (p. 16). Culture, as a term, is ultimately nebulous and deceptively simple as it is a construct encompassing numerous complex dimensions. These dimensions can include personality, emotion/expression, thought processes, time orientation, space/proximity orientation, and so on. The models or frameworks for culture that have been developed over the last 60 years in western research provide a useful set of markers that we can use to a) analyse and organize behavior, b) approximate why actions may occur, and c) generate guidelines

to avoid causing problems or offense (Lewis, 2010). However, it must be remembered that speaking broadly of cultural norms is not tantamount to speaking about individual behavior (Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Hall, 1959, 1976; Parrish & Linder-VanBerschot, 2010; Sadykova & Dautermann, 2009). Moreover, individuals can identify with multiple cultural identities, and constantly switch between them given the local environment or situational circumstance (Gunawardena, 2014; Hewling, 2005; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009; Smith & Ayers, 2006). And as discussed above, the rather well-known models are not without western-centric and developmental shortcomings (Gunawardena & Jung, 2014). The models presented here are meant to illustrate various attempts at, and guides for, interacting in multi- and cross-cultural classrooms. Considerations made in light of such cultural models are integral to creating equitable transnational and transnational distance education environments (Pyvis, 2011; Welikala, 2019).

Hall (1976) provided a framework to better approximate and guide the comprehension of culturally-based behavior through his High and Low Context framework. The key distinction between these two ends of the spectrum is that in High Context cultures, people generally share a high degree of common knowledge, beliefs, perceptions, etc., whereas in Low Context Cultures, the degree of mutual commonality is significantly reduced, elevating the value of content versus the context surrounding it. A brief overview of behaviors across various dimensions is presented in Table 6.

Table 6   **Hall's High and Low Context Model: A Brief Set of Dimensions**

	Low Context Behaviors	High Context Behaviors
Language	direct and explicit	implicit and indirect
Time	relative, parallel, and flexible	linear, exact, or sequential
Authority	egalitarian, strive for equity, and feel it is acceptable to challenge authority	organized hierarchically, have a stronger deference to authority, and maintain defined social roles
Group Dynamics	individualistic	collectivist
Reaction Expressions	external and visible, outward focused	reserved and invisible, inward focused

In educational settings, the role of the teacher as an authority is often ideal in High Context Cultures, whereas the facilitator is often described as ideal in modern pedagogical approaches in Low context cultures (Hall, 1976; Hofstede, 1983). The misapplication of teaching practices in different cultural contexts risks creating problems despite good intentions (Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Harrison et al., 2018). For example, consider Grow's (1996) model of student self-directed learning (SSDL) which is indicative of a distinctly western worldview that prioritizes and values self-directed learning. He provided a generic set of guidelines that teachers could use to help students reach this ultimate goal. Yet, outside of the originating cultural context, its appropriateness is debatable since the model's value orientation is not culturally neutral (Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Jung & Gunawardena, 2014; Miike, 2004). The nuance of implicit bias should be kept in mind when examining any approximation of cultural values, and that the models used to approximate cultures are likely useful only up to a certain point.

Similar to Hall, Geert Hofstede developed a cultural model to analyze and categorize cultural behavior (Hofstede, 1983). The dimensions are currently described as: individualistic/collectivistic, masculine/feminine, high/low uncertainty avoidance, large/small power distance, long/short term time perspective, and indulgence/restraint. Northouse (2016) described the work of Trompenaars from 1994 that "surveyed more than 15,000 people in 47 different countries and determined that organizational cultures could be classified effectively into two dimensions: egalitarian versus hierarchical, and person versus task orientation" (p. 450). In terms of culture and leadership, House and Javidan (2004) used quantitative methods to survey 17,000 managers across 62 different cultures throughout the world in a program known as the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE studies). As a result, a framework with nine cultural dimensions was synthesized: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation, and humane orientation (House & Javidan, 2004; Northouse, 2016). Lewis (2010) developed a three-part model in the context of leadership as well with three broad categorizations: Linear-Active, Multi-Active, and Reactive (LMR).

Despite differences in each of the approaches mentioned here, there are notable similarities and overlap among the various dimensions. One notable (and understandable) absence in these models given their age, however, is a discussion of the role that the Internet, digital spaces, and virtual learning environments play in the formation of culture, cultural identities, and behaviors (Gunawardena, 2014). Since distance programs

are overwhelmingly delivered online today (Moore, 2013; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Simonson et al., 2012), this omission is noteworthy.

Dynamic Polycultural Identities

Gunawardena (2014) specifically argued that transnational education in particular needs a better model of culture that includes the Internet in its definition since the negotiation of culture also takes place online. This critique is highly relevant to the digital space, as well as to the implementation of more deliberately cross-cultural instructional designs that are mediated online (Germain-Rutherford & Kerr, 2008). To capture the kinds of cultural configurations arising from the situation, she adopted the term "idioculture" which encompasses the blurred lines between physical and virtual reality. An idioculture was described as a locally forming system (i.e., highly situated), and a system that "includes multiple cultural selves and hybrid identities on the Internet that interact with each other cross-culturally to form unique cultures of their own" (Gunawardena, 2014, p. 84).

The recognition and inclusion of the unique affordances of the Internet, at the very least, contributes to the literature in the context of culture, transnational education, and the online classroom. It should also be equally relevant in the discussion of MOOCs. Returning to the concept of multiple selves, hybrid, and fluid identities, another model that sought to capture this relational complexity is the PolVan Model of Cultural Identity (Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). This model was developed in the context of K-12 international education by examining the Third-Culture Kid (TCK) phenomenon. The relational nuance highlighted in the model is relevant in distance and transnational education because it recognizes and illustrates the logical (but possibly erroneous)

conclusions one might make based on the appearance of an individual in relation to their surrounding society. It is presented below in Table 7.

Table 7   PolVan Model of Cultural Identity

Foreigner	Hidden Immigrant
Look different	Look alike
Think different	Think different
Adopted	**Mirror**
Look different	Look alike
Think alike	Think alike

Pollock and Van Reken (2009) described TCKs as children who grew up in a country and culture that is different from that of their parents, but later during high school (or to enter university), would return to their parents' countries of national origin. Often, these places (and potentially languages, social norms, and cultures) were unfamiliar to TCKs. Greenholtz and Kim (2009) described TCKs as "cultural hybrids living on some margin, in a notional no-man's land" (p. 392). These situations typically resulted in feelings of isolation, foreignness, or marginalization and could be compounded when both parents were from different countries (Greenholtz & Kim, 2009; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009).

Consider the following examples of a child whose parents, both from country A, who work in country B. The child is raised in country B until university age, at which point they return home for undergraduate studies. Or consider the case of two individuals, one from country A and the other from country B, who meet in country C, and later move to country D. The child raised in country C and/or D may never be closely familiar with either parents' national origins, languages, cultures, etc. TCKs, particularly due to their

young ages and adolescence, struggle with identity and a sense of belonging (Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). The lines between national origin, cultural backgrounds, ethnic and linguistic heritage, linguistic abilities, and their self-ascribed identity can be ambiguous to say the least (Greenholtz & Kim, 2009). Moreover, such matters can be further complicated in cases of international adoption, asylum seekers, and refugees (Pollock & Van Reken, 2009).

Pollock and Van Reken (2009) captured the essence of logical but overly simple associations (i.e., one looks different, thus thinks different) that are far more nuanced in multi- and cross-cultural spaces. TCK's can find themselves unable to fit into different educational contexts, and the inability to acculturate can often stem from the politics of belonging (Kim, 2018). Pollock and Van Reken (2009) also pointed out rather pragmatically that such cultural dissonance is not necessarily limited to the interactions of people from different nations. In ethnoculturally diverse regions or societies, this can also occur at local, regional, *and* national levels (Gunawardena, 2014, Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Kim, 2018; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009; Smith & Ayers, 2006). Pollock and Van Reken (2009) gave examples of the experiences of indigenous populations and ethnic/racial minority groups, as well as immigrants, migrants, and refugees. Similarly, Kim (2018) detailed examples of Korean "returnees" (Korean citizens who were educated abroad for 3-12+ years as children) who experienced discrimination by "native" Korean students upon return to university in Korea. The negative side effects of such situations can also be seen to some degree in the studies of ethnic/racial minority distance students in the United States mentioned above where there was an associated academic performance gap (see Kaupp, 2012; Salvo et al., 2019; Smith & Ayers, 2006; Xu &

Jaggars, 2013) due to underlying historical and cultural hegemonies (Aman, 2013;

Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2009; Hewling, 2005; Hoare,

2013; Jung & Gunawardena, 2014; Miike, 2004; Smith & Ayers, 2006).

In transnational education programs where faculty, students, curriculum, and

digital tools can all come from different national, ethnic, cultural, and linguistic

backgrounds, there are bound to be circumstances and perceptions that vary, go

unrecognized, or are potentially diametrically opposed (Aman, 2013; Furham, 2012;

Germain-Rutherford & Kerr, 2008; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena &

LaPointe, 2008; Hall, 1959, 1976; Harrison et al., 2018; Hoare, 2013; Jung &

Gunawardena, 2014; Miike, 2004; Sadykova & Meskill, 2019; Smith & Ayers, 2006).

Recognizing that differences exist in these key ways is merely a first step. The substance

of the work involves actually addressing underlying theory and pedagogy that curricula,

learning environments, and educational tools are built on.

Theory, Pedagogy, and Curriculum

The development of VLEs, and growth in distance education, has also

coincided with research and the generation of theory meant to address growing online

teaching challenges (Harasim, 2000; Moore, 2013). A few relevant examples include:

- transactional distance which proposes that as the level of teacher-student interaction decreases, student autonomy should increase (Schlosser & Anderson, 1994; Moore, 2013);
- equivalency theory which proposes that distant students should be provided with learning experiences of equal value, not necessarily the exact same experiences of face-to-face students (Simonson, 1999);

- connectivist theory that describes learning as a decentralized, chaotic process that can also occur in non-human appliances (Siemens, 2004);

- the Community of Inquiry (CoI) framework which outlines the goal of developing teaching, social, and cognitive presence in virtual environments (Garrison, 2007).

Furthermore, there has been an ongoing integration between learning theories (e.g., behaviorism, cognitivism, social constructivism, andragogy, pedagogy), distance learning frameworks/models (e.g., Community of Inquiry [Garrison, 2007], Online Collaborative Learning [Harasim, 2012], Blending with Pedagogical Purpose [Picciano, 2017]), and numerous contributions from the fields of instructional design, psychology, and cognitive science (e.g., Keller, 1987a; Keller, 1987b; Mayer, 2002; Mayer & Sims, 1994; Mayer, Heiser, & Lonn, 2001; Moreno & Mayer, 1999; Morrison et al., 2011). Morrison et al. (2011) rather practically reminded educational practitioners, nonetheless, that there are multiple ways to achieve successful learning that are all equally valid if learning genuinely occurs.

But even in the case of the "best" planned designs for instruction, student motivation strategies also require equal consideration. Without motivation or understanding a student's particular motivation, great instructional plans can still end up being ineffective (Keller, 1987a; Keller, 1987b). Moreover, the theories and frameworks briefly presented here illustrate two salient points: a) the ongoing development of theory and frameworks in response to increasingly diverse and complex learning situations, and b) the dominance of the singular/national frame of

reference. To be equitable for all students, a one-size-fits-all solution is inadequate (Harrison et al., 2018).

Curricular Modification

Harrison et al. (2018) stated that

it is reasonable to assume that academics will encounter students for whom they have little, if any knowledge of the student's domicile [home] country, including its culture, infrastructure and economy – along with other key factors likely to bridge learning and its application from the taught curriculum, to individual students' lives. (p. 491)

Hoare (2013) additionally likened this challenge of making curricular modifications as though one were swimming in the proverbial deep end. Given the wide range of information to keep in mind and the numerous potential considerations to make, the caution in the analogy is understandable. For example, in a joint project Meier (2007) noted that an e-learning environment could be challenging for Finnish and South African university distance students because common cultural cues (in addition to verbal linguistic ones) were absent in the digital environment. She also noted that the "assumed clarity of words" was often not the case in the various student discussion posts which sometimes caused misunderstandings or offense. She therefore suggested a deliberate focus on designing the curriculum and online course in a way that took communication cues into account to support students in developing implicit cultural awareness versus explicit or surface level cultural knowledge (e.g., local clothing, food, music). Selinger (2004) described a global, corporate, e-learning program that was designed "to teach Internet technology skills and prepare students for industry

certification" (p.223) and highlighted how the instructor's "role was pivotal in making the curriculum culturally and pedagogically relevant for their students" (p. 236). In each of the corporate training locations, "reactions to the pedagogical approach of the online curriculum varied considerably between the countries" (p. 230). As a result, the differences encountered at the training locations highlighted the complexity and scope of the changes needed to ultimately make the program successful. Yet in these two examples, despite the fact that students and instructors were able to communicate in a common language at a high level of proficiency, difficulties in adapting/modifying the curriculum were still present. Language, though potentially an obstacle, was less important than understanding and modifying underlying cultural programming (Dobos, 2011). Such considerations are not explicit in traditional instructional design models such as the ADDIE, Kemp, Dick and Carey, or ASSURE models (see Morrison, Ross, Kalman, & Kemp, 2011).

Hoare (2013) rather clearly recognized that "universities have grappled with recognition of the need for intercultural development of transnational educators for more than 20 years" but even that when related policies have been formed, "organisational imprimaturs do not necessarily translate into practice at the school level" (p. 570). Transnational educators are often not adequately trained or prepared for the rigors and challenges of this type of teaching, interaction, and learning (Caruana & Montgomery, 2015; Harrison et al., 2018). One way to address this challenge is through the use of culturally inclusive instructional design models. They are particularly relevant in multicultural and transnational settings in order to foster equitable learning environments that aim to not disadvantage any particular student

group or type (Aman, 2013; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Harrison et al., 2018;

Morse, 2003; Pearce & Rice, 2013).

<u>Inclusive, Responsive, and Multicultural Instructional Design</u>

Germain-Rutherford & Kerr (2008) presented an overview of multiple

instructional design models for culturally inclusive online teaching and learning

ranging from:

- Collis, Vingerhoets and Moonen's (1999) Multidimensional Model;

- Seufert's (2000) Cubic Model;

- Gunawardena's (2004) WisCom Model;

- Mcloughlin's (2007) Inclusive Pedagogical Model;

- and Henderson's (2007) Multiple Cultures Model.

These models have been developed in response to the lack of explicit cultural

consideration in traditional instructional design models (cf. Morrison et al., 2011). This

recognition is crucial since learners of increasingly diverse backgrounds are commonly

found in distance education courses (Germain-Rutherford & Kerr, 2008; Gunawardena

& LaPointe, 2008; Harrison et al., 2018); "[g]lobal classrooms that constitute multiple

nationalities, races, cultures, social classes and different perspectives about learning

and teaching are the norm now" (Welikala, 2019, p. 252). Moreover, universities are

relying more and more on distance and transnational students as growth strategies

(Wilkins, 2016; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012; Wilkins & Stephens Balakrishnan, 2013).

While the ability to consider curriculum and deliberately make pedagogical changes

can fall under the locus of control of an instructor or institution, there are educational

tools and resources that do not. The lack of direct control over the implicit design

decisions of software necessitates thoughtful analysis and consideration as well (Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Lane, 2009).

Software and Multimedia Design Limits

Technology is not value neutral (Hall, 1959, 1976; Harasim, 2000; Hewling, 2005; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014, Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Jung & Gunawardena, 2014; Lane, 2009). Software designers, intentionally and unintentionally, imbue their creations with the same intrinsic worldviews that they themselves possess (Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008). Even a decision as seemingly simple as color choice can illustrate potential complications (Cyr, Head, & Larios, 2010).

Consider a few common colors in daily life, and particularly the ones used in educational media such as web 2.0 tools and course management systems. Depending on the cultural context, these colors can have different (and sometimes opposed) meanings associated with them (Cyr et al., 2010; Marcus & Gould, 2000). Researchers have conducted studies examining color and various aspects of nationality and culture in relation to online interfaces; however, few have specifically examined the relationship of color to religious views and interface preferences (Ishak, Jaafar, & Ahmad, 2012).

In various religious traditions, certain colors like white, gold, and blue are associated with the sacred in Jewish and Christian traditions, while green carries significance in Islam (Marcus & Gould, 2000), whereas in Buddhism, yellow is a prominent color. Ishak et al. (2012) suggested that "users of different faiths have different cultural dimensions and interest in the use of different interfaces" (p. 799). In socio cultural traditions in East Asia (e.g., China, Korea, Japan), red and gold signal prosperity and good fortune, whereas black and white are associated with death in funerary

traditions (Marcus & Gould, 2000). Awareness of the meanings associated with colors and particular student populations are crucial to the successful design of materials and interfaces (Marcus & Gould, 2000). Additionally, colors are also often associated with genders traditionally (e.g., pink for women, blue for men) and may be found more or less meaningful depending on the target audience. Further, these colors may not even share the same gender associations in other cultures (Ishak et al., 2012; Knight, Gunawardena, & Aydin, 2009; Marcus & Gould, 2000). Similarly, information density and the content of images, as well as the focus on visual information varies from culture to culture (Hall, 1959, 1976; Marcus & Gould, 2000). For example, the emphasis on students in images versus the focus on school leaders can be explained as a reflection of power distance in Hofstede's model (Marcus & Gould, 2000).

Even the type of images used, such as icons or raster graphics reflect culturally bound meanings that may lose their intended meaning(s) when viewed outside of the original cultural context (Knight et al., 2009). Moreover, symbols are not necessarily understood universally or may have different meanings altogether (Knight et al., 2009). Mercado, Parboteeah, and Zhao (2004) also provided some specific examples of design choices for high power-distance cultures for layout where they "should include *ordered and symmetric imagery and presentation; use formal and appropriate imagery to display authority;* for those cultures feedback should be *definitive and assertive* and it should be *ready to provide standard answers*" (p. 190). Thus, while pedagogical choices underlying course management systems (and VLEs more broadly) may present challenges for students with other cultural paradigms (Lane, 2009), the visual elements used to assist students in navigating the system, or the colors used to call attention to interface

elements, can also pose unexpected obstacles (Knight et al., 2009; Marcus & Gould, 2000). Transnational students, who come from comparatively different backgrounds than those of the CMS designers and course peers, may have to invest more time to address such concerns adequately in their online courses (Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison et al., 2018).

Beyond design decisions and factors such as colors, information presentation, image or symbol choice, the design of course management systems themselves (like all software) have intrinsic biases (Lane, 2009; Marcus & Gould, 2000). While bias in and of itself is not necessarily a problem (Creswell, 2013), bias is often implicit and below the level of articulation. For Lane (2009), this lack of explicit recognition and consideration of culture is insidious as educators often do not explore these complex applications beyond system defaults and by extension, the default biases. Thus, the educational experience to some degree is shaped by invisible forces that need to be brought to light.

For example, in the open source VLE Moodle, the platform is explicit about the designers' educational beliefs. Moodle documentation states that its design was guided by social constructionist pedagogy, and that it provides learner-centric tools along with collaborative learning environments (Moodle, n.d.). Moodle does not, however, have to be used in a constructivist or learner-centric fashion. It can still be used in more traditional didactic approaches, to provide students with lectures and other media, and not allow discussion or communication between students. The homepages of other tools are often not so direct, however. This ambiguity highlights the unpredictable situation in transnational education where instructors, the curriculum, the tools of mediation, the learning resources, and the students themselves can all come from distinctly different

backgrounds and worldviews. How students react to potentially misaligned environments, and how they are treated by agents in them, is one of appropriate concern (Aman, 2013; Furham, 2012; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2009; Harrison et al., 2018; Hewling, 2005; Jung & Gunawardena, 2014; Pearce & Rice, 2013; Pyvis, 2011). In the same vein, these potential sources of mis-alignment are not necessarily limited to VLEs or digital resources.

There are numerous other guidelines that apply to print media and their digital counterparts that come from the field of instructional design (Morrison et al., 2011). There are design prescriptions for layouts and interfaces that come from the field of cognitive psychology; namely the cognitive theory of multimedia learning (see Mayer, 2002; Mayer, Heiser, & Lonn, 2001; Mayer & Sims, 1994; Moreno & Mayer, 1999). Mayer (2002) and Mayer et al. (2001) pointed out that there are obvious limitations on these principles, however. These principles (e.g., coherence, contiguity, signaling, modality, redundancy, etc.) are typically intended for beginner learners in any given field, and there are clear boundary conditions for effectiveness depending on the individual context of the learner. For example, the redundancy principle suggests that information should be presented in only one modality (e.g., audio) to avoid extraneous cognitive processing (Mayer, 2002; Mayer et al., 2001). However, in the transnational context, presenting information in only one modality may be a disadvantage for certain students when the common language of the course may be an L2 or L3. For example, Bell et al. (2015) described the history of a "global" classroom project that included online course work and activities with students from multiple institutions around the world. Not only were materials made accessible in multiple languages to make the course as accessible as

possible, software translators were also experimented with to facilitate communication (albeit unsuccessfully). Even certain linguistic strategies where implemented where small groups were allowed to communicate in native or a common group language whereas the class as a whole was required to communicate in English as the lingua franca. Nevertheless, additional limitations include (but are not exclusive to) the level of prior subject matter knowledge, as well as the students' own metacognitive learning skills. Grow (1996) also strongly emphasized the contextually sensitive nature of learning efficacy in this regard. Simply stated, a one-size fits all design solution (i.e., color, image, icon, layout, multimedia choices) will not be equally effectively for all learners. It may disadvantage some students (Aman, 2013; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2009; Harrison et al., 2018; Morse, 2003; Pearce & Rice, 2013). This tension is similarly present in the theoretical and pedagogical choices that make up the foundations of curriculum and online courses.

Examining Unstated Assumptions

Gunawardena and LaPointe (2008) rightly pointed out that "one of the main criticisms of globalization is the underlying tendency to colonize and import dominant paradigms into contexts that are either unfriendly to those paradigms or that can be harmed by those solutions" (p. 52). Technologies imported from one particular context are not value neutral (Feenberg, 2003), and they can be considered "culturally biased amplifications" (Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008, p. 52). The tools themselves can present barriers to students and hinder learning outcomes in distance education (Hart, 2012).

Means et al. (2014) stood in support of this assertion, noting that "online pedagogies assume a level of independence, motivation, and self-regulation on the part of learners" (p. 140), in addition to the assumption of "skilled" technology use. Furthermore, these assumptions were noted earlier in this review when examining descriptions of the ideal online learner (e.g., Colorado & Eberle, 2010; Dabbagh, 2007; Glass et al., 2016; Kauffman, 2015; Means et al., 2014). These assumptions, however, are not universally applicable across all cultural/national contexts (Aman, 2013; Germain-Rutherford & Kerr, 2008; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Pearce & Rice, 2013; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009; Pyvis, 2011). High attrition rates in multicultural classrooms and cross-cultural learning environments may serve as evidence of these blind spots (Brown & Czerniewicz, 2010; Jaggars & Bailey, 2010; Kaupp, 2012; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009; Smith & Ayers, 2006; Uzuner, 2009; Xu & Jaggars, 2013). Moreover, certain aspects of quality in the West can often include criteria such as contact hours, onsite attendance, proctored assessments, etc. (Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008), but these values, at the very least, may not be viewed the same way in other educational traditions and cultural contexts around the world.

Summary

The need for differentiation in curriculum, software, visual and information design, digital tools, teaching and learning strategies, pedagogical approaches, and the design of online course themselves is vitally needed in increasingly multicultural and transnational classes (Bell et al., 2015; Harrison et al., 2018; Sadykova & Dautermann, 2009; Sadykova & Meskill, 2019; Uzuner, 2009). If institutions and educators wish to expand their influence and provide additional, non-local opportunities for learning

(Wilkins & Huisman, 2012), these efforts need careful consideration as outlined in the literature (Dobos, 2011; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Selwyn, 2011a). Homogeneous solutions are not only insufficient, but potentially adverse in their effects on students (Aman, 2013; Germain-Rutherford & Kerr, 2008; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Pearce & Rice, 2013; Pyvis, 2011; Uzuner, 2009). Moreover, the sum of such considerations may be viewed collectively as the creation of a culturally and pedagogically inclusive ecosystem, or a larger affordance network (Rasi, Hautakangas, & Värynen, 2014). This holistic view has also been described as *glocalization* which is characterized by "blending and connecting local and global contexts while maintaining the significant contributions of the different cultural communities and contexts" (Patel & Lynch, 2013, p. 223), as well as "the respectful exchange of cultural wealth among learners and teachers to inform and enhance higher education pedagogical practice" (p. 225). These perspectives can be useful when examining the phenomenon of transnational distance students.

Overlooked Distance Student Complexity

Jones (2001) pointed out that "past assumptions about who the typical college student was and how, what, when, why, and where that student attended college are no longer valid" (p. 108). The enrollment trends and increasing numbers of non-traditional students in face-to-face courses, distance programs, MOOCs, and other informal distance learning opportunities arguably reflect this change (Bean & Metzner, 1985; Lorenzo, 2015; Means et al., 2014). Jones' point about recognizing and questioning traditional assumptions about students is equally relevant in transnational education (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Harrison et al., 2018; Stewart, 2017). The discrepancies

with these conventional assumptions (i.e., the how, what, when, why, and where of the student's college attendance) were illustrated with the examples of Smita, from India but living in Dubai, where she studies at the international branch campus of a British university, or Olawale, who while living in Nigeria, is taking a MOOC offered from Harvard University in the United States (see Wilkins, 2016). Three key characteristics stand out from a relational perspective: a) student nationality, b) national origin of the educational provider, and c) actual geographic location of both.

In the United Kingdom, Gemmell and Harrison (2017) similarly recognized this subtlety and identified students through EU related tuition categories. Likewise in Korea, Stewart (2017) recognized and described the same nuance by virtue of sojourn status (i.e., visa classification of foreign-residents) using a very basic descriptive survey. When examining the enrollment of so called 'international students' in the United States, Allen et al. (2016) pointed out that American institutions "serve very few international distance education students, less than 2% in any sector", while an additional 3% reside in a location that is unknown to the institution (p. 15). However, in light of the relational nuance described by Wilkins (2016), Gemmell and Harrison (2017), and Stewart (2017), the interpretation of these statistics may not necessarily be so straightforward.

Contemporary globalization trends can make such relatively straightforward analysis problematic (Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Stewart, 2017). Distance students who live outside of their country of citizenship may not necessarily be able to provide the university with a local address from their host-nation for a variety of reasons such as incompatible portal interfaces or language barriers (Lituchy & Barra, 2008). They

may also opt to use a legal address in their country of citizenship out of convenience (Stewart, 2017). In other cases, students may simply use a home of record due to frequent movement (Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Selwyn, 2011a; Stewart, 2017). Furthermore, in cases of dual or multiple citizenship holders, property ownership or rental in both home and host countries, the recognition of residency, marriage, or long-term work visa holders, exactly how distance students should state their "legal" address to the university is not necessarily clear; more than one plausible option may exist (Stewart, 2017). Thus, the potential for multiple addresses, frequent transnational movement, and portal interface limitations can all complicate or obfuscate how students in related research statistics (e.g., Allen et al., 2016) are actually identified, classified, and ultimately reported (Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Stewart, 2017).

Moreover, in supranational political and economic organizations, nationals and residents of member-states can freely move across borders irrespective of visas, complicating methods of identification (Gemmell & Harrison, 2017). Examples of such entities include the European Union (EU), the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), and in a much more limited and restricted capacity, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Economic Community (AEC). Categorizing students through tuition fee classification and sojourn status are but two possible ways described in the academic literature. However, Gemmell and Harrison's (2017) fee classification approach is not without its own limitations since their definition of transnational distance student is relative to membership in a supranational political economic organization (i.e., the EU), making its utility questionable for countries who do not belong to such an entity. Nevertheless, while these types of distance students are

proportionally small, they are not uncommon (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Dobos, 2011; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Selwyn, 2011a; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016).

Such cases are only increasing as universities increasingly rely on distance and transnational distance education opportunities for revenue (Hoare, 2012; Rovai & Downey, 2010; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). Likewise, for individuals in careers that require frequent international movement, that live in well-connected geographic regions with dense populations (e.g., Southeast Asia) or on relatively populated border regions (e.g., the Canadian-U.S. border), accurate information about their residency locations may have a relatively short half-life (Dobos, 2011; Stewart, 2017). Nesterko et al. (2013) and Glass et al. (2016) highlighted circumstantial evidence for such possible discrepancies by noting the potential mismatch between a MOOC participant's language and their geographic location by virtue of an IP address. These unexpected geographical mismatches, nevertheless, have continued to surface in the literature (e.g., Dobos, 2011; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016). All of the examples and situational nuances elucidate the fact that "with the development of modern transportation and advanced communication technologies, migration has shifted from *inter*national to *trans*national" where fixed, one-way, and permanent paths have become ones that are [now] dynamic and recursive (Guo, 2015, p. 7).

Counterintuitive Circumstances

Dobos (2011) pointed out that "offshore courses are increasingly offered to students of many nations" (p. 31), though this characteristic of a changing student body is not exclusive to face-to-face programs. She described the case of an offshore campus in

Malaysia that began adapting the program's Australian curriculum for the local Malay student population. However, in doing so it became increasingly apparent to educators on the ground that the local Malaysian population itself was ethnoculturally diverse, and that not all of the students were in fact local Malaysians. Their attempt to modify the Australian program was consequently more challenging than initially anticipated. Although the majority of the student population in this case was in fact local, this proportion is not necessarily so in other transnational programs.

Framingham State University's (FSU) International Education Program runs fly-in/fly-out transnational, hybrid online education programs in various countries (often with multiple local sites) throughout the world (FSU, n.d.). In Seoul, Korea, FSU works in partnership with Hanyang University by combining a graduate certificate and MA program that grants dual credentials. The mode of delivery is a blended transnational, fly in-out mode (FSU, n.d.). While there are both formal and informal program sites throughout Korea, all of the examples in Korea present a unique case. While it would be logical to expect that the majority of students would (at the very least) be local nationals given the location, Korean citizens are not legally eligible to enroll in the program. The reason for this is because FSU operates its programs independently of national regulations, but these regulations do not apply to foreign nationals or residents. As a result, the students are all non-Korean citizens because the program operates as a hidden foreign outpost as an extension of the university (Kinser & Lane, 2015). Enrolled students are typically from countries such as South Africa, Canada, the Philippines, the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, among others. The student body is counterintuitively heterogenous given the country's otherwise homogeneous

demographics where roughly 96%-98% of the population is ethnically Korean (see MoJ, 2016; Shin & Moon, 2019). While such a case may be a more extreme example, it highlights the need for greater recognition of diverse and varied transnational education settings (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Dobos, 2011; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison et al., 2018; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016). The conventional transnational programs in Korea, however, typically reflect (at least for now and in the near future) a niche population and proportional student demographics (Jon et al, 2014; MoJ, 2016). For example, the University of California Riverside Extension Center (UCRX) operated a directly-managed branch campus in Seoul for nearly 18 years (GNUCR, n.d.; UCRX, n.d.), yet despite its relatively long operation and availability to students of any nationality, the overwhelming majority of students were Korean nationals (GNUCR, n.d., UCRX, n.d.).

In more recent history in the port city of Incheon, Korea, the national government worked in partnership with the local municipality to build a "global" campus with the intention of creating a regional education hub to attract foreign universities to offer select programs to citizens and non-citizens alike (IFEZ, n.d.; IGC, n.d.; Jon et al., 2014). Though the hub was designed and built to house 10 branch campuses, as of 2018, there were a total five universities in residence (4 American [Stony Brook, FIT, University of Utah, George Mason], 1 Belgian [Ghent]) (IGC, n.d.). The programs offered are the same as the ones run at their home campuses, are conducted in English, and require a one-year residency at the respective home campus (IGC, n.d.). Tuition and housing costs are estimated to be around half the expense a student would incur if attending the program directly abroad (IGC, n.d.). Additional offshore branch campuses of foreign universities

in Korea include the Friedrich-Alexander University of Erlangen-Nuremberg in Busan (FAU, n.d.), and the STC-Netherlands Maritime University in Gwangyang (Mani & Trines, 2018).

Andrews and Tynan (2010) illustrated that despite the continuing globalization of education, there is little known about *distance* students in the particular arena of transnational education. They emphasized that in transnational education, "references to distance education are limited, serving only to indicate the lack of research" and that "issues relating to the distance learner are largely passed over in silence" (Andrews & Tynan, 2010, p. 61). Stewart (2017) voiced this same point of frustration from a different perspective by arguing that prior scholarship seems to consistently oversimplify or generalize student differences by using the label of "international". This point is further discussed by Harrison et al. (2018) who also noted that more attention needs to be paid to students in these settings. While the overall characteristics of these students will probably not vary significantly to distance students as a whole, the value in recognizing these differences comes in the refinement of teaching and learning practices (Harrison et al., 2018).

Consider the following example where Erichsen and Bolliger (2010) explored the perception of isolation among international students in traditional and online learning environments in a mixed-methods study. Though the term international is used, these students were in fact living in the United States and taking classes both face-to-face and online; these students could plausibly be international (moved to the host country to attend the program on a student visa), expatriates (long-term foreign residents with work, marriage, or residency visas or nationals commuting from a host country into the home

country), or transnational students (living as a foreign-resident in a host country while commuting into a different host country to attend the program) using Stewart's proposed definitions. As Stewart (2017) argued earlier, this oversimplification can be confusing as such students are situated in distinct contexts. The phenomenon of expatriate and transnational students (as defined by Stewart) has not been disambiguated in both the distance and transnational education literature. This point is further emphasized by Harrison et al. (2018) who noted that such current research is scant, and that the literature base on students who live outside of the university's home nation is fragmented.

In another example, Selwyn (2011a; 2011b) examined globally situated learners from a large federal university in the United Kingdom. However, despite the geographic dispersion, there was no clear distinction to indicate whether at least some of these students also happened to be citizens of the United Kingdom and simply living and working abroad. Selwyn (2011a; 2011b) noted that the sample was comprised of both native and non-native speakers of English, however, L1 or L2 is not necessarily an indicator of citizenship, location, or national origin (Dobos, 2011; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Glass et al., 2016; Nesterko et al., 2013; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016).

Gemmell and Harrison (2017) and Stewart (2017) both argued that in addition to knowing the administrative classification of a student assigned by a university, knowing their national origin and current geographic location would more clearly delineate students and enable the possibility of a more nuanced investigation. The lack of this particular information is a limitation in relatively recent prior scholarship (e.g., Dobos, 2011, Gunawardena, 2003; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Selwyn, 2011a; Selwyn 2011b; Ziguras, 2008). Lorenzo (2015) noted "it is difficult to speak singularly

about online learning" (p. 1), and this acknowledgement is also very relevant when narrowing the scope of the complexity to students specifically. Historically, other analogous demographic changes and trends have been recognized in the literature.

Nontraditional Students

As a result of changing demographic trends in the United States, Bean and Metzner (1985) posited that there were demographic reasons underlying differences in undergraduate student attrition rates. They concluded that younger, full time, on campus resident student enrollment was declining with an increase in 1) older, 2) part-time, 3) off-campus resident enrollment (Bean & Metzner, 1985). To denote the difference and categorize students, they used the terms traditional and non-traditional. Despite the rather simple labeling, Bean and Metzner (1985) cautioned that the difference is largely

> a matter of extent; traditional and nontraditional students cannot be easily
> classified into simple dichotomous categories. These two groups of
> students can be differentiated on the basis of age, residence, and full- or
> part-time attendance, not to mention ethnicity, gender, or socioeconomic
> status, which might have differentiated traditional and nontraditional
> students a century ago. (p. 488)

Thus, rather than interpreting categories and their characteristics as rigid or fixed, the focus should be on, and guided by, a more central factor that distinguishes nontraditional students from their traditional counterparts: the "lessened intensity and duration of their interaction with the primary agents of socialization (faculty, peers) at the institutions they attend" (Bean & Metzner, 1985, p. 488). For example, a student enrolled in two courses

one semester and classified as nontraditional student while enrolling in five courses the next is not suddenly a traditional student as a consequence of full-time enrollment status. The three broad components (i.e., part-time status, living off campus, and older than 24) still apply in the aggregate. Further, what the lessened intensity of interaction is like for students who live outside of their home countries (especially when languages and cultures are different), is not particularly clear.

Tinto (in Bean & Metzner, 1985) concluded that although students traditionally attend institutions for both academic and social reasons, the academic factors (i.e., quality) are often the priority for nontraditional students. However, this generalized view is arguably oversimplified. For national, international, expatriate, and transnational students, additional relevant motivational factors may also include proximity to the university, affordable living costs, ease of travel, and familiar cultural settings (Jon et al., 2014). Picciano (2002) noted that the prioritization of academic quality over other factors can be true for distance students, but also that socialization or peer interaction is not necessarily required for academic success, and neither is being physically co-present in a classroom. The social aspects of a traditional school experience may not even be considered a quality criterion, or generalizable to all students (Picciano, 2002). Nevertheless, given that many community college students and virtually all adult distance students qualify as nontraditional in Bean and Metzner's model, the categorizations could benefit from questioning long held assumptions (see Jones, 2001), and being updated and reimagined to account for closely linked 21st century technological, mobility, and demographic trends. Student demographics are not static or homogeneous (Dabbagh, 2007; Dobos, 2011; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016).

Emerging Student Categories

Some clear limits in the academic literature have surfaced that are evidenced by various geographic, linguistic, and demographic discrepancies (e.g., Allen et al., 2016; Christensen et al., 2013; Dobos, 2011; Nesterko et al., 2014; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Glass et al., 2016; Wilkins, 2016; Stewart, 2017). The increase in new combinations of relationships between students, the academy, national status, and other factors require further consideration (Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harasim, 2000; Stewart, 2017). The studies from Ziguras (2008), Dobos (2011), Selwyn (2011a; 2011b), Gemmell and Harrison (2017), Stewart (2017), and editorial from Wilkins (2016) highlight the challenge of describing, defining, and understanding the relevant features, similarities, and differences of students that do not quite fit the traditional definition of student or distance student. The literature from both distance education and transnational education perspectives is also vague when attempting to discern what, then, differentiates an international student from a transnational one (Madge et al., 2015; Kotzmützky & Putty, 2016; Stewart, 2017, 2019).

Ziguras (2008) recognized the existence of expatriate distance students in a Turkish distance program, and Gemmell and Harrison (2017) acknowledged the difficulty of distinguishing between "home" students abroad (i.e., expatriates) and regular, nationally residing students. Wilkins (2016) gave examples of distance students that embodied new and otherwise unrecognized combinations of factors that differentiated them; and Stewart (2017) proposed four descriptive categories to clearly articulate the differences for the purpose of a clear discussion and investigation which were presented earlier in Table 1. He also acknowledged that these categories were

equally applicable to students in conventional brick-and-mortar classrooms due to their

basis on non-tourist sojourn status (i.e., visa classification). Though these authors are

using different descriptions, terms, and classification approaches, the same distance

student phenomenon is being described.

The global growth in distance education (Allen et al., 2016), and parallel

advancements in ICT and educational technology (Tracey & Richey, 2005) have at the

very least enabled the possibility for such students to exist; but they ultimately need

adequate recognition (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Stewart, 2017). For the students that

arguably do currently fall into these emerging categories retrospectively, the literature

indicates various, complex social, political, economic, and cultural circumstances at play.

And these factors have all influenced their decisions to seek out and take advantage of

distance education opportunities (Dobos, 2011; Selwyn, 2011a). What remains to be

further investigated, however, are the relevant characteristics and trends of expatriate and

transnational distance students, and how and why they may be similar or different when

compared to other student categories (Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison et al., 2018;

Kosmützky & Putty, 2016; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016).

Summary

The currents of globalization, demographic changes, advancements in ICT, and

the proliferation of the Internet have all affected the composition of the distance student

body (Furham, 2012; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008). Earlier models and scholarship

that assisted in categorizing and understanding students have limitations, particularly in

terms of wider view of global trends and circumstances. Although expatriate,

international, and transnational distance students continue to surface in virtual

classrooms, their voices and position are poorly recognized (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Harrison et al., 2018). While some prior scholarship has recognized this phenomenon in distance education in limited ways (e.g., Dobos, 2011, Gunawardena, 2003; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Selwyn, 2011a, 2011b; Ziguras, 2008), only more recent literature displays a clearer and deliberate focus on transnational distance students (e.g., Gemmell & Harrison, 2017, Harrison et al., 2018; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016). Consequently, there are numerous opportunities and avenues for subsequent and ongoing research (Wilkins, 2016).

Conclusion

The literature on distance education is robust in documenting its evolution alongside parallel advancements in technology from its historical origins to the modern day. With each technological iteration and innovation (e.g., print media, radio, television, satellite broadcasting, computer networking, the Internet, VLEs, web 2.0 tools, etc.), the scope and reach of distance education has increased tremendously. This point is clear from the relatively humble access afforded by the postal service to the now global availability of programs and courses (e.g., Allen et al., 2016). This transformation is also evident when considering the case of the Society to Encourage Studies at Home in the United States. Over a 24-year period from 1873-1897, the program enrolled approximately 10,000 students from the Boston, Massachusetts area (Casey, 2008; Gibson, 2008). At present, by contrast, millions of students take distance classes *annually* at open universities (Latchem et al., 2006), in addition to distance courses offered from brick-and-mortar universities (Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Simonson et al., 2012). Distance education participation numbers are even more staggering when considering the fact that

average enrollment in a *single MOOC* (from well-known North American MOOC providers such as Coursera, edX, HarvardX, Udacity) is around 45,000 students with the upper end of enrollment numbers sometimes reaching hundreds of thousands (Jordan, 2014, 2015; Onah et al., 2014). Moreover, for the aforementioned MOOC platforms, nearly 66% of participants were actually distributed across numerous countries around the world, not exclusively in the MOOC provider's nation (Glass et al., 2016). This scale and global reach stand in remarkable juxtaposition to early correspondence programs like the Society to Encourage Studies at Home. The impressiveness of the scale and global access notwithstanding, the increased connections between diverse groups of students, instructors, and universities is at the heart of transnational distance education (Harasim, 2000; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Simonson et al., 2012).

Distance education has evolved from being merely an educational practice into a rich field of study (Harasim, 2000). This genealogy and richness is documented in the literature with numerous guidelines, principles, frameworks, and theories to assist instructors, curriculum designers, online course developers, and program managers (e.g., Hall, 1959, 1976; Harasim, 2000; Hewling, 2005; Holmberg, 1986; Horn & Staker, 2014; Ishak et al., 2012; Jung & Gunawardena, 2014; Lane, 2009; Simonson, 1999; Simonson et al., 2012). Nevertheless, the global expansion of, and access to, distance education has introduced more complicated educational scenarios and entities that would undoubtedly benefit from further research (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Harasim, 2000; Hewling, 2005; Hoare, 2013; Parrish & Linder-VanBerschot, 2010; Smith & Ayers, 2006; Stewart, 2017, 2019; Wilkins, 2016).

Limitations and Recurring Themes in the Literature

In the context of transnational distance education, the complexity of a diverse student body has often been unexpected and/or viewed as counterintuitive (Dobos, 2011; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Gunawardena, 2003, 2014; Smith & Ayers, 2006; Stewart, 2017; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009; Wilkins, 2016). And to date, the research specifically investigating distance students in this setting are limited (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison et al., 2018; Wilkins, 2016). Distance education and transnational education has constantly been evolving and changing (Kosmützky & Putty, 2016; Wilkins, 2016), thus it is understandable that there has been only limited recognition and work on emerging trends such as transnational distance students (e.g., Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison et al., 2018; Stewart, 2017, 2019; Wilkins, 2016). Nevertheless, three broad and related themes have recurred throughout this review of the literature: 1) complex educational entities are frequently oversimplified; 2) various curricular, cultural, and conceptual models have often only represented a homogeneous frame of reference; and 3) implicit assumptions about the circumstances of distance students are not adequately examined or recognized. As a result, Stewart's (2017) proposed emerging student categories (i.e., the expatriate and transnational distance student) have fallen through a few proverbial cracks. Wilkins (2016) reminds us that transnational education is a relatively new field of research and has evolved rapidly over the last 20 years, and most certainly it will continue to do so over the next 20.

CHAPTER III:

Study One: Recognizing the Expatriate and Transnational Distance Student: A

Preliminary Demographic Exploration in the Republic of Korea

Abstract

Descriptions of distance students in the literature are robust. Yet when speaking about students outside of a national context, nuance is lost by the failure to identify the complexity in borderless higher education. The student body is often too broadly categorized as "international" outside of a national context when in reality, this can be further refined to produce two additional student classifications that more appropriately identify and describe a hitherto under-researched phenomenon: the expatriate and transnational distance student. Utilizing respondent-driven sampling, student demographic and academic program data were collected using two operational definitions proposed by the author. The resulting data suggests a potential profile for the expatriate/transnational distance student phenomenon as manifested in South Korea for a subset of foreign residents, along with their broader demographic and program characteristics. As a nascent phenomenon and introductory inquiry, the research is limited in scope with the intention of a) establishing a taxonomy for the distance education community, b) a practical method for investigation, and c) avenues for further research such as student characteristics, motivation, attrition/retention, etc. Such insight would assist policy/guidelines for universities, their programs, and instructors.

Introduction

Online distance education has grown tremendously in the 21st century (Allen &
Seaman, 2013; Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012). Yet, despite growth
each year in online course enrollment (Allen, Seaman, Poulin, & Strout, 2016), it "is
very difficult to speak singularly about online learning, as there are numerous factors
within different disciplines and course and program environments" (Lorenzo, 2015, p.
45). Moreover, distance students themselves embody a staggering number of valuable
and insightful characteristics. As a result, many categorizations, attributes, or labels
have been used to describe and explore this intrinsic complexity which ranges from
being non-traditional, prior academic experience and attrition/retention, socioeconomic
status and ethnicity, university generational status within a family, and ultimately
online course success (see Aragon & Johnson, 2008; Bean & Metzner, 1985; Dumais,
Rizzuto, Cleary, & Dowden, 2013; Hachey, Wladis, & Conway, 2013; Kauffman,
2015; Kaupp, 2012; Kelly & Schorger, 2003; Liu, Gomez, & Yen, 2009; Packham,
Jones, Miller, & Thomas, 2004; Roblyer & Davis, 2008; Stoessel, Ihme, Barbarino,
Fisseler, & Stürmer, 2015; Tyler-Smith, 2006; Xu & Jaggars, 2013; Yoo & Huang,
2013).

Two categorizations that stand out in absentia, however, are the expatriate and
transnational distance student. In light of this absence, this researcher hopes to inspire
discussion and further research into this otherwise under-recognized distance student
body that suffers from a poverty of recognition (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Harrison et
al., 2018; Kosmützky & Putty, 2016). Equally valuable are the lessons learned from an

introductory study into an amorphous and distributed population, and the insights gained from their demographics.

<u>Background</u>

Expatriation and immigration are not new phenomena in and of themselves. Work assignments abroad in the corporate sector, government and military posts, and even missionary assignments have been studied extensively from the perspective of cultural models and adaptation (Hall, 1959; Hall, 1976; Lewis, 2010; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). Individuals may choose to self-initiate expatriation, and even a study of expatriate workers in academia was conducted in Korea by Froese in 2012. However, while a wealth of information exists regarding distance students in their domestic contexts in addition to a robust amount of literature regarding expatriate workers abroad, there is a noticeable paucity of scholarly reference to the phenomenon of expatriate and transnational distance student where these two entities overlap.

Ziguras (2008) only briefly mentioned the term expatriate distance student and assumes that "the experience of expatriate students in distance education provided from their country of origin is very similar to that of domestic students located in the institution's home country" (p. 640), and shifted focus back to the experience of international distance students. However, this assertion is an assumption rather than an evidence-based conclusion. Living and learning cross culturally has profound effects on the individual (Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). Moreover, there are more activities and processes involved in the distance education enterprise beyond the virtual classroom from student support services at an administrative level (e.g., academic advising, registration, student support) to specialized services unique to/required by the

particular host country of the student (e.g., apostilles). This gap in knowledge was the impetus for conducting an exploratory study into these two categories of distance students proposed by the researcher, and to begin the conversation by simply recognizing who they are demographically and describing some of the characteristics of their academic programs.

Globally Distributed Distance Students

One of the challenges associated with discussing distance learners is their heterogeneity (Lorenzo, 2015). This reality also extends to any attempt at having a more meaningful discussion regarding students outside of a national context. Often the main area of focus is the potential difficulties that can arise as the result of differences in one's native language or cultural heritage, and how these perspectives relate to pedagogical, curricular, and technological designs (Selinger, 2004). Such obstacles, however, are true of domestic multicultural populations as cultural/linguistic profiles can vary and differ across a broad spectrum at the national, regional, and local level (Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). As noted with the concept of distance and non-traditional students, global distributed distance students are difficult to speak singularly about (Lorenzo, 2015). Erichsen and Bolliger (2010) recognized "that the graduate student experience can be intensely stressful and perplexing" and "it can be particularly so for international students" (p. 312). One reason the scholars noted for this is the lack of social knowledge in comparison to their domestic peers, but there is no reason to exclude expatriate/transnational distance students from that experience as well, especially since this type of cultural isolation or insulation has been well documented to have significant impact on the individual (Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). Feelings of

isolation online and the detrimental effects it can have on student retention is also well documented, though this effect may be even more pronounced for international students (Erichsen & Bolliger, 2011). This out, of course, can be equally true for the expatriate and transnational who live and learn cross-culturally, particularly in locations where the culture(s) and language(s) may be significantly different from their own, and where they may have spent extensive periods of time (Pollock & Van Reken, 2009).

The Similarity of Twins

A notable discrepancy in applying the generic label of international to all distance students situated outside of a national context, however, is the lack of internal refinement in this broad categorization. On the surface, the international, expatriate, and transnational distance student can appear very similar if not identical. When speaking singularly about such a population, it is difficult to know whether such students are truly "international" (present only for the duration of the educational program), have immigrated (moved to the country for reasons and a duration unrelated to an educational program), or potentially expatriates/transnationals which blurs the boundaries of local legal status, reasons for moving/living abroad, and potentially linguistic/cultural heritage (Froese, 2012; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). Yet like twins, it is crucial to recognize the differences and individuality of each potential category of student.

Habib, Johannesen, and Øgrim (2014) described the use of a virtual learning environment by international students in an on-site program and tried to address this same classification problem among the international students in their study. They

offered the general classification of the Global South and Global North where

"students from the Global South have probably experienced the so-called digital

divide, a divide in terms of economy, access, knowledge and power" and "are lagging

far behind the North when it comes to technological infrastructure and penetration of

personal technology" (p. 197). Another study conducted by Lee at a Korean university

in 2011 examined the perceptions that national and "international" students have of the

role of the instructor in the classroom, while Selwyn (2011a/b) examined a large group

of learners distributed all over the world that were attending a university located in the

UK. Similarly, Gemmell, Harrison, Clegg, and Reed (2013) conducted a case study of

an online graduate program based out of the UK, yet only described the experience that

national students had with international peers in the virtual classroom and not vice

versa. The noticeable characteristic shared in all of these studies is that not only are the

perspectives of the non-national participants under-represented, they are not clearly

differentiated or recognized.

　　While it is easy to apply a single label to a heterogenous and complex group,

this oversimplification does not allow for more meaningful distinctions to be made, or

a more sophisticated filter to be applied when considering the diversity of potential

student circumstances. In an increasingly global and/or internationalized field of higher

education, it behooves us to adequately and appropriately represent the complexity of a

given phenomenon (Creswell, 2015). The literature, while informative in exploring

numerous (and disparate) characteristics of distance learners in the 21st century, is

noteworthy in this absence of clarity, and as this researcher posits, has been too quickly

dismissed (see Ziguras, 2008), or inadvertently mixed together under a catch-all label of "international".

<u>Key Research Objectives</u>

There were three main objectives that this researcher intended to accomplish with this study: a) provide a practical taxonomy for describing and discussing global distance students for the distance education community, b) suggest and demonstrate a practical methodology to collect data on an invisible and distributed population, and c) highlight some of the applications of this knowledge. In tandem, these three objectives should be able to serve as a foundation for more meaningful research and discussion. To that end, the first priority was to document and offer potential demographic characteristics of the expatriate and transnational distance students as found in the Republic of Korea (as a consequence of where this researcher resides), as well as the characteristics of the distance programs they were involved in. Since no prior documentation or research exists from this particular perspective, it was considered essential to identify and describe, at least in basic ways, the students themselves. As a result, descriptive and contextual data could be offered to start a discussion. Similarly, an objective was to compare how students in these two categorizations were similar with/different from distance student demographics in studies that Selwyn (2011a; 2011b) conducted in terms of demographics.

Second, by collecting such data and testing the viability of the sampling method, unexpected challenges were illuminated. While these limitations affected the ultimate sample size in this instance, it was valuable nonetheless to highlight how departmental and/or university record keeping can benefit from a slight modification in recording

whether or not their distance students live abroad and where. In effect, the result is a

blueprint that can streamline future studies in Korea and elsewhere in the world.

Methodology

Operational Definitions

Given the notable ambiguity in speaking clearly about the distance student

population in an "international" context, this researcher developed and proposed a

taxonomy based on the student's relationship to their host country and that of the

academic institution. This descriptive relationship is beneficial for two reasons since a) it

avoids socioeconomic, cultural, and/or ethnic bias which is easily observed (and

exemplified) in the argument between the terms expatriate and immigrant (and the

classifications used by Habib et al., 2014), and b) because it practically describes the

nuance central to the expatriate/transnational distance student phenomenon. Therefore,

the two terms below are the foundational lenses for this study.

- **Expatriate Distance Student**: A student from country A, sojourning via a non-tourist visa in country B, attending university online in country A.

- **Transnational Distance Student**: A student from country A, sojourning via a non-tourist visa in country B, attending university online in country C.

Visibility

The expatriate/transnational distance student population, though not necessarily

a sensitive one, is amorphous. While census data is collected and published by the

Korean Ministry of Justice (MoJ) and Immigration Department, there is no inferable

relationship or obvious way to extrapolate the number of foreign residents who could be expected to complete distance programs online while abroad. These characteristics make random or probabilistic sampling unfeasible (Creswell, 2015; Levin & Fox; 2011). While data published by the MoJ does contextualize and categorize the number of foreign residents in Korea by visa type and age (among other categories), and serves as an invaluable point of reference, there is no obvious way to identify the population beyond snowball sampling. For example, as of 2015 the foreign population of Korea was reported at 1,899,519 people or roughly 3.69% of the population (MoJ, 2016, p. 36). If we examine residents by nationality and visa type, a more complex portrait emerges with members of Asian nations typically being the most numerous with the majority being Chinese nationals (MoJ, 2016). Respondents in this study only represented four nations (Canada, the U.S., the U.K., New Zealand), however, Korean immigration only reports on Canada and the U.S. due to their relatively large number of foreign residents at 25,17 and 138,660 respectively (MoJ, 2016, p. 45). It should be noted that although the foreign resident numbers for the U.S. are considerably larger than many nations (though only roughly 7.5% of all foreign residents), this is skewed by the presence of the American military under Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) visas.

When looking at visa type and subsequent issuances, that amount can be more realistically contextualized. The highest number of visa types reported in this sample (E-2) totaled at 16,144 for all eligible nationalities combined (MoJ, 2016, p. 37). In other words, there are far fewer U.S. citizens living in Korea outside of the military than the numbers would suggest prima facie. More to the point is that the number of

foreign residents in Korea is at present a very small fraction of the overall total population, and the nationalities represented in this study represent an even smaller fraction of that population. The challenge of estimating representative statistics notwithstanding, this endeavor also uncovered difficulties/limitations with identifying expatriate/transnational distance students at this researcher's own university department's distance program.

While students must provide addresses when applying to and enrolling in the program, many list their home-addresses of record as a matter of convenience, not necessarily their current actual residence. A search of the department's database by an academic advisor produced only a single address abroad, despite common knowledge that there were around 10 students living abroad in South Korea currently enrolled in the program. Thus, in order to recruit participants from within the department as a matter of convenience, the survey was simply advertised on the department's Moodle homepage.

The primary sampling plan was to announce a basic demographics survey and recruit participants currently in South Korea. To do so, this researcher built a website to advertise the nature and scope of study. This served multiple purposes such as acting as a simple access point for all related information, along with indicating the initial announcement and subsequent open response period (Andrews, Nonnecke, & Preece, 2003; Archer, 2008; Bennett, & Nair, 2010). The survey was advertised on 13 internet/social media forums that cater to expatriates (in addition to word of mouth). Given the context of public social media forums, it was important to establish credibility as a researcher and research project. The website was hosted on this

researcher's university's server, and all contact was directed to a university email address that shared the same domain name (Perkins, 2011).

The design of the website also took into account advice from the literature for universal access as it was made mobile friendly (Andrews et al., 2003), and the survey tool chosen, SurveyMonkey, specialized in conducting surveys (Waclawski, 2012). Moreover, SurveyMonkey would also provide better data security (Barchard & Williams, 2008), easier logic features, and a question bank to draw from if needed (Waclawski, 2012). Several revisions of the overview page, as well as the layout of the information were made in order to make it as clear as possible to respondents (Evans & Mathur, 2005).

This researcher also had the survey items reviewed and piloted by several known acquaintances who fit the definition of expatriate distance student as a formative evaluation for wording, clarity, and to point out any discrepancies or errors (Bennett & Nair, 2010; Burford et al., 2009; Morrison, Ross, Kalman, & Kemp, 2011). By observing and timing trial runs, the length of time needed to complete the survey was documented and advertised as an effort to increase participation (Andrews et al., 2003; Archer, 2008; Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013; Trouteaud, 2014).

The survey ultimately resulted in 25 fixed items that ranged from basic demographics (e.g., gender, age range, area of residence) to characteristics of the academic program (e.g., level of study, location of the program). A 26th item was an optional, open-ended text-box that allowed respondents to add any additional or clarifying information. Equally important was recognizing the complication of respondents potentially having completed more than one program online while living

abroad. For such a scenario, participants were asked to simply list the most recent/highest level of study and list additional online programs such as certificates, licenses, or other degrees in the optional text box.

The survey was advertised prior to the opening date for two weeks and collected responses through various channels (i.e. email link, web link, embedded form) for one week following the announcement period. Throughout the collection period, additional reminder-announcements were made, and personalized reminder/follow-up emails were sent to participants who signed up for the survey mailing list in an effort to increase the response rate (Edwards et al., 1996; Heerwegh, Vanhove, Matthijs, & Loosveldt, 2005).

Results

The initial response count was 38 over the seven-day collection period with 5 incomplete responses. The completed total response rate was n=33. The most effective channels through Survey Monkey proved to be the direct email link (19 responses) for the mailing list, with the direct web link (17 responses) that was advertised on various public and private social media forums coming in second. The embedded survey form on the research project website was the least effective (2 responses). Response activity was also clustered around the opening of the collection period, though throughout the week there was a low but consistent response rate until day 6. This researcher offers the following profile extrapolated from the data. A more detailed presentation of demographic and program characteristics are presented in Table 8 and Table 9.

The foreign-resident distance students from this data are:

- most likely studying at institutions in their home countries (69.7%);

- disproportionately male (87.8%);

- most likely single/not-married (57.6%);

- around 35 years old at the start of/during their degree program (45.5%);

- begins the program on average around 5 years of expatriation (60.6%);

- lives in the capital-metropolitan area (81.9%);

- studies almost exclusively at the master's degree level (84.9%);

- most likely to be studying online in their home-country (69.7%);

- has no prior online course experience (78.8%);

- has a program GPA of around/above 3.6 (69.7%);

- the program and field of employment/study are congruous (84.8%).

Table 8   **Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

Demographic factors	Values	% of total	Count (n=33)
Distance student classification	Expatriate	69.7	23
	Transnational	30.3	10
Nationality	Canada	18.2	6
	New Zealand	3.3	1
	United States	54.5	18
	United Kingdom	24.2	8
Gender	Male	87.8	29
	Female	12.1	4
Relationship status	Single, never married	57.6	19
	Married	36.4	12
	Divorced	6	2
Age while completing the program in country	15 - 24	9.1	3
	25 - 34	36.4	12
	35 - 44	45.5	15
	45 - 54	9.1	3
Visa status during the program	E-1	9.1	3
	E-2	54.6	18

Table 8   Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic factors	Values	% of total	Count (n=33)
	E-7	3	1
	F-1	3	1
	F-2	18.2	6
	F-4	6	2
	F-6	3	1
	H-1	3	1
Geographic location within Korea	Seoul, Teukpyolshi	54.6	18
	Gyunggido	27.3	9
	North Gyeongsangdo	6	2
	South Gyeongsangdo	6	2
	South Jeollado	3	1
	North Chungjeongdo	3	1
Length of expatriation in Korea at time of the program	0-2 years	21.2	7
	3-5 years	39.4	13
	6-8 years	21.2	7
	9-11 years	12.1	4
	15-17 years	3	1

Table 8   **Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

Demographic factors	Values	% of total	Count (n=33)
	18 years +	3	1
Employment Status	Full-time	90.9	30
	Part-time	3	1
	Freelance	3	1
	Unemployed and not looking for work	3	1
Number of prior earned degrees (Bachelor's and higher)	0 degrees	3	1
	1 degree	63.6	21
	2 degrees	24.2	8
	3 degrees	6	2
	4 degrees	3	1
Prior distance course programs taken	0	78.8	26
	1	21.2	7
Principal industry of employment	Automotive	3	1
	Education	90.9	30
	Government	3	1
	Unemployed	3	1

Table 8   Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic factors	Values	% of total	Count (n=33)
Average number of courses taken per semester	1-2	63.6	21
	3-4	21.1	7
	5-6	3	1
	6 or more	3	1
	Other	9.1	3
Grade point average	3.6-4.0	69.7	23
	3.1-3.5	9.1	3
	2.6-3.0	3	1
	N/A	12	4
	Other	6	2

Table 9   **Characteristics of Respondents' Academic Programs**

Academic program characteristics	Values	% of total	Count (n=33)
Geographic location of the program	Australia	9.1	3
	United Kingdom	30.3	10
	United States	60.6	20
Type of institution	Public	60.6	20
	Private	39.4	13
Program delivery method	Online (100%)	69.7	23
	Hybrid (<100%)	30.3	10
Length of academic semester	7-8 week quarter	12.1	4
	10 week semester	27.3	9
	15-16 week semester	45.5	15
	Other	15.1	5
Level of study	Bachelor's	6.1	2
	Master's	84.9	28
	Doctoral	6.1	2
	Certificate	3	1
Cost of program in local currency	0-10 million won	18.2	6
	10-20 million won	54.6	18

Table 9 **Characteristics of Respondents' Academic Programs**

Academic program characteristics	Values	% of total	Count (n=33)
(1 million won = app. 900 USD)	20-30 million won	18.2	6
	30-40 million won	3	1
	40-50 million won	6.1	2
Major/focus of program	M.S. Instructional Design & Technology	3	1
	MA TESOL/Applied Linguistics/TESL/TEFL	45.5	15
	M. Education	12	4
	M. Educational Technology	6	2
	M.S. Educational Leadership	3	1
	M.S. International Management	3	1
	M. Business Administration	3	1
	M. Curriculum & Instruction	3	1
	M.F.A. Creative Writing	3	1
	B.S. Communication	3	1
	B. Information Science & Technology	3	1
	Ed.D. Literacy, Culture, & Language Education	3	1

Table 9   **Characteristics of Respondents' Academic Programs**

Academic program characteristics	Values	% of total	Count (n=33)
	Ed.D. Educational Technology	3	1
	DELTA Certificate	3	1
	Teacher Licensure	3	1

Discussion

As an exploratory study, the primary goal was to collect and offer data that was descriptive and indicative rather than anything generalizable to other populations, or anything predictive as was noted in a study with similar scope and purpose conducted by Hughes in 2013. This effort would allow comparison to other literature regarding characteristics of distance students, and more importantly provide a starting point with insight and context for discussion and further exploration.

The general profile of the expatriate/transnational distance students fits the three characteristics of the non-traditional student proposed by Bean and Metzner in 1985, but more relevantly is very similar to the students in studies that Selwyn (2011a; 2011b) conducted, particularly in terms of age, prior educational attainment, and GPA. Although the data has stated limitations from sampling methodology, linguistic bias, and sample size, the most salient characteristic that stood out was the gender distribution. Broadly speaking higher education statistics tend to have women students/degree earners as a slight majority (Hoyt & Simon, 2016). Although the most recent data published by the MoJ detailing Korean immigration statistics does not report the gender distribution of

visa types, they do provide entry numbers by gender with a majority being women at 55.6%, and by gender and age with there being nearly double the amount of women entering Korea between the ages of 20-29 at 1,060 versus 1,908 respectively, and a slightly higher amount of women between the ages of 30-39 at 1,243 to 1,452 respectively (MoJ, 2016, p. 24).

Although these numbers vary from year to year and age bracket to age bracket, there is a large disparity between that of foreign male and female entries. The results presented here for expatriate/transnational students cannot be generalized without the caveat of them potentially being grossly inaccurate, but the gender ratio is definitely not reflected by Korean Immigration statistics (MoJ, 2016), or general higher education statistics (Hoyt & Simon, 2016). It is possible that they are mostly male for reasons that are unclear; but ultimately more data is required to make any reasonable conclusion. Moreover, if universities and/or departments tracked these characteristics, there would be an additional point of reference to compare against local immigration statistics, especially if relying on a sample selected from a single university/department.

Although looking for any kind of statistical relationship among the data was not a part of the original research questions, the exploratory nature of the study, and disproportionate gender ratio, an opportunity was presented to examine any potential relationships in relation to gender. This researcher offers the reminder that the focus of this paper, however, is on offering the conceptual taxonomy, a practical research experience, and highlighting future research avenues and issues more so than an emphasis of the insignificant statistical results given the small (and homogeneous) sample size.

This researcher has provided a two-way chi-square test to examine the likelihood of a relationship between categorical data; and in this particular case, gender, in Table 10 below. Non-parametric tests are appropriate since they do not assume "a normal distribution in the population nor interval-level data" (Levin & Fox, 2011, p. 235). Basic cross-tab and chi-square analyses suggested that the following potential relationships are statistically insignificant, nonetheless.

Table 10   Gender and Distance Student Classification Cross-tab and Chi-square

	Expatriate	Transnational	Sub-total
Male	20 (87%)	9 (90%)	29 (87.8%)
	20 (20.21) [0]	9 (8.79) [0.01]	
Female	3 (13%)	1 (10%)	4 (12.2%)
	3 (2.79) [0.02]	1 (1.21) [0.04]	
Sub-total	23	10	33

Note: The chi-square statistic is 0.0606. The p-value is .805539.

The second preliminary data point that stood out was student age. Nearly 55% of respondents reported being older than 35 within the ranges of 35-44 and 45-54 being the most prominent. Bean and Metzner's (1985) criteria for the non-traditional student all apply (i.e. classified as a part time student, not living on campus, and being older than 24) but arguably to a degree far beyond what was originally imagined, even in the case of graduate students. Living in a different country with a different language and culture for years is arguably quite different from not living on campus. Nonetheless, additional chi-

square tests below in Table 11 suggest some statistical relationships but also reveal the

challenge of having low cell counts in several categories. Levin and Fox (2011) noted

that the counts per cell should not be too small, although exactly what this threshold

should be depends on a number of factors. Notable again was the gender distribution.

According to the MoJ (2016), as of 2015 there were more women entering the nation than

men for comparable age categories.

Table 11   Gender and Age at Time of Program Cross-tab and Chi-square

	15-24 years old	25-34 years old	35-44 years old	45-54 years old	Subtotal
Male	0 (0%)	11 (96.5%)	12 (80%)	3 (100%)	26 (78.8%)
	0.79 (0.79)	*11.03* (0.00)	*11.82* (0.00)	*2.36* (0.17)	
Female	1 (100%)	3 (3.5%)	3 (20%)	0 (0%)	7 (21.2%)
	0.21 (2.93)	*2.97* (0.00)	*3.18* (0.01)	*0.64* (0.64)	
Subtotal	1	14	15	3	33

$\chi^2 = 4.536$,   df $= 3$, $\chi^2/df = 1.51$, $P(\chi^2 > 4.536) = 0.2091$
Expected values are displayed in *italics*
Individual χ^2 values are displayed in (parentheses)

Also related to age was the length-of-time abroad when students decided to enroll

in online programs. It is not widely known what the average length of expatriation is in

South Korea but this researcher suggests/speculates from personal experience (having

lived nearly a decade in-country) that two to three years is probably the most common.

Respondents that have lived in country for a decade or more are quite interesting from

this researcher's perspective as it is unclear what the impetus is to complete a graduate degree at such a later point in time, or not taking advantage of local education opportunities. This information is detailed in Table 12.

Table 12   Gender and Expatriation Length at Enrollment Cross-tab / Chi-square

	0-2 years	3-5 years	6-8 years	9-11 years	15-17 years	18+ years	Sub-total
Male	7 (100%)	12 (92.3%)	6 (85.7%)	3 (75%)	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	29 (87.8%)
	6.15 (0.12)	*11.42 (0.03)*	*6.15 (0.00)*	*3.52 (0.08)*	*0.88 (0.02)*	*0.88 (0.88)*	
Female	0 (0%)	1 (7.7%)	1 (14.3%)	1 (25%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	4 (12.2%)
	0.85 (0.85)	*1.58 (0.21)*	*0.85 (0.03)*	*0.48 (0.55)*	*0.12 (0.12)*	*0.12 (6.37)*	
Sub-total	7	13	7	4	1	1	33

$\chi^2 = 9.246$,   df $= 5$, $\chi^2/df = 1.85$, $P(\chi^2 > 9.246) = 0.0996$
Expected values are displayed in *italics*
Individual χ^2 values are displayed in (parentheses)

A fourth point that was surprising was the uniformity in the degree of study. In order to have the visas listed (in most if not all cases), an undergraduate degree is necessary. Thus, studying at the master's level is completely logical. Yet, for those that may already have had master's degrees prior to expatriating to Korea, there are only two instances of doctoral level study, and reasons for this are not forthcoming. However, there were few instances of licensure or certificate programs, or doctoral level study. Some respondents noted that a certificate of some kind was completed as a component of

their master's program, or in addition to it (given the structure of the survey, it was included in the optional comments section). Graduate or professional certificates may not be valued as much as a full degree is. As noted earlier, while master's level study is logical, there is no obvious reason why those who came to Korea already possessing graduate degrees are not pursuing additional or higher levels of study such as a doctorate, especially if they work in higher education or advanced fields.

A brief explanation of the visa categories is provided below but not all statuses necessarily have a direct relationship to any particular employment industry. This is exemplified with the F categories of visa, and to a much lesser degree with the E category. Broadly speaking, the visa classifications that participants held are described below, with an additional set of chi-square analyses in table 13.

- E1 - University Professorship
  - While this is required for official designation as a professor, many working for Korean universities do not necessarily hold this visa and are designated assistant professors or work in other non-credit programs. In practice, this is not necessarily adhered to and circumvented with the E2.
- E2 - Foreign Language Instruction in Conversation Only
  - As noted above, in practice this visa status is should be granted solely for instruction in conversational aspects of a foreign language, although practically speaking many of these visa holders work in areas beyond the scope of the designation (e.g., writing instruction).

- E7 - Specialized Skill

    o This researcher is personally mostly familiar with E-7 visas for international school teachers (i.e. licensed content area teachers), though other jobs like copy editing or programming can qualify under this broad (if not vague) designation.

- F1 - Visiting relatives for an extended period of time

    o An ethnic Korean who is not a Korean national might be visiting parents, grandparents, siblings, etc. who are citizens for a period greater than 90 consecutive days.

- F2 - Long Term Residency Visa (merit based)

    o This is a merit/point-based visa that, among more germane requirements, requires significant Korean language skill. Holders of this visa are not restricted to any one area of employment.

- F4 - Ethnic Koreans who are not Korean citizens

    o This visa is often obtained by members of the Korean diaspora around the world who originally never had Korean citizenship, or whose family left Korea as a minor, or gave it up to maintain/obtain a different nationality. Adoptees also qualify under this designation.

- F6 - Marriage to a Korean citizen

- H1 - Working Holiday

Table 13   Gender and Visa Type Cross-tab and Chi-square Analysis

	E1	E2	E7	F1	F2	F4	F6	H1	Subtotal
Male	2 (66.7%)	18 (94.7%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	4 (80%)	1 (50%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	29 (87.8%)
	2.64	16.7	0.879	.879	4.39	1.76	0.879	0.879	
Female	1 (33.3%)	1 (5.3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (20%)	1 (50%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (12.2%)
	0.364	2.30	0.121	0.121	0.606	0.242	0.121	0.121	
Subtotal	3	19	1	1	5	2	1	1	33

Chi-square = 5.64 Degrees of freedom = 7 Probability = 0.582

In briefly scanning the types of programs students were enrolled in, they are almost entirely related to education which is congruous with the visa categories. However, limitations of the snowball sampling method and linguistic-bias (i.e., the survey was offered in English and Korean only) probably skewed the responses in this regard. Additionally, the geographic distribution of students in the various Korean provinces also reflects the regular population distribution within Korea with about half of the nation residing in the capital (approximately 10 million) or the surrounding metropolitan area (an additional 13 million).

Contributions

Although this study is a proverbial first step into uncharted territory, it has provided three pillars for future research to build on in the form of a student definition and taxonomy for global distance students, experiences from a practical research methodology along with limitations/suggestions for future surveys, and a discussion of avenues for future research below.

Globalization has challenged the traditional relationships between nations and people, and with greater patterns of migration and access to higher education, there are new relationships to consider and explore in the domain of distance education and the students therein. The hope is that this paper provides the distance education community with a better way to address distance students as a whole, and more effectively identify and address their needs. Moreover, universities and departments can better tailor programs to meet the needs of such students or simply market their programs more effectively. For example, in the field of education, the Korean context presents a number of challenges to the application of inquiry based learning or self-directed learning given that this not the norm in Korean education. How western-based education departments understand or address this for expatriate/transnational distance students remains to be answered. Other legal compliances such as FERPA or COPPA do not exist in this context. Similar regulatory/statutory content may ultimately prove to be less useful from a practical standpoint, among other significant differences in how the education systems function, and the perpetually limited roles and influence that expatriate/transnational students have in it as working (but immigrant)

professionals. These considerations go far beyond the pedagogical implications for learners that Selinger (2014) described.

Other more germane requirements like degree authentication through apostilles and notarization regulations are required in Korea and presumably other comparable requirements exist elsewhere. The question is whether or not universities, their departments, and support services are prepared to accommodate these unique needs that otherwise do not necessarily exist for national students.

Limitations

First was the unexpected difficulty of identifying distance students under the proposed categories from within a known database (i.e. a department database), in addition to recruiting participants from an in-situ population locally. These hurdles necessitated the use of non-probabilistic respondent-driven sampling that limited the ability to obtain more data in the form of a larger sample, as well as broader applicability. Furthermore, the language of the survey (English and Korea) may have limited access to other foreign residents who were not skilled enough to understand either (Korean Immigration forms are only offered in Chinese, Korean, and English). The absence of Chinese is an acknowledged omission, especially when Chinese nationals are the largest single foreign resident group in Korea (see MoJ, 2016). However, as noted by Hughes (2013) in relation to a similarly small sample of 25 participants with international students, "the findings are intended to be descriptive and indicative, rather than predictive or generalisable" and to offer "personalised, contextualised insights" (p. 139).

Conclusion

This paper has discussed the complexity and nuance of the global distance student population by clearly articulating a definition of the expatriate and transnational distance student (as well as international). This distinction highlights this phenomenon's absence in the current literature, as well as the more than likely unintentional but problematic biases in other definitions. The findings presented here provide a first look at how the expatriate/transnational distance student is manifested in South Korea through a simple demographic lens for a subset of the foreign resident population, along with their related academic programs. From this vantage point, both the expatriate and transnational distance student fall in line with other descriptions of distance students in the literature, but also raises questions for which there are no clear answers. For example, why are local national and transnational educational programs not take advantage of, especially if such residents have no plans to return to their home countries. The insight and context are meant to serve as a starting point for further investigation to address these questions, and explore others not currently asked. This call for additional research is envisaged in not only the Korean context, but at a regional, and global level as well.

Future Research

There are numerous opportunities and avenues for future research. In a local context, possibilities include expanding the sampling scope within South Korea through more active participant recruiting methods, a longer announcement and data collection period, and being offered in more languages. These adjustments should more effectively address the relatively small and uniform sample size in this study. The

demographic study can be replicated in other countries to see if there may be trends among the expatriate and transnational distance student population at national, regional, and global scales, or if there are disparate characteristics from host-nation to host-nation.

The sample collected in this study indicated a significant disparity in the gender ratio, but without more data, it is difficult to know if the results are accurate. The scale at which this gender trend occurs can further be explored. The potential for future qualitative studies such as phenomenological inquiries or case studies would give voice to this particular group and provide deeper insight in the essence of a being an expatriate/transnational distance student that is not widely known. Additionally, exploring why foreign residents are opting to attend university in their home countries when earning a local degree would not require the authentication process that is required by the Korean government for visas and the Ministry of Education for Korean nationals who have earned degrees abroad. Yet as this study indicates, there are students willing to incur the extra work and complexity for reasons unknown.

Exploring aspects of isolation in the virtual classroom would be interesting as well since distance students living in nations with cultures and languages that are different from their own may compound the online isolation often described by distance students more broadly. There is no clear data, either, on the success/attrition rates of this particular population that would yield insight on why either result is the case. While the sample here reported significantly high GPA's, how many do not actually complete their programs and why? Such data could inform university, department, and/or program policies, provide better guidelines for academic support

staff, or offer suggestions for instructors to adapt curriculum and/or pedagogical approaches for such students.

Moreover, given that local academic opportunities exist in Korea at all academic levels, often with generous scholarships for foreign residents, it is not known why students are choosing to study elsewhere. In this particular study, the majority of degree programs were focused on master's degrees in language education and reputable, nearly 100% scholarship granting programs are offered locally in English in the same field. As distance students, numerous opportunities exist to explore technology specific issues as well such as self-regulation or self-directedness in a virtual environment situated in a foreign culture. In short, there is a virtually limitless horizon to explore and numerous future discussions to have.

This researcher hopes to start that discussion by providing a taxonomy to identify and describe expatriate and transnational distance students in a way that is practical, equitable, and globally applicable, share experiences of expected challenges that may be proactively addressed in light of this study, and to inspire the distance education community to explore national, regional, and global trends that are intrinsic to the expatriate and transnational distance student phenomenon.

CHAPTER IV:

Study Two: Expatriate and Transnational Distance Students: A Multicase Study in the

Republic of Korea

Abstract

A lack of differentiation among student conceptualizations and the use of homogenous

labels has made descriptions of distance students in the literature difficult to parse

accurately. While students in an online class may share the same nationality or

citizenship, they may not share the same nation of residence. Similarly, local students in

transnational programs may in fact not be locals, and there is no clear consensus on what

differentiates transnational versus international distance students. Such discrepancies

have gained burgeoning recognition in recent years, yet related research is limited. This

multicase study investigated the experiences of expatriate and transnational distance

students situated in various cities throughout the Republic of Korea, highlighting themes

of convenience, benefits, home-country orientation, and/or perceptions of a non-local

future. Implications for both home- and host-country universities are discussed.

Keywords: distance students, transnational education, expatriates, Korea,
globalisation

Introduction

Distance education has evolved from being merely an educational practice into a rich field of study (Harasim, 2000). The field has also gone from being locally, regionally, or nationally focused (e.g., Im, 1992; Mantilla Galvez, 2018; Moiseeva, 2005; Saba, 2011) to one that is increasingly inclusive of international and/or transnational settings (e.g., Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008; Gunawardena, 2014; Selwyn, 2011; Singh et al., 2012; Stewart, 2019; Wilkins, 2016). The global expansion of, and access to, distance education has introduced more complicated student scenarios that have been overlooked and consequently under researched, however (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison, Harrison, Robinson, & Rawlings, 2018; Hoare, 2012; Hoare, 2013; Madge, Raghuram, & Noxolo, 2015; Parrish & Linder-VanBerschot, 2010; Smith & Ayers, 2006; Wilkins, 2016). Distance students can be situated in interstitial, transnational spaces that are not necessarily obvious. One example of this trend, which highlights the blurred lines between national origin, language, and geographic location, can be seen in Massively Open Online Courses (MOOCs).

Demographic trends tend to portray the typical MOOC participant as relatively young, western, English-speaking, and male as evidenced in data from high profile north American MOOC providers such as HarvardX, MITx, edX, and Coursera (Christensen et al., 2013; Glass et al., 2016; Jiang, Schenke, Eccles, Di Xu, & Warschauer, 2016; Nesterko et al., 2013; Veletsianos & Shepherdson, 2016). However, while some of these characteristics can be correlated with the respective geographic location (i.e., North America) and linguistic profile (i.e., English-speaking) of the

MOOC providers themselves (Veletsianos & Shepherdson, 2016), the geographic data from these studies presents a more complex portrait. Further, the data suggests that this relationship is not necessarily the case overall. In the data from edX, Coursera, and HarvardX, roughly two-thirds of total participants were located outside of the United States, with one-third in the European region, and the remaining third distributed around the world (Christensen et al., 2013; Glass et al., 2016). In short, most students in American MOOCs from these aforementioned studies were not American. The subtlety of the relationship that students have with educational providers and their own geographic locations is equally applicable when considering conventional face-to-face and distance education programs and courses (see Dobos, 2011; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison et al., 2018; Rensimer, 2016; Stewart, 2017, 2019; Wilkins, 2016).

The Problem

While there may not be drastically different characteristics between students in a national context versus students that are not, their perspectives and characteristics have otherwise not been included in the conversation as a whole (Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Harrison et al., 2018). Although cases of expatriate distance students, and transnational/international distance students are comparatively small to their national counterparts (see Allen et al., 2016), the statistics themselves are not necessarily so straightforward since students may not report their actual current addresses for a variety of reasons such as home-country orientation, administrative ease, or general convenience (Stewart, 2017, 2019). Additionally, cases of distance students who straddle more than one country, are likely to grow through the currents of globalization and widespread use of modern transportation and information and communications technology (ICT)

(Pieterse, 2007; Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008). Although international students have been conventionally conceived of as a form of educational migrant (Cha & Chang, 2009), the phenomenon of expatriate and transnational distance students has only emerged in varying degrees in recent literature (e.g., Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison et al., 2018; Hoare, 2012; Hoare, 2013; Stewart, 2017; Ziguras, 2008). This recognition is still underdeveloped and complicated by a lack of consistent and/or clear terms and definitions.

The distinction between international distance students and transnational ones is unclear in the literature (Kosmützky & Putty, 2016) as both terms share the same key characteristic: a student being located in a country different from where the awarding institution is based. Rensimer (2016) similarly critiqued that "[t]he overlapping language of all things international—international students and international institutions in (inter)national spaces—appears to have made the term all but redundant as a useful research analytic in a globalizing era" (p. 79). Furthermore, geographic location of the student and university does not adequately capture a wider range of possible relationships (Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Stewart, 2017). For example, neither of these two terms explicitly accounts for the possibility of expatriate students. And even when transnational distance student perspectives have shared their experiences, the cases themselves are not necessarily the same (see Singh et al., 2012). Additionally, similar to the term international, transnational is not used uniformly and requires readers to explicitly determine what is meant in individual scholarship (Pieterse, 2007). To address this complication, both Gemmell and Harrison (2017) and Stewart (2017) have called for the

study of the geographic location of students, their nationalities, and an administrative

classification to better delineate students.

Background of the Study

The Republic of Korea, also referred to as South Korea and simply "Korea",

covers a landmass of approximately 100,000 sq km in northeast Asia, making it

comparable in size to the U.S. states of Indiana or Pennsylvania, or countries like Iceland

or Hungary (CIA, 2019). The national population is estimated to be around 51 million

(CIA, 2019). The capital, Seoul, is home to roughly 10 million people, and the

surrounding metropolitan area is home to an additional 15 million or roughly 50% of the

population (CIA, 2019, Kim, 2017) in less than 12% of the nation's land mass (Joo,

2019). Seven other large urban cities (Busan, Incheon, Daegu, Daejeon, Gwangju, Ulsan,

Changwon) have populations ranging from 1.0-3.5 million for a collective total of

approximately 14 million (CIA, 2019). Combined with the capital metropolitan area's

population, some 39 million people (75%) of the population live in cities with one

million or more residents.

Purpose of the Study

The foreign resident population in Korea has increased from approximately 30-

40,000 over the last 35 years to more than 2 million today (Kim, 2014; MoJ, 2016;

Socinet, n.d.). Though the nation's demographic makeup has remained predominantly

ethnically homogeneous compared to other relatively more diverse countries or regions

(e.g., the United States, Europe), this fact understates a rather quick change in the

national makeup given the peninsula's 5000 years of otherwise relative homogeneity

(Kim, 2017). These demographic changes have given rise to a foreign-resident population whose educational needs/goals are not necessarily being recognized or met (Shen, 2019). Nor are these obstacles limited to foreign-born immigrants; Korean returnees, third culture kids, or members of the Korean diaspora that immigrate to Korea can experience a similar lack of appropriate or viable secondary and tertiary education opportunities due to differences in educational systems, linguistic capabilities, and prior socio-cultural knowledge (Greenholtz & Kim 2009; Kim, 2018; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009, Seol & Skrentny, 2009). Rensimer (2016) noted how similar discrepancies among expatriate students in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) were similarly overlooked and highlighted a "call for nuanced approaches to research on expatriate and international students and recognition of their differing constraints, needs, resources, and aspirations" (Rensimer, 2016, p. 93).

To date in Korea, the academic literature includes research on foreign residents in varying capacities (Shin & Moon, 2019) who are academics (Froese, 2012), corporate workers (Jun & Gentry, 2005), international students (Jon, Lee, & Byun, 2014; Lee, 2011), marriage migrants (Kim, 2014), and ethnic returnees (Greenholtz & Kim, 2009; Kim, 2018; Seol & Skrentny, 2009). Missing from this literature base are foreign-residents who are simultaneously distance students at institutions outside of Korea. Stewart (2017) preliminarily recognized a subset of foreign residents who chose to study online abroad rather than enroll in local national or transnational programs, but the study was limited to exploring demographic and program characteristics. What these students' experiences are like, how they apply knowledge locally, or what their motivations for doing so were unclear. Moreover, the experience of studying at a distance while situated

in a culture distinctly different from one's own is under described in the literature

(Harrison et al., 2018; Stewart, 2017). Thus, the impetus for this multicase study was to

build on top of Stewart's (2017) exploratory descriptive study, and calls from other

researchers (e.g., Andrews & Tynan, 2010; Harrison et al., 2018; Gemmell & Harrison,

2017; Rensimer, 2016) and contribute to the literature by investigating cases of distance

students that may look similar to their national or "international" counterparts, yet are

situated differently.

Methodology

As a qualitative approach and multicase study method, this researcher took the

same philosophical view that Stake (2006) does where knowledge-building and

meaning-making are viewed as interpretive and constructive acts, and where the

researcher attempts to document these experiences in collaboration with the

participants by interpreting them. Therefore, the study here, guided by five research

questions, ultimately presents descriptions, interpretations, and analysis as co-

constructions by the parties involved.

Definition of Terms

Since the literature is inconsistent in both terminology and definitions (e.g., home

student, domicile student, national student, expatriate, home student abroad, international,

transnational, etc.) (see Madge et al., 2015; Kosmützky & Putty, 2016; Rensimer, 2016;

Stewart, 2017, 2019), Stewart's (2017) conceptual model was used to delineate and target

expatriate and transnational cases only (Figure 1).

National	International
A national/citizen of country **A**, attending university online in country **A**, while living in country **A**. Designated as a **regular** student by the University.	A national/citizen of country **A**, attending university online in country **B**, while living in country **A**. Designated as an **international** student by the University
Transnational	Expatriate
A national/citizen of country **A**, sojourning via a non-tourist visa in country **B**, attending university online in country **C**. Designated as an **international** student by the University.	A national/citizen of country **A**, sojourning via a non-tourist visa in country **B** , attending university online in country **A**. Designated as a **regular** student by the university.

Distance Students

Figure 1.   Stewart's Model of Distance Students

Moreover, the target cases aligned appropriately with a multicase method as the particulars of the case could be investigated, and where the cases were bound to one another categorically (Stake, 2006) by three traits: national origin of student/university, sojourn status in the host country, and actual geographic location of student/university. And since variation along these dimensions was considered possible, a multiple case approach was an appropriate research design to capture potential variation (Yin, 2009). Further, "multicase studies are usually studies of particularization" (Stake, 2006, p. 57) and "attention to the local situation" (p. 58). The specific categories of distance students being used as the foundation of this study aligned with these characteristics well.

Research Questions

The multicase study was guided by a relatively narrow scope of five research questions:

1.   What are the demographic and program characteristics of expatriate and transnational distance students in Korea?

2. What is the experience like of studying 'abroad' while living in a foreign country and culture?

3. What are any notable experiences that expatriate and transnational distance students have in their programs/courses?

4. Do students perceive any benefits of their academic program in their host-country?

5. Do students apply what they have learned in the host-country's society?

<u>Case Selection Criteria</u>

To be eligible for participation, individuals needed to be residing in Korea, and be taking or have completed a distance program based outside of Korea. In order to effectively recruit participants, one strategy was what Creswell (2015) called maximal variation sampling. This is a "purposeful sampling strategy in which the researcher samples cases or individuals that differ on some characteristic or trait" (Creswell, 2015, p. 206). Therefore, the intention was to recruit participants from:

- multiple national/regional backgrounds and genders;

- who were studying online at universities located in various nations/regions;

- at various levels of study and in different fields;

- and at various stages in their programs.

The theoretical variation was considered to be an emergent characteristic of the study; however, the researcher was ultimately unsuccessful in achieving a wide degree of variation in national origin and fields of study, as is subsequently discussed.

While there were neighborhoods in Seoul, Korea (e.g., Konkuk University's Chinatown, Itaewon, Haebangchon, Gyeongridan) where various foreign residents tend

cluster for various historical reasons (e.g., war time military bases and surrounding areas, comparatively less accessible and thus inexpensive residential zones), the more practical recruiting method was through foreign-resident community web portals or centers run by the government that cater to foreign-residents (e.g., Seoul Global Center, Seongbuk Global Center), social media groups (e.g., Every Expat in Korea, Indians in Korea, Latinos en Corea, Brits in Korea, Foreigners in Korea), as well as professional networks (e.g., KORCOS, KOTESOL) that are comprised of large numbers of foreign-residents (and potentially adult dependents [i.e. spouses]) in varying capacities. The Korean Ministry of Justice (MoJ) (2016) reported the overall demographic statistics for foreign-residents and provided insight into relative proportions of foreigners (e.g., Chinese nationals being the most numerous), but there is no inferable relationship between any particular nationality, sojourn status, or enrollment in distance programs abroad.

Stewart's (2017) descriptive survey was only able to identify a subset of the foreign-resident population due to linguistic and sampling method limitations. Therefore, in this study, the effort was made to get the recruitment flyer translated into 20 languages (i.e., English, Korean, Chinese, Vietnamese, Thai, Uzbek, Tagalog, Japanese, Cambodian, Laotian, Mongolian, Indonesian, Russian, Arabic, Hindi, Turkish, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese) which generally corresponded with the largest groups of foreign nationals (in descending order) as reported by the MoJ. Korean citizens who were dual-citizenship holders (a relatively uncommon and recent phenomenon) blur these boundary conditions, and in the event of such a situation, would have been excluded from participation. Nevertheless, despite the

multilingual recruiting materials and dissemination to multinational online community groups and government centers, the resulting participants were from western, English speaking countries.

Data Collection

For the purpose of this study, a "case" was defined as a single foreign-resident who was or had been studying "abroad" while living in Korea. Data was collected over a two-month period, and ultimately from eight foreign-resident distance students. The researcher followed an interview protocol that included 16 questions (with numerous sub questions) focusing on experience with their classes, the perceived benefits and utility of their program in Korea, and any notable experiences they might have had. Iterative adjustments were made to sub questions where appropriate throughout the course of the interviews. For example, variations of questions about a student's GPA or semester characteristics had wording added (i.e., distinctions, modules) for equivalents in British programs. Each interview question and its sub questions were aligned with one of the five corresponding research questions. Interviews were scheduled in advance of being conducted, and generally lasted from 30-40 minutes. The researcher met participants for 1:1 interviews at various locations (Gunpo, Incheon, Seoul) in the capital metropolitan area (n=5), while interviews for participants living in cities along the southern coast of Korea (Busan, Gwangju, and Jeju Island) were conducted by telephone (n=3) as a matter of practicality as the researcher was based in Seoul. The location of cities/participants are presented in Figure 2. Interviews were recorded and processed in transcription software with manual editing for correction/accuracy, and subsequently imported and organized in NVivo, and prepared for memoing and initial coding. The initial analysis helped

determine whether or not to continue data collection efforts or to consider if data saturation had been reached.

The range of participants can vary greatly in qualitative studies (Creswell, 2013; Creswell, 2015), and is also dependent on the emergent nature of a qualitative study. A number in the range of four to six participant range would reasonably represent both target cases and yield some case variety. Although it can be difficult to predict when data saturation is reached (Crouch & McKenzie, 2006), Fusch and Ness (2015) pragmatically suggested that if a qualitative study is being guided by theoretical sampling and data saturation, researchers simply need to be "explicit regarding how data saturation is reached" (p. 1413). To that end, the researcher explains the rationale for saturation in this study.

On one hand as a multicase approach, too many cases can become unwieldy and may also mean the study is presenting redundant information (Creswell, 2013; Stake, 2006; Yin, 2009) whereas on the other, purposefully sampled and homogenous groups may present relatively similar information and enable saturation more quickly (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006). Due to the homogeneity of actual participants, after six cases, information was relatively uniform with only minor variations of codes produced in interview seven.

Data Analysis

After initial code generation, codes were more formally established, along with case descriptions, including a preliminary cross-case analysis that compared/contrasted the cases (Stake, 2006). Then, the preliminary codes were further aggregated to form larger themes and/or patterns (Braun & Clarke, 2006). An analysis of themes began, and

assertions made where "the researcher makes sense of the data and provides an interpretation of the data" (Creswell, 2013, p. 294). In general, four prevalent themes emerged describing convenience, a home-country orientation and/or a non-local future, and perceived benefits of their programs. At this point, a more detailed portrait of the cases and case categories were presented using narrative writing, tables, and/or figures that present naturalistic generalizations or "generalizations that people can learn from the case either for themselves or to apply to a population of cases" (Creswell, 2013, p. 200).

Validation Strategies and Trustworthiness

The researcher followed an interview protocol for uniformity and systematicity. A log of activities was created and kept in order to document the sequence of research events, along with field/interview notes, and a project file that organized recording audio, transcriptions, and related data to enable an audit trail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Data from program websites (i.e., tuition costs, degree names, marketing materials) was used to triangulate what participants discussed during interviews (often due to simple memory lapses) as well as a mode of establishing contextual validity where a piece of evidence can be compared with other similar evidence (e.g., similarities/differences between degree programs), and where the source of the evidence can evaluated for any potential inconsistencies (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Furthermore, peer review of coding/analysis with a faculty member served as an ongoing external check of the study as it progressed (Creswell, 2013). Tentative case descriptions were sent to participants as a means of member checking so that they could "judge the accuracy and credibility of the account" and make changes before they were finalized (Creswell, 2013, p. 252). All participants

approved their case descriptions and made appropriate modifications/feedback where they felt necessary.

Case Analyses

Table 14   **Overview of Distance Student Cases**

Nat.	Uni Location	Gen	Age	Level	Participant Location	Cost (USD)	Field of Study
Expatriate Distance Students							
USA	Idaho	M	36	PhD	Gunpo	30,000	Administration
USA	Indiana	F	40	EdD	Gwangju	30,000	LCLE
USA	California	M	45	MA	Seoul	55,000	TESOL
UK	England	F	35	MA	Busan	15,000	TESOL
UK	England	M	33	EdD	Gunpo	30,000	Ed. Leadership
Transnational Distance Students							
USA	Australia	M	42	MA	Incheon	26,000	App.Linguistics
USA	England	M	34	MA	Jeju	15,000	TESOL
CAN	Scotland	M	56	MA	Seongnam	10,000	TESOL
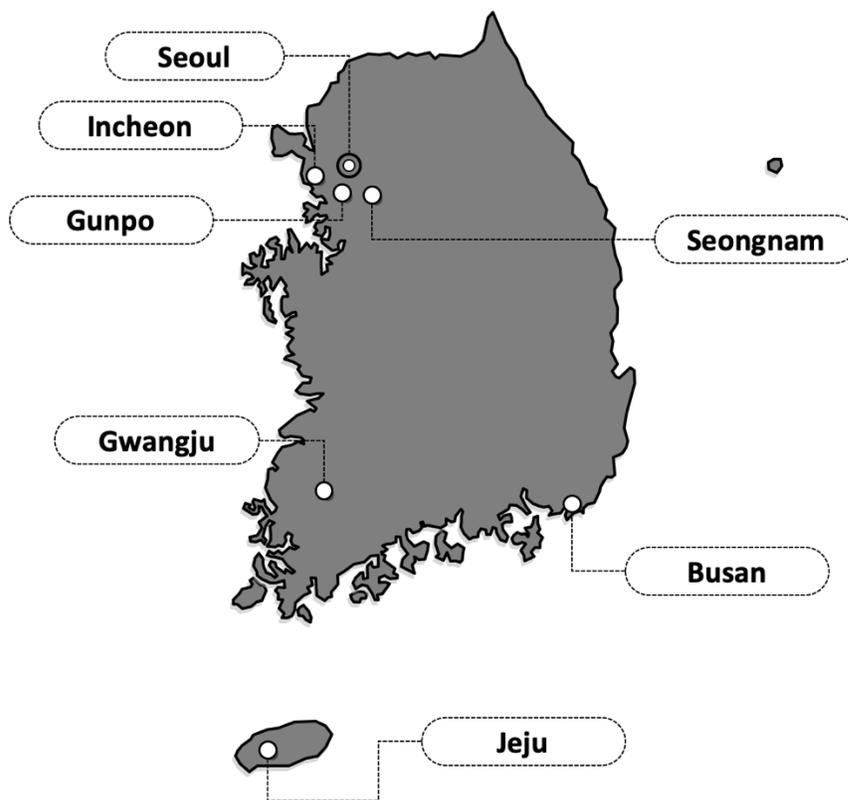
Figure 2.   Map of South Korea and Participants' Locations

<u>Expatriate Distance Students</u>

<u>Case 1 - Duncan, 33, English, 10-year sojourn, Ed.D. program</u>

Duncan (a pseudonym) had been struggling to find work in his early 20s "because I'm inexperienced, too young, etc." and was "sick of getting knocked back from menial jobs in the UK, because they would constantly say, if you got a graduate school degree, you will leave at the very first opportunity, so we're not going to hire you". It had been suggested to him that in order to get international work experience relevant to NGO work, he might consider going abroad to teach English. Coupled with a passion for football, awareness of Korea from the 2002 World Cup, he came to Korea in 2008 to get experience in a career he had no prior interest in. At the time, he never would have

imagined how much this suggestion would change his life as he would eventually get married, start a family, and settle down in Gunpo, a city just south of Seoul.

Although he arrived in Korea holding a graduate degree, Duncan would complete a second master's degree in education through a local face-to-face transnational degree program in order to better qualify as an educator. Moreover, it was a step and precursor towards pursuing a doctorate, eventually choosing an online EdD program at his alma mater in England. As a first-year doctoral student, he has been surprised by the overall positive experience, and the value it has added to his practices in the classroom. He expects to graduate around 2022.

Case 2 - Corey, 36, American, 10-year sojourn, Ph.D. program

In 2008, Corey (a pseudonym) was working at a bank in the United States in Washington state. He did not enjoy the work, and "I had a friend who was teaching English at a public school in Korea. And he said, my school is looking for a teacher to start next week. I know this sounds crazy, but you should come over here. Like it's the life you'll just totally love it. You'll never go back". He applied for the position and within a week, he had quit his job at the bank and was boarding a plane for Korea.

Three years into his sojourn, he got married, and five years in, he had his first of three children. It was at this time that Corey felt it would be a good decision to repatriate back to the United States with his wife and son, and rather strategically looked at industries where there was a need for qualified professionals, settling on higher education administration. Thus, if he earned a doctorate and state credentials prior to repatriating, he thought it would be easier to reintegrate into the workforce. While his experience in the program was overwhelmingly positive with an "unusually" close cohort, his goal to

repatriate to the U.S. ultimately changed as his "view on Korean education for young children has changed" and "I thought [Korea] is a place where I would prefer to raise my children". "Near the end of my program, I soon, I started to see that the program equipped me with the tools to publish through my university and to engage and research in my, in my university, which is something that our department actively encourages". He graduated in April 2019 one week prior to participating in this interview.

Case 3 - Trey, 35, English, 2-year sojourn, M.A. program

Trey (a pseudonym) had always had an interest in Korea which was responsible for her travelling to the nation four times prior to moving to Busan for work. She had been curious about working in Korea, but she had no interest in teaching, and "didn't really want to be an English teacher" since she had had a career as a graphic designer. However, she did not enjoy living in London, and was unhappy with her job, and decided to use an English teaching position in Korea as a short term means of securing a work visa. Once in country, she would be able to more easily look for more appropriate or desirable work. Yet, "I actually realized how much I enjoyed teaching. So yeah, I, for the next, for the foreseeable future, that's [education] my career path". When asked about living in Korea and studying "abroad" online, she noted that she can easily seclude herself and focus on studying, and that the cost of living is much lower compared to London. She has also enjoyed the diversity of students in her program with peers from all over the world. However, she did not anticipate or realistically estimate how much work was actually involved and often can find it exhausting. She expects to graduate in March 2020.

Case 4 - Selene, 40, American, 14-sojourn, Ed.D. program

Selene (a pseudonym) immigrated to Korea in 2005 because she was "crazy" about Asian cinema; upon her completion of a master's in cinema studies, she "had an idea that if I could go to Korea and study the language, master the culture, then I could go back, get a doctorate in film studies and become one of the foremost North American experts on Korean cinema--because at that time, nobody was talking about Korean cinema, and I knew it was going to be huge." She looked into the Fulbright ETA program and thought "well, at least I'll be in Korea, I can take Korean language lessons and watch Korean movies while I'm there and learn about the culture. And, ugh, if I have to teach, I guess that's okay." Upon walking into her first classroom, however, she immediately fell in love with teaching, and her career goals completely shifted.

After three years of teaching, she pursued a CELTA, and four years after that she decided to pursue a second master's degree in Literature, Culture, and Language Education (LCLE). A couple of years after graduating, her LCLE program opened a distance EdD, and she jumped at the opportunity to enroll. Her experience thus far has been overwhelmingly positive: "My classmates are awesome. I love my cohort. They are the most supportive, generous group of people I've ever met. I absolutely love interacting with them online." They have even traveled to conferences and presented together. She currently has finished doctoral coursework and is preparing for comprehensive exams. She anticipates graduating in 2020.

Case 5 - Toben, 45, American, 8-year sojourn, M.A. program

Originally from southern California, Toben (a pseudonym) came to Korea to specifically to teach English. As a Korean-American, he was eligible for an ethnic heritage visa which allowed him to live and work freely unlike other visa types that are directly tied to an employer and/or particular industry. "After three and half years in Korea now that I'm looking back at my stuff from then, I felt that I'd reached a point that I needed more schooling to improve my teaching which is why I decided to do it at that time" and pursued a graduate degree in TESOL. He asked a number of professional acquaintances for advice and ended up choosing a program in his home-town area in the US that fulfilled a number of criteria: synchronous classes, classroom practicum, a US degree, and university ranking/reputation. Despite the time difference between Seoul and California, he would virtually attend classes several times per week at night around 10-11pm. He also had the opportunity to do group work with other classmates who were similarly located in Korea. Upon graduating, he left Korea because "it was just time to try something, to, I just needed a break" and went on to pursue a second masters in the United Kingdom.

Transnational Distance Students

Case 6 - JT, 42, American, 15-year sojourn, M.A. in an Australian program

In 2004, JT (a pseudonym) was living in Chicago and had become bored with life and disillusioned with work in a cubicle for an online university. While conducting job searches, he came across an advertisement for living and working abroad. He replied to the post, received a phone call 10 minutes later, and within two weeks had found a roommate to replace him in a sublet, his parents said they would take care of selling his

car, and he boarded a plane to Korea. He would later get married in 2012 and had a daughter in 2013, but by the time she was two years old, he realized that his career in the nightlife and entertainment industry was not conducive or sustainable for raising a daughter since he would be away from home until five or six in the morning, four to five days a week.

A friend of his who worked at university said he could help get him a job teaching English there, but there was a condition attached: he had to enroll in a master's program immediately. He chose a program in Australia based on word of mouth and positive experiences from friends and coworkers who had taken the same program in years prior. He has found the program to be personally valuable since "it's giving me a very unique lens through which to view my life here as a [immigrant], my Korean is pretty good. But also, you know, living as a linguistic outsider. And just a more interesting awareness of those kinds of things". He anticipates graduating in 2020.

Case 7 - Mike, 34, American, 8-year sojourn, M.A. in a UK (England) program

Mike (a pseudonym) came to Korea in his mid-twenties for the purposes of teaching, the experience of living abroad, and the ability to travel. He ended up in Jeju Island, a province situated about 200km south of the peninsular mainland. While starting work in Korea in the private academy system, he noted that "even before I came to Korea, I knew eventually I wanted to teach at the university level. And once I got some experience here, and I looked into the general requirements for teaching at universities in Korea, I thought that having a graduate degree would be very beneficial to me. So I decided to pursue a master's program". He enjoyed living in Jeju, developed a community of friends, and was not interested in relocating to attend classes (either domestically or

abroad) and decided to enroll in a distance program located in the United Kingdom. He graduated in 2016.

Case 8 - Rob, 56, Canadian, 20-year sojourn, M.A. in a UK (Scotland) program

Rob (a pseudonym) came to Korea in the late 1990s for "work and adventure" and has been living and working in the capital-metropolitan area for 20 years. While the adventure part of his motivations has since subsided, he has continued to work in higher education. He had always planned on going to graduate school, but the programs available or accessible to him circa 2001 were very limited. He was planning on getting a master's degree in TESOL in order to repatriate to Canada. Ultimately, he looked to the British universities and chose to study at a program in Scotland since it was not only a renowned institution, but one he had an interest in due to his family's Scottish "heritage connection, however, tenuous it might be". Rob, however, would not complete his program. For him:

> It was not the easiest. The usual support systems that you would have in a, in a brick and mortar university simply weren't there. And even among our colleagues, there, there wasn't a lot of people you could turn to, if you, if you needed help, and like say, you know, face to face.

He also noted that an online course "plays to my very worst instincts of procrastination". Eventually he lost interest in the program and withdrew. In the end, "one of the exit points was a postgraduate certificate in education and that's what I got out of it... It wasn't it wasn't a complete flush". He would later complete an M.A. at face-to-face transnational program in 2016. He plans to return to Canada in 2019 or 2020.

Cross-case Analysis, Findings, and Discussion

RQ1. What are the demographic and program characteristics of expatriate and
transnational distance students in Korea?

Aside from the common demographic characteristics of participants (western
nationalities, English-speaking, mostly male) in this sample, most of the cases decided
to pursue further education after a sojourn period of five to ten years (with Trey,
Toben, and Rob being the exceptions at two to three and a half years). One prevalent
theme was their initial lack of credentials/qualifications in their professions. Though
their reasons for immigration ranged from adventure, career change, and work, other
reasons were more specific, such as becoming an expert in Korean cinema and getting
international work experience for NGOs. Nevertheless, despite the variation in factors
that led to immigration, participants found themselves funneled into the same niche
industry due to limited employment options as non-Korean speakers, and as a function
of national origin(s), native language, and prior college education.

These three qualifications easily enabled work visas in the EFL industry,
regardless of their original intentions. Though working as English teachers was initially
thought to be a temporary job for Stephen, Trey, and Selene, they were surprised at
how much they enjoyed teaching and decided to make it a career. Similarly, Corey
ended up enjoying education and dedicated himself to earning the related credentials,
whereas for Mike and Rob, this had always been their goal. JT was working in the
nightlife and entertainment industry but needed to change careers in order to better
raise his young daughter. Thus, while they are all non-traditional students (see Bean &
Metzner, 1985), they possess an additional layer of complexity as a result of their

immigration status and the nature of transnational education (Harrison et al., 2018; Rensimer, 2016; Stewart, 2017; Wilkins, 2016).

RQ2. What is the experience like studying 'abroad' while living in a foreign country and culture?

For the students (Stephen, Corey, Trey, Selene, Mike, and Rob) whose universities were located in significantly different time zones, they experienced only minor difficulties as a result; though the time difference between Korea and North America is coincidentally 12-14 hours apart which coincidentally inverts the mornings and evenings. With the exception of Rob, all of the cases had overwhelmingly positive experience in their courses, especially the doctoral students (Corey, Selene). All programs were asynchronous with the exception of Toben who specifically wanted synchronous classes otherwise he would not have considered an online program. Selene noted that some parts of her M.A. in LCLE were too U.S. centric, but that her doctorate, by contrast, had been wonderfully personal and customized to her setting in Korea. Mike noted how his university in England was able to send him custom print materials from the library within a week, considering their support and services to be excellent. Their academic performance, whether characterized as a GPA (i.e., 3.5+) or a distinction (i.e., 60-70%+), is very high and in line with prior research on graduate students in distance programs (Colorado & Eberle, 2010).

RQ3. What are any notable experiences that expatriate and transnational distance students have in their programs/courses?

Trey noted that the isolation and cheaper cost of living made it easier for her to work and study in Korea compared to London, though she noted how exhausting and overwhelming the coursework could be at times. Both Trey and Rob noted how the usual support structures (family, coworkers, classmates) were not readily available or linguistically accessible, and as immigrants, could compound the difficulty. Such constraints of expatriate students have often been an overlooked nuance (Rensimer, 2016). By contrast, Corey stated how incredibly important and valuable it was to have a wife and family that supported him throughout his EdS and PhD programs, and that "it's wonderful that technology has afforded the opportunities for people like me [immigrants/expatriates], who would not have previously been able to attain such a degree as either an MA an EdS or a PhD".

RQ4. Do students perceive any benefit(s) from their academic program in their host country?

While further education was not always necessary for employment due to prior minimal qualifications, these cases all wanted to be eligible for better future employment opportunities both in Korea and abroad. The benefits attached to those employment opportunities, however, are not necessarily so straightforward. Mike was able to meet his goal of employment at a local university, however the difference in pay or workload from his previous job in the public-school system was not significantly different. Duncan noted that when completing his EdD "I will earn an additional 100,000 won [90 USD] a month" and that the pay increase will take

"another 40-50 years to pay it [the degree] off". He expects that it likely only helps with job security versus actual career advancement. Despite these cases being highly credentialed (i.e., multiple bachelor's, master's, and terminal degrees, certificates, etc.), Duncan and Corey were very direct about the realities of a professional ceiling as foreigners. Duncan stated that "the thing that potentially halts it [the doctorate] being useful is simply the ceiling of my own position as a foreigner" and that "I will not have the opportunity to enter those [higher] positions". All of the cases mentioned a possible benefit and value of the degrees for if-or-when they return to their home countries, though paradoxically none of them had any definite plans to do so. Corey and Rob both had once decided to repatriate but those plans eventually changed. The current typical sojourn period of these cases is in excess of 10 years.

RQ5. Do students apply what they have learned into the host country's society?

As students, immigrants, and education workers, they do not necessarily intend to apply what they are learning from "abroad" in Korea. Their reasons for this vary and range from being unsure of applicability for cultural reasons as Mike explained:

> some of the things I would like to do is, it's not as easy here in Korea, specifically, interacting with fellow students, I find that to be difficult sometimes to get certain students to want to speak with their fellow classmates, or do group activities or activities that involve moving around and interacting with other students, that can sometimes be difficult.

For Corey and Selene, applying knowledge and skills developed in their degree was not intended since Corey wanted to repatriate and specifically sought out American administrative credentials. Selene wanted intellectual challenge, but that did not

preclude her from applying these skills to her classroom practices, noting that "I wasn't doing my best for my students, and I wanted them to have the absolute best possible experience". By contrast, Rob felt that the nature of his original master's program "they kind of sold it as being, you know, practical, but, but it wasn't, it was, you know, it was academic, it was theoretical" and he was left to figure out how to apply those concepts on his own.

Implications

As this study explored two distinct cases of students, it highlights the subtlety of certain differences that have been overlooked in prior scholarship (Harrison et al., 2018). For example, participants were mostly living as unmarried skilled migrant laborers in Korea (see Shin & Moon, 2019) and described lacking the usual support structures (i.e., family, friends, coworkers, immediate access to classmates) that their national counterparts would most likely have. Or where an international distance student might have these support systems available, there may be issues with language competency unlike expatriate or national student categories. Simply put, more refined classification can result in better support.

When situated across two countries, the concept of home, and which "home" is actually oriented to, is complex (Nowicka, 2007; Ralph & Staeheli, 2011).These cases uniformly stated how much they appreciate and enjoy living and working in Korea and have made it home in numerous ways (marriage, property ownership, families, children, careers), yet education uniquely was sought out in the "other" home. On one hand, for universities outside of Korea, there is a niche student demographic that is not only willing, motivated, and capable of affording their programs, but that also

perceives their degree offerings as being convenient and beneficial, despite the geographic, time zone, and sociocultural differences in Korea. Further, comparatively longer periods of sojourn (10-15 years) seem to have no effect on distance student willingness to study online in their home countries, or other third-party countries in the case of transnational distance students. On the other hand, for universities within Korea these cases represent a potential loss to the local economy since the cost of these programs ranged from 10,000-55,000 USD. Moreover, the loss is not purely financial as students (particularly doctoral ones) are not necessarily networking or participating directly in the local academic community where they might collaborate on research and publish in conjunction with local scholars and universities.

Limitations

Participants represented in this study were relatively homogenous, all coming from western English-speaking countries, working in the same field (education, TESOL), and studying similar topics (ECLE, TESOL, Applied Linguistics, Educational Leadership). Thus, when viewed in conjunction with the knowledge that the overwhelming majority of foreign residents in Korea are Chinese nationals or from the Asian region in general (see MoJ, 2016), there are arguably clear boundaries with their experiences, and those of other foreign nationals. For example, there was a synergy between these students' work/careers in education and a need for higher qualifications, particularly in tertiary education that would not necessarily be the same in other fields or careers.

Additionally, these cases were not compared against cases of foreign residents who have immigrated to Korea for work but decided to enroll in Korean programs, or

students who started programs (both distance and local) but withdrew (with the exception of Rob). Moreover, these students volunteered to participate (no compensation was offered for participation) and represents both purposeful sampling and a kind of self-selection bias which can disproportionately represent their views over cases of expatriate and transnational distance students who simply chose not to participate (Heckman, 1979). However, as a qualitative research approach, the findings are not meant to be generalizable, nor are they intended to be representative of all potential cases of expatriate or transnational distance students in Korea, the region, or elsewhere in the world.

Conclusion

This study makes a contribution to the academic literature by investigating distinct cases of students as called for in previous research (e.g., Kosmützky & Putty, 2016; Rensimer, 2016; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison et al., 2018; Stewart, 2017, 2019), and providing a glimpse into a subset of the foreign-resident population's experiences in Korea. The cases presented here illustrate general reasons for needing (lacking credentials, a condition of employment) or wanting (intellectual challenge, career change) further education. Further, the specific degree fields were contextually related to a lack of alternative career options as non-Korean speakers, or an easier path into one particular immigrant-centric industry in Korea by virtue of western origins and by being native English speakers. The cases also present subtle constraints from being situated transnationally such as not having familial or institutional support structures due to living in Korea that other types of distance students (i.e., national, international)

should generally have available. This multicase study, however, is an incremental contribution to the literature; there are numerous avenues for further investigation.

Future Research

First, there is ample opportunity to explore the distance student experience of other foreign nationals in Korea that this researcher was unable to recruit, as well as ones elsewhere in the region and the world. Second, though there was some variety in degree programs, many (though not all) of these degrees are available in Korea, particularly those in, TESOL/EFL, or Applied Linguistics. Furthermore, such programs are offered at both well-known Korean universities (e.g., Sookmyung Women's University, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Seoul National University) and face-to-face transnational programs (e.g., Birmingham University, Framingham State University). Both local national and transnational programs are also comparatively less expensive due to government tuition subsidies, discounts, or scholarships for foreign nationals (Stewart, 2017). While models of college choice do exist (e.g., Jackson Model, Chapman Model, Hanson and Litten Model), these describe the decision processes or phases that high school students and their families make towards high education (see Vrontis, Thrassou, & Melanthiou, 2007). Related studies (e.g., Griffin, Del Pilar, McIntosh, & Griffin, 2012; Nora, 2004) have similarly looked at high school students but from the perspective of minorities and immigrants in the United States, or, for example, expatriate college choice in the UAE at face-to-face programs transnational branch campuses (Rensimer, 2016). These perspectives, motivations, or conditions, however, are not necessarily the same as graduate, expatriate or transnational distance students, and particularly those in the Korean context.

A grounded theory, for example, could suggest or approximate an explanation of why a phenomenon exists (Creswell, 2013), and potentially "generate or discover a theory or abstract analytical schema of a phenomenon" that is "grounded in the experience and perceptions of the participants" (Creswell, 2015, p. 451). This approach could shed light on the motivations and decision-making process of expatriate and transnational distance students. At present, a low birth rate in Korean society is one contributing factor to declining enrolment numbers at universities nationwide (Anderson & Kohler, 2013; Shin & Moon, 2019; Yoo & Sobotka, 2018), necessitating that universities employ additional enrollment strategies such as looking outward by means of internationalizing the campus (Jon et al., 2014). However, in light of these cases, looking inward may be another viable and complementary recruiting strategy by recognizing an "international" resident population that is already present (Patel & Lynch, 2013). Yet, why such students decide to study abroad, and what their decision-making process and motivations are, is not clearly known and worth further study.

CHAPTER V:

Study 3: College Choice Among Expatriate and Transnational Distance Students: A

Grounded Theory Study in the Republic of Korea

Abstract

Though college choice literature is plentiful, it is limited in being traditional student

oriented, often studying homogeneous student groups, and centered on face-to-face

delivery. As a result, expatriate and transnational distance students have been

overlooked. As adults and foreign-born immigrant residents, their motivations and

decision-making process for choosing to study online in their home countries or

"abroad" are unclear, especially when analogous programs exist locally. This grounded

theory study was undertaken in the Republic of Korea to investigate the college choice

process of foreign residents for distance education programs. Themes of repatriation,

and local educational ecosystem inaccessibility as a push factor, as well as home

country ecosystem convenience and benefit as a pull factor are discussed. Implications

for policy change and directions for future research are suggested.

> *Keywords*: distance students, transnational education, international education,
> college choice, Korea, globalisation, grounded theory

Introduction

The 21st century has become increasingly globalized where various regions and nations are becoming more interconnected by means of information and communications technology (ICT) (Gunawardena & LaPointe, 2008), and simultaneously interdependent and affected by broad social, economic, cultural, and political forces (Aman, 2013). The internationalization of face-to-face higher education as a whole has steadily become a complex and nuanced migration industry (Beech, 2018; Choi, Tartar, & Kim, 2019). The rise of educational migrants in primary, secondary, and tertiary education (e.g., Fang & Wang, 2014; Kim, Bankart, Jiang, & Brazil, 2018; Park, 2018; Park, 2019) highlights the push-pull model of international student destination choice where various factors in one's home country may "push" one to seek education abroad, as well as other factors, such as a university's reputation or prestige, that may simultaneously "pull" students towards institutions abroad (Cha & Cheng, 2009, Lam, Ariffin, & Ahmad, 2011; Rensimer, 2016). These conventional factors are challenged, however, when considering differences between student motivations who attend offshore/transnational campuses rather than those who attend the "home" campus abroad (Fang & Wang, 2014; Wilkins, Balakrishnan, & Huisman, 2012).

For example, returnee students (who have lived abroad for significant periods of time during youth and/or adolescence) may lack the linguistic ability or sociocultural knowledge to attend national college programs successfully after having repatriated to their home countries (Greenholtz & Kim, 2019; Kim, 2018; Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). As a result, K-12 international schools, transnational programs, and

local "international" branch campuses of foreign universities may be the only viable options for further study. Moreover, complicating the discussion on student choice is also the simple fact that international students are heterogeneous typologically (e.g., official exchange, short-term visiting non-degree seeking, directly enrolled degree-seeking) (Beech, 2018; Madge et al., 2015). The distinction between "international students" and other potential classifications of face-to-face and distance students (e.g., expatriate and transnational) is unclear in the literature (Kosmützky & Putty, 2016; Stewart, 2017, 2019). Rensimer (2016) made the critique that "[t]he overlapping language of all things international—international students and international institutions in (inter)national spaces—appears to have made the term all but redundant as a useful research analytic in a globalizing era" (p. 79). The term 'international' is often a catch-all label that oversimplifies complex and subtle situational diversity among student populations (Madge et al., 2015; Stewart, 2017, 2019). Rensimer (2016) called attention to this situation at a face-to-face transnational campus in the United Arab Emirates where expatriate students were inadequately recognized and homogenized as "international", making a "call for nuanced approaches to research on expatriate and international students and recognition of their differing constraints, needs, resources, and aspirations" (Rensimer, 2016, p. 93). Similarly, when considering the different constraints, needs, resources, and aspirations of *distance students situated outside of a national context*, similar limitations have started being discussed in recent research (Madge et al., 2015; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison et al., 2018; Stewart, 2017, 2019).

Thus, while college choice is itself a complex decision making process comprised of many dimensions such as push-pull factors and the individual student's habitus, there are additional layers of complexity in distance education (Lansing, 2017) and international or transnational settings (Fang & Wang, 2014; Stewart, 2019) that are underrecognized. Additionally, "international" students who go abroad, national students who study at local "international" campuses, or foreign residents (expatriates) studying at local national or transnational branch campuses will likely not share the same habitus, motivations, or decision-making processes as their conventional, nationally situated counterparts (Rensimer, 2016). The contexts of students can be so different that more dynamic, adaptable, and holistic models may be more beneficial than conventional choice-based perspectives (Iloh, 2018).

While the differences between various types of students may not necessarily be revolutionary in nature (Harrison et al., 2018), their voices have been glossed over in silence (Andrews & Tynan, 2010); there may be additional or overlooked nuance among expatriate and transnational distance students when it comes to such factors that have otherwise gone unnoticed (Stewart, 2019). Therefore, the purpose of this grounded theory study is to investigate the motivations and decision-making process of expatriate and transnational students in the Republic of Korea and present their rationales and thinking behind enrolling in distance programs abroad, rather than local national or transnational ones in-country.

Literature Review

<u>Conventional College Choice Scholarship</u>

Scholarship on college choice for high school students/young adults is well researched with publications investigating various perspectives from the late 1960s to today. By contrast, there are few studies that examine the college choice motivations of distance students who enroll in distance programs outright (e.g., Harris & Martin, 2012; Jaggars, 2013; Lansing, 2017; Roblyer, 1999), or even the more recent phenomenon of students attending K-12 virtual schools (e.g., Rice, 2006; Barbour, 2017). On the one hand, the absence of research on distance program choice is logical prior to the widespread adoption of the Internet and proliferation of online distance programs. However, it should be noted for good measure that there are massive scale distance education programs delivered as telecourses today, most notably in India (Panda, 2005). Nevertheless, on the other hand, the poverty of recognition of distance program choice is a glaring omission today given its ubiquity (Lansing, 2017). Nonetheless, common among most of the studies presented is a high degree of homogeneity; notably the focus on a) traditional secondary school students (i.e., 16-24 years old), b) undergraduate college choice as first-time freshman, c) the face-to-face mode of delivery, and d) a national frame of reference (Lansing, 2017). An overview is presented below in table 15 in chronological order.

Table 15   Overview of National College Choice Scholarship

Source	Student	Choice Level	Medium	Context
Sewell & Shah, 1968	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Punj & Staelin, 1978	Adult	Graduate	F2F	American
Chapman, 1981	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Jackson, 1982	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Fuller et al., 1982	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Hanson & Litten, 1982	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Hossler & Gallagher, 1982	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Manski & Wise, 1983	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Chapman, 1984	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Schwartz, 1985	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Bers & Smith, 1987	Adult	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Hossler et al., 1999	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Roblyer, 1999	Highschool	Undergraduate	D	American
Ewing et al., 2004	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Teranishi et al., 2004	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Rice, 2006	Primary, Secondary	K-12	D	American
Vrontis et al., 2007	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	Western
Perez, 2010	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Griffin et al., 2012	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American
Harris & Martin, 2012	Adult	Mostly Undergraduate	D	American
Wilkins, Shams, & Huisman, 2013	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	UK

Table 15   Overview of National College Choice Scholarship

Source	Student	Choice Level	Medium	Context
Jaggars, 2013	Adult	Community College	D	American
El Nemar & Vrontis, 2016	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	Lebanon
Barbour, 2017	Primary, Secondary	K-12	D	American
Lansing, 2017	Adult	Undergraduate	D	American

Note: F2F = Face-to-Face, D = Distance

The aforementioned homogeneity aside for the moment, there are some studies that have looked specifically at other unique socioeconomic factors that can affect/influence how students choose college such as transportation mode (e.g., Ewing, Schroeer, & Greene, 2004), or other underrepresented populations of college-seeking students in the United States by ethnic or racial minority status (e.g., Teranishi, Ceja, Antonio, Allen, & McDonough, 2004), first-generation immigrants (e.g., Griffin, Del Pilar, McIntosh, & Griffin, 2012), or undocumented students (e.g., Perez, 2010). The potential variety in national contexts notwithstanding, the motivations of transnational students and the factors that influence their decisions to attend international branch campuses at home (or the home campus abroad) over local national programs are markedly different (Wilkins et al., 2012).

Transnational College Choice Scholarship

Over the last 20 years, transnational education as a field has rapidly evolved and changed (Wilkins, 2016). Since the 1990s, various universities began pursuing

revenue growth strategies by exporting their brand and educational offerings in the form of transnational programs and the establishment of branch campuses in various host countries around the world (Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). For example, the national and local municipal governments here in Korea worked in partnership to build a Global Campus in Songdo, Incheon to serve as a regional educational hub which currently houses four American universities (Stonybrook, FIT, University of Utah, George Mason) and one Belgian university (Ghent) (IGC, n.d.). Due to the change in student population from national to "foreign", as well as the university relationship directly with a national government versus individual students, the impetus for research on college choice including offshore campuses begins largely from 2000 onwards. Table 17 was adapted from Wilkins et al. (2012) and includes additional scholarship on international and/or transnational college choice up to 2019. Similar to Table 15, Table 16 calls attention to the target student population, level of study, medium, and various college-destination and student-originating countries/regions. Notable again is a certain degree of homogeneity, particularly the student type, level of study, and medium of delivery.

Table 16   Overview of International/Transnational College Choice Scholarship

Source	Student	Level	Medium	Host Country	Home Country/Region
McMahon, 1992	Unspecified	Unspecified	F2F	United States	Various
Joseph & Joseph, 2000	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	New Zealand	Indonesia
Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002	Highschool, Adult	Undergraduate, Graduate	F2F	Australia	Asia
Binsardi & Ekwulugo, 2003	Highschool, Adult	Undergraduate, Graduate	F2F	United Kingdom	Developed, Developing
Pimpa, 2005	Highschool, Adult	Undergraduate, Graduate	F2F	Australia	Thailand
Shanka, Quintal, & Taylor, 2005	Highschool, Adult	Unspecified	F2F	Australia	Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore
Gatfield & Chen, 2006	Highschool, Adult	Unspecified	F2F	Australia, United Kingdom, United States	Taiwan
Li & Bray, 2007	Highschool, Adult	Undergraduate, Graduate	F2F	Hong Kong, Macau	China
Maringe & Carter, 2007	Highschool, Adult	Undergraduate, Graduate	F2F	United Kingdom	Africa
Chen, 2007	Adult	Graduate	F2F	Canada	China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Taiwan
Bodycott, 2009	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	Various	China

Table 16 **Overview of International/Transnational College Choice**
Scholarship

Source	Student	Level	Medium	Host Country	Home Country/Region
Abubakar, Shanka, & Muuka, 2010	Highschool, Adult	Undergraduate, Graduate	F2F	Australia	Malaysia, Thailand
Padlee, Kamaruddin, & Baharun, 2010	Highschool, Adult	Undergraduate, Graduate	F2F	Malaysia	Southeast Asia
Lam et al., 2011	Highschool, Adult	Undergraduate, Graduate	F2F	Malaysia	Indonesia, Iran, China, Nigeria, Libya, Europe
Wilkins & Epps, 2011	Highschool Expatriates	Undergraduate	F2F	United Kingdom UAE Branch Campus	Middle East, Africa
Wilkins et al., 2012	Highschool, Adult	Undergraduate, Graduate	F2F	Various Transnational Branch Campuses in UAE	Emirates, India, Pakistan, African
Fang & Wang, 2014	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	Korea	China
Özoğlu, Gür, & Coşkun, 2015	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	Turkey	Central Asia
Rensimer, 2016	Expatriate	Undergraduate	F2F	United Arab Emirates	Asia. Middle East, North Africa
Kim et al., 2018	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	American	Asia

Table 16   **Overview of International/Transnational College Choice Scholarship**

Source	Student	Level	Medium	Host Country	Home Country/Region
Park, 2019	Highschool	Undergraduate	F2F	Korea	China

Note: F2F = Face-to-Face

These studies present a recurring focus on high school/undergraduate students and face-to-face delivery, as well as ambiguity when investigating students under the broad label of "international" (see Rensimer, 2016). Only Wilkins et al. (2012) and Rensimer (2016) specifically discussed the possibility of expatriate students on campus among these studies. In other transnational scholarship, Dobos (2011) provided an early example of this realization for an Australian university in Malaysia that, when adapting the curriculum for the local population, realized that students were not in fact all Malaysian. Or Stewart (2019) who described a transnational program from Framingham State University that worked in partnership with Hanyang University in Korea that only enrolled foreign residents since they could not legally enroll Korean citizens due to the program operating without local government accreditation. This type of a branch campus can be considered a hidden outpost, and just one more variation on the more conventional offshore campus since it was "located in a separate policy and regulatory environment" (Kinser & Lane, 2015, p. 4). These examples are meant to point out that, although international branch campuses, offshore campuses, or transnational programs typically cater to local national students, local students in transnational programs are not necessarily citizens (Rensimer, 2016; Stewart, 2019).

Despite such recurring situations, there are few college choice studies in transnational settings (e.g., Rensimer, 2016; Wilkins & Epps, 2011) that explicitly

disambiguate between local citizen students, expatriate/immigrant students (long term foreign residents), and international students (temporary education migrants). As noted earlier, the overly broad use of "international" as a research analytic (Rensimer, 2016) or a student category (Stewart, 2017) continues to be problematic since it glosses over potential nuance and complexity (Stewart, 2019). Moreover, this practice of overly broad student categorization has not been limited to face-to-face programs; it is equally problematic or unclear in distance education literature (Harrison et al., 2018; Kosmützky & Putty, 2016; Stewart, 2017, 2019). Though early recognition of expatriate distance students was dismissed (see Ziguras, 2008), recognized ex post facto (see Dobos, 2011), or unclear due to conventional terminology usage (e.g., Selwyn, 2011a; 2011b), subsequent recognition is currently only burgeoning (see Singh et al., 2012; Gemmell & Harrison, 2017; Harrison et al., 2018; Stewart, 2017, 2019; Wilkins, 2016).

Further complicating the matter is the fact that individual scholars tend to conceptualize and use conventional terms (e.g., international, transnational) in different ways (Pieterse, 2007). For example, Gemmell and Harrison (2017) described transnational distance students at a university in the UK as ones located outside of the European Union (EU) by virtue of tuition fee classification, whereas Stewart (2017) proposed a definition of transnational distance students as foreign residents of a given country by virtue of non-tourist sojourn status, studying online in a country where they neither have citizenship or legal residency and presumably classified administratively as an "international" student. Kosmützky and Putty (2016) noted the additional problem that there seems to be little to no difference between an international distance

student as seen from the perspective of distance education literature, or a transnational

distance student in the transnational literature base; both terms are defined as a distance

student living in a country different from where the institution is located. Thus, to

avoid the aforementioned difficulties in speaking clearly about the particular type of

student as the object of inquiry, Stewart's (2017) model of distance students and

terminology for expatriate and transnational distance students is used throughout this

paper (see Figure 3).

National	International
A national/citizen of country **A**, attending university online in country **A**, while living in country **A**. Designated as a **regular** student by the University.	A national/citizen of country **A**, attending university online in country **B**, while living in country **A**. Designated as an **international** student by the University
Distance Students	
Transnational	Expatriate
A national/citizen of country **A**, sojourning via a non-tourist visa in country **B**, attending university online in country **C**. Designated as an **international** student by the University.	A national/citizen of country **A**, sojourning via a non-tourist visa in country **B** , attending university online in country **A**. Designated as a **regular** student by the university.

Figure 3. **Stewart's Model of Distance Students**
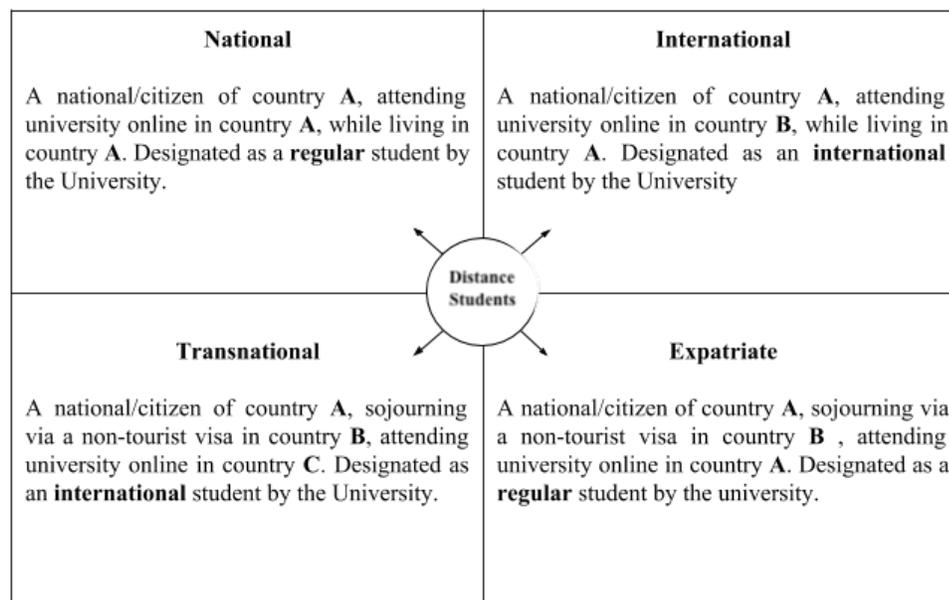
Characteristics of College Choice

College choice models can generally be described as outlining three broad phases

from exploration of available institutions, listing a set of colleges to choose from/exclude

for various reasons, and ultimately enrollment (Lansing, 2017). Models can be economic

in nature which present the internal decision making process as one based on the

perceived economic value an institution can provide through its degrees, or models can be focused on status-attainment which take into consideration a host of determinant variables (e.g., prior GPA, parents' highest level of educational attainment, socioeconomic status, etc.) (Vrontis et al., 2007). The models, pragmatically, are not mutually exclusive and combining both economic and status-attainment perspectives can more holistically analyze push-pull factors and present a more detailed picture of individual (e.g., socioeconomic status, culture, religion, gender, parental educational attainment, personal values, aspirations, academic ability) and environmental (e.g., economic ability, financial aid, social influence, marketing/recruiting influence) determinants, and characteristics of the institutions (e.g., cost, location, program availability, reputation, prestige) (Vrontis et al., 2007). Moreover, the combination of economic and status-attainment perspectives may be far more powerful explanatorily than any one perspective alone (Vrontis et al., 2007). In transnational settings, other applicable factors such as geographic distance from one's home country, cultural distance, linguistic ability, religious compatibility, and even travel attractions play a part in the choice process (Lam et al., 2011; Wilkins et al., 2012). By contrast, Iloh (2018) argued that the notion of "choice" itself may be a limiting and/or problematic way of conceptualizing prospective college students due to increased access to and participation from nontraditional and post traditional students. However, regardless of the approach, three relevant trends stand out in prior scholarship in both national and transnational perspectives: 1) contextual homogeneity, 2) lack of distance programs/virtual institutions as a choice object, and 3) ambiguous/homogenized student categorization.

<u>Limitations in Prior Research</u>

Distance education programs are no longer a fringe experience (Dunlap & Lowenthal, 2018). Millions of college students in the United States alone complete undergraduate and graduate degrees at a distance (Allen et al., 2016). Moreover, there are numerous open universities around the world serving tens of thousands of students annually (see Castañeda, 2005; Davis, 2001; Gulati, 2008; Means et al., 2014; Moiseeva, 2005; Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Park & Kim, 2004; Schlosser & Anderson, 1994), in addition to brick and mortar universities offering their own catalogues of distance programs at virtually all levels of education (Means et al., 2014; Moore & Kearsley, 2012). Furthermore, mega-universities (with more than 100,000 students) such as the Open University of China (OUC), Anadolu University in Turkey, the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) in India, or Western Governors University (WGU) in the United States, have emerged over the last 20 years with annual student enrolment over a hundred million combined (Latchem, Özukel, Aydin, & Mutlu, 2006; Li, 2018). Despite the ubiquity of distance programs with massive scales of enrollment compared to conventional brick and mortar universities, research on how or why students choose these specific programs is notably sparse (Lansing, 2017)

Modern distance education, enabled predominantly (but not exclusively) by the Internet, has made all levels of study accessible at a distance from the primary/secondary level (e.g., Barbour, 2017; Means et al., 2014; Rice, 2006), to undergraduate and graduate school from virtually anywhere in the world (Lansing, 2017; Means et al., 2014; Moore & Kearsley, 2012). Additionally, there is a lack of scholarship on college choice for expatriate or transnational students who not only

cross national borders in face-to-face transnational programs, but also *at a distance* (see Table 16 and 17). For example, Lansing (2017) noted how convenience, the ability to maintain a career, to meet specific work-required study topics, and flexible program/course structure surfaced as significant determinants in choosing an online program which are not components of traditional college choice models. However, what convenience, flexibility, and work specific criteria mean for expatriate or transnational distance students, who live in different countries from where their university is located, is unclear given the different situational circumstances. Thus, this study aims to contribute to the literature by specifically investigating the motivations, influence, and decision making processes of foreign residents in Korea who have enrolled in distance programs either in their home country (expatriate) or elsewhere in the world (transnational) as defined by Stewart's (2017) model.

The Current Study: The Korean Context

One salient and common characteristic of expatriate and transnational distance students is simply that they forgo local educational opportunities and choose to study online at universities "abroad". On one hand, this decision may have a relatively simple explanation (i.e., no local options) to more complex underlying circumstances such as ethnic/racial discrimination (Selwyn, 2011a), or impractical commutes (e.g., across islands for residents in archipelago nations) (Singh et al., 2012). On the other, in the context of Korea, such circumstances do not necessarily apply. The Republic of Korea, or South Korea, (hereafter 'Korea') is relatively small with a landmass of approximately 100,000 sq km in northeast Asia and comparable in size to the state of Indiana in the United States, or countries such as Hungary or Iceland (CIA, 2019). Moreover, Korea is

well-connected by ICT and public transportation infrastructure, and roughly half the national population lives in the capital-metropolitan area (Kim, 2017; Joo, 2019). There are both national and transnational education programs that offer a wide range of courses, degrees, and programs in English as an international or common language (Jon et al., 2014; Kim, 2018). For a subset of the foreign-resident population in Stewart's (2017) survey, respondents indicated that they were taking programs online despite analogous programs (major, level of study, and language of instruction) existing at various Korean universities and local transnational programs. This phenomenon was intriguing since the Korean government offers various scholarships and stipends to attract "foreign" students (Study in Korea, 2019) that would also be beneficial financially. Currently, no analysis of college choice for foreign residents exists which investigates/approximates the college choice process of expatriate and transnational distance students. Further, no such investigation currently exists specifically the Korean context.

Key Research Objectives

Given the limited amount of college choice scholarship on distance students in general, and expatriate and transnational distance students in particular, this study sought to investigate why such students choose to study online "abroad" versus locally. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the demographic and program characteristics of expatriate and transnational distance students in Korea?

2. Why do students not study at national or transnational institutions/programs in their host country?

3. What factors influence/motivate students' decisions to seek distance education opportunities outside of their host country?

4. How do students identify and choose their respective institutions outside of their host country?

Methodology

Since student choice was the primary concern in this investigation, a grounded theory approach was an appropriate research method since its purpose is to suggest or approximate an explanation for why a given phenomenon exists (Creswell, 2013). In more specific terms, the intent of the grounded theory method is to "generate or discover a theory or abstract analytical schema of a phenomenon" that is "grounded in the experience and perceptions of the participants" (Creswell, 2015, p. 451). In this particular study, this researcher took the interpretive, constructivist epistemological view that "the findings are a construct produced by the interaction between the interpreter and the interpreted as situated in society. Knowledge of the observed is constructed rather than discovered" (Levers, 2013, p. 4).

<u>Sampling</u>

Since the literature is inconsistent in both terminology and definition (e.g., home student, domicile student, national student, expatriate, home student abroad, international, transnational, etc.) (Kosmützky & Putty, 2016; Rensimer, 2017l Stewart, 2017), Stewart's (2017) conceptual model was used to delineate the "foreign" resident distance students in Korea. To be eligible for participation, participants needed to be residing in Korea, and be taking or have completed a distance program based outside of Korea. In order to recruit participants, one strategy was to use what Creswell (2015) called maximal variation sampling. This is a "purposeful sampling strategy in which the researcher samples cases or individuals that differ on some characteristic or trait" (Creswell, 2015,

p. 206). Therefore, the intention was to recruit participants from various national/regional

backgrounds and genders, and currently studying (or graduated) while living in Korea.

The theoretical variation was considered to be an emergent characteristic of the study.

However, this researcher was unsuccessful in achieving a wide degree of variation by

national/regional background and gender and is discussed in detail below.

While there are neighborhoods in Korea (e.g., Konkuk University's Chinatown,

Itaewon, Haebangchon, Gyeongridan) where various foreign residents are more

densely populated than others, the practical method to recruit participants was through

analogous community web portals or centers run by the government (e.g., Seoul Global

Center, Seongbuk Global Center) which provide various services exclusively to

foreign-residents, social media groups (e.g., Every Expat in Korea, Indians in Korea,

Latinos en Corea, Brits in Korea, Foreigners in Korea), as well as professional

networks (e.g., KORCOS, KOTESOL) that have significant numbers of foreign-

residents.

The Korean Ministry of Justice (MoJ) (2016) reported the overall demographic

statistics for foreign-residents and provided insight into relative proportions of foreigners

(e.g., Chinese nationals being the most numerous), but there is no inferable relationship

between any particular nationality, sojourn status, or enrollment in distance programs

abroad. Stewart's (2017) descriptive survey was only able to identify a subset of the

foreign-resident population due to linguistic and sampling method limitations. Therefore

to proactively address those limitations, the recruitment flyer for this study was translated

and presented in 20 languages (i.e., English, Korean, Chinese, Vietnamese, Thai, Uzbek,

Tagalog, Japanese, Cambodian, Laotian, Mongolian, Indonesian, Russian, Arabic, Hindi,

Turkish, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese). The languages chosen generally

corresponded with the largest groups of foreign nationals (in descending order) as

reported by the MoJ. Korean citizens who were dual-citizenship holders (a relatively

uncommon and recent phenomenon) blur these boundary conditions and would be

excluded from participation. However as noted earlier, the effort was unsuccessful in

achieving a wide degree of variation and is discussed in subsequent sections.

Data Analysis and Saturation

The range of participants can vary greatly in qualitative studies and is contingent

upon the emerging nature of a study (Creswell, 2013, 2015). Therefore, while it can be

hard to predict when there are "enough" participants (Crouch & McKenzie, 2006), Fusch

and Ness (2015) suggested that researchers simply need to be "explicit regarding how

data saturation is reached" if being guided by data saturation (p. 1413). To that end, this

researcher offers the rationale for data saturation in this study.

During analysis, the constant comparison method was used to combine coding

and analysis simultaneously in order to recognize and develop emerging concepts (Kolb,

2012). Glaser and Strauss (in Kolb, 2012) described four stages in the constant

comparison method where researchers are "(1) comparing incidents applicable to each

category, (2) integrating categories and their properties, (3) delimiting the theory, and (4)

writing the theory" (p. 83). Thus, analysis and data collection occurred iteratively through

three broad stages: open coding (initial identification/tentative labels for ideas expressed);

axial coding (identifying relationships among the codes such as sequences, patterns); and

selective coding (identifying an overarching label combines and reduces the codes into a

core idea statement) (Creswell, 2013). At interview 10, the vast majority of ideas

expressed by the participant coincided with existing codes (sometimes verbatim) and themes that had been developed throughout the analysis of earlier interviews, and no new information was discovered. Purposefully sampled and homogenous groups may present relatively similar information and enable saturation more quickly (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006). Therefore, given the homogeneity of participants and lack of new information in interview 10, data saturation was considered to have been reached and data collection was discontinued.

<u>Participants</u>

Despite the multilingual recruiting materials and dissemination to multinational online community groups and government centers that provide services to foreign residents, participants surfaced only from western, English speaking countries. An overview of their demographic and program characteristics are presented in Table 18, and their locations in Korea depicted in Figure 4. Ultimately 10 participants were interviewed over a three-month period. The sample population (n=10) was predominantly comprised of expatriate distance students (70%), overwhelmingly male (70%), mostly master's degree students (60%), and represented only three western nationalities and otherwise very similar to the characteristics of respondents in Stewart's (2017) exploratory descriptive study. Moreover, Table 18 provides a response to the first research question in this study regarding the demographic and academic program characteristics of expatriate and transnational distance students that participated in this study. The homogeneity of the profile gleaned here is not representative of the foreign-resident population as a whole (see MoJ, 2016) and will be discussed further in the limitations section.

Table 17   **Participants and Programs Overview**

|	Nat.	Gen.	Age	Uni.	Deg.	Field/Program	Location
1	USA	M	45	USA	MA	TESOL	Seoul
2	USA	M	36	USA	PhD	Educational Leadership	Gunpo
3	USA	F	40	USA	EdD	Literacy, Culture, & Language Education	Gwangju
4	USA	M	42	AUS	MA	Applied Linguistics	Incheon
5	USA	M	34	ENG	MA	TESOL	Jeju
6	USA	M	34	USA	EdD	Learning Design & Performance Technology	Incheon
7	ENG	M	33	ENG	EdD	Higher Education Administration	Gunpo
8	ENG	F	35	ENG	MA	TESOL	Busan
9	CAN	F	25	CAN	MA	TESOL	Busan
10	CAN	M	56	SCT	MA	TESOL	Seoul
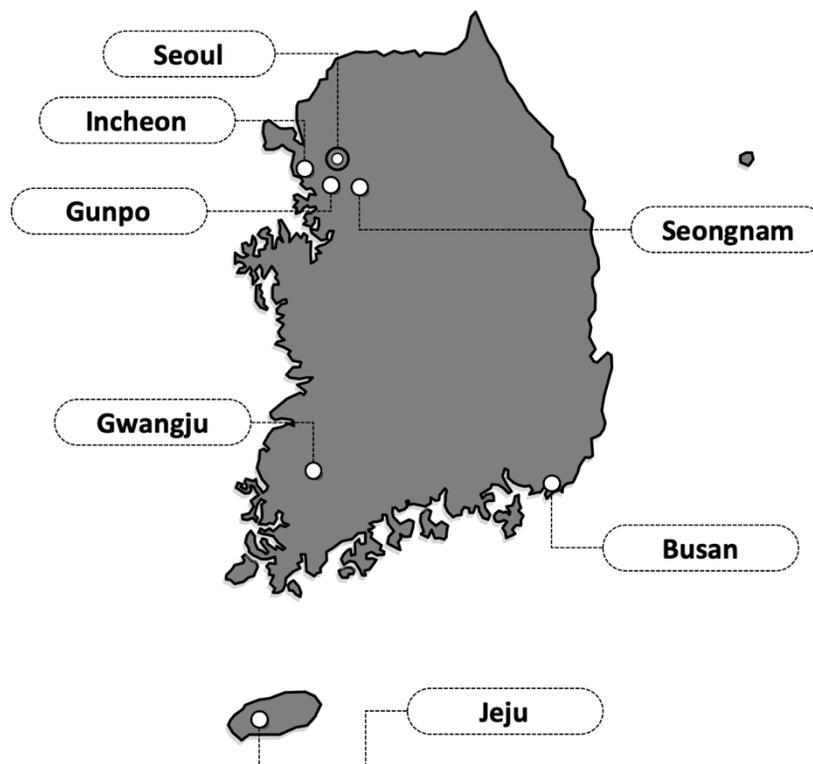
Figure 4.   Map of South Korea and Participants' Locations

Procedures

Interviews were scheduled in advance of being conducted, and each interview question and sub questions were aligned with one of the four corresponding research questions. Iterative adjustments were made to sub questions where appropriate throughout the course of interviews. For example, variations about a student's GPA or semester length had wording added for equivalents in British programs such as modules, percentages, and distinctions. Since the researcher was based in Seoul, Korea, interviews were conducted in person with participants living in or around the capital metropolitan area (n=6) whereas interviews with participants living in cities along the southern coast (n=4) were conducted by VoIP software as a matter of practicality and convenience (see Figure 4). Each interview lasted around 30-40 minutes. Once the interview was

completed, an audio file was initially processed in transcription software, and subsequently both the audio and transcript files were placed into an NVivo project file for review, manual transcription editing for accuracy, and thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Interview topics were relatively narrow and focused on compiling some basic demographic traits and characteristics of the academic programs that these students were enrolled in. The predominant focus was the reasons why students did not enroll in local Korean or transnational programs, any specific factors or influences that played a part in their decisions to seek educational programs abroad, and how they learned about distance programs in general, and how/why they chose the program they actually enrolled in. The various themes and concepts that emerged from the transcripts were constantly compared with the transcript content as an effort of achieving validity. Once the analysis was mature, the categories, codes, and relationships were visualized and represented diagrammatically in Figure 8.

Validation Strategies and Trustworthiness

Each interview followed an interview protocol for uniformity and systematicity prior to, during, and after the interview. Field notes were kept, as well as an audit trail, that documented when and where raw data was collected, including interview and analysis notes, as well as chronicling the sequence in which categories, themes, definitions, and relationships were developed (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Data from websites was used to triangulate related information (e.g., program costs, program names, duration, etc.) presented during interviews, as well as a mode of establishing contextual validity where a piece of evidence can be compared with other similar evidence, and

where the source of the evidence can be evaluated for any potential inconsistencies (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Furthermore, peer review with a faculty member served as an ongoing external check of the study as it progressed (Creswell, 2013). Initial (and iterative) drafts of the logic model (see Figure 8) were sent to participants as a means of member checking so that they could "judge the accuracy and credibility" of how their decision making processes were interpreted through analysis and subsequently constructed, providing the opportunity to offer additional insight or feedback before being finalized (Creswell, 2013, p. 252). The ultimate goal in refining the construction was to enable readers and reviewers to "transfer information to other settings" or determine if transfer is appropriate (Creswell, 2013, p. 253).

Results

Unlike the plethora of college choice models synthesized from samples of traditional high school students (or young adults) as first-time undergraduate college goers, participants in this study were nontraditional adult graduate students, and importantly, first generation immigrants in Korea. Most participants (70%) were studying at "home" in their countries of national origin. In order for all participants to work in Korea in their current professions, possessing an undergraduate education (at a minimum) was necessary both as an industry standard, and a requirement established by the Korean Immigration Office for their particular visa sponsorships. Throughout the analysis, three broad phases emerged which is generally similar with previous scholarship on college choice (see Vrontis et al., 2007), however, different in this data was that the first phase was not an information gathering process; rather it was an initiating event. This idea was

prevalent when participants were asked why they decided to seek educational

opportunities online, as well as the impetus for that decision at that specific point in time.

Some initiating events were conditional in nature such as Participant 9's where she stated

that:

> I kind of came to Korea thinking I will try this [teaching English]. And if I
>
> like it, then I'll get the master's degree. So, I came here with the intention
>
> of starting the master's degree if all went well, and all went well.

Or Participant 2 who needed to make a career change from the nightlife and

entertainment industry to one where he could more sustainably raise his young daughter.

He recounted how a friend of his had said:

> Hey, if you're looking for a transition, I have a job at the university. We're
>
> looking to hire someone, I can get you in, but one of the, one of the
>
> conditions is, you got to start working on your MA immediately.

More notably among the vast majority of participants, however, was the theme of

repatriation interwoven among the three categories of events that emerged (see figure 5).
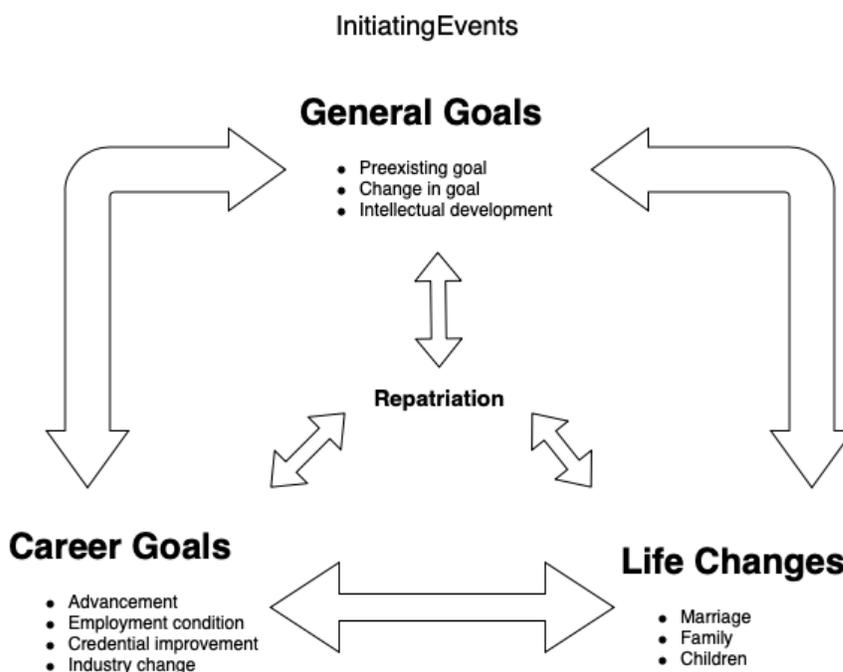
InitiatingEvents

General Goals
- Preexisting goal
- Change in goal
- Intellectual development

Repatriation

Career Goals
- Advancement
- Employment condition
- Credential improvement
- Industry change

Life Changes
- Marriage
- Family
- Children

Figure 5.   Initiating Events

Repatriation as a Transnational Influence

The idea of repatriation is complex because on the one hand, some participants (Participant 2, 6, 10) considered their enrollment in an online program as a direct and calculated step towards reintegrating into the labour force in their home countries upon graduation after having spent 3-5 years abroad in Korea. For example, Participant 2 had gotten married, had a child, and explained rather strategically that:

I really wanted to move my family back to the United States…. I saw that the most under, the largest gap in, how could I say this, over 3500 administrative spots a year nationwide in the US, were going to under qualified applicants in administrative positions because they did not have doctorates and I identified that as an area where I would easily be able to move back with the credentials from the program, that I decided to choose and find a job.

Whereas for others (Participants 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9), repatriation was a far more indefinite idea. Participant 6 explained:

> We don't have any definite plans of going back. But I would say we have a general idea that, that's something that we'll need to do, especially with our daughter's schooling, and international school is quite expensive...but as far as a specific plan for that, there's nothing definite.

Participant 9 similarly shared:

> I foresee myself ending up in Canada, again one day. Um, I didn't know if that [an American] degree [taken online] would need to be assessed or not, in Canada. So I thought it would just be easier to just get something from Canada. Since I am Canadian, I'm probably going to be going back to Canada in the future sometime.

This indefinite nature can arguably be seen in the current length of their sojourn periods in Korea which, on average, is roughly 12.5 years. Moreover, even if repatriation was a clear and deliberate decision as was the case with Participant 2, 6, and 10, they ultimately never realized that goal and ended up staying in Korea. Participant 10 did not complete his distance degree program (though exited with a postgraduate certificate in education). Further, Participant 2 explained that:

> I was planning on gaining [higher education] certification to move my family back to the United States. But as my children have grown up here, I, my view on Korean education for young children has changed and I thought, is a place where I would prefer to raise my children. And as that

perspective shifted, my perspective on my degree and the goals I wanted

from it also shifted.

Participant 1, who eventually left Korea, did not return to his home country; rather he

went on to pursue an additional master's degree in the UK in a face-to-face program,

explaining that "I had been here for eight years, and it was just time to try something

[new], to, I just needed a break from [Korea] for me".

Other participants mentioned the need to for higher qualifications to pursue more

advantageous local work opportunities (Participant 5, 8), though these motivations were

not exclusive to work in Korea. Nevertheless, while repatriation as theme was not the

sole motivator for pursuing distance degrees in students' home countries (or for UK

based degrees for transnational students in this sample), repatriation was a constant

thread among the three broad event categories discussed by participants (general goals,

professional/career goals, life changes). Thus, while the initiating events identified by

participants in this study fall in line with the motivations of adult nontraditional distance

students (see Lansing, 2017), repatriation may stand out as a factor unique to foreign

resident populations, and as a theme, plays several roles: motivation, event, process. The

definite or indefinite desire to repatriate aside, students needed certain conditions to be

met in order to even pursue the degree.

Flexibility & Visa Status

Similar to many nontraditional students, participants in this sample needed to

work in order to earn a salary, support themselves, family members, children, etc. In the

words of Participant 6:

> For me, basically, online is the only option, I guess, as far as like time. So
> as I mentioned, I've got a daughter, I'm a pretty active dad, and time wise,
> trying to go to any sort of class in person would be a stretch, and my wife
> is wonderful and supportive. But, I mean, I still have to be able to work
> full time, like if I schedule available during the day, and I've got
> responsibilities in the evening. So, really, time wise, doing an
> asynchronous online program would be basically the best for me.

What was not directly stated but an implicitly common understanding among all participants and the researcher was the fact that, as foreign workers, they had to stay employed to maintain a legal visa status. There was one exception to this general condition with Participant 1 who was ethnically Korean and able to obtain a heritage visa that afforded him the right to live and work in Korea without visa sponsorship. While Participant 2 had earned permanent residency, Participant 4 had a marriage visa, and Participant 6 had just earned a non-permanent residency visa, this was not the case upon first-arrival in the country and their earlier years in Korea respectively. Thus, while nontraditional students and adults may often seek out the flexibility distance programs in order to keep working (Lansing, 2017), for foreign residents/immigrants/expatriates, not working is impossible in most cases as their legal visa status is dependent on maintaining visa sponsorship through employment. Moreover, even if they wanted to attend school full time as distance students and only work part-time, part-time work would have cost them other benefits such as employer pension contributions or employer subsidized national health care coverage (in addition to two other types of obligatory insurances) that are required for all full-time employees in Korea.

Educational Ecosystem: The Path of Least Resistance

The decision-making process of the participants relied heavily on finding out about their programs by word of mouth or familiarity, and they described applying to/enrolling in their programs so nonchalantly that this researcher found it genuinely surprising. While getting information from friends, family members, coworkers, etcetera in and of itself is not surprising and common among college choice models (Vrontis et al., 2007), the lack of further information gathering highlighted a proverbial "path of least resistance" for many of the participants in this sample. Participant 3 explained that a friend of hers originally

> mentioned that she had gotten her master's in IST by distance to Indiana
>
> University, and was doing a masters in LCLE by distance through Indiana.
>
> So I talked to her and found out about this particular master's program.

Largely for this reason, she enrolled, graduated, and later on

> I heard from my advisor, my, well, the head of the department at the time,
>
> that they were thinking of creating a distance EdD program, and would I
>
> be interested? So I immediately responded, yes, I'm interested.

This experience was nearly identical for Participant 6 who had completed his masters at a distance while living in Korea and then by chance, when a doctoral program became available in the same department, he decided to pursue it. Participant 8 had a similarly uninvolved information gathering stage where

> I met a friend who introduced the course to me. Um, but I was I was trying
>
> to think ahead, and I wasn't sure how things would turn out. And I was

back in the UK [on holiday], and I just decided to apply for the October

2018 intake. And I got accepted the next day. So it was really quick.

Participant 10 had a similar experience with an unexpected ease of application, sharing

that

I actually, I just applied to the one and they accepted me...there was no

resistance from them. I didn't have to pitch myself. I just, I had my, my

recommendation letters, you know, maybe I did a good job of that...so I

don't, I don't know exactly why they were, why they rolled over so quickly

on my application (laughing). But yeah, it was just like, oh, yeah, you can

come. And that was it.

And as Participant 4 explained:

One of the guys that, he was the guy that sort of ushered me into living

here in Korea, he was living in Suwon at the time. And he had sort of

pointed me in the right direction in the past. And he finished his MA

through UNE, I believe in like 2007 or 2008. And then moved back to the

US lived in San Francisco, got a job working there, then moved back to

Korea, moved to Dubai. So he had been sort of moving all over the place.

And it had been a success story for him...so just word of mouth and

knowing other people who had finished the program and found success

with it.

All 10 participants in this study applied only to a single university, and equally relevant,

did not actually consider more than one institution with the exception of Participant 2.

His decision to repatriate included a rather strategic inquiry into gaps or opportunities in

the American labour force at the time, looked at numerous distance programs, excluded

programs based on his personal needs and preferences, and ultimately decided on one

program. His decision-making process followed more conventional college choice

models (see Vrontis et al., 2007) with the exception of the motivation to repatriate. The

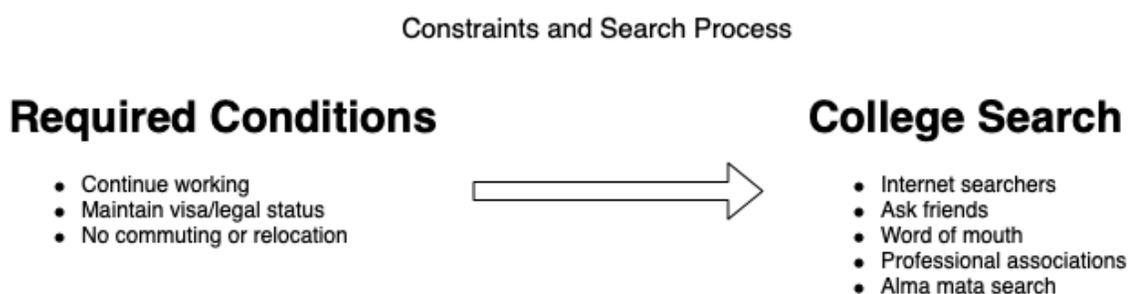constraints and search process are diagrammatically presented below in Figure 6.

Figure 6. **Identification of Constraints and Subsequent Search Methods**

When participants were asked about why they did not choose local Korean

programs (as well as local transnational programs), factors emerged that pushed them

away from local programs, as well as ones that pulled them back home beyond just the

idea of repatriation. What stood out among the accounts of expatriate distance students

was not any individually unique pull factor, but rather the collective sum of

interdependent pull factors, or more specifically as this researcher posits, an educational

ecosystem pulling them to distance education programs in their home countries despite

indefinitely working and living abroad, as well as being highly educated and mobile

professional workers.

Discussion

Like Lansing (2017) and Rensimer (2016), Iloh (2018) noted that there has often

been a "lack of nuance perspective and the square peg in a round hole view of post-

traditional students" which is "rooted in the historic youth centricity of postsecondary education" (p. 232). Moreover, higher education policy is commonly driven by traditional four-year residential educational experiences despite many students not having this kind of college experience today (Iloh, 2018). Analysis of participant interviews showed clear push and pull factors which are a common theoretical lens to examine student destination choice. However, the factors that influenced their decisions on enrollment were often inseparable from one another, compounding the push-pull effect. Moreover, there were clear differences among these students and those investigated in conventional choice models.

RQ 2. Why do students not study at national or transnational institutions/programs in their host country?

For example, participants highlighted various push factors that steered them away from taking advantage of local Korean programs such as linguistic inaccessibility to both information about programs and classroom instruction. For example, even though Participant 4 had been living in Korea for around 12 years when he started his master's program in Australia, he explained that:

Basically, a part of it was, I didn't know anything about it. I didn't know where to begin. I didn't know who to talk to, where to go. Accessibility was a big part of it. And then, you know, stuff that I did find that when I would do a search for it online, it would take me to page all in Korean. And it's like, all right, well, if the entry point is this, then what's it going to be, you know, like in the classroom. Accessibility was a big part.

It must be noted that despite the perception of linguistic inaccessibility, there are large public and private universities (although particularly in the capital-metropolitan region such as Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Hanyang University, Korean University, Seoul National University, Sogang University, Sookmyung Women's University, Yonsei University) that enroll hundreds to thousands of foreign students annually through official exchange programs, degree seeking programs, and short term study programs. As a result, information about these programs is readily available in English (and Chinese) on their respective websites; however Korean universities typically have separate websites under a subdomain name for international students which may not be particularly clear (e.g., hufs.ac.kr vs international.hufs.ac.kr). Moreover, both TESOL and Applied Linguistics masters (a common program among this sample) are similarly available and classes offered in both English and Korean. Therefore, while the information *may be available*, potential foreign resident students may not know *how to access* it as expressed by Participant 4. However, these programs are limited to face-to-face classes, which these nontraditional, immigrant students were unable to consider since they needed to keep working to support themselves and/or their families, as well as to maintain their legal visa status. Participant 9 explained that

> I just didn't know that I could do that [study] in Korea- I'd never met anyone who had studied abroad in Korea, so I had no concept of the programs that were available to me, and naively, I probably, without doing any research, I probably would have assumed that I would need to speak Korean to do that which I know doesn't make sense. But I just, I just never even thought about that, and then when I came to Korea. And I learned

that there are programs for doing that in fact in Busan, I met some

university students who were studying here in Busan for a little bit and

then moving to Seoul to pursue their masters or PhD programs.

Other participants had concerns over traditional/Confucian teaching methods, different cultural perceptions of the classroom, and degree validity outside of Korea. While each concern is individually recognizable, the language of instruction cannot be separated from the host country's national language, just as the Confucian cultural heritage of Korea is inseparable from how classrooms function. Participant 2 explained that

the Korean nature of education is based in the in Confucian hierarchy

ideals, where the teacher is the purveyor of knowledge, and the students

are meant to sit and listen, this is conducive to the traditional lecture

format. And while lectures have their place, I, I myself work much better

in a more collaborative and student-centered environment...I didn't think

that studying in Korea was the right fit for me.

Participant 8 shared a similar sentiment:

it [class] was supposedly in English, but I didn't really believe that they

would teach most of the lectures in English and that was night classes.

And then there was one more but, the, it was a university I had not heard

of, I think it was a maritime university, so it just made me, I couldn't really

find that much information for courses in Busan, so it kind of put me off

and I wasn't sure I would enjoy the Korean style of lectures and

assessment.

Participant 3 also shared her perception of Korean classrooms:

I've heard from my friends who attend Korean universities that a lot of times the classes are taught in Korean. Even though the professors can speak English, they teach the classes in Korean, and the textbooks are in English. But I really, if I'm going to attend a face to face class, I want to get something out of it.

Furthermore, participants also noted how they were pushed away from Korean universities by discouragement from Korean friends, colleagues, or hiring managers/deans at for participants employed at universities. Participant 7 rather clearly articulated the difficulty of the situation as

I was given the impression from people even within those [Korean] programs, that they may not carry the same weight as if I had an approved, if I had the qualification from, let's say, back, back, back in the UK or Europe...and also Korean friends, who..., it's been the ones who've gotten the PhDs from other countries who have managed to get the position they wanted. Whereas the ones who got them domestically, have struggled much more...and as I said, actually being told by people working in higher education institutions that they would actually potentially discriminate against domestic doctoral programs.

Thus, while there are numerous factors that pushed them away from Korean universities, they are all interconnected; the pull factors are interwoven. Even the theme of repatriation emerged again as an integrated pull factor.

RQ 3. What factors influence/motivate students' decision to seek distance education opportunities outside of their host country?

When participants discussed their reasons for choosing the universities they enrolled in, the lack of actual information gathering for most participants (as discussed earlier) might be explained by the concept of an educational ecosystem as a pull factor. For example, the ability to receive in-state tuition (in the United States) despite living abroad, alumni tuition discounts at alma maters, administrative ease due to prior enrollment, former master's students pursuing doctorates in the same program, or enrolled in a sequential degree pathway (i.e., EdS to PhD). The lack of any overt obstacles or barriers, whether linguistic, knowledge-based, or administrative, simply made it easy to access information online, and to apply and enroll from the comfort of one's own home without much effort.

RQ 4. How do students identify and choose their respective institutions outside of their host country?

Rather than performing exhaustive searches and discriminant choosing, participants simply turned to an ecosystem where information was accessible, where they had a deeper background knowledge, to other foreign residents with pertinent information, or to where they had prior educational experience. This ecosystem effect might reasonably explain the lack of effort that the majority of the participants invested in seeking out where to do a graduate degree. Iloh (2018) called the absence of such information an information desert and ascribed it to a "failure of society, not particular communities, to democratize and make college information accessible across diverse communities and contexts" (p. 236).

<u>Implications</u>

Korean universities (and potentially others elsewhere around the world) may not necessarily consider adult, nontraditional, foreign born, first generation immigrants as potential students and as a result, do not market to them or include them in higher education growth strategies. By contrast, there has been a considerable effort to recruit traditional "international" students from abroad in Korea (Jon et al., 2014; Choi et al., 2019). Thus, rather than looking inward at a growing foreign born adult population (see MoJ, 2016), university policy in Korea may benefit from adapting policies and conventional view of students in response to significant changes in demographic trends, immigration, and the broader effects of globalization in the 21st century (Lee & Rhee, 2019; Shin, 2012). By not recognizing the admittedly niche population (especially in Korea) of nontraditional or post traditional students (Iloh, 2018), Korean universities are losing numerous opportunities to internationalize from within, generate revenue, and to meet the needs of an increasingly diverse society.

While an information desert (see Iloh, 2018) in Korea was an experience shared by participants in this study, these participants ultimately overcame it by seeking out distance programs abroad. As first-generation adult immigrants, the convenience of the medium and information accessibility made the ability to apply and enroll a matter of simplicity and convenience. For example, Participant 1 ended up choosing a university in his hometown of Los Angeles despite living in Korea. Participant 3 completed a second master's degree while currently working on a doctorate at the same university. Participant 6 did his bachelor's degree while living in Florida, and later completed a master's program at the same university while living in Korea. When he started looking at doctoral

degrees, he found out that he could continue in the same program without having to expend much effort. He shared that:

>It's the same professors that I had before, it's like literally the same people I took classes with two years ago, so like I already know them, like I got the person in charge of the program to write a recommendation letter, because I did my masters there... all my documents, everything is registered through my parents address so that I was able to maintain in-state residency for tuition purposes. So, I was particular to that...and had the advantage of making it really easy to get transcripts and all those sorts of things. So, and they were really helpful with assisting me and applying and getting all the documents that I needed. So, that was how I chose it.

Take, for example, the Apple ecosystem, which is comprised of various software platforms, hardware devices, and internet services that create a seamless and efficient user experience. On the one hand, the convenience and benefits of investing fully in the ecosystem is compelling because it is simple and easy to use and built on cross-platform compatibility. On the other, leaving it for another competing vendor is complicated and/or difficult since there may be no analogous ecosystem components. Moreover, the switch is likely costly in terms of time and money. Staying within the ecosystem is simply the path of least resistance.

Thus, for expatriate distance students, the pull or appeal of the home country educational ecosystem (alumni discounts, in-state tuition fees, prior enrollment), though simple as an extension of their habitus, is arguably more pronounced as first-generation immigrants. Moreover, the appeal may be even stronger when there are obstacles or

barriers (e.g., linguistic, cultural) that hinder access to entering the local educational

ecosystem. For the expatriate and transnational distance students in this sample, the

perceived and actual complexity/difficulty of switching into the local Korean educational

ecosystem, despite years of residency and indefinite plans to stay, might make the

characterization of their "choice" more accurately a non-decision. A diagram of

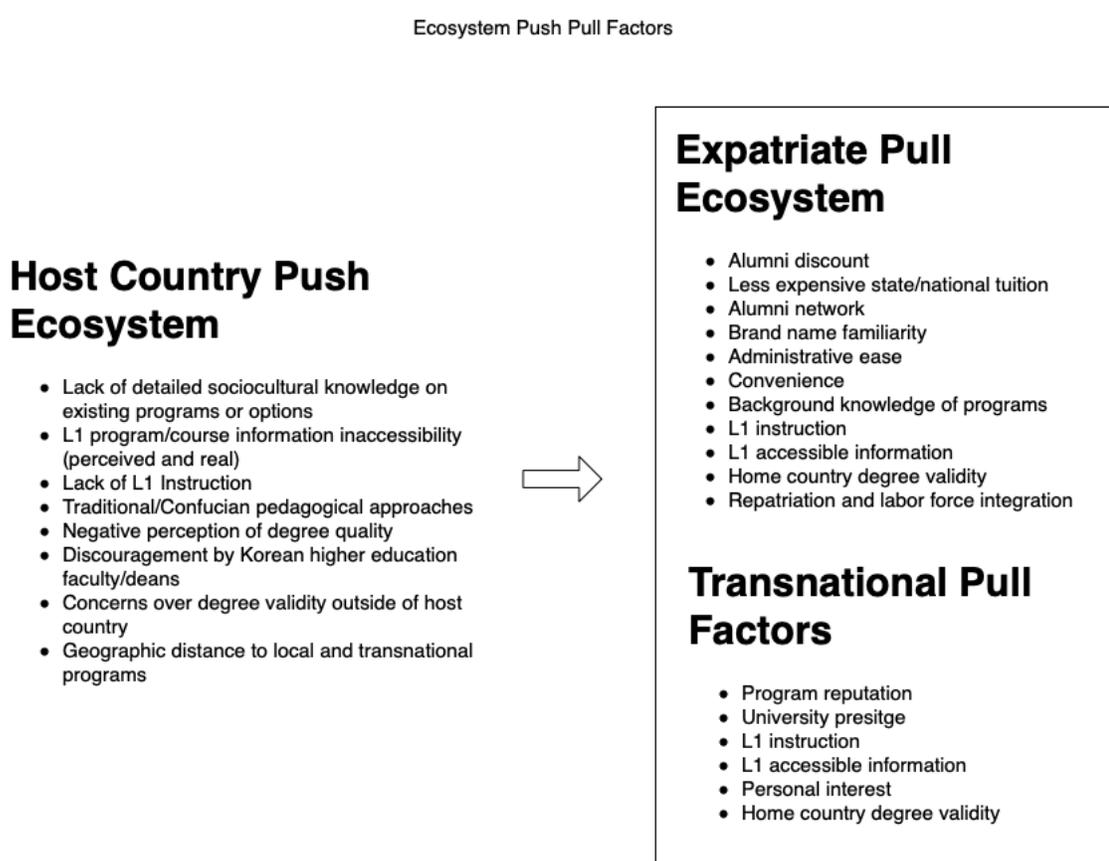ecosystems as push-pull factors is presented below in Figure 7.

Ecosystem Push Pull Factors

Host Country Push Ecosystem

- Lack of detailed sociocultural knowledge on existing programs or options
- L1 program/course information inaccessibility (perceived and real)
- Lack of L1 Instruction
- Traditional/Confucian pedagogical approaches
- Negative perception of degree quality
- Discouragement by Korean higher education faculty/deans
- Concerns over degree validity outside of host country
- Geographic distance to local and transnational programs

Expatriate Pull Ecosystem

- Alumni discount
- Less expensive state/national tuition
- Alumni network
- Brand name familiarity
- Administrative ease
- Convenience
- Background knowledge of programs
- L1 instruction
- L1 accessible information
- Home country degree validity
- Repatriation and labor force integration

Transnational Pull Factors

- Program reputation
- University presitge
- L1 instruction
- L1 accessible information
- Personal interest
- Home country degree validity

Figure 7.   Ecosystem of Push-Pull Factors

Iloh (2018) suggested that "some college hopefuls are limited by their location,

work and family needs, and income, so their choice set is considerably narrower" (p.

239). However, when specifically taking into account the context of first-generation adult

immigrants in a foreign society, the local choice set may be considerably narrower or

non-existent due to inequities in background knowledge of universities/programs and linguistic abilities, and an education system built around narrower norms of college going. As a result, distance education opportunities in one's home country, enabled by modern information and communications technology, may be a practical way to overcome or compensate for barriers to education in a foreign country where access to education may be more difficult due to a greater degree of sociocultural and linguistic differences. For example, barriers for UK nationals who immigrate to Canada (or vice versa) are arguably inconsequential given a shared L1, as well as shared socio-cultural traditions related to education, unlike the cultural and linguistic differences between western immigrants in Korea.

Conclusion

The decision to enroll in distance programs in one's home country or elsewhere abroad while living in a foreign country is multifaceted. Although repatriation was an ever-present underlying thread interwoven among life changes, career, and general goals, it was not necessarily a disproportionately influential determinant. Moreover, while expatriate and transnational distance students wanted to keep working in much the same vein as nontraditional students, they were also dependent on their employment to maintain visa sponsorship and legal visa status. This dependency typically necessitated distance programs to achieve both of those goals. Though these participants wanted to pursue further education, access to local programs as foreign-born adult immigrants was not so straightforward, despite lengthy periods of sojourn for 70% of participants.

On the one hand, distance programs and the Internet have enabled foreign residents to overcome local barriers to education in their host country and continue pursuing their educational goals. On the other, the enrollment abroad is both a financial loss to the local economy, and a participatory loss to local academia, especially for doctoral students. Participants in this study in some cases were paying up to 50,000 USD for a master's degree or paying around 30,000-40,000 USD for doctoral programs. While these costs are overt, there were also covert costs for students who were required to complete residency requirements annually in their home countries. These additional costs included thousands of dollars in airfare and lodging. Moreover, doctoral students in this sample had also completed their master's degrees at a distance while living in Korea, highlighting how significant the financial and intellectual investment in their education was, and the larger scope of financial loss to the local education economy.

Local universities could benefit by adapting their recruiting strategies to first and foremost recognize changing demographic trends related to globalization, and specifically by considering adult foreign residents as potential students. Moreover, local universities could benefit by offering *distance* programs in languages other than Korean (as is common for certain face-to-face programs) since these types of students also need to maintain legal visa statuses. In Korea over the last 35 years, the foreign-born immigrant population has grown from 30,000 to over 2.5 million today (Kim, 2014; MoJ, 2016; Shin & Moon, 2019; Socinet, n.d.). If universities were to market and recruit prospective adult immigrant students early on in their sojourns in Korea through local district offices, local government community centers, education fairs, or

larger governmental organizations like the Seoul Global Center or even the Immigration Office itself, they might be able to bring potential students into the local university ecosystem, and establish convenient and simpler administrative pathways for pursuing certifications or degrees, just as their native born counterparts conventionally do. Moreover, Global Centers in Seoul and other large cities (e.g., Busan, Incheon), though relatively young, have steadily added services over the last 10 years (SGC, n.d.) and higher education counseling may be worthy of inclusion to their current integration strategies moving forward.

Contributions

This study contributes to the college choice literature by explicitly investigating expatriate and transnational distance students, and specifically those within the context of Korea. While certain findings presented here confirm other findings in the literature base (e.g., Lansing, 2017) or certain aspects of theoretical models (e.g., Iloh, 2018), new insights are offered. This paper presents repatriation as a prevalent theme as a motivational factor for western, first-generation, adult-immigrant, graduate-distance students to seek out distance programs at home or "abroad" rather than enrolling in local national or transnational programs. It highlights the need for universities to offer distance programs to accommodate not only employment, but also maintaining legal visa status. Further, it highlights ecosystems as macro level push and pull factors. By contrast, this study highlights the limitations of conventional marketing and recruiting strategies/policies based on traditional views of college entrance that have not taken into account first generation immigrants seeking college education, particularly at the

graduate level. The collective diagram of a theory of expatriate and transnational
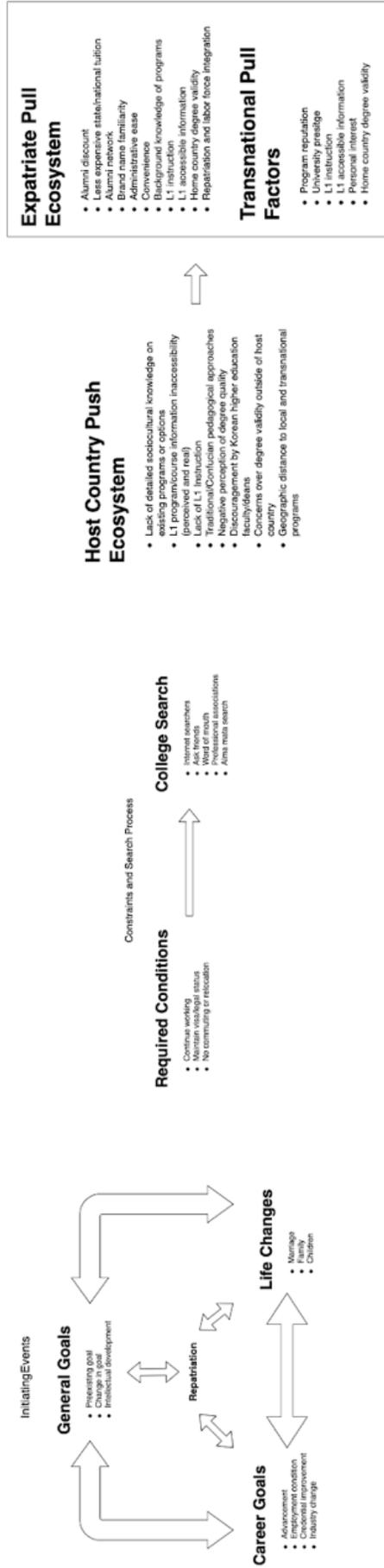
distance students is presented below in Figure 8.

Ecosystem Push Pull Factors

Initiating Events

General Goals
- Preexisting goal
- Change in goal
- Intellectual development

Repatriation

Career Goals
- Advancement
- Employment condition
- Credential improvement
- Industry change

Life Changes
- Marriage
- Family
- Children

Constraints and Search Process

Required Conditions
- Continue working
- Maintain visa/legal status
- No commuting or relocation

College Search
- Internet searches
- Ask friends
- Word of mouth
- Professional associations
- Alma mata search

Host Country Push Ecosystem
- Lack of detailed sociocultural knowledge on existing programs or options
- L1 program/course information inaccessibility (perceived and real)
- Lack of L1 instruction
- Traditional/Confucian pedagogical approaches
- Negative perception by Korean higher education faculty/deans
- Discouragement over degree validity outside of host country
- Concerns over degree validity outside of host country
- Geographic distance to local and transnational programs

Expatriate Pull Ecosystem
- Alumni discount
- Less expensive state/national tuition
- Alumni network
- Brand name familiarity
- Administrative ease
- Convenience
- Background knowledge of programs
- L1 instruction
- L1 accessible information
- Home country degree validity
- Repatriation and labor force integration

Transnational Pull Factors
- Program reputation
- University prestige
- L1 instruction
- L1 accessible information
- Personal interest
- Home country degree validity

Figure 8.   A Grounded Theory of Expatriate and Transnational Distance Students in the Republic of Korea

<u>Limitations</u>

This study has various limitations. The first is the lack of diversity among participants. Though the number of participants in qualitative studies can be small when the sample consists of relatively homogenous participants (Crouch & McKenzie, 2006; Guest et al., 2006), the nationalities of participants here is not reflective of the foreign resident population in Korea as a whole. The majority of foreign nationals in Korea are Chinese, and the largest subsequent groups are from East Asia, Eurasia, and Southeast Asia (see MoJ, 2016). Although there was nothing offered as compensation for participating in the study, these participants were willing to volunteer their time and share their experiences and represents a kind of self-selection bias which may not necessarily reflect the views of this population subset (Heckman, 1979). Therefore, the experiences and rationales of the individuals that participated here, from western English-speaking countries, will most certainly vary from other foreign nationals in Korea. This point is especially true as they represent a more privileged class of immigrant socioeconomically than individuals from developing nations (Shin & Moon, 2019). The majority (70%) of participants were male, which contrasts with immigration statistics that generally highlight a more even split of entrants into Korea by gender (MoJ, 2016), as well as higher education statistics that generally display a slightly higher proportion of female students (Hoyt & Simon, 2016). Moreover, the accounts presented here are considered to be co-constructions between the researcher and participants, and an interpretive act that others may interpret differently (Levers, 2013). The findings should be considered judiciously and analyzed appropriately in relation to other seemingly similar populations or settings.

<u>Future Research</u>

There are numerous opportunities for future research. Similar college choice or grounded theory studies can be conducted in other countries or regions with different groups of foreign nationals to explore the complexity in the decision making process of adult immigrant graduate students, as well as the development and evaluation of university policies that are designed to recruit such students in the future. This line of inquiry would be useful since educational attainment studies on immigrants typically revolve around 1.5 or 2nd generation immigrants rather than first (e.g., van de Werfhorst & Heath, 2019). Further, given the difficulty of recruiting a more diverse participant pool, researchers might pursue a top-down approach where they can identify expatriate and transnational distance students at their own universities through departmental databases. This approach, however, is complicated by the fact that, at least from an administrative or database standpoint, expatriate and transnational distance students may not always provide their addresses abroad in order to facilitate administrative functions, degree apostilling, or maintaining residency-based tuition in their home countries (Stewart, 2017, 2019). This complication was present for 40% of participants in this study.

Quantitative approaches that can more rigorously analyze contextually specific relationships through surveys or questionnaires such as the Traditional College Choice Scale (TCC), Distance College Choice Scale (DCC) (Lansing, 2017), or Arora's (1982) Involvement with Education Response (IE-R) and Situational (IE-S) scales could be used for statistical analysis of quantitative data. Participants in this study were all typical graduate students with relatively high GPAs or distinctions (Colorado & Eberle,

2010), and had completed multiple graduate degrees in certain cases. Future research into the retention or attrition rates of expatriate and transnational distance students would yield complementary data to the distance education literature which is often nationally or homogeneously sampled. It would also be beneficial to investigate the scope of the expatriate and transnational distance student phenomenon in terms how many adult foreign residents pursue local opportunities in proportion to the ones who take up distance programs in their home countries or abroad, and also in relation to the relative socio cultural/linguistic differences between first generation immigrants and the host country. In short, there are plenty of avenues and opportunities of inquiry to keep researchers busy in the transnational education space (Wilkins, 2016).

CHAPTER VI:

Conclusion

Summary

      The currents of globalization and rapid parallel technological change with ICT
have enabled not only greater access to distance education opportunities, but more
diverse and complex educational entities and relations. This dissertation has focused on
how this applies to distance students in particular. The three studies in this dissertation
have not only argued the merits of utilizing clearly defined cases of distance students as a
research analytic as called for in recent research (i.e., Gemmell & Harrison, 2017;
Harrison et al., 2018; Rensimer, 2016; Stewart 2017, 2019), but they have also done so
from multiple research perspectives (i.e., exploratory, multicase, grounded theory) within
the shared context of Korea. Although the first study in this dissertation was exploratory
and descriptive in nature, its value was in confirming/semi-validating the proposed
distance student case descriptions, and collecting demographic and program data from
expatriate and transnational distance students for at least a subset (i.e., skilled migrant
labor) (Shin & Moon, 2019) of the foreign resident population in Korea. While many of
the students' characteristics were typical of adult distance students (Lansing, 2017) and
graduate students (Colorado & Eberle, 2010), several notable characteristics that stood
out were that students were mostly male, mostly studying in their home countries (i.e.,
were expatriate distance students), and doing so despite having lived in a foreign country
(Korea in this case) for 5-10 years on average. As an exploratory study, the gender

disparity and various factors (e.g., student type, length of expatriation at time of study) were tested using various non-parametric tests but no significant relationships were found.

The second study, a multicase approach, explored 8 different cases (5 expatriate, 3 transnational) of foreign resident distance students but only successfully recruited western English-speaking participants despite a 20 language recruiting effort (Appendix B). These participants indicated being very satisfied with their programs regardless of geographic and time zone differences. Moreover, they also indicated satisfaction with curriculum despite the different sociocultural contexts in which their knowledge would need to be applied. Participants also highlighted how, as first-generation adult immigrants (and particularly Western English speakers), they were funneled into a specific immigrant-centric industry. The need for credentials due to not having relevant prior education was a logical reason for pursuing further study, however, it did not explain why these students were not studying locally at Korean universities or transnational campuses. This was especially puzzling since the same or comparable programs were available, and as foreign nationals, were eligible for various government scholarships which would have been financially advantageous (Stewart, 2017; Study in Korea, n.d.).

The third study in this dissertation, a grounded theory approach, explored the motivations and decision-making process of expatriate and transnational distance students to better understand why they chose to study online abroad. Similar to studies one and two, most students were expatriates, male, and Western English speakers. Although students generally indicated needing or wanting requisite credentials for their field/jobs, an interwoven thread of repatriation for "if" or "when" students returned to

their home countries from Korea was often the impetus for choosing their specific university. This underlying thought process may plausibly explain the greater proportion of expatriate distance students versus transnational ones in all three of the studies, though one must consider the small sample sizes, sampling methods, and other stated limitations before making any unqualified conclusion to that effect. Although repatriation was not necessarily realized by participants, it was a cause for disproportionately looking at universities in their home countries (or elsewhere outside of Korea). Further, as immigrants, they often described lacking a detailed background knowledge of programs and universities, as well as a lack of Korean language ability that hindered access to information about programs. However, rather than perform detailed or thorough searches for programs, these participants overwhelmingly described their decision-making process in a way that could be explained according to an ecosystem effect as a push-pull factor where barriers to the local education ecosystem pushed them to simply look for options in their home countries due to linguistic and socio-cultural differences with the local host country. Modern ICT and distance programs enabled access to a familiar ecosystem that was easy and convenient to participate in, despite having immigrated/sojourned outside of their home countries. While conventional transnational branch campuses may primarily target and offer local citizens the convenience and comfort of staying at home while getting a "foreign" education (Wilkins & Huisman, 2012), for immigrants with limited L2 ability and/or sociocultural obstacles to local educational systems, modern ICT enables an educational pathway that is similarly convenient and comfortable, just at a distance.

Implications and Recommendations

Student Categories

The findings presented here indicate subtle differences among expatriate and transnational distance student categories compared to their national and international counterparts (see Table 1). For example, expatriate and transnational distance students, as immigrants, described lacking the "usual" support structures (i.e., family, friends, knowledgeable coworkers, linguistic access) that their national or international peers would otherwise typically have. The results from study one indicated that participants had no prior experience in online courses and as a result, they made need additional support structures when starting their online courses. Moreover, as immigrants, there was an additional work/life complexity related to maintaining legal visa status that can add further complications (i.e., the inability to change jobs easily or quickly) which could potentially negatively affect degree completion. The point is that these kinds of situations are not present for other student categories, and worth consideration in order to better support such distance students if necessary. Additionally, although the participants in the three students can be considered highly mobile professionals or skilled migrants (see Shin & Moon, 2019), the behavior is one of reliance on the familiar (e.g., home country education) and is worth further exploration. However, it is also a thought process/behavior that universities can take advantage of in their own marketing efforts.

Home-country University Marketing

Wilkins and Huisman (2012) recommended marketing to specific segments of the potential college-going population as method of maximally effective marketing that in turn, creates student satisfaction, better retention, and an otherwise overall positive

feedback loop from having aligned strategies to various potential student groups. This advice is similarly applicable in both home and host country universities with expatriate and transnational distance students. Marketing and/programs could frame how the degree can assist students in re-entering a home country labor force as described in study two, or by marketing high demand industries that potential students might consider. Further, programs can develop curricular elements that could assist students in transitioning into home-country centric industries or labor force contexts that may be less familiar due to potentially lengthy sojourns abroad such as program-supported networking.

Since most participants in this study indicated learning about their programs by word of mouth, it might be beneficial to use alumni representatives living in host countries to speak with other potential students locally, as well as creating an in-country network for students and potential students where more contextually-specific information can be shared that mimics how social media group communities crowdsource information. Moreover, universities should also implement a standardized address-of-record practice in order to improve the accuracy of statistics produced from their databases as participants may be using their home country addresses for various administrative benefits despite living abroad for both short- and long-term periods of time, or even indefinite sojourns (Stewart, 2017, 2019).

Host-country Universities

For universities within the host country, it is crucial to recognize non-traditional (see Bean & Metzner, 1985) or post traditional (see Iloh, 2018) students as potential students and to create alternative pathways to education. While this particular goal requires significant paradigmatic change in Korea (see Kim, 2018; Shin & Moon, 2019),

the inability to capture tuition from highly motivated students as highlighted in this dissertation is, at the very least, arguably a significant financial loss to the local education economy, although it is not known how large the scale of the expatriate and transnational distance student phenomenon is in Korea. Moreover, many of the participants in the three studies presented here had completed *multiple* graduate degrees at a distance. Since commuting or relocating to attend a program was considered a constraint, programs from Korean universities should also include distance options that are available in additional languages (namely English as a common language), which are already offered on campus at as a part of pre-existing internationalization strategies (Jon et al., 2014; Shin & Moon, 2019).

Since immigrants will lack detailed background knowledge on local educational programs and universities and may not know how to find the appropriate information (especially if information is largely only accessible in an L2 despite being taught in an "international" language [namely English]), universities should partner with pre-existing governmental organizations such as the Global Centers across Korean and its satellite offices (see SGC, n.d.), local community or "joomin" centers, and other immigrant welfare organizations to make information available. For example, the Seoul Global Center provides help to foreign residents in the form of L1 counseling in 13 languages, driver's license exams, assistance with legal disputes, language and culture classes, business startup incubation, etc. (SGC, n.d.), yet there is currently no program that bridges foreign residents into the higher education ecosystem, especially for skilled labor migrants (see Shin & Moon, 2019). This current state is exemplary of an information desert (Iloh, 2018), and is perhaps alternatively characterized as an information divide.

English language TV and radio networks, namely the nationwide Arirang network, could similarly disseminate information bridging the linguistic and informational divide just as it currently provides information about Korean politics, current events, news, and entertainment (see Arirang, n.d.). Moreover, spaces at government buildings (i.e., local community [joomin] centers), could be used as satellite classrooms situated in the community if access to campus is inconvenient or impractical, just as the Ministry of Justice's Korean Social Integration Program (KIIP) operates in conjunction with universities and community centers to offer their Korean language programs nationwide (Socinet, n.d.). Moreover, the KIIP also offers synchronous distance versions of the integration program where priority is typically given to mothers who care for infants or young children.

Such custom support services are not necessarily revolutionary or new; they are often already in place for exchange, short-term visiting, and degree-seeking international students at universities in Korea. Larger universities often have dedicated administrative staff that handle virtually all steps of a student's admission from visa applications and processing, course registration, housing, scholarship applications, etc. due to an effort to internationalize the campus from abroad (Jon et al., 2014; Kim, 2018). However, this goal could similarly be achieved, or at the very least augmented by, internationalizing from within as the first-generation adult foreign-born immigrant population continues to grow, and now includes increasing amounts of skilled labor migrants (Shin & Moon, 2019). One significant reason for the steady increase and reliance on foreign-born adult workers is the compound effect of Korea's aging population, and low birthrate which continues to drop each year (Kim & Torres-Gil, 2008; Shin & Moon, 2019).

As the three studies in this dissertation suggest, the door to college education (and graduate level education in particular) is not necessarily closed to first-generation adult-immigrants, especially for skilled migrant workers (see Shin & Moon, 2019). At the very least, the Internet and modern ICT have enabled access to education transnationally for some when presented with access barriers. For certain students, although transnational distance education may be seen as convenient, it is also an additional pathway to higher education. The additional path, however, is a financial and participatory loss to host-countries, and in this case Korea.

Limitations

There are various limitations to each of the three studies in this dissertation. First and foremost is the sample/participant size in each one (n=33, n=8, n=10). Findings from the three studies are based on the characteristics and perspectives of relatively few participants, and the samples in all three are predominantly comprised of male participants (88%, 63%, 80%). Moreover, the western backgrounds of participants are unequivocally unrepresentative of the foreign population in Korea. The largest number of foreign residents by nationality is Chinese (approximately 50%), followed by Vietnamese, Thai, Uzbek, Filipinos, Japanese, Cambodians, and Mongolians (MoJ, 2016).

Although the effort was made to advertise the study to numerous multinational online community groups as well as to foreign-residents who visit the Seoul Global Center, the participants that ultimately volunteered their time and shared their perspectives were from the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom. The findings based on their views and habitus may not be similar to the findings from a more diverse

sample. Further, since study two and three were qualitative approaches, they were not intended to be generalizable within or outside of the Korean context in any statistical sense, regardless of the actual samples' demographics. Moreover, the purposeful sampling methods employed and the fact that participants self-volunteered, represent a kind of self-selection bias (Creswell, 2013, 2015; Heckman, 1979). Further, the results of these studies can be interpreted in various additional ways (e.g., different support structures, alternative ways of classifying distance students) and are not strictly limited to the interpretations presented by this researcher. Nevertheless, as noted by Hughes (2013) in relation to a similarly small sample of 25 participants in a similar study, "the findings are intended to be descriptive and indicative, rather than predictive or generalisable" and to offer "personalised, contextualised insights" (p. 139). In that vein, this researcher hopes to have offered such insight through these three studies presented herein. Moreover, this dissertation is hopefully the beginning of a larger and longer conversation where technology, culture, human migration, globalization, glocalization, education, distance education, and transnational education all intersect in complex and dynamic ways.

Future Research

There are numerous opportunities for future research on the expatriate and transnational distance student phenomenon both in and outside of Korea. First, due to the limitations of being unable to recruit participants from more diverse national backgrounds in Korea in these three studies, additional strategies/methods for accessing potential participants would be beneficial to add more detail and nuance to the vignettes of expatriate and transnational distance students. Further, differences/similarities could be

compared and analyzed by national background. Second, it is not currently known what the scope of this distance student phenomenon is in relation to immigrants/foreign-residents that do eventually enroll in local Korean universities or transnational offshore campuses. Third, a longitudinal effort to track and document transnational distance student enrollment patterns would present a valuable overall picture in much the same vein that the Online Learning Consortium (OLC) reports on the state of distance education in the United States. Fourth, it is not currently known what the relative attrition/retention number of expatriate and transnational distance students are in comparison to their national or international counterparts (as defined in this dissertation), and quantitative approaches would be useful in providing more statistically generalizable findings on that and numerous other dimensions. Fifth, research can be conducted across all regions and countries to look for broader trends or contextual differences with as many possible permutations by student nationality between home- and host-countries in both qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method approaches. Lastly, further work can be done to explore the nuance of the categories of distance students proposed in this study, such as identifying other relevant characteristics or boundary conditions of the four respective categories. In short, there are numerous opportunities for future research in the transnational and expatriate education space (Harrison et al., 2018; Rensimer, 2016; Wilkins, 2016; Stewart, 2019).

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APPENDIX A

IRB Approval

This research was conducted with permission by the Institutional Review Board, Boise State University, protocol number 101-SB19-077.

APPENDIX B

Multilingual Research Flyer

Arabic

عربى

⊕ إعلان توظيف المشاركين ⊕

تحية طيبة! اسمي ويليام ستيوارت وأنا مرشح دكتوراه في جامعة ولاية بويز في قسم تكنولوجيا التعليم. كجزء من رسالتي . العلمية ، أجري دراستين نوعيتين منفصلتين ولكنهما متصلتان.

هذا البحث له ثلاثة أغراض

(1) ؛ التحقيق في ظاهرة الطلاب المغتربين والعابرين للحدود في التعليم عن بعد
(2)) استقصاء لماذا يتخلى الطلاب عن بعد والمغتربين عن فرص تعليمية محلية ويختارون بدلاً من ذلك التسجيل في برامج ; التعليم عن بعد بالخارج ؛
(3)) التحقيق في ظروف / حالات السكان الأجانب المقيمين في كوريا والتي تؤثر على هذه الظاهرة محليا.

إذا كنت

(a) أ) حاليا عامل أجنبي / مقيم في كوريا ؛
(b) ب) ملتحق ببرنامج للحصول على شهادة عن بعد / عبر الإنترنت في الخارج (أو أنهيت / انسحبت مؤخراً من واحد) ؛
احب ان اتحدث معك!

أدعوك للمشاركة في كلتا الدراستين ، لكن يمكنك المشاركة في دراسة واحدة فقط إذا كنت تفضل ذلك. أقوم حاليًا بتوظيف المشاركين لإجراء المقابلات من أبريل 2019 حتى أكتوبر 2019 تقريبًا. يرجى النظر في ما يلي:

❶ معلومات المقابلة ❶

إذا كنت أكثر راحة في التواصل بلغتك الأم ، فيمكنني استخدام مترجم فوري للتواصل معك 🔠.

إذا كنت أكثر راحة في التواصل الكتابي ، فيمكنك الرد على الأسئلة كتابةً أثناء المقابلة ✏.

في الغالب ، سوف نلتقي في مقابلة شخصية 1:1 💬.

إذا كانت الموعد أو المسافة غير مريحة ، فيمكننا استخدام مقابلة الفيديو 📹.

المقابلات سوف تكون مسجلة صوتيا 🎤.

يجب أن تستمر المقابلة حوالي 30 دقيقة إلى ساعة واحدة ⏱.

ستكون المقابلات في مكان عام هادئ مثل المقهى ☕.

❓ أسئلة وملحوظات ❓

يمكنك الاتصال بي على williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu عن طريق البريد بخصوص أي أسئلة بايك يونج الدكتور ، بمديري أو
على الإلكتروني youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu ، 1023-426 (208) أو عبر الهاتف.

عن (IRB) إذا كانت لديك أسئلة حول حقوقك كمشارك في الأبحاث ، يمكنك الاتصال بمكتب مجلس المراجعة المؤسسية لجامعة ولاية بويز طريق الاتصال بالرقم (208) 426-5401 أو عن طريق الكتابة: مجلس المراجعة المؤسسية ، مكتب الامتثال للبحوث ، جامعة ولاية بويز ، بويز ، جامعة ، بويز. د. 1910 ، ID 83725-1138

IRB Approval Number: 101–SB19–077

اتصل بي

Bahasa Indonesia

bahasa Indonesia

🌐 Peserta Perekrutan 🌐

Salam Sejahtera, Nama saya William Stewart dan saya adalah kandidat doktoral di Boise State University di Departemen Teknologi Pendidikan. Sebagai bagian dari disertasi saya, saya melakukan dua studi kualitatif yang saling terkait secara terpisah.

Penelitian ini memiliki tiga tujuan:

1) menyelidiki fenomena ekspatriat dan siswa transnasional pada pendidikan jarak jauh;
2) menyelidiki mengapa ekspatriat dan siswa transnasional melepaskan peluang pendidikan lokal dan sebaliknya memilih untuk mendaftar dalam program jarak jauh di luar negeri; dan
3) menyelidiki keadaan/situasi populasi penduduk asing di Korea yang mempengaruhi fenomena ini secara lokal.

Jika Anda:

a) saat ini merupakan penduduk/pekerja asing di Korea;
b) terdaftar dalam program sarjana jarak jauh/online di luar negeri (atau baru saja menyelesaikan/keluar darinya);
Saya ingin sekali berdiskusi dengan Anda!

Saya mengundang Anda untuk berpartisipasi dalam kedua penelitian, tetapi Anda pun dapat berpartisipasi dalam satu penelitian saja bila Anda menginginkannya. Saat ini saya sedang merekrut peserta untuk diwawancarai sekitar April 2019 hingga Oktober 2019. Silakan pertimbangkan hal berikut:

ℹ️ Info Wawancara ℹ️

🔤 Jika Anda lebih nyaman untuk berkomunikasi dalam bahasa asli Anda, saya bisa menggunakan penerjemah untuk berkomunikasi dengan Anda.

✏️ Jika Anda lebih nyaman untuk berkomunikasi secara tertulis, Anda dapat menjawab pertanyaan secara tertulis selama wawancara.

💬 Idealnya, kita akan bertemu untuk wawancara 1:1 secara langsung.

🎧 Jika penjadwalan atau jarak menyebabkan ketidaknyamanan, kita dapat menggunakan konferensi video.

🎤 Wawancara itu akan direkam.

🕐 Wawancara akan membutuhkan sekitar 30 menit hingga 1 jam.

🖥️ Wawancara akan diadakan di ruang publik yang tenang seperti sebuah kafe.

❓ Pertanyaan & Permasalahan ❓

Anda dapat menghubungi saya di williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu atau ketua saya, Dr. Youngkyun Baek bila memiliki pertanyaan, melalui email di youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu, atau melalui telepon (208) 426-1023.

Jika Anda memiliki pertanyaan tentang hak-hak Anda sebagai peserta penelitian, Anda dapat menghubungi kantor Dewan Peninjau Institusional Boise State University (IRB) dengan menelepon (208) 426-5401 atau dengan menulis: Dewan Peninjau Institusional, Kantor Kepatuhan Penelitian, Boise State University , 1910 Universitas Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138.

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Hubungi saya

Chinese

中文

☯ 募集研究参与者 ☯

您好！我叫威廉·斯图尔特，是博伊西州立大学教育技术系的博士生。作为我论文的一部分，我正在进行两个独立而相关的定性研究。

本研究有三个目的:

1) 调查远程教育中的外籍和跨国学生的现象;
2) 调查为什么外籍和跨国远程教育的学生会放弃在当地接受教育的机会而选择海外的远程学习课程;
3) 调查在韩国的外国居民的上述方面的情况及对当地的影响.

如果您是:

a) 目前生活在韩国的外籍工作人员/居民;
b) 在国外攻读远程/在线学位课程(或最近完成/退出);
本人迫切希望得到您的帮助!

本人真诚地邀请您参加这两项研究，但如果您希望的话也可只参加其中的一项。本人目前正在募集参与 者，并希望大约从2019年4月到2019年10月之间进行访谈。您可以从以下几个方面考虑：

❶ 关于访谈 ❶

🅰 如果您更习惯用母语交流，我们可以用翻译和你交流。

✏ 如果您更希望书面交流，您可以用书面的形式回答问题。

💬 如果可能的话，我们希望能1对1进行访谈

🎧 如果日程安排有问题或距离较远时，也可以通过视频通话进行交流。

🎤 访谈内容将被录音。

🕐 访谈持续时间约为30分钟至1小时。

🖥 访谈将在较为安静的公共场所进行（如咖啡馆）。

❓ 问题和相关事宜 ❓

如果您有任何问题，可以通过电子邮件 youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu 与我联系，也可以通过电子邮件 williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu 与我的导师 Youngkyun Baek 博士联系 ，可以致电 (208)426-1023。

如果您对您作为研究参与者的权利有任何疑问，请致电(208) 426-5401 或以书面形式与博伊西州立大学机构审查委员会(IRB)联系: 博伊西州立大学研究合规办公室机构审查委员会(Institutional Review Board, office of research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr. ， Boise, ID 83725-1138)

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联络我

<u>English</u>

🌐 English

🌐 Research Notice: Recruiting Participants 🌐

Greetings! My name is William Stewart and I am a doctoral candidate at Boise State University in the Department of Educational Technology. As a part of my dissertation, I am conducting two separate but related qualitative studies.

This research has three purposes:

1) investigate the phenomenon of expatriate and transnational students in distance education;
2) investigate why expatriate and transnational distance students forgo local educational opportunities and instead choose to enroll in distance programs abroad; and
3) investigate the circumstances/situations of the foreign-resident population in Korea that influence this phenomenon locally.

If you are:

a) currently a foreign-worker/resident in Korea;
b) enrolled in a distance/online degree program abroad (or have recently completed/withdrawn from one);
I would love to speak with you!

I invite you to participate in both studies, but you can participate in only one if you prefer. I am currently recruiting participants to interview from April 2019 until September 2019. Please consider the following:

ℹ️ Interview Info ℹ️

🔠 If you are more comfortable communicating in your native language, I can use an interpreter to communicate with you.

✏️ If you are more comfortable communicating in writing, you may respond to questions in writing during the interview.

🗨 Ideally, we will meet for an interview 1:1 in person.

📹 If scheduling or distance is inconvenient, we can use video conferencing.

🎤 The interviews will have the audio recorded.

🕐 The interview should last around 30 minutes to 1 hour.

🖥 The interviews will be in a quiet public space like a cafe.

❓ Questions & Concerns ❓

You can contact me at williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu or my chair, Dr. Youngkyun Baek with any questions by e-mail at youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu, or by phone (208) 426-1023.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Boise State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) office by calling (208) 426-5401 or by writing: Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138.

IRB Approval Number: 101-SB19-077

Contact Me

French

Française

🌐 Recherche participants pour une étude 🌐

Bonjour à tous ! Permettez-moi de me présenter, Je m'appelle William Stewart et je suis doctorant à la Boise State University dans le département de technologies de l'éducation. Dans le cadre de ma thèse, je mène deux études qualitatives distinctes mais liées.

Cette recherche poursuit trois objectifs :

1) étudier le phénomène des étudiants expatriés et transnationaux dans l'enseignement à distance;
2) rechercher les raisons pour lesquelles ces étudiants expatriés et transnationaux renoncent aux opportunités éducatives locales et choisissent plutôt de suivre des cursus à distance dans un autre pays; et
3) enquêter sur les circonstances et la situation de la population étrangère résidente en Corée qui favorisent ce phénomène au niveau local.

Si vous êtes:

a) actuellement travailleur(euse) étranger(e) / résident(e) en Corée du sud;
b) inscrit(e) à un programme de formation à distance / en ligne à l'étranger (ou avez récemment terminé ou abandonné l'un de ces cours);
J'adorerais m'entretenir avec vous !

Je vous invite à participer aux deux études, mais vous pouvez n'en choisir qu'une si vous le souhaitez. Je recrute actuellement des participants pour des entretiens qui auront lieu plutôt entre avril 2019 et octobre 2019. Pour cela, veuillez tenir compte des points suivants :

ℹ️ Informations sur les entretiens ℹ️

🔤 Si vous êtes plus à l'aise pour communiquer dans votre langue maternelle, je peux faire appel à un interprète.

✏️ Si vous êtes plus à l'aise pour communiquer par écrit, vous pouvez répondre aux questions par écrit au cours de l'entretien.

💬 Dans l'idéal, nous nous rencontrerons pour un entretien dit « un : un », seulement vous et moi.

🎧 Si le lieu, l'heure ou la distance ne vous conviennent pas, nous pouvons avoir recours à la vidéoconférence.

🎤 L' entretien sera enregistré mais non-filmé.

🕐 L' entretien devrait durer entre trente minutes et une heure.

☕ L' entretien se déroulera dans un lieu public calme, un café, par exemple

❓ Questions et préoccupations ❓

Pour toute question, vous pouvez me contacter à l'adresse mail suivante : williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu ou écrire à mon directeur de thèse, le Dr. Youngkyun Baek, par courrier électronique à cette adresse : youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu ou encore par téléphone au 208-226-1023.

Si vous avez des questions sur vos droits en tant que participant à cette recherche, vous pouvez contacter le bureau du Conseil d'examen institutionnel (IRB) de l'Université Boise State en composant le (208) 426-5401 ou par écrit à l'adresse suivante : Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138. Merci d'avance pour l'intérêt que vous porterez à cette étude.

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Contactez moi

German

Deutsch

⊕ Teilnehmende für Studie gesucht! ⊕

Hallo und guten Tag! Mein Name ist William Stewart und ich bin Doktorand an der Boise State University im Department für Bildungstechnologie. Als Teil meiner Dissertation führe ich zwei separate, aber miteinander verbundene qualitative Studien durch.

Mit meiner Untersuchung verfolge ich drei Ziele:

1) Untersuchung des Phänomens von im Ausland lebenden und transnationalen Studierenden im Fernunterricht;
2) Untersuchung, warum im Ausland lebende Fernstudierende und transnationale Fernstudierende Bildungsmöglichkeiten [Bildungsangebote] vor Ort nicht nutzen und stattdessen sich in ausländischen Fernstudienprogrammen einschreiben; und
3) Untersuchung der Umstände/der Lebenssituation der ausländischen Bevölkerung in Korea, das dieses Phänomen lokal beeinflusst.

Wenn Sie:

a) a) momentan ein ausländischer Arbeiternehmer/ Einwohner in Korea oder;
b) b) in einem Fern-/ Online-Studium im Ausland eingeschrieben sind (oder kürzlich beendet/ abgebrochen haben);
würde ich gerne mit Ihnen sprechen!

Ich lade Sie dazu ein, an beiden Teil-Studien teilzunehmen, aber Sie können auch nur an einer der beiden teilnehmen, wenn Sie es wünschen. Momentan suche ich Teilnehmende für Interviews, die ungefähr von April 2019 bis Oktober 2019 durchgeführt werden sollen. Bitte beachten Sie:

ⓘ Informationen zu den Interviews ⓘ

🔤 Wenn Sie sich wohler fühlen, in Ihrer Muttersprache zu sprechen, werde ich einen Dolmetscher für das Interview mit Ihnen einsetzen.

✏ Wenn Sie sich wohler fühlen, die Interviews schriftlich durchzuführen, können Sie während des Interviews die Fragen schriftlich beantworten.

💬 Idealerweise führen wir die Interviews von Angesicht zu Angesicht (1:1) durch.

🎧 Sollten Termine nicht passen oder die Entfernung zu groß sein, können wir skypen.

🎤 Während der Interviews wird nur das Gesprochene aufgenommen.

🕐 Das Interview sollte wenigstens 30 Minuten, aber nicht länger als eine Stunde dauern.

☕ Das Interview wird an einem ruhigen, öffentlichen Ort durchgeführt (wie z. B. in einem Café).

❓ Bei Fragen und Bedenken ❓

YBei Fragen können Sie mich unter williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu oder meinen Betreuer Dr. Youngkyun Baek unter youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu oder telefonisch unter (208) 426-1023 erreichen.

Wenn Sie Fragen zu Ihren Rechten als Teilnehmende/r an einer Studie haben, können Sie das Büro des Boise State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) telefonisch unter (208) 426-5401 oder schriftlich unter Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138 erreichen.

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Kontaktiere mich

Hindi

🇮🇳 हिन्दी भाषा

🌏 प्रतिभागियों की भर्ती करना 🌏

अभिनंदन! मेरा नाम विलियम स्टीवर्ट है और मैं Boise राज्य विश्वविद्यालय के शैक्षिक प्रौद्योगिकी विभाग में डॉक्टरेट उम्मीदवार हूं। अपने शोध प्रबंध के भाग के रूप में, मैं दो अलग-अलग लेकिन संबंधित गुणात्मक अध्ययन कर रहा हूं।

इस शोध के तीन उद्देश्य हैं:

1) दूरस्थ शिक्षा में प्रवासी और अंतरराष्ट्रीय छात्रों की घटना की जांच पड़ताल करना;
2) जाँच पड़ताल करना कि क्यों प्रवासी और अंतरराष्ट्रीय दूरी के छात्र स्थानीय शैक्षिक अवसरों को छोड़ देते हैं तथा इसके बजाय विदेश में दूरस्थ कार्यक्रमों में नामांकन कराने का विकल्प चुनते हैं; तथा
3) कोरिया में विदेशी निवासी आबादी की परिस्थितियों / स्थितियों की जांच पड़ताल करना जो स्थानीय रूप से इस घटना को प्रभावित करती हैं।

अगर आप हैं:

a) वर्तमान में कोरिया में एक विदेशी कामगार / निवासी;
b) विदेश में एक दूरी / ऑनलाइन डिग्री कार्यक्रम में नामांकित (या हाल ही में किसी से पूरा किया गया /निकाला गया);
मुझे आपके साथ बात करना अच्छा लगेगा!

मैं आपको दोनों अध्ययनों में भाग लेने के लिए आमंत्रित करता हूं, लेकिन आप चाहें तो केवल एक में भाग ले सकते हैं। मैं वर्तमान में अप्रैल 2019 से लगभग अक्टूबर 2019 तक साक्षात्कार के लिए प्रतिभागियों को भर्ती कर रहा हूं। कृपया निम्नलिखित पर विचार करें:

ℹ️ साक्षात्कार संबंधी जानकारी ℹ️

🔠 यदि आप अपनी मूल भाषा में संवाद करने में अधिक सहज हैं, तो मैं आपसे संवाद करने के लिए दुभाषिए का उपयोग कर सकता हूं।

✏️ यदि आप लिखित रूप में संवाद करने में अधिक सहज हैं, तो आप साक्षात्कार के दौरान लिखित रूप में प्रश्नों के उत्तर दे सकते हैं।

💬 आदर्श रूप में, हम एक साक्षात्कार के लिए व्यक्तिगत रूप से 1: 1 में मिलेंगे।

📹 यदि शेड्यूलिंग या दूरी असुविधाजनक है, तो हम वीडियो कॉन्फ्रेंसिंग का उपयोग कर सकते हैं।

🎤 साक्षात्कार में ऑडियो रिकॉर्ड किया जाएगा।

🕐 साक्षात्कार लगभग 30 मिनट से 1 घंटे तक चलना चाहिए।

☕ साक्षात्कार एक कैफे की तरह एक शांत सार्वजनिक स्थान पर होंगे।

❓ प्रश्न और सरोकार ❓

आप मुझसे इस ई-मेल पर williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu या मेरे अध्यक्ष, डॉ. यंगकुन बाएक से किसी भी प्रश्न के साथ इस ई-मेल पर youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu, या फोन द्वारा (208) 426-1023 द्वारा संपर्क कर सकते हैं।

यदि आपके एक शोध प्रतिभागी के रूप में अपने अधिकारों के बारे में प्रश्न हैं, तो आप (208) 426-5401 पर कॉल करके या लिखित रूप से Boise State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) कार्यालय से संपर्क कर सकते हैं: संस्थागत समीक्षा बोर्ड, अनुसंधान अनुपालन कार्यालय, Boise State University , 1910 विश्वविद्यालय डॉ., बोइस, आईडी 83725-1138।

IRB Approval Number: 101–SB19–077

मुझसे संपर्क करो

Italian

Italiano

🌐 Avviso di ricerca: reclutamento dei partecipanti 🌐

Ciao! Mi chiamo Guillermo Stewart e sono uno studente di dottorato presso la Boise State University nel dipartimento di tecnologia educativa. Sto facendo due studi diversi (ma correlati).

Questa ricerca ha tre scopi:

1) investigare il fenomeno degli studenti espatriati e transnazionali nell'educazione a distanza;
2) indagare perché gli studenti a distanza espatriati e transnazionali rinunciano alle opportunità educative locali e scelgono invece di iscriversi a programmi di distanza all'estero; e
3) indagare sulle circostanze / situazioni della popolazione residente straniera in Corea che influenzano questo fenomeno localmente.

Se sei:

a) attualmente un lavoratore straniero / residente in Corea;
b) iscritto a un corso di laurea a distanza / online all'estero (o che ha recentemente completato / ritirato da uno);
Mi piacerebbe parlare con te!

Ti invito a partecipare a entrambi gli studi, ma puoi partecipare a uno solo se preferisci. Attualmente sto reclutando partecipanti per intervistare da febbraio 2019 a settembre 2019. Per favore considera quanto segue:

ℹ️ Informazioni sull'intervista ℹ️

🔤 Se sei più a tuo agio nel comunicare nella tua lingua madre, posso usare un interprete per comunicare con te.

✏️ Se sei più a tuo agio nel comunicare per iscritto, puoi rispondere alle domande per iscritto durante l'intervista.

💬 Idealmente, ci incontreremo per un'intervista 1: 1 di persona.

🎧 Se la pianificazione o la distanza sono scomode, possiamo utilizzare la videoconferenza.

🎤 Le interviste avranno l'audio registrato.

🕐 L'intervista dovrebbe durare da 30 minuti a 1 ora.

☕ Le interviste saranno in uno spazio pubblico tranquillo come un caffè.

❓ Domande e preoccupazioni ❓

Potete contattarmi a williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu o al mio presidente, il Dr. Youngkyun Baek per qualsiasi domanda via e-mail a youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu, o per telefono (208) 426-1023.

Se hai domande sui tuoi diritti come partecipante alla ricerca, puoi contattare l'ufficio IRB (Boist State Review Board) di Boise State University chiamando il numero (208) 426-5401 o scrivendo: Consiglio di revisione istituzionale, Ufficio di conformità alla ricerca, Boise State University , 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138.

IRB Approval Number: 101–SB19–077

Contattami

Japanese

日本語
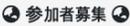
🌏 参加者募集 🌏

こんにちは！私の名前はWilliam Stewartです。私はBoise State UniversityのDepartment of Educational Technologyの博士候補です。論文の一部として、私は2つの別々だが関連した質的研究を行っています。

この調査には3つの目的があります。

1) 遠隔教育における自国を離れた外国人学生の現象を調査する。
2) 自国を離れた外国人の遠隔教育の学生が、なぜ地域の教育機会を諦め、代わりに海外の遠隔地のプログラムに登録することを選択したかを調査する。そして
3) この現象に地域的に影響を与える韓国の外国人居住者人口の環境/状況を調査する。

もしあなたが次の条件に当てはまる場合

a) 現在韓国にいる外国人労働者 / 居住者。
b) 海外で遠隔/オンライン学位プログラムに登録している（または最近終了した、またはそうしたプログラムを辞めた）。
ぜひあなたとお話をしたいです！

両方の研究に参加していただきたいのですが、ご希望なら1つだけに参加することもできます。現在、2019年4月から2019年10月までの間に行うインタビューの参加者を募集しています。以下を検討してください。
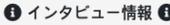
ℹ️ インタビュー情報 ℹ️

🔤 母国語でコミュニケーションをとる方が楽な場合、私はあなたとコミュニケーションをとるために通訳を使うことができます。

✏️ 書面でのコミュニケーションの方が楽な場合、インタビュー中に書面で質問に答えることができます。

🗨️ 直接お会いして1対1でのインタビューが理想的です。

🎧 スケジュールや距離の関係で難しい場合は、ビデオ会議を使用できます。

🎤 インタビューの音声は録音されます。

🕐 インタビューの時間は約30分から1時間です。

🖥️ インタビューはカフェのような静かな公共の場で行われます。

❓ 質問や関心 ❓

ご質問がある場合は、私宛にwilliamstewart287@u.boisestate.eduへ、または私の教授Youngkyun Baek宛にyoungkyunbaek@boisestate.eduへ、Eメールまたは電話（208）426-1023でお問い合わせください。

研究参加者としてのあなたの権利について質問がある場合は、Boise State University Institutional Review Board (IRB)オフィス宛に電話で（208）426-5401まで、または書面で次の住所宛にお問い合わせください。Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138

IRB Approval Number: 101-SB19-077

私に連絡して

Khmer

🏳 ភាសាខ្មែរ

🌐 ការជ្រើសរើសអ្នកចូលរួម 🌐

សួស្តី! ខ្ញុំឈ្មោះ William Stewart ហើយខ្ញុំជាបេក្ខជនបណ្ឌិតនៅ សាកលវិទ្យាល័យ Boise State University ក្នុងដេប៉ាតឺម៉ង់បច្ចេកវិទ្យាអប់រំ ជាផ្នែក មួយនៃការសរសេរនិក្ខេបបទរបស់ខ្ញុំ ខ្ញុំកំពុងធ្វើការសិក្សាបែបគុណភាពពីរដាច់ដោយឡែក ប៉ុន្តែទាក់ទងគ្នា។

ការស្រាវជ្រាវនេះមានគោលបំណងបីៈ

1) សេ៊ុបអង្កេតលើបាតុភូតនៃនិស្ស៊ីតបរទេស និងអន្តរប្រទេសក្នុងកម្មវិធីអប់រំពីចម្ងាយ
2)) សេ៊ុបអង្កេតពីមូលហេតុដែលនិស្ស៊ីតបរទេស និងអន្តរប្រទេស ចោះបង់ឱិកាសសិក្សានៅតាម មូលដ្ឋាន និងចុះឈ្មោះចូលរៀនក្នុងកម្មវិធីអប់រំពីចម្ងាយនៅ បរទេសជំនួសវិញ និង
3) សេ៊ុបអង្កេតពីកាលៈទេសៈ / ស្ថានភាពរបស់ជនបរទេសដែលរស់នៅក្នុងប្រទេសកូរ៉េ ដែលមាន ឥទ្ធិពលលើបាតុភូតនេះ។

ប្រសិនលោកអ្នកៈ

a) បច្ចុប្បន្ននេះ ជាពលករបរទេស / ជាអ្នករស់នៅក្នុងប្រទេសកូរ៉េ
b) បានចុះឈ្មោះចូលរៀនក្នុងកម្មវិធីឧត្តមសិក្សាដែលសិក្សាតាមប្រព័ន្ធអ៊ីនធឺណិត / កម្មវិធីអប់រំពីចម្ងាយ នៅបរទេស (ប្រទេបកែបញ្ចប់ / លាឈប់ពីកម្មវិធីនោះ) ខ្ញុំសូមនិយាយជាមួយអ្នក!

ខ្ញុំសូមអញ្ជើញលោកអ្នកឱ្យចូលរួមក្នុងការសិក្សាស្រាវជ្រាវទាំងពីរនេះ   ប៉ុន្តែលោកអ្នកអាចជ្រើសរើសបានតែមួយទេ   ប្រសិនបើលោកអ្នកពេញចិត្តចូលរួម។ បច្ចុប្បន្ននេះ ខ្ញុំកំពុងជ្រើសរើសអ្នកចូលរួមសម្ភាសពីខែមេសា ឆ្នាំ 2019 រហូតដល់ប្រហែលដាច់ខែតុលា ឆ្នាំ 2019 ។ សូមធ្វើការពិចារណាចំណុចខាងក្រោម:

ℹ ព័ត៌មានសម្ងាស់ ℹ

🔤 ប្រសិនបើវិងាយស្រួលសម្រាប់លោកអ្នកក្នុងប្រាស្រ័យទាក់ទងជាភាសាកំណើតរបស់លោកអ្នកនោះ ខ្ញុំអាចប្រើអ្នកបកប្រែដើម្បីប្រាស្រ័យ ទាក់ទងជាមួយអ្នក។

✏ ប្រសិនបើវិងាយស្រួលសម្រាប់លោកអ្នកក្នុងការប្រាស្រ័យទាក់ទងជាលាយលក្ខណ៍អក្សរនោះ លោកអ្នកអាចផ្ញើយតបទៅនឹងសំណួរនានា ជាលាយលក្ខណ៍អក្សរក្នុងកំឡុងពេលសម្ភាសបាន។

💬 ជាការល្អបំផុត យើងនឹងជួបធ្វើទសម្ភាស 1:1 ដោយផ្ទាល់។

🎙 यदि शेड्यूलिंग या दूरी असुविधाजनक है, तो हम वीडियो कॉन्फ्रेंसिंग का उपयोग कर सकते हैं।

🎤 ការសម្ងាសនឹងត្រូវថតសំឡេងទុក។

🕐 ការសម្ងាសអាចប្រើរយៈពេលប្រហែលពី 30 នាទីទៅ 1 ម៉ោង។

💻 ការសម្ងាសនឹងធ្វើឡើងនៅក្នុងទីសាធារណៈដែលស្ងាត់ ដូចជាហាងការហ្វេ។

❓ សំណួរ និងកង្វល់នានា ❓

អ្នកអាចទាក់ទងខ្ញុំតាមអ៊ីមែល williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu ឬសួរសំណួរទៅប្រធានរបស់ខ្ញុំ Dr. Youngkyun Baek តាមរយៈអ៊ី ម៉ែល youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu ឬតាម ទូរស័ព្ទលេខ (208) 426-1023 ។

ប្រសិនលោកអ្នកមានសំណួរអំពីសិទ្ធិរបស់លោកអ្នកជាអ្នកចូលរួមក្នុងការស្រាវជ្រាវ លោកអ្នកអាចទាក់ទងការិយាល័យក្រុមប្រឹក្សាវាយតម្លៃស្ថាប័ននៃ សាកលវិទ្យាល័យ Boise State University តាមទូរស័ព្ទលេខ (208) 426-5401 ឬសរសេរទៅៈ ក្រុមប្រឹក្សាវាយតម្លៃស្ថាប័ន ការិយាល័យអនុវត្ត ច្បាប់លើការស្រាវជ្រាវ សាកលវិទ្យាល័យ Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, អគ្គសញ្ញាណប័ណ្ណលេខ 83725-1138

IRB Approval Number: 101–SB19–077

ទាក់ទងមកខ្ញុំ

Korean

한국어

⏳ 연구 참가자들을 모집합니다! ⏳

안녕하세요! 저는 현재 Boise State University에서 교육공학 박사과정 중에 있는 William Stewart라고 합니다. 현재 제 박사논문의 일부로서, 서로 관련도가 높은 두 개의 정성적 연구를 진행중에 있습니다.

이 연구는 세가지 목적을 바탕으로 하고 있습니다.

1) 원거리 교육을 받는 expatriate 및 transnational 학생들에 대한 조사;
2) expatriate 및 transnational distance 학생들이 현지교육 대신 해외 원거리 교육을 선택하는 이유에 대한 조사 ;
3) 이러한 현상에 대해 한국에 거주하는 외국인들의 환경/상황이 미친 영향을 조사

귀하께서 아래의 경우에 해당되시면 이 연구에 참여해 주시면 대단히 감사하겠습니다

a) 현재 한국에서 거주하거나 일을 하는 외국인일 경우;
b)해외의 원거리/온라인 학위 프로그램에 등록되어 있는 경우 (또는 최근에 과정을 끝냈거나 중도포기를 한 경우)
본인이랑 정말 얘기를 하고 싶습니다!

두 연구 모두 참여해 주시면 감사하겠으나, 원하신다면 한가지 연구에만 참여하셔도 됩니다. 현재 2019년 2월부터 2019년 9월까지 인터뷰를 해 주실 참여자들을 모집하고 있습니다. 아래 사항을 참고해 주십시오.

🛈 인터뷰 정보 🛈

🔤 모국어로 의사소통을 하시길 원하시면 통역을 제공해 드릴 수 있습니다.

✏️ 서면으로 의사소통을 하시길 원하시면 인터뷰에 대한 답변을 서면으로 해 주셔도 됩니다.

💬 이상적인 방법으로는 일대일로 만나서 인터뷰를 진행하는 것입니다.

🎧 일정상 또는 거리상으로 불편하시다면 화상통화로 인터뷰를 진행할 수 있습니다.

🎤 인터뷰는 녹음 됩니다.

🕐 인터뷰는 30분에서 1시간 정도 소요될 예정입니다.

☕ 인터뷰는 카페 같은 조용한 공공장소에서 진행될 예정입니다.

❓ 질문 ❓

질문이 있으시면 제 이메일 williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu 또는 지도교수인 백영균 교수에게 이메일 youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu 또는 전화 (208) 426-1023 로 언제든지 연락 주시면 감사하겠습니다.

연구참여자의 권리에 대한 질문이 있으시면 Boise State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) office (전화: (208) 426-5401, 주소: Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138)로 문의 주시길 바랍니다.

IRB Approval Number: 101-SB19-077

연락하십시오

Mongolian

Монгол хэл

❷ Оролцогчдыг элсүүлэх ❷

Мэндчилгээ! Миний нэрийг Виллиам Стюарт, би Boise State University-д докторын зэрэг горилон суралж байна. Миний диссертацийн нэг хэсэг болгон миний бие хоёр тусдаа боловч хоорондоо хамааралтай чанарын судалгааг явуулж байна.

Энэ судалгаа нь дараахь гурван зорилготой:

1) гадаад оронд байгаа болон үндэстэн дамнасан сурагчдын үзэгдэл зэргийг зайны сургалтаар судлах;
2) Гадаад оронд байгаа иргэд ба үндэстэн дамнасан зайны сургалтын оюутнууд орон нутгийн боловсролын боломжийг яагаад үгүйсгэж, гадаад оронд алс зайны хөтөлбөрт хамрагдахыг сонгож байгаа суддлах; болон
3) Солонгос дахь гадаадын иргэдийн оршин сууж буй оршин суугчдын нөхцөл байдал, нөхцөл байдлыг энэ үзэгдэл нөлөөлж буй дотоодын нөхцөлд судлах.

Хэрэв та:

a) Одоогоор БНСУ-д ажиллаж байгаа гадаад ажилчин / оршин суугч;
b) гадаадад зайн/онлайн сургалтын хөтөлбөрт элссэн (эсвэл ийм хөтөлбөрийг дүүргэсэн/татгалзсан);
Би тантай ярихдаа дуртай байх болно!

Би таныг энэ хоёр судалгаанд хоёуланд нь оролцохыг урьж байна, гэхдээ та хүссэн үедээ аль илүүд үзсэндээ оролцож болно. Би одоогоор 2019 оны 4-р сараас эхлэн 2019 оны 10-р сар хүртэл ярилцлагад оролцох хүмүүсийг ажилд авахаар төлөвлөж байна. Дараах зүйлсийг анхаарна уу:

❶ Ярилцлагын мэдээлэл ❶

🔤 Хэрвээ та эх хэлээрээ харилцах илүү ая тухтай байвал бидэнтэй харилцахын тулд орчуулагч ашиглах боломжтой.

✏ Хэрэв та бичгээр харилцах илүү тухтай байвал ярилцлага хийх үедээ асуултанд бичгээр хариу өгч болно.

💬 Үнэндээ бид ярилцлагадаа 1:1 гэсэн биечилсэн байдлаар оролцуулна.

🎧 Хэрвээ хуваарь гаргах эсвэл зайнаас оролцох нь төвөгтэй байвал бид видео хурал хийх боломжтой.

🎤 Ярилцлагыг дуу бичлэгээр баталгаажуулна.

🕐 Ярилцлага 30 минутаас 1 цаг хүртэл үргэлжилнэ.

🍺 Ярилцлага нь кафе гэх мэт олон нийтийн газар явагдана.

❓ Асуултууд ба асуудлууд ❓
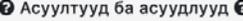
Та надтай дараах байдлар холбоо барьж болно williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu эсвэл миний дарга, Dr. Youngkyun Baek-д и-мэйлээр ямар нэгэн асуултыг youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu, эсвэл утсаар (208) 426-1023 асууж болно.

Хэрэв та судалгаанд оролцогчийн эрхтэй холбоотой асуулт байвал Boise State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) -тэй холбоо барина уу (208) 426-5401 эсвэл бичгээр: Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138.

IRB Approval Number: 101-SB19-077

Надтай холбогдоорой

Portuguese

Português

⊕ Aviso: os participantes são procurados ⊕

Oi! Meu nome é Guillermo Stewart e sou estudante de doutorado na Boise State University, no departamento de tecnologia educacional. Eu estou fazendo dois estudos diferentes (mas relacionados).

Os estudos têm três finalidades:

1) investigar o fenômeno de alguns casos de estudantes que estudam à distância quando moram ou trabalham no exterior (Coréia do Sul, neste caso);
2) investigar o motivo pelo qual as pessoas que moram no exterior escolhem estudar à distância em outros países, em vez de aproveitar as oportunidades educacionais locais; e
3) investigar as circunstâncias dos estrangeiros na Coréia que influenciam o fenômeno desses casos de estudantes

Se você é:

a) um estrangeiro que trabalha ou mora na Coréia;
b) você está fazendo um bacharelado, mestrado, doutorado ou certificado de distância por uma universidade no exterior (mesmo que você tenha terminado recentemente, também se você o deixou antes de cumpri-lo);
Eu adoraria falar com você!

Convido você a participar dos dois estudos, se tiver coragem, mas só poderá participar de um, se for melhor para você. Agora estou no processo de procurar participantes e entrevistá-los de abril de 2019 a setembro ou outubro de 2019. Por favor, considere o seguinte:

ⓘ Informações sobre as entrevistas ⓘ

🔠 Se é mais confortável falar em seu idioma nativo do que em inglês, podemos usar um tradutor.

✏️ Se é mais fácil responder por escrito, você pode escrever respostas também durante a entrevista.

💬 É preferível se reunir para fazer a entrevista.

🎧 Se é difícil se reunir, podemos conversar no Skype (ou em uma plataforma semelhante).

🎤 O áudio das entrevistas será gravado.

🕐 Espera-se que as entrevistas durem de 30 a 60 minutos

☕ Entrevistas serão feitas em um lugar público (e tranquilo) como um pequeno café.

❓ Perguntas e perguntas ❓

Você pode me contatar diretamente: williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu ou meu avisor, o Dr. Youngkyun Baek com qualquer pergunta: youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu, ou por telefone, (208) 426-1023.

Se você tiver dúvidas sobre seus direitos como participante do estudo, entre em contato com o Conselho de Revisão Institucional (IRB) da Boise State University pelo telefone (208) 426-5401 ou escrevendo: Conselho de Revisão Institucional, Escritório de Compliance de Pesquisa, Boise Universidade Estadual, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138.

IRB Approval Number: 101-SB19-077

Entre em contato comigo

Russian

Русский

🌐 Набор участников 🌐

Приветствуем Вас! Меня зовут Уильям Стюарт, и я являюсь кандидатом наук в Boise State University на факультете технических средств обучения. В рамках своей диссертации я провожу два отдельных, но взаимосвязанных качественных исследования.

Это исследование имеет три цели:

1) исследовать феномен иностранных и международных студентов в области заочного обучения;
2) исследовать, почему иностранные и международные студенты отказываются от местных возможностей обучения и предпочитают записываться на заочные программы за рубежом; а также
3) исследовать обстоятельства / ситуации иностранных граждан в Корее, которые влияют на это явление на местном уровне.

Если Вы:

a) в настоящее время являетесь иностранным работником / резидентом в Корее;
b) зачислены на заочное / онлайн-обучение за рубежом (или недавно завершили его / отказались он него);
Я хотел бы поговорить с вами!

Я приглашаю вас принять участие в обоих исследованиях, но вы можете участвовать только в одном из них, если хотите. В настоящее время я набираю участников для собеседования, которое пройдет приблизительно с апреля 2019 года по октябрь 2019 года. Обратите внимание на следующее:

❶ Информация о собеседовании ❶

🆎 Если вам удобнее общаться на родном языке, я могу использовать переводчика для общения с вами.

✏ Если вам удобнее общаться в письменном виде, вы можете ответить на вопросы в письменном виде во время собеседования.

🗨 В идеале мы встретимся на собеседовании лично один на один.

🎦 Если время собеседования или расстояние неудобно для Вас, мы можем использовать видеоконференцию.

🎙 Собеседования будут записываться.

🕐 Собеседования должно длиться от 30 минут до 1 часа.

☕ Собеседования будут проходить в тихом общественном месте, например в кафе.

❓ Вопросы и проблемы ❓

Вы можете связаться по любым вопросам со мной по williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu или с моим куратором Dr. Youngkyun Baek по электронной почте youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu или по телефону (208) 426-1023.

Если у Вас есть вопросы о ваших правах как участника исследования, вы можете обратиться в офис Boise State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) по телефону (208) 426-5401 или по почте: Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138.

IRB Approval Number: 101–SB19–077

Свяжитесь со мной

<u>Spanish</u>

Español

⊕ Aviso: Se buscan participantes ⊕

Hola! Me llamo Guillermo Stewart y soy estudiante doctoral en Boise State University en el departamento de tecnología educativa. Estoy haciendo dos estudios diferentes (pero relacionados).

Los estudios tienen tres propósitos:

1) investigar el fenómeno de algunos casos de estudiantes que estudian a distancia cuando viven o trabajan al extranjero (Corea del Sur en este caso);
2) investigar la razón por qué la gente quien vive al extranjero elige estudiar a distancia en otros países en vez de aprovecharse de oportunidades educativas locales; e
3) investigar las circunstancias del pueblo extranjero en Corea que influyen el fenómeno de estos casos de estudiantes

Si eres:

a) un extranjero que trabaja o vive en Corea;
b) estás haciendo un bachelors, masters, doctorado o un certificado a distancia por una universidad al extranjero (incluso si lo habías terminado recientemente, también si lo dejaste antes de cumplirlo;
me encantaría hablar contigo!

Te invito a participar en los dos estudios si te animas, pero puedes participar solamente en uno si es mejor para ti. Ahorita estoy en el proceso de buscar a participantes y entrevistarlos desde abril 2019 hasta septiembre u octubre 2019. Por favor considera lo siguiente:

ⓘ Información sobre las entrevistas ⓘ

🔤 Si es más cómodo hablar en tu idioma nativo en vez de inglés, podemos utilizar a un traductor.

✏ Si es más fácil responder en escritura, puedes escribir respuestas también durante la entrevista.

💬 Es preferible juntarnos para hacer la entrevista.

🎧 Si es dificíl juntarnos, podemos hablar por Skype (o un plataforma semejante).

🎤 Se grabará el audio de las entrevistas.

🕐 Se expecta que las entrevistas durarán 30 a 60 minutos

☕ Se harán las entrevistas en un lugar público (y tranquilo) como un café pequeño.

❓ Preguntas y cuestiones ❓

Me puedes contactar directamente:williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu o a mi avisor, Dr. Youngkyun Baek con cualquier pregunta: youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu, o por su teléfono, (208) 426-1023.

Si tienes preguntas sobre tus derechos como un participante en estudios asi, puedes contactar a Boise State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) por su número de teléfono (208) 426-5401 o por escribirle: Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138.

IRB Approval Number: 101-SB19-077

Contáctame

Tagalog

Tagalog

🌐 Abiso sa Pananaliksik: Pagrerekrut ng mgakalahok 🌐

Kumusta! Ang pangalan ko ay William Stewart at ako ay kumukuha ng PhD sa Boise State University sa Department of Educational Technology. Bilang bahagi ng aking disertasyon, nagsasagawa ako ng dalawang magkakahiwalay ngunit may kaugnayan na kwalitatibong pag-aaral.

Ang pananaliksik na ito ay may tatlong layunin:

1) siyasatin ang kalagayan ng mga expatriate at transnational na mga estudyante sa distance education;

2) siyasatin kung bakit ang mga expatriate at transnational na mga estudyante ay pinalalagpas ang lokal na opportunidad sa edukasyon sa kanilang sariling bansa at sa halip pinipiling mag-enrol sa mga distance programs sa abroad; at

3) siyasatin ang mga kalagayan o sitwasyon ng mga dayuhang naninirahan sa Korea na nakakaimpluwensya sa kaganapang ito.

Kung ikaw ay:

a) kasalukuyang isang dayuhang manggagawa o naninirahan sa Korea;

b) naka-enroll sa isang distance/ online degree na programa sa ibang bansa (o kamakailan lamang ay nakapagtapos o hindi na ipinagpatuloy);

Ikagagalak kong makipag-usap sa iyo!

Inaanyayahan kitang maging bahagi sa dalawang pag-aaral na aking isinasagawa. Kung hindi ka maaaring maging parte sa dalawa, maaari kang maging bahagi sa isa lamang depende sa iyong kagustuhan. Kasalukuyan akong nagrerekrut ng mga kalahok sa interbyu mula Abril 2019 hanggang Setyembre 2019. Mangyaring isaalang-alang lamang ang mga sumusunod:

ℹ️ Impormasyon ng Interview ℹ️

🔤 Kung ikaw ay mas komportable sa iyong saraling wika/ lenguahe, maari tayong kumuha ng tulong mula sa isang interpreter.

✏️ Kung ikaw ay mas komportableng makipag-usap sa pamamagitan nag pagsulat, maaari mong isulat ang iyong sagot habang ginaganap ang interbyu.

💬 Kung maaari, tayo ay magkikita para sa isang 1:1 interbyu.

🎧 Kung sakaling may problema sa iskedyul o layo ng ating kinaroroonan, maaari naman tayong mag-usap sa pamamgitan ng "video conferencing".

🎤 Ang "audio" ng inetrbyu ay mairerekord.

🕐 Ang interbyu ay tinatayang magtatagal ng 30 minuto o isang oras

🖥️ Ang interbyu ay mangyayari sa isang tahimik na lugar gaya ng "café".

❓ Para sa mga katanungan at iba bang concern ❓

Maari kayong makipag-unayan sa akin sa pamamagitan ng aking e-mail williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu o maaari din naman sa aming chair na si , Dr. Youngkyun Baek sa kanyang email youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu, o maaari din kayong tumawag sa (208) 426-1023.

Kung kayo ay may tanong tungkol sa inyong karapatan bilang parte ng research na ito, maaari kayong tumawag mismo sa Boise State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) sa numerong 208) 426-5401.

IRB Approval Number: 101–SB19–077

Tawagan mo ako

<u>Thai</u>

🇹🇭 ภาษาไทย

◑ การสรรหาผู้เข้าร่วม ◑

สวัสดี! ฉันชื่อวิลเลียม สจ๊วต และฉันเป็นผู้สมัครระดับปริญญาเอกที่ มหาวิทยาลัย Boise State สาขาวิชาเทคโนโลยีการศึกษา จากส่วนหนึ่งของวิทยานิพนธ์ของฉัน ฉันกำลังทำการศึกษาเชิงคุณภาพอยู่ 2 หัวข้อ

การวิจัยครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์ 3 อย่าง:

1) ศึกษาปรากฏการณ์ของนักเรียนต่างชาติและนักเรียนแลกเปลี่ยนในการศึกษาทางไกล;
2) ศึกษาว่าเหตุใดนักเรียนต่างชาติและนักเรียนแลกเปลี่ยนจึงเลือกโอกาสทางการศึกษาในท้องถิ่น แทนการเลือกหลักสูตรการศึกษาทางไกล และ
3) ตรวจสอบพฤติการณ์แวดล้อม/สถานการณ์ของประชากรชาวต่างชาติในประเทศเกาหลีที่มีอิทธิพลต่อปรากฏการณ์นี้ในพื้นที่ .

ถ้าคุณคือ:

a) ปัจจุบันเป็นแรงงานต่างด้าว/ผู้พำนักในเกาหลี
b) ลงทะเบียนในหลักสูตรทางไหล/หลักสูตรออนไลน์ในต่างประเทศ (หรือเพิ่งจบหลักสูตร/ถอนหลักสูตรออกจากอีกหลักสูตร) ;
ฉันอยากคุยกับคุณ!

ฉันขอเชิญคุณเข้าร่วมในการหัวข้อศึกษาทั้ง 2 แต่คุณสามารถเลือกเข้าร่วมเพียงหัวข้อเดียวก็ได้ถ้าต้องการ ฉันกำลังทำการคัดเลือกผู้เข้าร่วมสัมภาษณ์ตั้งแต่เดือนเมษายน 2562 จนถึงเดือนตุลาคม 2562 โปรดพิจารณาสิ่งต่อไปนี้:

❶ ข้อมูลการสัมภาษณ์ ❶

🔤 ถ้าคุณสะดวกสื่อสารด้วยภาษาของคุณเองมากกว่า ฉันสามารถหาล่ามมาเพื่อสื่อสารกับคุณได้

✏️ ถ้าคุณรู้สึกสะดวกสื่อสารกันผ่านการเขียนมากกว่า คุณก็ตอบคำถามผ่านการเขียนระหว่างการสัมภาษณ์ได้

💬 ตามหลักการแล้ว เราน่าจะพบกันเพื่อสัมภาษณ์แบบตัวต่อตัว

🎥 ถ้าไม่สะดวกเรื่องกำหนดการหรือระยะทาง เราก็ใช้วิดีโอคอนเฟอเรนซ์ได้

🎤 การสัมภาษณ์จะมีการบันทึกเสียงด้วย

🕐 การสัมภาษณ์จะใช้เวลาประมาณ 30 นาทีถึง 1 ชั่วโมง

☕ การสัมภาษณ์จะอยู่ในพื้นที่สาธารณะที่เงียบสงบ เช่นร้านกาแฟ

❓ คำถามและข้อกังวล ❓

คุณสามารถติดต่อฉันได้ที่ williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu หรือที่ออฟฟิศของฉัน Dr. Youngkyun Baek ในกรณีที่มีคำถามใดๆ ให้ส่งผ่านทางอีเมลที่ youngkyunbaek@boisestate.eduหรือสอบถามทางโทรศัพท์ที่ (208) 426-1023

หากคุณมีคำถามเกี่ยวกับสิทธิ์ของคุณในฐานะผู้เข้าร่วมในการวิจัย คุณสามารถติดต่อสำนักงานคณะกรรมการพิจารณาสถาบันของมหาวิทยาลัย Boise Stat (IRB) โดยโทรไปที่ (208) 426-5401 หรือโดยการเขียนจดหมายแล้วส่งไปที่ Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138.

IRB Approval Number: 101–SB19–077

ติดต่อฉัน

Turkish

🌐 Katılımcı Seçme 🌐

Selamlar! Adım William Stewart ve Boise State Üniversitesi Eğitim Teknolojisi Bölümünde doktora adayıyım. Tezimin bir parçası olarak iki ayrı fakat ilişkili nitel çalışma yürütüyorum.

Bu araştırmanın üç amacı var:

1) uzaktan eğitimde göçmen ve ulusötesi öğrenciler olgusunu araştırmak;
2) uzaktan eğitim alan göçmen ve ulusötesi öğrencilerin yerel eğitim fırsatlarından neden vazgeçtiğini ve bunun yerine yurt dışındaki uzaktan eğitim programlarına kaydolmayı seçtiğini araştırmak; ve
3) Kore'de yerleşik yabancı nüfusun bu olayı yerel olarak etkileyen koşullarını/durumlarını araştırmak.

Eğer sen:

a) şu anda Kore'de çalışan/ikamet eden bir yabancıysan;
b) yurt dışında uzaktan/çevrimiçi eğitim programına kaydolduysan (veya bu programı yakın zamanda tamamladıysan/bıraktıysan);
Seninle konuşmayı çok isterim!

Seni her iki çalışmaya da katılmaya davet ediyorum; ancak tercih edersen sadece birine katılabilirsin. Nisan 2019'dan tahmini Ekim 2019'a kadar görüşme yapacağım katılımcıları seçiyorum. Lütfen aşağıdakileri göz önünde bulundur:

ℹ️ Görüşme Bilgisi ℹ️

🔤 Ana dilinizde iletişim kurmak konusunda daha rahatsanız, sizinle iletişim kurmak için bir tercüman kullanabilirim.

✏️ Yazılı olarak daha rahat iletişim kurarsanız, görüşme sırasında sorulara yazılı olarak cevap verebilirsiniz.

🗨️ İdeal olarak şahsen ve birebir görüşme yapacağız.

🎧 Zaman veya mesafe elverişli değilse video konferansı kullanabiliriz.

🎤 Görüşmelerde ses kaydı yapılacaktır.

🕐 Görüşme yaklaşık 30 dakika ile 1 saat arasında sürmelidir.

☕ Görüşmeler kafe gibi sakin bir kamusal alanda olacak.

❓ Sorular ve Endişeler ❓

Bana williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu adresinden veya sorularınız için danışmanım Dr. Youngkyun Baek'e youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu adresinden e-postayla veya (208) 426-1023 numaralı telefondan ulaşabilirsiniz.

Araştırma katılımcısı olarak haklarınız hakkında sorularınız varsa Boise State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) ofisini (208) 426-5401 numaralı telefondan arayarak ya da Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138 adresine mektup göndererek iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

IRB Approval Number: 101-SB19-077

Benimle irtibata geçin

Uzbek

Vietnamese

Tiếng Việt

🌐 Tuyển dụng người tham gia 🌐

Chúc mừng! Tên tôi là William Stewart và tôi là một nghiên cứu sinh tại Đại học Boise State, Khoa Công nghệ Giáo dục. Là một phần của luận án, tôi đang tiến hành hai nghiên cứu định tính riêng biệt nhưng có liên quan.

Nghiên cứu này có ba mục đích:

1) nghiên cứu hiện tượng học sinh nước ngoài và xuyên quốc gia trong giáo dục từ xa;
2) nghiên cứu tại sao học sinh nước ngoài và xuyên quốc gia từ bỏ các cơ hội giáo dục địa phương và thay vào đó chọn đăng ký vào các chương trình đào tạo từ xa ở nước ngoài; và
3) nghiên cứu các trường hợp/tình huống của cư dân nước ngoài tại Hàn Quốc có ảnh hưởng đến hiện tượng này tại địa phương.

Nếu bạn:

a) hiện là người lao động nước ngoài/thường trú tại Hàn Quốc;
b) đăng ký vào một chương trình từ xa/trực tuyến ở nước ngoài (hoặc gần đây đã hoàn thành/rút khỏi một chương trình như vậy);
Tôi rất thích nói chuyện với bạn!

Tôi mời bạn tham gia cả hai nghiên cứu, nhưng bạn chỉ có thể tham gia một nghiên cứu nếu bạn thích. Tôi hiện đang tuyển dụng người tham gia phỏng vấn từ tháng 4 năm 2019 cho đến tháng khoảng 10 năm 2019. Vui lòng xem xét những điều sau đây:

ℹ️ Thông tin phỏng vấn ℹ️

🔤 Nếu bạn cảm thấy thoải mái hơn khi giao tiếp bằng ngôn ngữ mẹ đẻ của mình, tôi có thể sử dụng một thông dịch viên để giao tiếp với bạn.

✏️ Nếu bạn cảm thấy thoải mái hơn khi giao tiếp bằng văn bản, bạn có thể trả lời các câu hỏi bằng văn bản trong cuộc phỏng vấn.

💬 Lý tưởng nhất, chúng ta sẽ gặp trong một cuộc phỏng vấn 1: 1 trực tiếp.

🎧 Nếu có bất tiện trong việc lên lịch hoặc khoảng cách, chúng ta có thể sử dụng hội nghị video.

🎤 Các cuộc phỏng vấn sẽ được ghi âm.

🕐 Cuộc phỏng vấn sẽ kéo dài khoảng 30 phút đến 1 giờ.

☕ Các cuộc phỏng vấn sẽ diễn ra ở trong một không gian công cộng yên tĩnh như một quán cà phê.

❓ Câu hỏi & Mối quan tâm ❓

Bạn có thể liên hệ với tôi tại williamstewart287@u.boisestate.edu hoặc giáo sư của tôi, Tiến sĩ Youngkyun Baek nếu bạn có bất kỳ câu hỏi nào bằng cách gửi email đến địa chỉ youngkyunbaek@boisestate.edu, hoặc qua điện thoại (208) 426-1023.

Nếu bạn có thắc mắc về quyền của mình với tư cách là người tham gia nghiên cứu, bạn có thể liên hệ với văn phòng Hội đồng Đánh giá Thể chế (IRB) của Đại học Boise State bằng cách gọi số (208) 426-5401 hoặc bằng văn bản: Institutional Review Board, Office of Research Compliance, Boise State University, 1910 University Dr., Boise, ID 83725-1138.

IRB Approval Number: 101-SB19-077

Liên hệ với tôi