TRANSNATIONAL EDUCATION STUDENT LEARNING AND SENSE OF BELONGING THROUGH A FLIPPED CLASSROOM MODEL IN SOUTHEAST ASIA

by

Lysette Davi

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As members of the Dissertation Committee, we certify that we have read the dissertation prepared by: Lysette Davi
titled:  **TRANSNATIONAL EDUCATION STUDENT LEARNING AND SENSE OF BELONGING THROUGH A FLIPPED CLASSROOM MODEL IN SOUTHEAST ASIA**

and recommend that it be accepted as fulfilling the dissertation requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Jenny J Lee  
Date: Oct 27, 2020

Melody J Buckner  
Date: Oct 27, 2020

Gary D Rhoades  
Date: Oct 27, 2020

Gary D Rhoades  
Date: Oct 27, 2020

Brent T White  
Date: Oct 27, 2020

Final approval and acceptance of this dissertation is contingent upon the candidate’s submission of the final copies of the dissertation to the Graduate College.

I hereby certify that I have read this dissertation prepared under my direction and recommend that it be accepted as fulfilling the dissertation requirement.

Jenny J Lee  
Date: Oct 27, 2020

Educational Policy Studies and Practice
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“I can do all things through Christ who gives me strength”

Philippians 4:13

The desire to pursue a doctoral degree stemmed from my parents who gave me the gift of loving to learn. Through this journey, I am grateful for what they instilled inside of me, a fiery passion for justice and a determination not to give up on my goals despite illness and life events. They also gave me a belief in God, a belief that has guided my strength when I felt I had none. I honor my family through this dissertation with an acknowledgement of all of my family members and ancestors who did not have the opportunity I have been blessed with, the opportunity to earn a doctoral degree.

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DEDICATION

To my mother, Tensie Marrujo Davis
For gifting me a heart of service and learning, as it mirrors your heart. I see you in all my actions, dreams and aspirations.

To my father, Jon Rocco Davis
For demonstrating that with hard work and dedication all things are possible.

To my sister, Amber Davis Novey
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For being my rock. You are the great love of my life.

And to my son,
Westley Rocco Davi
I never worked so hard in my life, but I wanted to complete this dissertation so I could soak up my time with you. With each kick, I felt you and knew nothing in this world would be as important as you.
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ABSTRACT

This study examined student experiences in an online learning transnational education model by exploring the flipped classroom pedagogy at two Microcampuses in South East Asia. Interviews were conducted with forty-nine participants across three countries, the U.S., Cambodia and Indonesia. Participants in Cambodia and Indonesia included students, lecturers and administrators. U.S. participants included U.S. Instructors and administrators. Six Microcampus courses were analyzed through a document analysis process, which included an adaptation of the Quality Matters Rubric. Additionally, six in-person classroom observations occurred in Cambodia and Indonesia using the Teaching Dimensions Observation Protocol observation methods. The study used Moore’s Theory of Transactional Distance (1997) to conceptualize how dialogue, learning autonomy and course structure engages transnational students in their learning through sense of belonging. The findings in this study indicated that transnational education models need to consider transnational student needs including: student identity, sense of belonging, course structure, interaction across borders, student plans post-graduation, and intentional content delivered through a cultural humility lens. By integrating these findings, this study’s implications focused on three main concepts: student learning in a flipped classroom model, best practices for transnational education students in online learning across borders and defining transnational education students for future research and student support. This study contributes to existing literature on transnational education and furthers the conversation by challenging the field of higher education to consider transnational education student identity, student learning goals, and the role of cultural humility in online student learning.
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Over one billion students, 70% of the learners across the world, have had their learning affected due to COVID-19 across all education levels (UNESCO, 2020). While more than 150 countries held nationwide higher education institution and school closures, others adapted by engaging in the growing field of educational technology (UNESCO, 2020). Prior to the COVID-19 epidemic, with the help of educational technologies one in four higher education students were enrolled in at least one online distance course worldwide; one in three in the United States (Digital Learning Compass, 2017; NCES, 2020). Further, there has been an ongoing increase of graduate programs moving to online platforms with around 30% of graduate students completing their coursework entirely online (Horn, 2020). Although COVID-19 has had an impact on student learning, cross-border enrollment rates prior to the outbreak were on a steady incline. For example, higher education rates inflated from 800,000 students in 1978 to 4.5 million students by 2013 (Redden, 2018; UNESCO, 2015). The number of enrolled higher education seekers is predicted to continue to increase based on global higher education enrollment rates that more than doubled in a 14-year span (2000-2014) (UNESCO, 2017). COVID-19 accelerated the demand for cross-border education and introduced online learning as a way to meet that demand (Li & Lalani, 2020; Remote, 2020). With more than half of the world’s population under the age of 30 (UNESCO, 2018), meeting the demands of higher education enrollments will be a challenge for the global economy and will continue to rely on the growth of online learning models with transnational education options (White & Lee, 2020).

Universities are predicting massive financial losses and uncertainty due to the impact of COVID-19 including enrollment reduction, decreased fundraising, and a loss of foreign students (Hartoellis, 2020). This predicted reduction is significant because U.S. higher
education has a growing capacity to enroll international students due to a local student deficit that is causing U.S. universities to close (Camera, 2019). More specifically, the loss of U.S. students is due to the Great Recession and a steep decline of U.S. births between 2008 and 2013 (Grawe, 2019). Although universities continued to expand their enrollments, the capacity does not match and will not match the number of U.S. applicants, which means U.S. institutions will be more reliant on international student populations to fulfill enrollment capacities.

International students are defined as students enrolled in institutions outside of their home country (UNESCO, 2020) this term will be further defined in Chapter 2. In 2017, new enrollments of international students at the undergraduate level reduced by 6.6 percent (Fischer, 2019) while at the same time the presence of Asian students increased (Choudaha, 2019). It is estimated that due to COVID-19, the U.S. will lose $15 billion in revenue from China alone (Xu Klein, 2020). This estimate will likely increase due to additional travel restrictions announced from the U.S. White House (Redden, 2020) well as a reduction of international flights that are permitted to enter the U.S. each day (Zhang, 2020). Continued educational accessibility for foreign students is significant to the U.S education industry economy. For example, in 2016 non-Americans contributed $39.4 billion towards educational services from the U.S. while U.S. citizens returned only $7.5 billion to the education industries across borders (Carter, 2018). International student enrollment is crucial to the U.S. higher education system (Fischer, 2020).

Higher education is addressing cross-border education through a range of transnational education (TNE) models. Transnational education is described as education provided in a country other than the country where the awarding institution is located. For example, if the awarding institution is located in Arizona but the education is provided in Cambodia than TNE is
occurring. The Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE) provided an early definition of transnational education:

[TNE] denote(s) any teaching or learning activity in which the students are in a country (the host country) that is different from that of the institution providing the education (the home country) …. the information, staff, and educational materials (regardless of how the information and the materials travel, by mail, computer network, radio, or television broadcast, or by other means) across national borders (p.1).

TNE has become the term that is representative of modern educational mobility. In effect, TNE occurs when higher education deliverables cross borders (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). Participants and providers of TNE position themselves to enable internationalization by serving as a gateway to a globalized knowledge economy where knowledge is wealth (Smith, 2010). TNE allows learners to be mobile because learning is not dependent on the physical location of the awarding institution (Francois, 2016). TNE is offered through a myriad of options, with seven common delivery systems: franchising, branch campuses, twinning, joint degree programs, dual degree programs, off-shore learning, for-profit corporations, and distance learning. A clear benefit of TNE is its ability to meet students where they are; a conduit of educational accessibility because these models promote the idea of mobility despite geographic distance (Waters & Leung, 2017). To this end, TNE is the catalyst for moving higher education across borders.

The presence of technology in TNE is largely driven by student demands in the global marketplace and industrialization in access to education (ICEF Monitor, 2016; Valero et al., 2019). Emerging technologies, such as the internet, mobile devices, and educational technologies can transform higher education access (Montrieux et al., 2015). Higher education is
under pressure to transform education to meet the modern needs of international students where students have more options to study at home or abroad (Dennis, 2017; O’Flaherty et al., 2015). Internationally, online learning has grown significantly with upwards of 75% of enrollees attending universities within a 100-mile radius of their homes (Gallagher, 2018). Online growth in Asia has stemmed from three types of learning: online degree education, certificate training (language, vocational training and professional skills) and tutoring services (Marginson, 2004; Palvia, et al. 2018; Wang, 2020, Zhou et al., 2020). Within the competition for international students in TNE, online education models are expected to gain power due to its viability and cost-effectiveness for students regardless of their geographic location (Klomp, 2020). For example, during the COVID-19 pandemic, students across the world became online learners due the flexibility of online learning and advancements in technology.

Universities have proven that there is a growing revenue stream in less developed countries where accessibility to higher education remains in demand (Kalol, 2019, Idiegbeyn-Ose et al., 2019). Technology has influenced the increase of global education revenue, effectively shifting the balance of in-country enrollments to off-shore enrollments (Dennis, 2017). For example, in 2015 e-learning made up 22% of education in China and was estimated at $5.8 billion (USD) in revenue (Merola, 2017). TNE has grown dramatically in Asia and the Middle East largely due to accessible technology, with significant growth in China, Singapore, Malaysia and the United Arab Emirates (Marzheaus-Wood & Chatwood, 2014). This is possible due the development of education hubs wherein students select to stay in their home regions to access international higher learning (Lee, 2017). At the same time, students are gaining access to cross-border education through the use of technology advancements. Now, Asian and Middle Eastern students have more educational options and are considering
many factors when selecting higher education degree programs including program cost, academic quality, university reputation, and geographic location (Bayaci & Oz, 2019).

**Southeast Asia**

Today, Southeast Asia (SE Asia) is made up of the geographical locations: Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam (ASEAN, 2019). The population of these 10 countries makes up about 633 million people, with half of the population under the age of 30 (Hill et al., 2019). The presence of TNE models in SE Asia have been steadily increasing since the 1990s when Britain and Australia began delivering distance education (Ziguras, 2001). A characteristic assumed of SE Asia by Western education systems was that students would be most successful through authority-based teaching models that differ from less self-directed models of learning required by educational technology (Ziguras, 2001). Western systems expected that students would assimilate to existing TNE models rather than tailoring the learning experience to the local culture (Shing Ha, 1998, Smith & Smith, 1999). These assumptions slowed TNE growth in SE Asia. At the same time, countries in SE Asia, such as Indonesia, suffered from internet access disparities causing a stratification between urban and rural geographic locations (Sujarwoto & Tampubolon, 2016). Internet deficits allowed for a rise of educational technology across other parts of Asia including China, India, and East Asia (Japan, South Korea, Taiwan) due to economic development leaving SE Asia behind (Kim, 2016).

SE Asian countries have begun participating in the regionalization of higher education due to increased trade and investment as well as harmonization in regional education integration (Olds & Robertson, 2014). Harmonization refers to the idea of educational mobility and regional employment opportunities that creates a space for diverse cultures and educational systems (Sirta
et al., 2014). The economic value of education in Asia especially is directly correlated with higher earnings and skilled workers for a globalized workforce (Huang et al., 2014). A critique of the expansion of higher education is a phenomenon called “ant tribes,” wherein college students select institutions with heavy tuition costs but are unable to find a job post-graduation resulting in a loss on their investment (Mok et al., 2016; He & May, 2015). Glaeser and Lu (2018) argue, however, that education influences wages. For example, for every additional year of education, hourly earnings increased for workers by 8.36% (Glaeser & Lu, 2018).

SE Asia has recently experienced rapid economic growth, so extending educational access will continue to be a long-term challenge without the use of online learning. Although countries in SE Asia, like Indonesia and Cambodia, are improving quality assurance education policies, there is room for TNE due to enrollment gaps (Rany et al., 2012, Sunarto, 2017). Universities have the opportunity, post COVID-19, to use their resources and creativity to find ways to extend their programs beyond China, India, and East Asia to fill enrollment deficits and to address educational access gaps especially in SE Asia.

**Cultural Climate**

COVID-19 has had a large role in expanding the reach of TNE, however, cultural climate factors have and will continue to increase the demand for online cross-border learning as well. Cultural climate factors include economic, political and social dynamics of a culture as a result of globalization (Jibeen & Asad Khan, 2015). For example, neo-racism towards international students has played a role in the cultural and political climate in the U.S. since the terror attacks of September 11, 2001. Following the attacks, the U.S. experienced a reduction in international students in higher education due to systematic hurdles such as visas and cultural barriers. In one case study of international students' experiences in the U.S. students, experienced neo-racist
behaviors including negative stereotypes and challenges to developing relationships at all levels of the university including instructors, advisors and peers (Lee & Rice, 2007). Over the last 19 years, barriers in the U.S. continue to intensify amidst the political climate. A term coined as the “Trump Effect” is a newer recognized phenomenon wherein the current U.S. president’s rhetoric and policies has precluded international scholars from seeking higher education abroad (Fischer, 2019). Beginning in 2017 nearly 17,000 students from Egypt and the Middle East faced uncertainty in their academic futures due to an executive order released by the U.S. President to ban travel between the United States and seven Muslim-majority countries (Fischer, 2017; Ortiz, 2017). Evidence of the “Trump Effect” can be seen in reduced enrollments in English-language programs intended for foreign students to improve language skills before embarking in degree programs. The enrollments for these types of programs have decreased 35% from 2015 causing campuses to close from California to New Jersey (Fischer, 2019).

When the political climate is unwelcoming to international students it has a direct impact on international student enrollment. In 2018, presidential rhetoric once again impacted international students as some Asian students had the length of their visa reduced by the U.S. State Department (Zamudio-Suarez, 2018). Although the State Department does not release student visa rejection statistics, a survey in 2018 by the Institute of International Education found that 83 percent of institutions who participated reported an increase of visa delays and denials that factored into declining enrollment numbers of international students (Baer, 2018). This is substantial because Asian students make-up two-thirds of all international students studying in the U.S. (Baer, 2018). Further, university administrators have struggled with assisting students through increased demands in navigating the visa process (Wong, 2019). Now, in 2020, Asian students are not only facing visa issues but neo-racism on U.S. campuses due to the COVID-19
outbreak. President Trump referred to COVID-19 as the “Chinese virus” causing a rise in anti-Asian and anti-Asian American racism (Redden, 2020). Various xenophobic behavior was reported on and off campus prior to students moving to an online platform, with Asian students sharing a fear for their safety (Liu, 2020; Mani, 2020; Ruf, 2020). There is no guarantee that higher education in the U.S. will remain accessible for Asian students if they are unable to maintain/obtain visas or if students will be willing to face a cultural climate that is learning to address anti-Asian racism.

**TNE: Online Learning and the Flipped Classroom Pedagogy**

Researchers argue that the use of technology in education increasingly demands a shift from a teaching to a learning paradigm (Hardy & Bower, 2004; O’Banion, 1999; Smolin & Lawless, 2003). This shift requires online instructors to take on roles such as mentors, coordinators, and facilitators of learning rather than conveyors of information (Boling et al., 2012). One of these teaching pedagogies used in online models is called a flipped classroom model. A flipped classroom, also known as an “inverted classroom” or “blended classroom,” is a classroom model wherein students learn to be independent learners and instructors facilitate this by incorporating technology into their teaching methods. The field of higher education has largely predicted that blended learning will increase significantly as a teaching method due to COVID-19 (Kim, 2020).

In this model, students prepare for class by reviewing course material prior to class, replacing typical classroom time with traditional after-lecture homework (Davies, et al., 2013). Researchers heavily study this education model in U.S. K-12 schools, finding that a flipped classroom has a more positive or neutral impact in comparison with traditional classroom teaching methods (Lo & Hew, 2017). Although studies have shown that flipped classroom
instruction has increased assessment scores (Kulik & Kulik, 1991; Sivin-Kachala, 1994), these studies are predominately focused on U.S. institutions with limited research for foreign student learning outcomes and perspectives of international online learning. Little research has addressed the teaching methods and student perceptions of online technology as a mode of education for international students in SE Asia.

Sense of belonging is important to consider in TNE models because the curriculum holds a relationship with multiple cultures (Glass, 2018). Research has shown that students experience academic success when they feel a sense of belonging and their culture is supported (Finn, 1989; Glass, 2018; Goodenow, 1993; Hausman et al., 2007). The flipped classroom model allows for cross-border learning, education that takes place across cultures, but it is unclear how students experience a sense of connection to their institution and what role that connection plays in learning. The flipped classroom model is a learning model that has grown in popularity in U.S. college classrooms, but it is not clear how this learning model has integrated across borders (Patel et al., 2019).

**Significance of the Study**

Educational technologies and blended online learning teaching pedagogies will have a role in meeting the demands of global education in a post COVID-19 world, and have a role in meeting enrollment demands in SE Asia (Dans, 2020; Mathewson, 2020; Olivier, 2020). The rise of online student engagement for international students is growing and has the potential to increase further because online platforms offer flexible learning, reduced costs for students, and convenience for international student populations to engage in cross-border education (Hung & Tsai, 2018). The value of researchers studying the benefits and barriers of online learning models and teaching pedagogies for cross-border students in higher education is significant to
institutions because understanding how students experience sense of belonging through online learning may yield informative retention and persistence practices for a growing demographic of higher education (Museus et al., 2017). Further, there are large financial implications for cross-border learning growth as the U.S. higher education system faces large deficits and reduced enrollment rates stateside (St. Amour, 2020).

As higher education accessibility increases across the world through technology, it is important to consider how TNE uses technology to support the growing demands of HEIs. Over a 10-year period (2008-2018), Stewart (2019) found that existing literature surrounding TNE models focuses on common types of TNE models such as in-country models and blended models, but the field lacks a complex understanding of distance learners who are using the internet to gain a global education (Francios, 2016). Although international education research has increased over time, the conversation around digital tools and online teaching pedagogies for SE Asian students is missing from the scholarly conversation. Higher education research needs to closely observe how TNE models utilize technology to engage with new student populations and to consider the cultural climate (Hausman et al., 2007; Stewart, 2019). Online education needs to be examined from a multi-dimensional level, including the learning management systems (LMS), the U.S. Instructors and administrators, and the international students, to inform and improve models of TNE that utilize educational technology.

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this qualitative case study is to understand the experience of international students who are taking online coursework through a flipped classroom model, a new teaching pedagogy being offered through the University of Arizona (UAzona) Microcampuses (MC)
(White, 2017). This study intends to understand how SE Asian, in Indonesia and Cambodia, students perceive their online course experience in relation to their sense of belonging by observing how the students interact with the course design through the flipped classroom teaching model. This study will use the Theory of Transactional Distance (TTD) (Moore, 1993) and sense of belonging as a lens to focus on how SE Asian students engage with course content and their cohort through the MC TNE model. After first observing student engagement in their online classrooms, this study explores student perceptions of their online and flipped classroom experience through the lens of sense of belonging by conducting phenomenological interviews after students have completed their coursework.

The intention of this study was to explore international student perceptions of their blended TNE experience in order to further the existing conversation around online cross-border learning and technology solutions for a global population of higher education seekers in a post COVID-19 world. This study focuses on three types of interactions in blended learning: relationship between peers, relationship between instructor to student, and between student and course content by considering multiple perspectives (Bernard et al., 2004). The perceptions of the U.S. Instructors who delivered the content online served as the basis for understanding the teaching and learning taking place in the flipped classroom model. Administrators and lecturers also played an important role in understanding the facilitation of this learning model. This study also examined the role of the LMS as a teaching engagement tool to support learning within this pedagogy. This study unveiled implications and best practices for course designers, administrators, students and instructors that may be used to enhance course delivery and learning outcomes in online TNE models. Further, this study may influence future development of transnational education models designed for cross-cultural populations as well as
inform universities about SE Asian student experiences online. Furthermore, this study will contribute to best practices for online education TNE models for SE Asian students in a global market.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Traditional higher education institutions (HEIs) have evolved and are delivering academia in innovative ways to the globalized world (Knight, 2005). The examination of terminologies in TNE is important because many concepts in internationalization do not have a single definition (Knight, 2004). After providing a context for these terms and concepts this study will move from a larger viewpoint of globalization to a focused gap in the literature. The literature review will narrow in scope by reviewing several common modes of TNE, yielding to a new mixed model of TNE developed in 2015 at the University of Arizona (UA) called “Microcampus” (MC) (Fredde, 2018). The emerging MC model can only be understood after examination of the models it borrows from and their challenges. One of the learning modalities offered in the MC is the Flipped Classroom Model (FCM), offering a new teaching pedagogy not explored in other TNE models. At the same time the MC shares similar risks, benefits and partnerships of other TNE models. The literature review narrows further by providing a detailed description of how the MC model uses both online technology and a flipped classroom teaching method, leading to a research gap in current TNE literature. The literature review next examines the flipped classroom-teaching model by framing the teaching model in transactional distance theory and sense of belonging. The literature review then considers the historical context, educational quality and modernization of Indonesia and Cambodia in order to emphasize the need to study this region. The literature review concludes with student perceptions of their online experience to support the theoretical framework and the study’s research questions.

Terms and Concepts

In order to understand the evolution of TNE, the literature review will first explore extant literature and terminologies related to cross-border learning.
Cross-border/Off-shore/Borderless Education

Cross-border education offers a generic definition; the mobility of education over national jurisdictional and/or geographic borders (Knight, 2005). The terms cross border, borderless education, offshore, and transnational are frequently used interchangeably to describe the mobility of students, instructors, institutions, curriculum and programs that allow for educational mobility and cross-cultural exchange programs (Varghese, 2018). Coined in Australia, the term “offshore education” describes international student enrollments of all offshore arrangements including twinning, franchise, distance learning or at branch campuses, which will be discussed in detail later in the literature review (Knight, 2005). Borderless education more often refers to online education or distance learning (Kelly & Shing Ha, 1998).

Globalization and Internationalization

Globalization and internationalization are key components of TNE. Although they have distinct connotations to their meanings in higher education, they are interrelated as causes of increased global demand for higher education mobility (Altbach, 2016). Globalization in higher education describes an economic process of moving goods and consumers across borders where students are consumers (Rooijen, 2013). Altbach and Knight (2007) theorize that globalization contextualizes economic and academic trends. An example of globalization would be systematic movement toward a knowledge society (Altbach, 2004). Through the process of developing higher education globally, universities have become interdependent with the economy and have moved toward globalization. Higher education institutions’ motivators for these strategic partnerships include the pursuit of prestige and increased revenue streams (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Countries across the world are making strategic moves toward building university
partnerships with each other in order to increase their economic impact and strength through collaboration by exporting and importing knowledge and education.

In the context of higher education, internationalization is “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2003, pg. 2). Internationalization in higher education enables globalization by providing tangible results such as student learning outcomes and academic mobility (Knight, 2012). Fundamentally, internationalization provides the process of exchanging teaching, research and distribution of higher education globally (Rezaei et al., 2018). Another way of understanding internationalization is to understand the growth of student mobility as a response to globalization in higher education (Van der Wende, 1997). An additional example of internationalization’s transformative influence in TNE is the rise of transnational agreements and arrangements between partnering universities (Bordogna, 2017). Internationalization includes study-abroad experiences (Soria & Trosi, 2013), heightened foreign-language curriculum (Ngoc et al., 2018), global research (Jibeen & Asad Khan, 2015), and pathways for international students to experience cross-cultural perspectives (Li, 2018). The deliverables of internationalization outcomes include relationship building, teaching, research, and service at both the institutional level and the global level (Knight, 2004).

**International Student**

The evolution of international student mobility and accessibility has called for a clear definition of the term “international student.” Definitions and identifying factors of an international student vary by university, country, and time period. A common understanding of the term international student was adopted in 2006 by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural
Organization (UNESCO) (Clark, 2009): “students who have crossed a national or territorial border for the purpose of education and are now enrolled outside their country of origin” (UNESCO, 2020). The terms foreign and international student were previously used interchangeably to describe student mobility since the 1980s (Altbach, 1989). The broader definition of international student received criticism when considering “foreign” students vs. “international” students. There is a distinct understanding, however, between international vs. foreign student definitions; a foreign student is described as an immigrant or permanent resident who does not have citizenship status to their country of origin and may not have not crossed a border to study (GLOBAL, 2009).

With the evolution of TNE, universities have increased cross-border mediums through educational hubs and online education, however, the field of HE has yet to update a definition for either student identifier. This lack of a clear definition is problematic in cases where the host university does not require students to travel across borders for their enrollment, but their enrollment status is hosted in another country. Not all students who participate in TNE are considered international students, especially in cases of established branch campuses where the students are not international students, but attend an international branch campus. With no clear definition on this matter, researchers have called for additional studies to understand international student choice; for example, if attending an international university in the student’s home country means the student is an international student (Wilkins & Huisman, 2011). Due to a lack of clarity in the field, this study uses the term “international student” to describe a student who aims to receive a degree from a different country from where they consider their home region. Based on available definitions in existing literature, this definition is inclusive of foreign students. For example, if a student is enrolled in a degree program in the U.S., but taking courses
in their home country of Cambodia (not dependent of citizenship), they would be considered an international student following UNESCO’s definition as they are obtaining a degree through a cross-border medium. The student is enrolled in an institution outside of their country of origin. This definition was supported after spending time on two campuses in SE Asia, wherein the students self-identified as international students earning a degree from an institution located outside of their home country. Although the material and content were delivered in their home country, students were earning a cross-border degree and felt like international students.

**Models of Transnational Education**

TNE represents the most advanced stages of internationalization because internationalization has moved from an early stage of exporting education to multiple delivery methods (Healey, 2018). This change is largely due to increased student mobility and the types of educational providers. This section describes seven common types of TNE models used today to situate how an MC fits into TNE. These forms of TNE include franchising, branch campuses, twinning, joint degree programs, dual degree programs, off-shore learning, for-profit corporations, and distance learning. After describing the intricacies of each model, this section explores the benefits and risks associated for both students and the institutions. This section also examines teaching models used in each form of TNE. This section then introduces a new mixed method of TNE called a Microcampus (MC) that uses the Flipped Classroom Model (FCM) as one of the learning platforms available to TNE students. To conclude, this section explores the critiques of higher education access.

**Franchising**

Franchises are a common form of TNE because in a franchise relationship, one academic institution exports their academic program to another HEI in another country. Franchising is
when the institution establishes a permanent base with another HEI across borders (British Council, 2012). Academic franchises can be beneficial to both the student consumer and institution because of the exchange of resources. For example, the collaborating institution may receive increased student numbers, a raised international profile, and increased income. At the same time, the student consumer may have access to increased academic expertise, something that can be difficult in typical HEIs. In low-income countries, an HEI may not have the qualified staff to maintain programs (Pon & Ritchie, 2014). Interestingly, this benefit may change over time. For example, foreign nationals who were educated in the United States were more competitive than their American counterparts because of their ability to navigate the English system while also filling in any cultural gaps not accounted for by the system (Webb et al., 1999). When educational opportunity grows, so does the qualified workforce.

One of the risks that students face in a franchise model is how quality assurance is regulated. It is well understood that franchising is a revenue generating business model. The risk in this model surrounds the quality of the educational content and the ability level of admitted students as this model is designed around fiscal yields (Stella & Gnanam, 2004). In most franchising cases, the credits are subject to an internal institutional monitoring process versus an external monitoring process seen in other models (Pon & Ritchie, 2014). In the late 1990s, models of quality assurance aimed to set guidelines to provide minimum standards for higher education. This process produces complications as regions across the world have varying ideologies and standards of competent curriculum, instructors and student services. The student consumers must do their own research to ensure they are selecting a franchised institution that supports quality control. A franchise university may seem like a risk worth taking for a student consumer, as franchise institutions are significantly cheaper than their parent institution (the
franchisor), about one-fourth to one-third the cost (Gu¨ru¨z., 2008). The teaching models vary in
this TNE because it is dependent on the parent institution, though most often, interactions are
face-to-face lectures.

**International Branch Campus**

International branch campuses (IBC) are the most commonly understood form of TNE. IBCs operate using the name of an established higher education institution or in partnership with an established institution as a joint venture (Verbik, 2015). IBCs are often used interchangeably with the term branch campus. IBCs are distinctive from other forms of TNE because they require a physical presence within the host country. Interestingly, this TNE model may require a partnership with a local institution (Altbach, 2015). These campuses thrive on the popularity of the foreign institution’s name and/or the programs offered. Prestige-seeking motivators also shape IBCs, which can be beneficial to the parent institution and harmful to the student consumer if the local culture is neglected by university motives (Tayar & Jack, 2013). Common difficulties include campus locations (accessibility of transit), enrollment numbers, competing universities and an unstable economy (Healy, 2015). Today, there are almost 250 IBCs across the world serving almost 200,000 students (Crist, 2017). China leads the world in hosting IBCs with 32 partnerships, followed by United Arab Emirates, Singapore, Malaysia and Qatar. These top five education hubs make up almost 40% of all IBCs and nearly 98 host sites (C-BERT, 2016). The success of an IBC proves that there is room for MCs to grow.

Overall, the growth of IBCs has been beneficial for local students as the competition between institutions drives tuition prices down and allows for student choice. Branch campuses can be beneficial to students living in areas with few tertiary options or if a campus can offer a program or specificity that is not offered in their home country. The difference between an IBC
and a franchise campus is not necessarily made clear to students, so the benefits and risks are similar to that of the franchise model. Ultimately, IBCs offer a lower cost option for students who may face financial hardship and visa issues than studying in another country. Additionally, classes at IBCs are typically offered in English, thus bolstering an opportunity to practice and understand a global language. Other benefits of an IBC for a parent institution include opportunities to conduct research, enhance global ranking and reputation, and build an alumni network abroad (Garrett, 2018). Students who study at an IBC may be more inclined to go to an established campus as there is a risk involved for students when an institution is developing overseas (Woodhouse, 2006). Students certainly take a risk in selecting new programs, however, only 10% of IBCs have failed since the 1950s, meaning students have relatively low risk (Crist, 2017).

**Twinning Model**

The commercial presence of IBCs has led to new establishments and partnerships called, “twinning partnerships” or “twinned programs.” The credits a student takes in a program allows credits to be counted in both the host country and the parent institutional country, although only one qualification is awarded from the parent institution. Simply put, the twinning model offers an articulation system where a student can transfer pre-approved credits to their home institution towards degree completion. The awarding of credits takes place within national regulations. Therefore, the partnerships must fall within the national regulations of the awarding institution.

Twinning partnerships are less expensive for institutions than franchising and IBCs because they require a pre-negotiated curriculum in conjunction with an existing institution. Not all twinning programs offer students the opportunity to stay in their home country for the entire duration of the program. Twinning programs fall into three main categories, 3+0, 3+1 or 2+1 models. The
3+0 model is the most fiscally beneficial for students, as students can earn a degree that is conferred by an overseas university without ever having to leave their home country. In the 3+1 model and the 2+1 model, students must travel to the sponsoring university for a year to complete their program.

One of the benefits of creating a twinning partnership is that it increases international student enrollment numbers for the home campus while adding prestige and resources to the host campus (Armstrong, 2007). On the other hand, Altbach (2007) argues that the main concern in the twinning model concerns the quality of teaching at the twinned campus. In most cases, the faculty and instructors of the twinning partnership are host university in-country nationals and not faculty of the awarding institution as seen in the IBC model (Altbach, 2007). The twinning model is most seen in the education hub of Malaysia (Altbach, 2013). The popularity of the twinning model could be due to the cost savings benefits offered to students through this model. The main risk in the model is the potential for lower teaching standards.

**Joint Degree Model**

Twinning is different than a double degree or a “joint degree.” The “joint degree” is when the idea of a parent institution dissolves as both institutions become providers of education to award one degree. In this model, collaborations between institutions offer a singular program that is awarded from both institutions (Knight, 2002). Transparency between the student consumer and the institution can cause the student risk due to lack of information and clarity on how the earned credits will articulate. The credits are a collaboration between both institutions and must fall in accordance with the national regulations of both countries to work (Knight, 2002).
Students aiming to complete their doctoral degrees may be most interested in the joint degree model. In the competitive market of academia, not all PhD students will be able to find qualified work post completion. Joint PhD programs offer students a chance to broaden their education training to an international level while also broadening their research capacities abroad (Albtach, 2013). The joint PhD is specifically helpful for those studying topics that would benefit from collaboration and networking, introducing doctoral students to inter-sectoral mobility (Kehm, 2006). In this model, particularly when considering doctoral students, difficulty between collaborators may arise due to a difference in standards and expectations for degree conferment. For example, both institutions must agree on admission standards, amount of credit hours, funding, and where tuition fees should be paid. Although there are many difficult factors in determining a joint degree, graduate level joint degree options many continue to rise with globalization. This model also uses a face-to-face teaching method.

**Double/Dual Degree Model**

In the “double” or “dual” degree model, a student consumer will receive one degree from two or more institutions. The double or “dual degree” model takes the joint degree a step further by awarding two separate degrees, one from each of the institutions in partnership. Undergraduate students benefit from dual programs, especially if they aim to leverage research opportunities at both universities. Universities favor these partnerships because the programs prepare a globalized workforce, as the programs include cross-cultural immersion (Asgary & Robbert, 2010). Although this model allows for globalization, it is also limited in nature as students may have difficulty entering these programs without English speaking skills. Over 90% of dual degree programs are taught in English and less than 15% of host countries offer English training programs (Kuder & Obst, 2009).
For those students who do have sufficient language skills, they can earn their dual degree in two major fields. For example, Zhejiang University (ZJU), one of the most prominent universities in China, holds undergraduate degree programs in engineering in partnership with University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Institute (UIUC) wherein a student can earn a mechanical engineering degree and a computer engineering degree simultaneously (Zhejiang University, 2018). Students must apply to both institutions, but tuition is paid to the “home institution” where the student holds citizenship. Thus, Chinese students pay tuition to ZJU and American students pay tuition to UIUC. A benefit of this program is that students are mixed with domestic students of each country, providing improved language skills and potential student integration to the host campus. Although a dual degree reduces costs overall, especially if the tuition is offered at the local institution’s price, the programs can still be expensive as they can take up to five years instead of the traditional four to complete both degrees. Again, this model usually uses the face-to-face teaching method.

Large Corporations/For-profit Model

Student consumers may have a hard time deciphering between a for-profit HEI and a non-profit HEI, as financial gains are important to all institutions. The definition of a for-profit educational model can vary by country, as higher education laws rarely define it within their regulations (Levy, 2006). Nevertheless, the for-profit model is very attractive to students. The top three providers internationally include Apollo, which is known as University of Phoenix in the United States, Laureate University (formally known as Sylvan) and Whitney International (Balan, 2008). In 2016, Laureate University, the largest for-profit institution in the world, has attracted more than one million students in 25 countries with 88% of those students studying in developing countries (Laureate, 2016). Unlike the other models, this for-profit institution focuses
on Latin American markets, which is not one of the global education hubs. Laureate continues to be popular in Latin America, despite losing their accreditation in one of their Chilean schools and being sued several times for quality assurance issues (Gately, 2015).

Although for-profit institutions generate high revenue streams, their tuition is on par with public university charges and usually less than private college tuition. For example, Laureate ended 2017 with revenue of $4.378 million, an increase of $133.8 million from the year prior (Laureate, 2018). High revenue returns are likely because for-profit institutions spend less per student than any of the other models (Coleman & Vedder, 2008), which is due to high enrollment numbers and types of resources used. For example, a faculty member can build a class that can be used and taught by various instructors, cutting costs of expensive faculty, allowing the for-profit to easily reproduce classes both in person and online. Regulation complexities and quality assurance are certainly common issues for large corporations that operate internationally, but at the same time, they do not have to abide by partner institution’s rules and regulations in-country, and can create terms directly with the local and national government systems. As developing countries strive to increase equality, for-profits are defining policies that can enable and disable educational mobility. Proponents of this model would argue that for-profit international HEIs are providing accessibility to a developing world.

**Distance Learning Model**

Distance learning, also called E-Learning or online learning, is growing in popularity across the world. In this model, instruction is given to students through various technologies and the students are physically separated from their instructors. Online learning is not only for international students but is available to all students; it can be consumed by physically moving to a country where the education is located and/or through attending the university while remaining
in the students’ home country. Even in regions with well establish HEIs, the educational climate is changing from physical space to an online space. From 2012-2015, the U.S. saw nearly a million-student drop-off rate in students studying on campus (Digital Learning Compass, 2017). This decline does not demonstrate that students have stopped attending college; instead, almost 30% of students studying in the U.S. are enrolled in at least one distance learning course (Digital Learning Compass, 2017). This figure shows that traditional HEIs are starting to evolve in creating online curricula to meet their changing student consumer base. Even when HEIs are physically accessible, online education holds a strong market, which is significant to TNE because HEIs in the US are starting to create online courses that could be used for international consumption.

The main benefit of the distance learning model is accessibility. In a 2017 survey the World Economic Forum (WEF) surveyed more than 26,000 young people across the world and found that access to quality education is one of largest factors contributing to inequality (2017). Distance learning has been central in expanding accessibility to higher education in developing countries. Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), free courses open to all, are now available at more than 140 universities (University of Oxford, 2015). While these courses do not necessarily earn students a degree, the massive growth shows that online education is becoming widely accessible. In a 2016 WEF survey, 778% of 25,000 respondents reported they had taken an online course (Yu & Hu, 2016). This survey result is substantial, indicating that online education and distance learning models may replace traditional HEIs. Critics of this model, however, argue that the quality of teaching is not as high through online programs and that students are unable to persist with the same learning outcomes as they would if they had selected an in-person class
Nevertheless, the numbers are showing that distance learning provides accessibility and is growing globally to meet student demands for quality education.

**Microcampus**

TNE providers are moving towards delivery options that combine multiple models of TNE that will be explored in this section of the literature review (Ennew & Fujia, 2009). The relatively TNE location for delivery is a Microcampus (MC). The MC is an example of a mixed model that is worth further exploration due to its ability to use several modalities and not a single mode of delivery. For example, one of the learning modalities used in some MC includes the Flipped Classroom Model (FCM). In this section, the literature review will first describe a MC and then explain this form of TNE as a mixed model in relation to existing models explained previously. Then, it will highlight the unique learning modality of the FCM.

**What is a Microcampus?**

A MC is a TNE model where the parent institution partners with an international university to award up to two degrees, one from each institution (University of Arizona, 2020). The international partner university provides physical logistics, such as space, classrooms and traditional student services, which reduces costs to the parent institution (University of Arizona, 2020). Both the parent institution and the partner institution share tuition. MCs offer accessible high-quality education because the tuition for a MC is offered based on the local economy, which is a positive factor for local students as it increases affordability and access (White, 2017). According to Brent White, Vice Provost of UA Global at the University of Arizona, “The micro-campus itself becomes a platform for lots of things we care about for comprehensive internationalization, including faculty training, providing opportunities for students to study abroad on short-term experiences, for internships and other forms of engaged learning” (Redden,
The MC model leverages technology to make education accessible (White, 2017). Students at some MC locations learn through a Flipped Classroom Model (FCM) wherein a U.S. Instructor from the parent university provides lectures through an online format and a co-professor facilitates in-person classes in order to provide a local context for the material and a chance for the students to apply what they have learned (White, 2017). The MC model also utilizes online education technologies to deliver content (University of Arizona, 2020). The benefits are multi-faceted, as students can earn an international degree without a large financial burden. At the same time, students who study at a MC extend the visibility and reach of the parent institution.

**Microcampus as a Mixed Transnational Education Model**

The Microcampus (MC) model provides a location for TNE delivery using multiple modalities of learning based on geographic needs, partner institution and programs available at each location. The MC model infuses several aspects of TNE models by blending them together. Brent White calls this form of TNE “comprehensive internationalization” because the MC platform is multi-faceted in its approach to delivering higher education (Redden, 2017). For example, one benefit not shown in the other TNE models is that the MC model offers the opportunity to extend research centers globally through their campus partner sites (White, 2017).

Although there are factors that differ, the MC model pulls from existing models. Similar to the franchise model, the MC model exports classes that have been previously developed for the parent institution, making them available to the MC campus. The MC model provides parent institutions with quality assurance that the franchise model is unable to control because faculty members from the parent institution are involved in developing and teaching the classes. The MC model also mixes in aspects of the IBC by recognizing the value of having a physical
location. For example, the MC has a branded, physical space on each partner institution’s campus. Further, instead of being in competition with a well-founded university, the MC collaborates and shares resources that some IBCs fail to share. This mutual collaboration is significant to the foundation of a MC; the competition for international students is important to both partnering universities’ revenue streams. In addition, this model is fiscally beneficial to the students. By working with existing resources at a partner institution the MC can reduce students’ costs (Fredde, 2018). The MC model also mixes in twinning, joint and dual degree TNE models. For example, MCs twin existing programs, such as business and law while also offering a joint or dual degree that gives students an option to either complete the host institution degree and/or earn a dual degree; meaning that the credits transfer to the partner institution.

It is important to note that the MC is constantly evolving with TNE. This study focused on the early implementation of the MC, Fall 2017-Fall 2019. As the MC continues to build new partnerships and increase volume in new regions, the MC will change the learning modalities and blended TNE method used. By pulling from various TNE models, the MC provides a blended approach to higher education delivery for international students. Education hubs are becoming saturated with IBCs, franchises, and twinning programs. At the same time, these hubs are building on their own top programs and earning international recognition in their own right. For these reasons, MCs will find challenges in the spaces/locations where they build partnerships and collaborations.

**Growth and Challenges of Microcampuses**

**Online Learning.** One learning modality the MC uses is online learning, a growing medium for teaching and learning in TNE with unique challenges, as a medium for teaching and learning. By 1997 more than 760 institutions in the U.S. offered “distance” learning courses or
online learning courses (Song et al., 2004). Today, 82% of U.S. institutions are growing their online programs to increase accessibility to non-traditional students (Dennis, 2017). Key findings from Song and colleagues’ (2004) exploration into what makes online learners successful show course design, personal time management skills, and students’ technological abilities are significant to their success. Challenges arose for students when they had technical problems, difficulty understanding the learning objectives of the course and felt an overall lack of community and sense of belonging. A common challenge between online learning and the flipped classroom model is the learner’s motivation to complete the course, with the most satisfied online course students considering their personal motivation as a reason they were satisfied (Salmon et al., 2016; Yilmaz, 2017).

Online classes face the challenge of actively engaging with students. Students tend to withdraw or disengage from the content if the course lacks engagement (Murphy & Stewart, 2017). Melody Buckner, Associate Vice Provost of Digital Learning Initiatives and Online Education at the University of Arizona understands the critique but offers, “You can make online just as rich and engaging, and in some cases more, because online is more student-centered than face-to-face teaching” (Berrett, 2016). In a student-centered online classroom, students have a role in creating knowledge to demonstrate their understanding (Knowlton, 2002). An example of an engaging practice would be online discussion forums (ODFs) wherein students can socialize with peers, contribute new ideas, and connect to faculty (Dalelio, 2013). In a study conducted in Turkey, ODFs had an impact on student learning by creating a collaborative and social environment resulting in increased student achievement (Gharmallah, 2017). Another way students experience engagement is through peer-to-peer feedback. One study that focused on
1,740 Hong Kong students found that peer feedback engages student learning and promotes social integration (Liu & Carless, 2006).

In online learning, feedback typically takes place asynchronously, allowing students to stay connected at all times. Peer-to-peer feedback has a role in improving the quality of the course by providing a medium for connection and discourse (Van Popta, et al., 2014). When students do not receive feedback in an online course, whether it be from an instructor or a peer, they are more likely to withdraw from the online course (Ertmer et al., 2007). Despite the challenge of creating online engagement, one study found that only 1/3 of students would take a class face-to-face after taking an online class (Jones & Blankenship, 2018). It is unclear from the literature if international students face unique challenges with online technology and how the flipped classroom model is used to enhance sense of belonging.

**Learning Management System.** Students largely interact with their online learning through a Learning Management System (LMS). The term LMS or LMSs is typically used to describe the platform or content host site used to provide e-learning or distance learning (Ilyas et al., 2017). The LMS platform allows instructors to administer and virtually engage with students in order to support the learning process (Dulkaman & Ali, 2016). LMSs provide a virtual learning environment for online learning, blended courses, and traditional courses (Hershey & Wood, 2011). Understanding the LMS platform is imperative to understanding how learning evolves and how faculty adapt to technological advancements and tools (Rhode et al., 2017). For example, the educational tools available through the LMS can be designed for collaboration and student engagement. However, a tool may not always be useful if the student is unable to reach the desired learning outcomes (Ilyas et al., 2017). Criticisms of LMS include a lack of engagement from instructor to student and student to student, in comparison to the typical
classroom experience through traditional courses (Sajjanhar, 2012). Further, the attitude of both instructors and students towards the LMS learning tools has an impact on student engagement (Zanjani et al., 2016). The learning design and learning activities also impact how students perform and engage with the LMS (Rienties, 2105). At the same time, research has highlighted that there are positive associations between student engagement outcomes and LMS courses (DeLone & McLean, 1992; Klobas & McGill, 2010).

When a course is designed to engage students, there is a higher likelihood of academic success. For example, in 2017 Swart’s study focused on reflective self-assessment as a way to promote student engagement for an electrical engineering course. The study found that students who engaged in self-reflection had a 50% higher likelihood of achieving academic success in the course (Swart, 2017). By examining the LMS used through the Microcampus, this study becomes more generalizable as most universities across the globe use LMS platforms not only for their online courses but for traditional courses as well (Aldiab et al., 2019).

**Flipped Classrooms Risks and Benefits.** Researchers have noted many benefits of the online learning flipped classroom teaching pedagogy, including more time for student engagement (Baepler et al., 2014; DeLozier & Rhodes, 2017; Holik, 2016; Milman, 2012). A teaching pedagogy is defined as “any conscious activity by one person designed to enhance learning in another” (Watkins & Mortimore, 1999, p.3). In other words, the teaching pedagogy is an approach to teaching by focusing on students as learners. For example, in the teaching pedagogy of the flipped classroom model, students experience increased active learning, resulting in increased student performance for students in science, engineering and math (Freeman et al., 2014).
While there are many positives to the flipped classroom as a teaching pedagogy, there can be significant drawbacks if it is not employed effectively (Milman, 2012). Three primary challenges found in U.S. studies of the flipped classroom model include faculty challenges, operational challenges and student-related challenges (Betihavas et al., 2016). Faculty challenges included additional preparation time for in-class activities and increased grading for assignments (Critz & Knight, 2013). Operational challenges include access to high-speed internet and a lack of technology support, especially for students in remote locations (Missildine et al., 2013). Student-related challenges include student adjustment to the learning model and additional independent learning (Missildine et al., 2013). However, as the course continues students’ dissatisfactions lessons as students adjust and adapt to the learning model (Simpson & Richards, 2015). Although flipped classroom models can yield positive outcomes, they risk negative outcomes as well. For example, teachers’ technological aptitude can be a drawback and reduce effectiveness and learning outcomes (Milman, 2012). Those critical of the flipped classroom model explain learning outcomes are a consequence of active and engaged learning provided by an instructor rather than the practice of the flipped model (Jensen et al., 2018). Flipped classrooms are gaining popularity, yet this teaching pedagogy is still a relatively new phenomenon in higher education (Karabulut-Illgu et al., 2017).

The challenges students, faculty and designers may face in creating cross-border education needs to be examined further to elucidate how the operational factors and faculty instruction can meet the needs of international students through cultural humility. By studying international students, especially in countries in SE Asia, is significant as this population of students is missing from the research on the flipped classroom model.

**Southeast Asia and Higher Education**
Southeast Asia (SE Asia) is a unique geographical area with a wide-range of populations, sizes, cultures, economic systems and political ideologies. Most of the region shares the common experience of education systems being heavily influenced by colonialism (Lee, 2007). In this section of the literature review, a brief history of the development of TNE in two countries selected for this study due to their geographic location and relationship with the MC is highlighted: Indonesia and Cambodia. The purpose of this section is to provide a contextual overview to the higher education access gap and lack of research of student perspectives in online learning and the flipped classroom teaching pedagogies in these two countries.

Indonesia

*Historical Context*

Indonesia’s relationship with higher education has been turbulent with many cross-cultural influences. Higher education began before colonial influences when non-formal Islamic education took place in mosques (Lee, 2007). The region was influenced by the Dutch when the Netherlands East Indies developed a medical school as a form of colonialism to teach native Indonesians in the mid-1800s (Buchori & Malik, 2004). By the early 1900s an engineering college was established that would later become a government facility (Fahmi, 2007). World War I caused the first growth of higher education due to an increased need for professionals such as engineers, lawyers and doctors (Fahmi, 2007). Although there was a growth of educational options, institutional demographics favored European and Chinese students causing a stratification of access for indigenous Indonesian students (Thomas, 1973). Dutch dominance came to an end after the Japanese invasion between 1942 and 1945 when higher education was prohibited (Thomas, 1973). Following the Japanese invasion, Indonesia claimed independence in 1945 and began developing two universities; one that was based on Dutch influence called,
University of Indonesia, and a second based off Egyptian Islamic roots, Gadjah Mada University (Pannen, 2018). These two universities increased enrollment rates from 1,600 to 5,200 students in a five-year span (Buchori & Malik, 2004). The enrollment boom led to the development of additional universities such as National University in Jakarta and Indonesian Islamic University in Jogjakarta (Fahmi, 2007). By 1960, Indonesia developed 53 public universities due to a government shift (Wahid, 2018).

Although higher education grew tremendously between the 1950-1960s in Indonesia, the country was strapped for resources. For example, physical infrastructures, including access to books and publication, laboratory equipment, and a lack of lectures created a call for international support (Altbach, 2004; Fahmi, 2007). Indonesia became dependent on the former Soviet Union for continuation of improving the education sector, resulting in the highest level of international support across all non-socialist countries (Wahid, 2018). Student activists, however, rallied against the political use of universities causing Sukarno, Indonesia’s President, to stop further development of Indonesian universities (Wahid, 2018). Despite the growth in educational options, accessibility to higher education continued to be problematic; almost 70% of the 15-year-old+ population had not completed primary education (Barro & Lee, 2011).

**Educational Access and Quality Control Challenges**

The nation’s higher education system provided both academic and professional pathways for degree completion but continued educational stratification. By the 1970s a second wave of growth came when the country developed vocational education, including the establishment of 23 polytechnics (Pannen, 2018). The HEI growth in the 1970s -1980s was largely due to the development of the Higher Education Long Term Strategy (HELTS) (Pannen, 2018). The strategy focused on regional and national development, which included distance learning (Fahmi,
2007). Indonesia experienced an oil boom in the late 1970s through the 1980s, which helped to develop a middle class, allowing access to education for those who could afford entrance. However, not all students managed to gain access despite the development of additional pathways (Jamshidi et al., 2012).

Despite economic growth in the previous decade, the 1990s introduced the privatization of HEIs through TNE in reaction to the currency crisis Asia experienced. This time period led to a decentralized government role in HEIs allowing for competition between private institutions to drive the market. With the expansion of private universities came concerns of educational quality and access issues for those unable to afford private fees (Welch, 2007). Although only about 1% of the population in the 1990s attended HEIs, 80% of the enrollments occurred through private education (Idrus, 1999). At the same time, private education lacked quality control, with very few private institutions offering high quality education (Sriwidadi et al., 2016).

Educational quality and access in both the private and public sector continues to be a challenge in Indonesia despite the return of a centralized government (Wicaksono & Friawan, 2011). Even if a private university is of high quality, stratification of higher education in Indonesia exists because the financial system lacks finance options for private education (Chapman & Suryadarma, 2013). For example, by 2006 the stratification of HEIs became more evident when looking at HEI enrollment levels based on income; the lowest 40% made up only 2.67% of enrollees whereas those at the highest 20% income made up nearly 40% of enrollees (Wicaksono & Friawan, 2011). In the 2000s, HEIs were the lowest priority for the Indonesia government, with a majority of the education budget allotted for primary and secondary education, with little to no aide for students attending private institutions (Wicaksono & Friawan, 2011). The financial constraints of the education budget called for higher demands of private
providers to provide quality education and a call for self-funding for students (Lee, 2008; Shah & Lewis, 2010).

Modernization and Transnational Education Growth

In 2012 the Ministry of Education passed the Higher Education Act which aimed to increase internationalization and the entrance of foreign universities (Logli, 2016). The act requires HEIs to be responsible for their academic outcomes causing a more competitive educational market. It also called for an increase in TNE in-country, aiming to recruit students from Malaysia and Thailand (Indonesia’s Higher Education Sector, 2019). By 2018, Indonesia permitted international branch campuses (IBCs) to operate within the country. Allowing IBCs into Indonesia increased educational access, as up until 2017 Indonesia had one of the lowest rates of students participating in international education. The development of TNE is estimated to grow significantly to alleviate access barriers. The financial limitations previously mentioned may be reduced when students have more affordable options and access to cross-border institutions within their own country via TNE (Dilas et al., 2019).

Indonesia is diverse both culturally and geographically. The country is home to more than 2.7 million people (Indonesia, 2020) consisting of more than 300 ethnic groups and more than 100 languages spoken (Dilas et al., 2019). Indonesia remains the highest Muslim population in the world, which is significant as TNE considers cultural humility in course design and delivery. In spite of the large population and growth of higher education, Indonesia faces one of the lowest literacy rates in SE Asia, with only about half of 15 year olds considered functionally literate (ready for the labor force) (World Bank, 2018). At the same time, there has been huge strides in degree attainment with about 12% of the 25-64 population earning a tertiary degree, which is a stark increase from 2006 (World Bank, 2018). Currently, there are four types of HEIs: public,
private, secular or religious, and academic specialization (such as polytechnic) (Logli, 2016). The growth in degree completion is largely due to private institutions and TNE; out of 4,500 HEIs available in Indonesia, 90% are privately owned (World Bank, 2018). Private education does not necessarily provide a higher quality of education, but private education is meeting consumer demands in Indonesia. TNE and private degree options will continue to be in demand because 40% of Indonesia’s population is under the age of 25 (World Bank, 2018). Despite the delivery options and expansion of higher education, public HEIs do not meet the growing demands of the student population calling for an increase in TNE (Wicaksono & Friawan, 2011). Understanding the role of colonialism in Indonesia’s higher education system is important to acknowledge as new forms of TNE develop with a sense of cultural humility. While there is extant literature describing the growth and demand for TNE, there is little research describing how Indonesian students adapt to TNE models, especially with new technologies and teaching pedagogies such as online learning and the flipped classroom model.

Cambodia

_Historical Context_

The development of higher education in Cambodia is rooted in a robust history of diverse ideologies and politicizations. These influences include, “traditionalism, colonialism, Buddhist socialism, monarchy, republicanism, Maoist communism, Vietnamese communism, United Nations transactional authority, and a hybrid democracy” (Rany et al., 2012, p.226). Higher education began in the 12th century and persisted through the support of temples, allowing for doctoral degrees in culture and religion until around the 15th century (Rany et al., 2012). Due to invasions from Thailand and Vietnam early, institutions were closed until the 17th and 18th centuries (Rany et al., 2012). France heavily colonized Cambodia’s education system by
establishing public education at the primary level. Education became a requirement in Cambodia by 1915 when the Cambodia Civil Code required parents to provide education for their children where students would learn mathematics and basic Khmer (Kheang et al., 2018). Despite the growth at the lower education levels, higher education was limited to those with resources; those with the financial means would attend higher education outside of Cambodia in France or Vietnam (Rany et al., 2012). Not surprisingly, a majority of schools suffered from a lack of resources and cooperation to send children to school. Although school was “required,” secondary education was only accessible by the wealthy (Fergusson & Masson, 1997). Education was halted a second time during the cold war in 1970 due to the genocide by Khmer Rouge (Ayres, 2000). During this time period all school facilities and equipment were destroyed, causing education to end at all levels (Clayton, 1998). Cambodia experienced extreme instability and tragedy to their education system over a 23-year period (1970-1993). More specifically, during the Democratic Kampuchea regime many of Cambodia’s academics were killed in a genocide (Rany et al., 2012).

### Educational Access and Quality Control Challenges

Educational access since 1993 has largely been due to international financial resources putting external pressure to force growth within an education crisis in Cambodia (Ayres, 2000). Essentially, the educational system had the challenge of navigating outside forces from numerous entities including the World Bank, Asian Development Bank, Japanese, American, and French influences (Duggan, 1996). Cambodians were recovering from a horrific genocide, and trying to develop an education system to serve a traumatized society. Studies have shown that children who experience genocide have worse educational outcomes even after education systems have been re-established (Ghobarah et al., 2004; Islam et al., 2017). For example,
although primary schools were re-established and enrollment rates started off high, the completion rate was only 46.8% with nearly half of students dropping out of school before grade six (Kim & Rouse, 2011). One factor associated with the high drop-out rates is a lack of resources to train teachers, despite efforts to restore teacher trainings (Benveniste et al., 2008). Although access to primary education has little to do with socio-economic status, a cycle of poor educational quality exists because inadequately trained teachers produce a student pool unable to improve the educational quality (Madhur, 2014). A consequence students face in Cambodia is low employment rates for those who manage to graduate from university due to low quality of higher education and teaching inefficiencies (Vicheth, 2012). Further, employers report that there is a mismatch of degree offerings and skills employers need (Vicheth, 2012). Although Cambodia had world attention, educational quality was sacrificed at the rate of rapid educational growth (Ahrens & McNamra, 2013).

**Modernization and Transnational Education Growth**

Cambodia has experienced massification of HEIs through public, private and TNE growth since the late 1990s. Access to higher education in Cambodia was relatively new in comparison with other countries in the region due to a turbulent history, allowing for massive growth. For example, in a 30-year period (1997-2017) Cambodia went from eight public institutions to 121, including 73 private institutions (Un & Sok, 2018). In this same time period enrollment rates went from around 10,000 students to nearly 220,000 (Un & Sok, 2018). Although there has been a growth of institutions, out of all SE Asia countries, Cambodia has the lowest amount of HEI enrollees at 11% in comparison to its neighbors (Vietnam, 23%; Thailand, 46%) (Un & Sok, 2018). One reason Cambodia is behind other countries in terms of lower
enrollment rates is due to lack of English learning (Clayton, 2008), as many TNE partners and private institutions operate in English.

Cambodia has begun to participate in internationalization by introducing English language learning into the education system in order to increase graduate employability, international business opportunities and relationships with neighboring countries who conduct business in English (Hashim et al., 2014). Although Cambodia’s Ministry of Education is addressing internationalization, systematic bureaucracy has caused a slow-down of advancement due to numerous education managers (around 15) who must approve even minor changes to education programs and trainings (Hayden, 2019). Thus, TNE and private institutions quickly adapt to student demands at a faster rate than public institutions.

Although Cambodia has seen an explosion of higher education in the last three decades, little research has been conducted about student experiences with TNE models. More specifically, online learning models through cross-border education is missing from the scholarly narrative. Many studies focus on Cambodia’s deficits rather than the learning models that will assist Cambodians to reach their goal of increased accessibility and employability.

Summary of Literature Review

This literature review began with an overview of international education terms and key forces to conceptualize international student growth. Following the exploration of the most common types of TNE, the literature review explored a new model of TNE called a Microcampus (MC). The MC is unique to TNE for several reasons including the usage of online learning and the flipped classroom teaching pedagogy as one of the learning modalities in Indonesia and Cambodia. After exploring the historical context and development of TNE in Indonesia and Cambodia, the literature review introduced the lack of research of student learning
experiences with a flipped classroom model teaching pedagogy in higher education.

Understanding the student experience of TNE is important to address because it is missing from the scholarly conversation. This research will continue to be important because of the growing demand of TNE in Indonesia and Cambodia and the call for educational quality as an accessible gateway for cross-border degree completion, especially in a post-COVID world.

**Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework is designed to use theory as a blueprint for understanding the phenomenon taking place in the study (Maxwell, 2012; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Robson, 2011). Essentially, the conceptual framework helps connect the key factors and concepts presented in this proposal to theory (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Through this conceptual framework, a blueprint is presented to clarify how the concepts inform the design of this study by explaining the Theory of Transactional Distance (TTD) (Moore, 1997). The framework then challenges the existing theory by adding an additional dimension that considers the theory of sense of belonging. Sense of belonging is an important concept in online education because of the direct impact on student success, retention and completion. To exploring the role of sense of belonging through TTD, this conceptual framework considers course design, students’ relationship with faculty, and the role of cultural humility as a teaching pedagogy. A visualization of the conceptual framework is presented at the end.

**Theory of Transactional Distance**

Moore’s Theory of Transactional Distance (TTD) offers this study a lens to conceptualize how international students perceive an online classroom setting. Moore argues that in distance learning it is important to understand the dialogue of the student with the design of the class, including the teacher to student, student to student and student to content experience (Falloon,
TTD was the first pedagogical theory to focus on learning through technology as opposed to previous theories based on learning in a physical classroom and serves as a core theory in distance education (Giossos et al., 2009). In this theory, Moore emphasizes the relationship between structure and learner in how dialogue is formed between the teacher and student.

TTD considers three main factors: dialogue (any two-way communication), structure (course design and flexibility) and learning autonomy of the student (interdependence perceived by the student) (Moore, 1997). TTD identifies six instructional processes necessary in structured distance programs. These instructional processes include: presentation, support of the learner’s motivation, stimulate analysis and criticism, instructional advice and counsel, arrangement of practice, application testing and evaluation, and the arrangement for the student to create knowledge (Moore, 1997). Although students in this study are primarily learning through distance education, this TNE model also uses the flipped classroom. TTD offers a conceptual framework for the distance-learning portion of an academic experience. Critics suggest, however, that TTD is limited in scope as it most often used to compare face-to-face interaction vs. distance education (Gorsky & Caspi, 2005). Due to the unique teaching method of a flipped classroom, this study adds a dimension to TTD by considering a concept in student development theory and expanding the reach of the TTD framework. This study connects Moore’s three main factors in TTD with a sense of belonging.

**Sense of Belonging Theory**

Research points to academic success when international students foster a sense of belonging (Glass, 2018). Also described as belongingness (Finn, 1989), sense of belonging is where the student feels “accepted, respected, included and supported by others” in an academic setting (Goodenow, 1993). Sense of belonging has a direct impact on a student’s intention to
persist towards degree completion (Hausman et al., 2007). Sense of belonging has been explored from various perspectives including sense of connection to campus (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), sense of inclusion (Phua & Jin, 2011) and sense of relationship (Phelps, 2016). Sense of belonging in an online setting can be described as the community developed from the student’s ability to connect instructors, peers and content (Picciano, 2002). The idea of sense of belonging is important in TNE models; how an international student relates to their learning informs their identity and sense of belonging or not belonging to the community (Slaten, et al., 2016). Sense of belonging is especially important in the online learning environment because students have feelings of isolation and disconnection (Kebritchi et al., 2017).

To build a sense of belonging in an online course, designers maximize student opportunities to connect online to their peers (Association, 2008). This requires online instructional designers and instructors to consider cultural contexts by applying inclusive design into teaching and learning principles (Palmer & Captuo, 2003). For example, Wurtz (2005) examined how different cultures navigate online learning design based in culture. The study found that images play an important role in Asian countries such as Japan, China and Korea. The study also found in English speaking countries, textual contexts are more understandable. Another study found negative student outcomes were more common in online education if the student came from disadvantaged backgrounds or less-privileged student populations (Jaggars & Xu, 2015). The U.S. Instructors and instructional designers know very little about the student backgrounds of their students in the MC modality examined in this study. To address the challenge of accessibility, designing a course with cultural contexts is very important.

Online courses have unique challenges in comparison to courses that take place in a physical space when considering dialogue between teacher-student and student-student
communication (Reeves et al., 2002). One specific challenge designers face is creating a sense of belonging online. TTD can be revised by considering the student development theory of sense of belonging. Research so far has been limited to looking at SE Asian students studying in other countries versus an in-depth look at what it means to have cross-border education delivered in their home country. Although sense of belonging has been understood as important for racial and ethnic minority students because their academic experiences are influenced by their sense of belonging (Hurtardo & Carter, 1997), the extent to which a sense of belonging applies for SE Asian students in the flipped classroom TNE model remains unknown. Sense of belonging theory is relevant for underrepresented groups because it has a direct implication on student outcomes, including student persistence, mattering and student wellbeing (Supiano, 2018). Sense of belonging has a large impact on student retention and loss of revenue for universities in the U.S. (O’Keeffee, 2013), an implication that further validates the need to add sense of belonging to TTD for international students studying in MCs. By combining TTD and sense of belonging theory, this study considers student perceptions of the role of dialogue, learning autonomy and course structure in their sense of belonging.

**Relationship Building with Faculty**

Faculty play a role in students’ perceived connectedness to the course and to their confidence towards their learning outcomes (Martin et al., 2018). Implications from various studies address the difficulty the instructor may face in translating their course from a classroom to an online format (Chi-Sing & Beverly, 2008). The physical distance between instructor and student can cause unrealistic expectations of an instructor, such as being online continuously; therefore, the instructor is dependent on creating effective learning strategies that include feedback, collaboration and participation (Dunlap, 2005). Yet, there are few studies that
consider international student populations and how sense of belonging is created between instructor and student in TNE online models. This research can be impactful as international students experience a sense of belonging when faculty demonstrate openness to diversity (Glass et al. 2017). For example, international students would like to connect to their faculty and peers by continuing with relationships post-graduation in order to build a network with their faculty and peers (Glass, 2018). In the TNE microcampus model, the student is receiving support from multiple levels, from the content and curriculum design to the faculty interactions. By looking at sense of belonging through multiple dimensions, this research has a chance to better understand how a sense of belonging is created through online learning pedagogies.

**Cultural Climate and Consciousness**

Sense of belonging is created when institutions validate student cultures (Museus et al., 2018). Online learning models sometimes use a “one-size-fits-all” approach (Gillett-Swan, 2017). Previous research has articulated the importance of cultural consciousness wherein cultural validation of student backgrounds plays a role in student success cultures (Museus et al., 2017). Not all student development theory shares a consciousness of cultural validation. For example, a social integrationist perspective developed through Tinto’s theory of student integration (1987) called for successful students to assimilate to their campus climate, emphasizing the role the of the student to adapt. Tierney (1999), on the other hand, highlighted the role of the institution to remove the burden of integration from the student to the institution in order to culturally validate student identities. Museus (2011) supported Tierney’s framework further by accentuating the role of the institution to develop sense of belonging through cultural integration. Cultural integration takes place through three institutional levels of cultural
validation: academic, social and cultural spheres (Museus et al., 2016). Adding cultural integration into cross-border online learning is important because it creates a sense of belonging.

**Cultural Competence vs. Cultural Humility Teaching Pedagogy**

Developing intercultural competence is a component of culturally diverse cross-border education learning outcomes (Danso, 2018). Cultural competency has been loosely articulated through the lens of internationalization wherein the development of intercultural competence is dependent on cultural learning outcomes (Knight, 2007). Students who experience cross-border education gain a global skillset that benefits classroom discussion, faculty discourse and the overall institution (Stronkorst, 2005). In a 2013 study Trede and colleagues found that most internationally focused programs lack inclusion of intercultural pedagogies into their learning outcomes. Essentially, having an international experience or having an international student in the classroom does not assure that intercultural learning is taking place or that all cultures are being considered. One of the main critiques of cultural competency is that the shift of power is with the privileged culture, meaning the dominant cultural is not addressing cultural diversity effectively (Garran & Rozas, 2013). Critics of cultural competence learning pedagogies offer instead a new lens of teaching called cultural humility.

Cultural humility, “involves entering a relationship with another person with the intention of honoring their beliefs, customs, and values” (Stubbe, 2020). In other words, cultural competency would call for an institution to recognize a religious holiday and to allow assignments to be made up. Cultural humility would take it a step further, by scheduling the assignment around the holiday acknowledging another culture structurally. Moving towards cultural humility is significant for the MC flipped classroom model because the learning incorporates a local lens. Although the material is based in the U.S., the partner institution and
their cultural values play a heavy role in the learning outcomes for students. Although cultural humility is a new learning pedagogy, it can have a role in students’ sense of belonging and whether they feel that the cross-border institution values their culture and belief system.

Conceptual Diagram

In this conceptual diagram, the three elements of TTD theory are highlighted as dialogue, learning autonomy of the student and structure. Sense of belonging is added to the theory at the base of the diagram to show that a sense of belonging also has a connection to the three elements of TTD. By considering sense of belonging as a guiding theory in this study, one gains a deeper understanding how the flipped classroom engages international student learning. Sense of belonging touches on each aspect of TTD, from how students interact through dialogue, to how the students feel about their interdependence and learning autonomy. One of the key elements of this study is how sense of belonging impacts the structure of the course design and how the cultural needs are met through transnational education.

Figure 2.1

Conceptual Framework
Conceptual map of the Theory of Transactional Distance Theory with Sense of Belonging showing how Sense of Belonging connects to each aspect of TTD.
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to examine student experiences in online learning TNE models through the flipped classroom pedagogy to understand how dialogue, learning autonomy and course structure engages TNE students in their learning and sense of belonging. This qualitative case study was conducted to gain an in-depth understanding of the student experience, including how students perceived sense of belonging in a TNE model. This study utilized a qualitative approach to understand student experiences with the Flipped Classroom Model (FCM). Further, this study selected the Microcampus (MC) as a platform for understanding the FCM because the MC uses this unique learning modality in Cambodia and Indonesia. The study took place in an early phase of the MC, Fall 2019. Qualitative research provides the opportunity to connect with participants on a human level, wherein, researchers can organize complex thoughts and relationships into a process (Corbin & Strauss, 2007). By using the qualitative method, researchers can discover the inner experience of their subjects by finding meaning of a phenomenon through the lens of the participants (Creswell, 2009). A case study approach is valid in this research because the interviews allowed for “how” and “why” questions in an environment that was observable without manipulations (Yin, 2003). Through an exploratory case study method, one can understand participants in a situation with no single set of outcomes (Yin, 2003).

This chapter will detail the methodical approach used to conduct this qualitative case study. After introducing the research questions and the connection to the contextual framework, the research design is described, including the reasoning for a qualitative study and the need for a triangulation method that includes in-depth interviews, classroom observations and document analysis of the LMS platform D2L. Then, the process of data collection including the site
locations, participants, coursework selected, informed consent and recruitment of the participants is discussed, followed by a description of the approach to data analysis, including coding themes and the use of NVivo to discover commonalities across interviews. Additionally, this study’s validity and reliability is discussed, incorporating the researcher’s own positionality and study’s limitations. The chapter concludes with a summary of the methodology.

Two frameworks were used to conceptualize the research questions for this study. First, Moore’s Theory of Transactional Distance (TTD) informs the analysis of each sub-research question, as each question was framed around the three main elements of TTD: dialogue, learning autonomy and structure. In this framework Moore (1997) describes the importance of the relationship between the student and the structure of the course, including the relationship between teacher and student. Through this learning model the student has a relationship with two teachers, one in the U.S. and one in their locality. The TTD framework is not traditionally used in higher education research. The second framework used, sense of belonging, however, is more commonly seen in higher education student development theory. Sense of belonging gives a lens for TTD and provides a lens to navigate how participants perceive their experience with the flipped classroom pedagogy.

**Research Questions**

The principal research questions for this study were:

Research Question 1 (RQ1) on Structure: How does the course design and structure influence students’ sense of belonging as perceived by students in a flipped classroom transnational education model?

Sub question: How does the flipped model take into account cultural perspectives of cross-cultural learning?
Research Question 2 (RQ2) on Learning Autonomy: How does the flipped classroom pedagogy engage students and promote learning in an online transnational education model?

Sub question: How do students perceive their role as learners?

Research Question 3 (RQ3) on Dialogue: What are the experiences of U.S. instructors and lecturers in engaging with students in a flipped classroom transnational education model?

Sub question: How do the instructors and lecturers provide support and build a sense of belonging in the course?

**Data Collection**

Data collected in case studies should include multiple sources of data (Scholz & Tietii, 2002), which for this study included interviews, classroom observations, and document analysis of a Learning Management System (LMS). This section will highlight the participants’ research site locations that participated in this study. Then, it will review the methodology for interviews, in-person classroom observations, and LMS document analysis by considering a description of the method, the sample, and how the data analysis was conducted.

**Research Site Locations**

Site locations were selected based on a gap in the scholarly literature around online learning and sense of belonging in TNE models in SE Asia and their relationship to the MC modality that used the flipped classroom pedagogy in Fall 2019. The literature review highlights the large gap of scholarly work in Indonesia and Cambodia, two countries where TNE is growing and online learning is fairly new in comparison to neighboring countries in the region. The U.S. location selected in this study is a provider of TNE to these two countries. Brief descriptions of the campus location and type of institution used in each location are provided.

*University of Arizona*
The U.S. campus that provides the TNE MC model is located at a public university. The campus has an undergraduate enrollment of more than 35,000 students and has expanded their online learning program heavily over the last five years. Their online learning program boasts a high national ranking, a top 15 program of 353 (Prevenas, 2020). In the programs in this study, Engineering tied at 13 of 96 and Business tied for a top 10 program of 335 (Prevenas, 2020). This research institution has a land-grant mission to serve local and state-wide students. The direction of the institution has changed over time to include a global context, with a recent growth in developing global campuses.

Indonesia

The MC partnership is with a small private university located in a major metropolis in Indonesia. The Indonesian university was developed in the early 2010s and has a student enrollment of around 250-300 students. Most students attending this university were awarded financial assistance ranging from small awards to full tuition coverage. Every student who participated in this study shared that they had a significant financial scholarship that included funding for housing. Students at this university who are enrolled in the MC model take up to eight classes a semester, balancing regional requirements as well as requirements from the MC. Classes are offered Monday-Saturday. The region has a slow internet connection causing a high need for the use of the university’s facilities that includes a stronger internet connection. This campus offers Business and Engineering for degree programs in connection to the MC model. Lecturers on this campus are all from Indonesia and although they speak Indonesian, they hold all their classes in English.

Cambodia
The MC partnership is with a small, private institution in Cambodia that boasts the only U.S. dual accredited degree for students. The brand-new facility accommodates up to 4,000 students, however, the exact enrollment number is unclear. Several degree programs are offered in connection to the MC model including Law, Engineering and Business. Classes offered through the MC flipped classroom boast small classroom sizes as few as six students. Lecturers for the MC model on this campus are a mix of international and Cambodian lecturers.

**Participants**

Participants were selected based on how their role intersects with engaging the learning model and included the following groups: U.S. instructors, in-person lecturers, administrators and students. U.S. instructors included those who built curriculum and content, those who engage with students, as well as those who engage with the curriculum and content. The term U.S. Instructors is used to describe the instructors based in the U.S. In-person lecturers, titled “Global Lecturers,” teach the in-person portion of the course and engage with students, U.S. Instructors and administrators. Due to the confusion student participants had with term “Global Lecturer” and because this study is student focused, I have selected to use the term students’ use for their local instructor, “lecturer,” throughout this dissertation instead of “Global Lecturer.” The term lecturer is to refer to the local, on-the-ground instructors who co-teach in the FCM. Administrators work with both students and lecturers, and they also provided a background of the cultural climate. Students tended to be in their third and fourth year of their degree programs and were selected for their strong English skills as well as their duration of time in the learning model.

*Informed Consent and Recruitment*
Once a participant agreed to be in the study, they were emailed additional information about the study with a consent form or described the study and presented the consent form during the interview. Participants all selected to hold their interviews in-person, with a few participants requesting that their peers or colleagues also be present. Allowing the participant to select the setting was important to creating a natural conversational environment (Creswell, 2014). Interviews were conducted in English and language barriers did not seem to be of consequence with the exception of professional titles. In this study the term “lecturers” is used because both students and lecturers were confused about the term “Global Lecturers” since “Global Lecturers” were located locally, and the main campus was located globally. Students often became confused in interviews referring to the U.S. instructors as the “Global Lecturers.” After this issue came up several times, original questions were rephrased to adapt to the local culture, turning “Global Lecturer” to local lecturer for the participants’ benefit. All interviews were conducted at the convenience and availability of each participant.

All interviews followed the “Global Presence Interview Protocol” required for instructors and staff conducting research abroad. This protocol requires using two recording devices to be later transcribed by the researcher. Despite the attempt for a double recording, equipment did fail on two occasions; however, notes were taken to capture significant information and provide detailed observations (Creswell, 2014). Access to the LMS platform D2L was given at the discretion of the U.S. instructor. Classroom observations were conducted with the permission of the lecturer and comfort of the students.

The study reduced bias by actively changing the order of interview questions. For example, in the student interview questions asked students to describe the benefits and challenges they face in the flipped classroom model. To reduce leading questions, the researcher
would alternate the order of the questions. If the first student was asked what the benefits were first, the second student would be asked what the challenges were first, and so on. The intention was to make sure that each question had the same chance of being answered authentically without the preceding question influencing the outcome of the study. If the challenging perspective was always questioned first it may have had a negative impact on how the students answered the question.

U.S. Instructor participants for this study were recruited based on their relationship with the MC model. Several participants and non-participants expressed a fear of participating due to the small sample size of possible participants. A list of possible instructor participants was curated for me by the administrators who facilitate the MC model. The list was fairly small, as the flipped classroom model is limited to select countries and coursework. Instead of working off the list provided, the administrators sent out my Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved email of recruitment. This email allowed for instructors to decide on their own if they would participate. During interviews several instructors shared that they would prefer for their gender identity, department identity, teaching location, and length of experience in the MC model to be removed from the study. For these reasons non-gender pronouns will be used to describe instructors in the findings portion of this dissertation. The instructors that participated in the study provided consent to allow me to observe their D2L page and made me an observer in order to have class access.

Lecturer participants for this study were recruited if their co-instructor member also participated in the study. The U.S. instructor had a conversation with the lecturer to make sure they were comfortable with all elements of this study including the classroom observation portion. Lecturers were comfortable with participating in in-depth interviews, but hesitant for
classroom observations. Lecturers needed assurance that the researcher did not work on the administrative side of the university and the results of the study would not be used as an evaluation of their teaching, but rather as an understanding of the flipped classroom model. The classroom observation was conducted in-person, which allowed for in-person interviews. Observations were conducted during the last week of classes in each location to allow for the lecturer and students to have at least one semester participating in the flipped classes before describing the experience. Lecturers were emailed dates ahead of time for when the observation would be taking place. Then, each lecturer emailed a consent form that included the time/date of their class for a classroom observation. Before arriving to one class, the lecturer informed the researcher that the students no longer wanted to be observed because they felt uncomfortable; however, after the students had the opportunity to observe the researcher in the hallway, the students changed their mind and allowed the class observation to take place.

Administrators in Cambodia and Indonesia were recruited to participate by the site-host. Each site-host shared with the campus the dates and times the researcher would be at each site. Administrators wanted to share the cultural context. Administrator interviews often went over the 30-minute time period as they had much to share about the MC model from numerous perspectives, U.S. instructors, lecturers and students.

Student participants made up the largest group of participants for this study and were recruited by their lecturer. They picked the time they wanted to interview based on a sign-up sheet showing the times the researcher was available during the in-person visit. Lecturers asked their students to select a 30-minute time that worked in their schedules. Interviews were held in an available office on each campus. Students would come to the interviews and sign a consent form after listening to an explanation of the purpose of the study. Students varied in their reasons
to participate. Some students wanted to participate so they could practice their English, and others wanted to meet the researcher visiting from the U.S., while some may have been encouraged by their lecturer to participate based on their high achievements in the course. Students felt very comfortable participating and only ended interviews early if they realized they had a class to attend. Questions for students were different from the questions posed to the U.S. instructors, lecturers and administrators.

**Interviews**

A phenomenological interview approach allows for the interviewer to understand participant experiences in order to make meaning of that experience (Seidman, 2013). In-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with students, U.S. Instructors, lecturers (Global Lecturers), and administrators who intersect with the MC model to find connections and unveil natural phenomena according to the participants’ viewpoints. Although some may argue that a quantitative method would better articulate how the students experienced the course, there are limitations. For example, a student may receive a higher grade in an online course, which may be interpreted as the student has a strong understanding of the material. However, a student’s grade may not be indicative of their student experience. A qualitative approach conversely unveils what about the course was engaging for student learning. Yet, an argument against the use of interviews could be the language barriers between the interviewer and participants. However, the participation sites selected for this study conduct their courses in English, and any language barrier was reduced by repeating questions and allowing for enough time for each participant to express themselves through active listening. Additionally, participants who were unwilling or uncomfortable to engage with the questions had the option to quit the interview or share that they would not like their answer to be a part of the study. There were several questions that
participants asked to have their responses as “off the record,” or participants asked to skip questions. Despite possible critiques of the qualitative method, the interviews allowed for a deeper understanding of students’ engagement with their online course and flipped model facilitator.

Sample

Interviews considered multiple perspectives, including those of the U.S. instructors, lecturers, students and administrators in three countries. Thirty student participants were studying Engineering and Business in Cambodia and Indonesia. Nine “Global Lectures,” titled “lecturers” throughout this dissertation were also from Cambodia and Indonesia. Two of the lecturers in Cambodia were non-locals to the region. All the Indonesia lecturers were from the region. Six administrators were interviewed in Indonesia and Cambodia, though two of the administrators were from the U.S. Finally, four U.S. instructors were interviewed in Arizona. U.S. instructor titles ranged from Lecturer, Adjunct Faculty, Faculty, and Instructor. Therefore, throughout this study the term “U.S. Instructor” is used to describe all U.S. instructors. One interview turned into a group interview in Indonesia, which included both administrators and lecturers. In total 40 interviews took place over a 3-month period. Table 3.1 displays the sample participants:

Table 3.1

Participant Interviews
Qualitative In-depth interviews in Cambodia, Indonesia and the U.S. The table highlights a focus of Business and Engineering with a total of 40 interviews and 49 participants.

Data Analysis

Interviews were key to this study because open-ended questions needed to be asked to understand the benefits and barriers students faced in their flipped classroom learning environment, which is especially important for students in Cambodia and Indonesia, as they often had fairly short answers to the prescribed questions. The probing follow-up questions allowed for a deeper understanding of their experience. Further, in-depth, in-person interviews allowed for immediate follow-up and the ability to ask the participant for clarification. The open-ended questions allowed for participants to maximize their responses and reduced any possible limitations of not having a deep understanding of the local culture. Moreover, the semi-structured interview allowed the participants to reconstruct their experiences; a key element of phenomenological interviewing wherein a participant shares both their past and present experiences with the phenomenon (Seidman, 2013). Although the MC FCM is a fairly new medium of TNE, the participant sampling was purposeful to allow for participants to share their past and present lived experiences. Although the interviews were open-ended, probing questions
helped clarify the value and importance of each participant’s viewpoint (Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

Although in-depth interviews are typically conducted one-on-one (Ryan et al., 2009), several of the students requested to be interviewed together. This study was designed for one-on-one student interviews, however, a group of business students asked for a joint interview. They wanted to hear each other's perspectives and support each other’s narratives. All of the preparation prior to my research visit suggested that one-on-one interviews allowed for a deeper connection and respected the privacy of the participant. However, these qualitative practices may not have been designed for students in SE Asia. I decided to conduct the interview with the group and learned how truly connected the students were to one another. These group interviews allowed the interviews to become a conversation, the group dynamic in these local cultures lent to easily building rapport between the interviewer and students. Administrators in both locations explained that students in each country prefer to spend time in community; privacy or personal safety were not of importance to the students. To facilitate the in-person interviews, it is important for participants to feel comfortable. Three in-depth group interviews in total took place. Interestingly, it was the Business students and instructors/administrators who wanted to be in community with others. Individually, lecturers were hesitant to share details of their experiences. However, when accompanied by their peers, they felt a sense of safety and opened up more. The student participants enjoyed listening to each other’s experiences and felt comfortable contradicting another student or taking the lead in answering a question. These group in-depth interviews were not a focus group, as the interview questions were not changed, and students were not told they were being recruited for a focus group. Rather, the qualitative technique of an in-depth interview may be limited in its practices to a western point of view.
Participants seemed to be most comfortable when they were among their peers. Of the 40 interviews, three interviews had more than one participant at the request of the participants.

Interview questions were curated to allow for participants to describe their experiences and to make meaning from those experiences (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Two separate sets of interviews (Appendix A and Appendix B) were designed for varying participants. The interview questions for the U.S. Instructors, lecturers and administrators focused on the teaching pedagogy and how their course was designed to enhance student learning and sense of belonging. One key element in the questions to understand how students experience sense of belonging was question 10: “How would you describe the type of students who tend to participate in this type of learning (in terms of demographics, SES, etc.)?” This question was very informative to research questions two and three, wherein course design has a role in creating a sense of belonging. The interview questions designed for students were focused on research question one, allowing for students to share their experience and perception in the flipped classroom pedagogy. Each set of interview questions relied on the TTD framework with elements of dialogue, learning autonomy and structure. Both sets of interview questions were designed to be semi-structured, allowing for follow-up and probing questions when a participant shared their experience of a certain question.

**Coding Themes**

Interview data gathered from interviews were transcribed verbatim. Observation notes were compared to the transcripts which prepared the coding process to include both an inductive and deductive process. A deductive process was used preliminarily to anticipate coding themes, including: Teaching, Active Learning, Course Design, Participation, Peer-to-Peer, Relationship to U.S. instructors, Relationship to Global Lecturer, Videos, Technology, and Sense of Belonging. After coding the transcripts, new themes emerged through the inductive process,
including: Cultural Impacts, Student Challenges, Student Success, Communication and Power Dynamics. These themes were organized into four primary categories: Cultural Humility, Course Design, Student Perspectives, and Relationship Building. The program NVivo was used to code 40 interviews into 37 sub codes with 1,016 references.

**Figure 3.1**

*Interview Word Cloud for Coding Themes*

*Initial word cloud created through NVivo prior to coding highlights students as the focus of the study.*

**In-Person Classroom Observations**

Classroom observations are an important component of this study because of the usage of the in-person portion of the flipped classroom model. The researcher acted as a naturalist observer by observing how students engage with the course during their in-person class time without intervention (Angriosino, 2016; Jorgensen, 2015). In each classroom the researcher arrived prior to the course starting with the permission of the lecturer and sat at the back of the classroom taking observational notes. Occasionally, the lecturer would introduce the researcher’s
presence before or after the class. Each lecturer asked the class prior to my arrival if the class approved to have their class observed. In some cases, the researcher had already been introduced to some students or lecturer due to having already participated in an interview.

**Sample**

Classroom observations consisted of five courses. Class sizes ranged from five students to 33 students with one lecturer per course. Courses in Cambodia has significantly less students than the course in Indonesia due to the program size. In total, 109 students were observed along with five lecturers. Table 3.2 displays the sample population:

**Table 3.2**

*Classroom Observations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classroom Observations</th>
<th>Classroom 1</th>
<th>Classroom 2</th>
<th>Classroom 3</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Observed</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>109</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Classroom observations in Cambodia and Indonesia Microcampuses in six classrooms, the observations were done simultaneously with the interviews.*

**Data Analysis**

For effective data analysis of the classroom observations the Teaching Dimensions Observation Protocol (TDOP) was used. TDOP captures multiple dimensions of teaching and allows for the researcher to understand how teaching behaviors, instructional technology and the teaching pedagogies work together. Using the Teaching Dimensions Observation Protocol (TDOP) (Appendix F), I observed the class by using a set of codes to measure which teaching methods were being used in the classroom in addition to detailed note taking. Out of the 35 codes included in TDOP, instructors at the MC used 18 dimensions of TDOP seen in Table 3.3:
Table 3.3

*Teaching Dimensions Observation Protocol Codes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WP</td>
<td>Working out problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DW</td>
<td>Desk Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CB</td>
<td>Chalkboard/White Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS</td>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDQ</td>
<td>Instructor display question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRQ</td>
<td>Instructor rhetorical question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGW</td>
<td>Small group/work discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMP</td>
<td>Emphasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>Student response to teacher question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC-L</td>
<td>Socratic lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>PowerPoint or other digital slides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HUM</td>
<td>Humor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANEX</td>
<td>Anecdote/example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT</td>
<td>Administrative Task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNL</td>
<td>Making connections to own lives/specific cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LVIS</td>
<td>Lecturing from pre-made visuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SP</td>
<td>Student presentation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Summary of teaching dimensions used during in-class observations. This table highlights the codes and simple definitions for the codes observed.*

Further explanation of the codes with their full definitions is available in Appendix (F). Each minute of the classroom time was coded for teaching methods, student-teacher dialogue, instructional technology, potential student cognitive engagement and pedagogical strategies. Table 3.4 highlights how the classroom observations were coded using TDOP.

Table 3.4

*Classroom Observations*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classroom Observations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cambodia</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching Methods</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instructional Technology</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Potential Student Cognitive Engagement</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pedagogical Strategies</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student Engagement</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student-Teacher Dialogue</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR, IDQ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Indonesia**          |
| **Teaching Methods**   | **Observation 3** | **Observation 4** | **Observation 5** |
| SGW, SOC-L             | SOC-L             | AT, LVIS, SOC-L, SP |
| **Instructional Technology** | PP, CB |     |
| **Potential Student Cognitive Engagement** |     | CNL |
| EMP, HUM, ANEX         |     |     |
| **Student Engagement** |     |     |
| **Student-Teacher Dialogue** | **Observation 3** | **Observation 4** |
| IDQ                    | IRQ              |     |
This table reveals the method of how classroom observations the TDOP was used in each classroom observation.

Informal conversations were not recorded. However, they were included in the observation notes as a form of observing external markers of the community (Gonzalez et al., 2005). External markers included teaching materials, student behaviors towards peers and instructors, physical space and materials (i.e. desks, classroom sounds) that took place during the in-class observations.

Learning Management System Document Analysis

For this study, a document analysis method was developed to provide a systematic procedure for reviewing and evaluating documents to understand and elicit meaning of how students engage with their course (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The document analysis process uses the triangulation methodology, “a combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon” (Denzin, 1970, p.291). Essentially, triangulation unites the qualitative research with an additional data source (Bowen, 2009). Further, by adding a document analysis, the study reduces potential bias by implementing several sources of data and methods (Eisner, 1991). Through accessing the online platform Desire 2 Learn (D2L) individual behaviors were observed, along with how these behaviors indicate the complexities of the educational environment, which include the elements described in the TTD model (i.e. dialogue, learning autonomy and structure). During interviews students cited examples of challenges and benefits they experienced using the D2L platform. After examining the LMS platform, these challenges and benefits described during the interviews provided a clearer picture of the student experience.

Sample
The core of this study focused on Business and Engineering degree programs as these programs have been well established in the MC. Further, the campuses in Cambodia and Indonesia use the FCM as a mode of delivery. The first iteration of an online learning class is rarely perfect, but over time and through student and faculty feedback the classes evolve to meet learning objectives. Students in Business and Engineering courses have access to courses that have already received student and faculty feedback. Business and Engineering are also important course degrees for TNE because students can use these degrees both in their home countries and abroad.

Table 3.5

Document Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document Analysis</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Engineering</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Observed</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Classroom observations through D2L in Business and Engineering

Data Analysis

The study is focused on how students engage with the course, including the learning that takes place through the LMS. Document analysis for reviewing a higher education course typically includes a review of public records including syllabi (O’Leary, 2014). In this case, however, document analysis included computer-based and internet-transmitted materials, such as discussion boards, posts, announcements and activities through the LMS that provided transnational distance learning for the MC. The document analysis used a widely adopted set of standards considered best practices for online and hybrid education called the Quality Matters (QM) Rubric. QM has provided standards that have positive associations with foreign language
learning when a course is designed with a strong “humanized” sense of belonging between instructors and learners (Zumor & Wahed, 2014, p. 173). QM has been widely used in transnational education research including Lowenthal and Hodges (2019) study of quality in MOOCs and Alizadeh’s et al. (2019) study of undergraduate English learners studying in Japan through LMS. More specifically, Alizadeh et al. (2019) adopted QM to better evaluate the blended learning model, similar to the flipped classroom model used in this study.

The QM rubric includes 8 standards with annotations for blended courses: course interview and introduction, learning objectives (competencies), assessment and measurement, instructional materials, learning activities and learner interaction, course technology, learner support and accessibility and usability. The QM review process is time intensive and requires a peer review. For this study, the 42 specific review standards were reduced to 15 review standards that supplemented interview themes. For example, specific standard 6.4 on the QM rubric standard states, “The course provides learning with information on protecting their data and privacy.” Although that is important to overall course design, security and data protection did not come up as an interview theme. In the same general standard category is specific standard 6.3, which measures, “A variety of technology is used in this course.” Many students discussed the type of technology used in the course and said course technology options had an impact on their learning. Therefore, in the condensed QM rubric (Appendix C), specific review standards that related to student perspectives of the course were highlighted. The results of the condensed QM rubric used in this study are shown in Appendix D. Appendix E includes the full QM rubric.

Validity and Reliability

By selecting the triangulation method, this study aimed to ensure a high degree of validity and reliability. Maxwell (2004) developed five categories of measurement to validate
qualitative research: descriptive validity, interpretive validity, theoretical validity, generalizability and evaluative validity. This study benefits from descriptive validity wherein, researchers look at more than the text – in how the participants communicate. The online content was observed and descriptive validity was used throughout the interview process. Validity was ensured by documenting descriptions and observations throughout the data collection process, such as a triangulation qualitative method approach. of three types of sources that engage in the MC flipped classroom: in-depth interviews (students, U.S. Instructors, lecturers and administrators), LMS document analysis, and in-person classroom observations (Creswell & Miller, 2000). I selected to interview the U.S. Instructors prior to my departure to SE Asia to gain a baseline understanding of how the FCM works at the MC. When I arrived in SE Asia, the first triangulation method used was classroom observations. This allowed me to further understand how the FCM worked at the MC. Then interviews in both Cambodia and Indonesia included administrators, Lecturers and students. Each site ended with an interview from a key administrator because they offered a chance to follow-up on any questions that were unclear to me and could offer a multi-dimensional perspective, as students and Lecturers confide in them. Through these perspectives, I was able to identify themes, commonalities and contradictions and verify them through the last method used, the LMS document analysis. There, it became evident that the insight offered through in-depth interviews were reflected in the LMS document analysis.

Figure 3.2

Triangulation Analysis Method
This image shows how the three types of data sources are connected in the Triangulation method used in this study.

To address reliability through the descriptive validity, a self-reflection of positionality was used to safeguard any personal bias (Creswell, 2014). Participants often shared information outside the scope of the research questions. If those ideas and viewpoints were coded in the data, it was coded as contextual background but not a main theme of the study. Observational notes and descriptions provided a justification for coding analysis themes throughout the data collection, and a coding process, along with a clear rational for the data coding was developed based on the themes as they emerged. A rationale for the code themes to address interpretive validity in the findings is provided.

**Positionality**

International students have been integrated into my life since childhood in the early 90s. Growing up near University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA), my family participated in an
international student exchange program where international students lived in our family home. I lived with students from more than 10 countries by the age of 7, with sometimes as many as two students living with us at any-time. Although I was young, I was exposed to challenges and barriers students faced by studying in the U.S., even if they stayed with us for one month or one year. With a love for cultures I participated in Model United Nations and was the president of my college team. I spent time at the U.N. in NYC debating education rights for a global world. Following college, I spent time in the U.S. Peace Corps where I lived in the Philippines teaching English. My experience deepened my love for other cultures and shifted my career goals from law to international education. I returned to the U.S. to study higher education with a focus on global education. I hold a bias towards expanding cross-cultural education.

One question that came up in the interviews was my relationship to the university in this study. Although I am a PhD student in the higher education program, I also work full-time at the university with job functions that occasionally collaborate with the study abroad office. I teach classes at the university both as a T.A. and in a main instructor capacity. I have created collegiate level curriculum for the Honors College and have now taught 5 different courses and have been a T.A. for two online courses. I work on online course development for the Honors College, and have extensive knowledge of building online classes. I am very familiar with the LMS D2L. My experiences provide insight to the challenges and barriers students face as well as an understanding of the work load a U.S. Instructor and instructional designer experience to build quality content and curriculum. My professional background provides this study with an academic lens as well as an administrative perspective to online learning and international education.
I am actively involved in social justice initiatives. My main expertise outside of global education is service-learning education. I run a service-learning program and have extensive experience training and designing curriculum around cultural bias. This bias is reflected in the literature review where I examine cultural competency vs. cultural humility. Cultural humility is something I routinely teach all students I encounter through the service-learning program, and it is something I hope becomes a standard for online learning and cross-cultural learning.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study including cultural barriers, a Western qualitative approach and the researcher’s employment status with the University of Arizona, which means that the study is not generalizable because it is a case study. The cultural barriers included conducting the study in English. Although all participants and universities in this study use English as the official language, many participants are multi-lingual. The participants all had strong English-speaking skills. All courses used in this study were taught in English. Additionally, interview participants had strong English speaking skills.

Qualitative practices that were used in this study were learned in the U.S. and had a U.S. perspective. To address the U.S. lens used, I met with lecturers before the first course-observation in order to share information about TDOP and the coding process. One lecturer shared that there was not an observation process typically used in their country and that this was the first time they had had an observer. Further, lecturers shared that they had not been observed or had rarely been observed. This sentiment was shared by lecturers in both Indonesia and Cambodia. Although the method I selected for in-class observations, TDOP, had not been used yet, the participants approved of this method and were interested in the coding process. The limit offered in this section is that TDOP had not been previously used at either site. While this
method was new, it also offers new insight into a gap of methodologies available for in-person observations in cross-cultural settings.

Several participants felt reluctant to participate because of the researcher’s employment status, and they were curious about how the data collected would be used. The employment status may have caused participants to distrust the study and to shy away from answering questions fully. However, it also attracted students to participate because they were interested in asking what the experience on the campus in Tucson, Arizona would be like. A positive rapport was easily achieved. Participants clearly shared when they did not want something to be recorded or used in this dissertation. Their wishes were respected, and that content is not in this dissertation. Further, a majority of instructors/lecturers are male, making it evident when a female was participating in the study. Some female participants asked that their gender not be revealed.

Another limitation of the study was based on expressed fears from students, U.S. Instructors and lecturers: all groups shared a fear of consequence for participating in the study. Students feared if they were honest about the learning quality the partnership would disappear and that they would not graduate with a U.S. degree. Lecturers feared if they made suggestions or spoke about challenges, they could lose their positions or that it would reflect poorly on them. U.S. Instructors feared consequences of their critiques of the program, which caused several participants to request portions of their interviews to be removed from the study, and those portions have not been included in the coding process. At the same time however, participants in each group were excited to participate, to share their experience and eager to share feedback. A majority of, other participants felt comfortable sharing and answering all questions. Some
participants shared that this study calmed their fears because it was a chance to communicate their experience and be heard.

**Summary of Methodology**

This chapter revealed the methodical approach used to conduct this qualitative case study. The interview data gathered for this study included 40 in-depth interviews conducted from a range of 49 participants across three countries including U.S. Instructors, lecturers, administrators, and students. Several participants elected to hold their interview in community with their peers, an unexpected cultural phenomenon in both Indonesia and Cambodia. In addition to the interviews conducted, six classrooms were observed in-person using the “Teaching Dimensions Observation Protocol” (TDOP).

In the flipped classroom model (FCM), the learning also takes place online; therefore, the six classrooms observed in-person were also observed for their online LMS content through the online platform called Desire to Learn, (D2L). The research questions are at the center of the study and conceptualized through two frameworks, TTD and sense of belonging. This qualitative study was designed using the triangulation method that includes in-depth interviews, classroom observations and document analysis of the LMS platform D2L. Throughout this chapter an argument was made for this design structure producing strong validity and reliability of the structure while also acknowledging possible limitations. The chapter also includes personal bias through the positionality statement. Overall, the methodology chapter centers around the goals of this research, to understand the student experience of the flipped classroom method through TNE.
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS – RESEARCH QUESTION 1 – STRUCTURE AND STUDENTS’ SENSE OF BELONGING

RQ1: Structure: How does the course design and structure influence students' sense of belonging as perceived by students in a flipped classroom transnational education model?

Sub question: How does the flipped model take into account cultural perspectives of cross-cultural learning?

Research Question 1 (RQ1) considers how the structure of the MC course influences students' sense of belonging in the flipped classroom model (FCM). This section of the dissertation is split into two main parts to answer RQ1, Course Design and Sense of Belonging. Throughout both main sections, sub question will also be addressed by interweaving interviews from students, administrators, lecturers (in-person) and U.S. Instructors in order to consider cultural perspectives. In the section dedicated to Course Design, the findings will first explore how students interacted with the Learning Management System (LMS) by examining how students responded and engaged with the course layout and course communication. Then, the section will continue by considering how the structure of the course supports the course design. Students share their experiences with course objectives, course cycles, classroom design and their relationship to grading. This section will conclude with materials and resources offered to students that influence student perceptions on course design. In the second part of this section, the findings are dedicated to investigating how students perceived their sense of belonging in relation to the course through their cultural background. The findings will touch on cross-cultural learning, including perceived benefits of the MC FCM. Finally, the section will end with the consideration of peer-to-peer relationships and their role in forming a sense of belonging at a MC using the FCM as a learning modality. Each section will first include findings that were similar between the two countries. If there were unique findings specific to one country, then additional supplementary findings will be provided specific to the individual country.


Course Design and Accessibility

Internet Access

For TNE students, internet access is essential to student success. Students voiced issues in accessing the internet due to financial reasons. Not all students have Wi-Fi/internet connections in their homes and rely on institution facilities for internet connection. When a learning model takes place half online, internet access is very important. Students shared that they need internet connections to do their work and access the course materials. However, not all students have access to internet speeds necessary for learning in the MC FCM. Unfortunately, when students do not have high-speed internet, they are unable to complete their assigned class work. A student in Indonesia, Ani, conveyed her stress: “Some of the assignments take much time which requires us to stay awake until 2:00am in the morning, so we need a place to do the work…. the university closes at 5:00.” Students expressed a need for a facility with high quality internet that is available for MC FCM students for longer periods of time. Their local institution may not require internet work after the facility is closed, but the MC FCM requires independent learning when a facility may not be open. Students revealed that they tend to do their work at the local university until the university is closed because they have the strongest internet connection there. They also reported, however, that the hours of operation at the university were not enough to get all their work done, especially if a video or assignment had a file that extended the download time. Facility accessibility and internet accessibility can provide learning accessibility to TNE students with financial need. TNE partners need to consider available resources for inclusive internet access when considering the course workloads.

Although students in both Indonesia and Cambodia shared difficulty with internet access, Indonesian students reported this concern more frequently. Lecturer Arif verified this concern,
“Every year we do surveys and the number one complaint of students is bandwidth (internet).” Students in Indonesia shared that a large percentage of them live in a boarding dorm that does not have wireless internet. One administrator, Fajar, shared playful dialogue between himself and a student:

Administrator Fajar: What classes are you taking this semester?

Student: Buffering is the name of the class, right?

The buffering videos highlight the importance of the FCM; if the student is unable to watch the online lecturer, they utilize and reinforce what they learned online during the local class time.

**Course Layout**

The course layout of D2L influenced how students perceived their relationship with the course. For example, several students expressed that the layout of the D2L course improved their ability to interact with the course content. Yet, students also expressed that if there was difficulty with the course layout, they blamed the problem on the instructor rather than the design. For example, Bopha, a student in Indonesia summarized, “If there is a problem it’s with the professor, not D2L.” Bopha and others felt that way as some course designs are easier to navigate than others in their various online MC courses. When an online MC course layout was easier for students to navigate, they felt cared for by their instructor. Bopha eagerly showed her phone during her student interview to demonstrate one of her favorite D2L courses. She highlighted one of her Engineering courses and explained the ease of navigating the D2L site. She expressed excitement towards her D2L course because she understood exactly what she had to do in the course each week to do well. The confidence she expressed in navigating D2L was largely due to the course layout, which led her to believe that the instructors care. Students expressed that D2L courses were strong when they were simple to navigate, included clear
schedules and when materials were organized systematically. For example, materials were
considered systematically organized by the student when the content could be linked in more
than one location online. Students could find the materials in each week’s module, but the items
could also be found in a folder called “Course PowerPoints.” The students felt that the U.S.
Instructors were thinking of them in terms of time, and had the desire to make the LMS platform
as effortless to navigate as possible when course materials were organized accordingly. Another
example that connected students to their U.S. Instructor in terms of course layout, as seen in
Figure 4.1, was a discussion board feature titled “Ask the Instructor.”

**Figure 4.1**

*Ask the Instructor Discussion Board Example*

An example of “Ask the Instructor” discussion board, where students can ask questions about
the course content and can expect a reply from the U.S. Instructor.
This discussion board allowed students to pose questions to U.S. Instructors in an open-discussion format. Students felt that the U.S Instructors may respond faster through the D2L discussion board than if the student had reached out directly through email. The discussion board also offered transparency in the relationship between instructor and student. Unfortunately, not all courses included this discussion board.

Frequent course design changes between each term made D2L difficult to navigate. Student Leap shared, “Every semester is like the first time you use D2L. Some designs work better for us. Some don’t…it depends on the professor.” Students complained that the design templates of the courses kept changing after they became accustomed to a particular design. A student in Indonesia, Mony, advocated that “the platform needs to be adjusted to our needs.” Student indicated that they would prefer if the course design was consistent across courses for easier navigation. If a course design change occurs, they would like to be notified of the new features, so they know where to find the materials. The course layout helps students know what to anticipate week by week, but it also needs to be tailored to their needs for easy navigation.

Course design can increase a sense of belonging for students in TNE by creating a positive relationship with the instructor. Student Kosal explained, “It’s like, everything is settled. He [U.S. Instructor] can manage everything systematically. Everything is organized. I just love that kind of stuff…I love both teachers.” There were several aspects of D2L that made students feel a sense of belonging, but course design was one of the most impactful on students’ sense of belonging. Specifically, a clock on the homepage that included the time at their local university and the time at their TNE University, as seen in Figure 4.2. This clock was significant not only in assisting students with understanding deadlines, but it connected the course to their local culture.
Figure 4.2

Example of Clocks displayed in LMS

Two clocks displayed; image one displayed the time at both institutions on the D2L course, the second image displayed the time at Arizona. The other courses did not display the time.

A second example is when a few of the U.S. Instructors used a quiz to ask students about themselves called “Student Background.” Students were happy to see that the U.S. Instructor was trying to get to know them and adapt the course to their needs.

Figure 4.3

Student Background Survey

Please take a few minutes to tell us about your work experience and your plans regarding project management certification. This will help us structure the course for the student population.

The purpose of this exercise is twofold: to provide you, the student, an opportunity to practice completing a D2L survey and to gather background information from students enrolled in [redacted]. There are no right or wrong answers for the survey. We are just trying to get a baseline for the class.
Student Background Survey used in a MC D2L course to gain more information about the student so the class could be adjusted to student needs.

In almost all of their online MC courses, students are not asked about their backgrounds nor do they have a method to share their expectations of the U.S. Instructors. The student background survey directions, shared in Figure 7, state, “There are no right and wrong answers…,” which is significant in that students interviewed said that they have a fear of getting an answer wrong or receiving a low score on a first quiz. When the U.S. Instructors selected the language used in the “Student Background Survey” prompt, they were communicating a sense of belonging.

A third example was when course videos were paired with transcripts so the student could read the transcript alongside the videos as they watched them. The students in the MC FCM were unfamiliar with the accents in the course videos prepared by the U.S. Instructors. More specifically, they had difficulty understanding non-U.S. English accents. Rahmat summarized, “with the language barrier [accents]. We couldn’t catch up with the lecture.” Listening to the lectures online was a challenge for students, but they found ways to adapt. Students shared that they would read the video transcript alongside the videos. Students reported that having access to the transcript helped tremendously when a U.S. Instructor spoke with an accent with which they were unfamiliar. Students preferred if the course videos had captions, but transcripts and captions were not always available.

In a final example, students shared a positive interaction with the course design when it allowed them to prioritize their work. Some course videos included a description of the length of time the video would take to watch:

Figure 4.4

Video Length and Transcripts
In some D2L courses, transcripts of the videos were made available as a separate PDF, which allowed students to follow the material and overcome language and internet connectivity barriers. Two elements are highlighted in this image, the first the length of time of the video and the second that the file is downloadable.

This clear information helped students prioritize and plan for their assignments. When the course layout and design included adjustments that considered MC students’ specific needs, students felt that the course was designed for them. When the courses were lacking these elements, or the D2L sites were difficult to navigate, students felt more disconnected from the course and from the MC as a whole.

**Course Announcements**

Students reported success in a course when announcements were used through the D2L page. Announcements are used on D2L for reminders and to share course information and/or course updates. An announcement may consist of a short reminder, “Reminder: Quiz 4 is due tomorrow at noon” or include robust language describing an assignment in full detail. Students reported problems when there were inconsistencies between courses in terms of announcements. To explain, some courses used the course announcement tool regularly, almost weekly to give students updates, and others didn’t use the tool at all. Students shared that, from semester to semester, the use of announcements varied. When the announcement tools were used in one class, and not another class, students may not complete an assignment because they did not have
the announcement reminder. A third-year student in Indonesia, Kosal, summarized, “The hardest
time for me is when …we do not have any announcement, like the projects. The projects came
out all of a sudden and we have to finish the project in a small duration.” Other students shared
that the announcements would post right before or slightly after an assignment due to the time
difference, causing the student to either rush through the assignment or to miss the deadline
completely. In the LMS course observations, each course had a different number of
announcements used, as seen in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1

Course Announcements Fall 2019

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Number of Announcements Posted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Course 1 - Business</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course 2 - Engineering</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course 3 - Engineering</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course 4 - Engineering</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course 5 - Engineering</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course 6 - Business</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Course announcements used in seven D2L courses, announcements varied from 0-6. The course
with 5 announcements was a 7.5-week course, meaning the U.S. Instructor posted almost every
week.
Table 4.1 highlights the vast contrast between courses in Fall 2019. When an announcement is posted, students receive a notification from the D2L page that flags for their attention. It is unclear if the FCM teaching pedagogy has a relationship with decreased course announcements. U.S. Instructors shared that their assumption is the course announcements are occurring during the in-person class time. One U.S. Instructor shared that they use the announcement tool more frequently in their domestic courses because they are aware of what announcements they had not yet made in class.

**Time Zone Considerations**

Students reported difficulty with navigating assignment due dates in their flipped classroom courses for several reasons including time difference, course design, and difficulty with D2L navigation. At their local institutions, most assignments are due at a specific time (11:59pm); however, in the FCM the due dates did not always translate to the time zone which caused assignments to be due at 5:00pm or even 3:00am. Students in both countries are involved in internships, volunteer opportunities, and hold jobs that operate beyond 5:00pm causing issues with submission or completing an assignment on time. Figure 4.5 highlights the inconsistencies students faced in one of their MC courses:

**Figure 4.5**

*Due Date Inconsistencies*
Image of a D2L due date schedule highlighting inconsistencies. Due dates for assignments in one MC course, times vary from 9:59am in the morning, until 3:00am. Students held classes or other job responsibilities during assigned due date times. This image shows the inconsistency with the due dates.

In some courses, D2L due dates did have a consistent deadline, but these deadlines still did not conform to local cultural expectations, which would have allowed students enough time to complete the assignment along with their other coursework and responsibilities.

**Figure 4.6**

*Due Date Consistencies*
Image of a D2L due date schedule with consistent due date times. Although the due dates are consistent for this MC course, the assignments are due at 9:59am, when students have other responsibilities. The due date times did not fit the local culture.

Students in Cambodia and Indonesia expressed that the due dates could have a negative impact on their ability to complete their work. Due date consistency improved the course for students. D2L has a feature where U.S. Instructors can enter due dates to a calendar, seen in Figure 4.5 and Figure 4.6. Rathana shared, “The calendar feature [on D2L] is very helpful.” Another student, Sothy, shared, “it’s really easy because of the schedule. It’s listed clearly because on this date we have an assignment due.” Yet, not all assignments or tasks were linked with due dates. Students
shared that the assignments in D2L varied with some instructors adding due dates and others primarily using the syllabus for assignment deadlines. This inconsistency was challenging for students to navigate. Aulia explained scheduling difficulties on D2L, “it’s kind of hard to catch up on the material and do the exams, that’s my personal biggest challenge.” Finally, students and lecturers shared that at times the schedule of due dates were off the course timeline, so a quiz could be due prior to the material being covered due to the time difference. Students preferred when the LMS platform had consistent due dates, time frames that allowed them to complete their schoolwork in the evenings, and when the assignments were linked to a calendar option so students could easily navigate due dates between their many MC courses.

Students in Cambodia shared a positive experience wherein they were able to advocate for themselves in a course to alter a due date to 11:59pm. According to Leap, a 4th year Business student in Cambodia, “Some of our seniors were studying and doing an internship at the same time [as the due date] … they were having trouble submitting on time…with a collective effort, the deadline was moved. It was helpful.” This example is significant to the study because it addresses a time when students advocated for themselves in the classroom, which led to the issue being readily resolved. Although students in other courses may still have difficulty with the due dates, this LMS issue is resolvable with strong course design and when the local culture is considered.

Videos

Students expressed that the videos were the most challenging part of their FCM experience. Difficulties students found in the videos will be addressed thoroughly in the next few paragraphs. The videos were difficult in the following ways: clarity of voice, content, speaking style, video quality, speed, size of file and length of video. When the video quality is poor, it has
a negative impact on the student in terms of time and learning. For example, Narith, a student in Indonesia articulated, “if the speakers are too low, or if the speakers are not speaking clearly enough, it’s hard. I have to review again.” Students reported that re-watching the videos took too much of their time. These sentiments were widely shared in both Cambodia and Indonesia. It caused students to have feelings of disconnection with their U.S. Instructor. Although students unanimously viewed the videos as a challenge for their courses, they also felt that the videos were beneficial because they served as a continuous resource. For example, Sophea, a Cambodian student shared, “In a traditional classroom, that is it. This one [FCM], you can review it [lecturers] again and again.” Students appreciated that the courses did not have locked modules and that they could revisit the material even after the course was complete. Some students opted out of watching the videos completely due to the quality, but others found ways to engage with the material, including reading the transcripts of a video lecturer.

Additionally, the online videos had a role in how students perceived their sense of belonging in the classroom. Nimol, a 4th year student in Cambodia shared, “It’s just the way they are teaching, the way they are recording the videos, it does not fit us. For some reason it doesn’t fit.” Students in both countries echoed similar sentiments; many of the U.S. Instructors use recordings from their classes with U.S. based students and do not tailor it or re-record it for the MC students. Narith, a student in Indonesia was very sad about not being able to make eye-contact when she said the following, “he is with the class in Arizona. He is not seeing us.” Essentially, the students indicated that the material was made for the U.S. students and that the MC students were in the back row trying to keep up with the material, which not only caused the students to have to re-watch the videos due to the video quality mentioned earlier, it also demotivated them in their MC courses.
Course videos varied in how U.S. Instructors used visuals to explain a concept. Students shared that PowerPoints with notes were helpful, while the use of the white board was problematic. When U.S. Instructors used a physical white board to explain a concept, students were unable to see what the instructor was teaching due to the glare of the board or the instructor’s handwriting was illegible. Bintang explained,

"The videos they have in D2L are very bad quality regarding sound and visualizations. It’s not clear enough. The video itself was recorded in class when the teacher was in a class and the angle of the videos were away from the microphone and we couldn’t see the process because the video was over here. For part of the video he didn’t talk and then when he wrote on the board we couldn’t see because of the angle."

Having poor visual aids caused stress in students. Students reported that many times they can only see pixels of what the U.S. Instructors did in their U.S. class, making the material difficult to learn without seeking additional resources on their own. Pich, from Cambodia shared, “In online learning, if the video is a problem, we are screwed.” Students strongly felt that when U.S. Instructors prepared poor quality videos then the course was not adjusted for the MC students, especially when the visuals used were not visible to the MC student.

The length of the videos proved challenging for students due to substantial download times paired with a lack of video content. Students voiced concerns over videos that took a lengthy time to download, yet, lacked the information they needed to effectively do their coursework. Students described “lengthy” videos as videos that did not complete a concept, but rambled on for an extended duration (they did not give a specific time, rather the size of a file). Rathana, an engineering student, shared an example of a time that a U.S. Instructor was explaining a sample problem and it resulted in an error. Instead of explaining the error, the
instructor showed the correct answer. The students never learned how to answer the sample problem, but instead had to work backwards with the correct answer. Rathana expressed laughter when she shared this story. At first she thought it was funny that a U.S. Instructor could make an error; however, when the video completed and she still did not know how to solve the problem, she no longer laughed. She expressed that due to the incomplete video she had to spend time finding other materials to teach herself the concept. Students in both countries shared that they elected to use YouTube to find alternative lessons online when a lecturer does not complete a lesson or when the information they needed to do their assignments was not covered in the videos. Agung explained:

“Researcher: How easy is it to watch the video?  
Agung: It’s not easy [nervous laughter]. We watch the video, but, I think that we also need to open from other resources and from YouTube and something else.

Researcher: So you supplement the resources?  
Agung: Yes.

Researcher: Why?  
Agung: Because sometimes it’s [video] is not as complete as it should be.

Researcher: Not enough information?  
Agung: Yes, it’s not complete.”

Students were frustrated that they had to supplement their learning on their own without resources from the MC. Randika echoed Agung, “I actually do the assignment by watching YouTube. YouTube is helping, but he professor didn’t. I taught myself.” Students wanted videos that covered an entire concept, or for the U.S. Instructors to provide additional links to supplementary resources. Students also expressed that due to the long download times, concise videos or shorter videos were most imperative to their learning.
Video quality impacted student learning outcomes. Due to the poor video quality and difficulty downloading the lectures, several students shared that they do not always watch the videos. Student Renaldi explained, “Actually, the video is boring. I prefer to read a book.” Students said there is no consequence for not watching the videos. Student Dedi explained why the videos are not worth downloading, “There is something that really bother me when I watch the video, I heard some lecturers do some ‘like’ ‘uhhh’ ‘ummm’, something like that. Because we can only hear and watch it’s very distracting.” The significance of this finding is that if students are having to prioritize what content they are engaging with due to financial implications, then TNE partners will need to be mindful of the content they are creating for TNE students. Instructors can create smaller content videos, for example, that can be downloaded for offline use.

Watching engaging course videos, increased students learning. For example, several course videos used Play-Posit, a technology that interacts with students as they watch a course video. Student Sheren explained,

I like play-posit so much because if there is a play-posit then we are required to really pay attention to the video and not only go through the video without giving more attention…I am challenged to get 100 in the video. The result of it, I get more understanding to the materials that are given.

With Play-Post, students answer questions about the lecture as they are watching videos to help the students know if they are achieving the learning outcomes. Some of the Play-Posit videos are linked to a graded item. Students shared that they learn more in the engaging videos because not only do they have to respond to the videos, but it may also be a graded item, which increased their attention to the video. Students also expressed that in Play-Posit videos, instructors follow a
better outline or are more concise because they have clear learning outcomes that are covered for the quiz. Engaged course videos, not only enhance students’ learning, but also encourage instructors to be more precise in their lesson planning and designed learning outcomes.

Structure

Course Objectives and Learning Outcomes

Learning outcomes and course objectives are used throughout LMS course design for online learning. Students in Cambodia and Indonesia expressed how the learning outcomes helped them understand what they were trying to learn each week. A student in Indonesia, Sothy, conveyed the value of learning outcomes and course objectives, "...we can see what we are learning this week. We know the objectives; we know what we are learning.” Sothy’s explanation is highlighted to show that MC students measure their success with the module course objectives. One of the benefits of having the learning outcomes broken up weekly in each module is that it helps the students prioritize what items to focus on. While most courses have strong learning outcomes and learning objectives, students also reported not always being sure what they were supposed to learn. For one of the D2L courses, a learning objective reads, “Learning Objectives: If you successfully complete this module, you will be ready to take the Midterm Exam 1.”

Figure 4.7

Learning Objective Example
Example of a D2L course using the Learning Objective course structure.

The module shown in Figure 4.7 does not include transparent learning outcomes. In this instance, it would have been helpful for students to have clear learning outcomes that support the course objectives in order for students to prepare for their exam.

**Course Sequence**

The sequence in which courses are offered should be specific to prerequisites required of the program for TNE students. The course sequence is the order in which courses in various programs are offered. For example, a student would take Engineering 101 before Engineering 108. In new forms of TNE, this course sequencing can be difficult because Engineering 101 may not be available every semester causing students to take the available Engineering 108. The schedule of course offerings and course sequences impact how students learn. Engineering students in Cambodia shared difficulty when they were enrolled in course that did not align with a course sequence, meaning the more difficult class was offered before the foundational course. Students expressed that they were unsure how to communicate that they were not prepared for the lab experience they had in the U.S. because they had not taken the appropriate classes beforehand. Bayu vented, “It wasn’t hard, it was just going in blind.” Students expressed the desire to have the courses thoughtfully planned so that the material builds on each other so they can be most prepared for more difficult material. The course sequences impact course complete
rates, as the sequence does not allow for students to catch up if they fail or have to withdraw from a course. The course will likely not be offered for an additional year. Failing a course has huge financial implications if a student is a scholarship recipient. Several students shared that the fear of failing a course or not being prepared for a course caused anxiety and stress. U.S. Instructors shared that they have been pressured to allow independent study options, but have not proceeded with independent studies options as they would not meet accreditation standards. For these reasons, the course cycles are very important to a student's success at the MC. When considering TNE development, it will be important to create course sequences that are most effective for TNE students.

**Classroom Design**

The FCM uses Active Learning (AL), which encourages the classroom space to be transformed from traditional courses to highly engaged classrooms where students prepare in advance of the course in order to participate in learning activities. However, the MC classroom space may not always be compatible with the AL portion of the FCM. To explain, AL includes group work during the in-person classes. Students and lecturers found the group work to be challenging at times due to the classroom size, desks and overall mobility. Lecturer Dewi, from Indonesia, articulated the challenge, “the problem is the arrangement of the seats is that we have a line, so they [students] will sit there instead of making a group.” Lecturers understood that AL classroom space in the U.S. typically had movable furniture and group tables where students could work. Although Lecturers were still able to break the students into groups and use AL, the classroom space was a concern for adapting to the FCM. During my in-person classroom observations I witnessed the difficulty Lecturers faced in using the space for effective AL. Although space issues and classroom mobility are important considerations to AL, students
still preferred the FCM. Student Prendy explained the benefits of the group work, “What I like doing is the activity. I learn faster when the material is done practically and we can apply it to something rather than the professor purely lecturing.” The significance of this finding is that lecturers and students work together to overcome classroom design concerns and that classroom furniture and space should be considered in TNE.

The class sizes were very small in Cambodia in the Engineering courses and very large in the Business courses. The students in the Engineering class were working on a final project with large items to practice suspension. The students utilized the common space to complete their activities when their classroom was not big enough. There was enough space to store course materials; however, if the program continues to grow, there will be less space in the classroom. To be more specific, there were only six to eleven students in each Engineering course observed. The Business course rooms were more similar to the experience in Indonesia with a lack of space to do group work. However, the structure of the classroom allowed for students to arrive on time. Further, the walls did not cause sound disruption.

The classrooms in Indonesia tended to be at or near capacity. Not only was every desk full, but there was little room to move the desks around for the group assignments. The walls were also thin, causing noise disruptions from active learning classes. When students raised their voices in group dialogue, it may have negatively impacted neighboring classrooms. An additional challenge specific to students in Indonesia was arriving to class on time due to the structure of the building and limited access to the elevator. Lecturers had to wait to start the group-work until students arrived. Students were not marked tardy or punished for their late arrival because it was due to the structure of the building (limited elevator access).

Course Participation
Students have higher course participation in FCM courses according to self-reporting students and lecturers based on the interviews in this study. During the in-person course observations, students seemed engaged due to various AL activities they were participating in through the FCM at a “high” level according to TDOP. I asked students how they felt about their participation during their in-class activities and the overwhelming consensus was a “medium” amount. This was a surprising result since they were highly engaged in their FCM. To follow, I asked about their non-FCM courses. Students shared that in their non-FCM classes, however, they participate a “low” or “no” amount. A student in Indonesia, Rizky, explained, “In the traditional one [non-FCM teaching method], we only listen and some of us haven’t read the materials yet, so the question is not ready yet.” On the other hand, students come to the FCM in-person class with questions and have already read/learned the materials. Students shared that there is a higher expectation to participate in the FCM. Students also shared that by participating in the FCM, they were participating more in their other classes as well. Essentially, the FCM was influencing their learning and engagement behaviors in all of their courses.

Open Access Resources

TNE students need accessible books in their MC courses. Students shared difficulty in both countries with accessing books for their FCM courses. Students in a Business course shared that one of the books was unavailable in their country, so the whole class moved forward with the course without the book. Others reported purchasing a book, and then not using the book for the class because the learning module did not actually require the book. In one course, the U.S. Instructor provided an “Inclusive Access Online Textbook,” making the book easily downloadable directly from the D2L site. Students appreciated having access to the book, as many do not have credit-cards or ways to purchase books online. Students also shared that
courses that included materials or PDFs that linked to the institution’s library helped with student learning. One student in Indonesia, Aditya, expressed happiness when she discussed materials available through the MC: “It’s the most crucial thing I take away from the flipped class: the video, the ebook, the link to external documents, extra resources. That actually really helps us to get us more understanding of the topic.” Students viewed D2L resources and materials as a key benefit to the MC. Students in both Cambodia and Indonesia were excited to have access to the UArizona library and were actively seeking additional resources and materials. TNE students benefit from accessible resources and accessible textbooks.

**Sense of Belonging**

In this section of RQ1, the focus will concentrate on how students experience sense of belonging in TNE. The section concentrates on students’ cultural backgrounds by exploring the findings surrounding how students feel about their TNE relationship in several capacities: financial pressures, course content, development of cultural capital and the inclusion and exclusion of local and religious holidays. The section will then move to cross-cultural learning to share the findings that highlighted sense of belonging across borders. This section will touch on cross-cultural benefits, student exchanges and peer-to-peer relationships.

**Cultural Background Considerations**

Students’ cultural backgrounds can be misunderstood in TNE. Student Randika explained, “Both of them [U.S. Instructors] made assumptions. Different groups have different assumptions. We convince ourselves that it is okay.” A theme across all participant types was misconceptions between the U.S. and MC students in terms of understanding and knowing student backgrounds and needs. Concerns were raised by administrators, students and lecturers
about how the U.S. Instructors viewed the Cambodian and Indonesian students without understanding their background and culture. A Lecturer from Cambodia, Jawad, imparted,

   The background of the student here is different; the way they learn from high school is different. The way we are teaching at UA is different from the way they teach in high school; they [students] need a bit of time to adapt.

Understanding the cultural context for TNE students would improve the design of the course and would call for increased flexibility. Culturally, students in both Cambodia and Indonesia are learning from decades old curriculum, as highlighted in Chapter 2 when the historical and modern education barriers are addressed. Lecturer Purti contextualized, “the cultural context is missing” when U.S. Instructors design their courses. For example, the learning styles used in traditional education models in both Cambodia and Indonesia differ greatly from what students are asked to do in the FCM because students are not used to active learning (AL) or independent learning (IL) which will be described in further detail in RQ2. The main differences between traditional local learning and the FCM is the addition of group work, discussion-based courses, and online learning.

   Students’ cultural backgrounds can produce unknown barriers to student learning in TNE. For example, students and administrators reported that many MC students came from high schools that may have relaxed attendance policies, meaning class attendance was not required to pass a course. Administrators also shared that students may not be used to turning in weekly assignments, typically having assignments due at the end of the semester. The FCM introduced a new method of learning with weekly assignments. Additionally, many students are learning from a laptop for the first time, as their HS courses and their non-MC courses do not have online learning components. Although college can be a transition for all students, the administrators and
lecturers wanted the students' learning backgrounds to be taken into account when designing the MC courses. Students in the 7.5 week courses had more difficulty adjusting to the FCM when their cultural background was not considered.

When asked what U.S. Instructors knew about their MC student backgrounds, several U.S. Instructors answered, “Nothing” or “I do not.” U.S. Instructor Alex elaborated, “I have no idea of their personal backgrounds, I know they are from all over the country….” The U.S. Instructors did not feel it was their role to get to know the students, rather, to provide high quality content. For example, when I asked U.S. Instructor Alex “How do students contact you?” they replied, “They don’t. And they are not supposed to.” In spite of their understanding of their role, one U.S. Instructor interviewed felt they had a strong connection to understanding the students’ cultural background. The main finding is that students, lecturers and administrators want TNE partners to be aware of cultural barriers and efforts they overcome to meet TNE standards. The relationship with U.S. instructors knowing more about the student backgrounds may or may not have an implication, so this relationship should be further studied. It is clear that U.S. Instructors had little background information on the students they were creating content for in TNE.

Financial Pressures

Structural

Scholarship dependence is largely due to the financial structures in each country, as few students and families have the ability to take out bank loans and most students in both countries do not hold credit cards. Tuition at the MC in Indonesia is around $12,000 USD per academic year with a per capita of $4,164 USD (World Bank, 2020). Tuition at the MC in Cambodia is around $900 per academic year with a per capita of $1269 USD (Trading Economics, 2020).
Administrator Pisey explained, “they [students] know that getting that scholarship [university specific scholarship] changes their life trajectory and the life of their family.” To reduce financial pressures, students make an effort to reduce their costs. For example, several students in both countries shared that they live more than two hours away each direction to save on living expenses, but students also shared how adapting to financial constraints has an impact on their grades. More specifically, those students who travel far to and from school shared the difficulty they have in completing their assignments on time. For example, Mony, from Indonesia, explained his travel schedule, “2 hours each way, 4 hours total [in travel].” Although the travel is time consuming, it allows him to save funds for school and to support his family.

While some students can afford tuition, others were dependent on scholarships (national scholarships, local scholarships, university specific scholarships). Although scholarships offer the opportunity to attend school, the students who receive scholarships experience immense pressure to uphold various GPA levels to maintain their scholarships. Narith, a student on a full scholarship taking 8 classes with 31 credits (including Saturday courses) describes her pressure to maintain her scholarship:

“Narith: … [scholarship] with a consequence that we cannot fail any kinds of UA courses…. we cannot take any risk.

Researcher: So there’s a lot of pressure?

Narith: A LOT of pressure, pressure from both local and from UA itself. It is very demanding in terms of grades and the tasks.

Researcher: So if you fail a class do you lose your scholarship?

Narith: …. if we’ve failed more than two times we will be dropped [from the university].
Due to the limited coursework offered through the MC, if the students do not pass a course they will fall out of cycle with the coursework and their scholarships will not cover the additional time.

**Financial Pressures and Sense of Belonging**

Students who attended a MC have varying financial pressures that impact their sense of belonging. For example, Mony shared that he felt supported by his local institution, “When my mom is ill, I had to take her to the hospital and they [lecturer in Indonesia] understand.” The local institution is actively supporting students and creating a sense of belonging. It was unclear however, if he communicated with his U.S. Instructor or how the U.S. institution would support a student with family emergencies. Similarly, as Narith shared, students who have scholarships also fear course failure because there is not currently a way for students to make up a course that they struggled to complete.” Students also shared how financial pressures to do well in their coursework caused physical and mental hardships. Students reported a lack of sleep, around only three hours a night, inability to work or contribute to their local family financially due to the course workload and exhaustion. Muthia added, “In the first semester, I had some struggles. I was doing outside work, so many things going on, I was not fully concentrated on my courses. It effected my grade.” Essentially, Students in TNE face financial pressures that may differ from traditional international students or domestically based students because of the limited course offerings available in the MC.

**Course Content and Cultural Disconnect**

Students brought to light numerous examples of how the course content did not tailor for TNE. According to one Cambodian student, Ahmad, “the examples are only for the U.S.” For instance, both Cambodia and Indonesia’s transportation system in the city relies on motorcycles
as a common form of transportation. In an Engineering course used in both countries’ students are tasked with making a simulation for a transportation assignment. Ahmad explained, “motorcycles are not taken into account [in the assignment].” Although motorcycles are a key form of transportation in both countries, the assignment does not allow for students to consider how to apply the simulation model to meet local needs. An additional example another student expressed was the use of measurements; Cambodia and Indonesia use the metric system while the U.S. uses the imperial system or U.S. Customary Units. Thus, students face a challenge of knowing when the exercise is in units vs. metric and have to spend extra time converting measurements. They also shared that when the instructions are unclear, it negatively impacts their grades.

The examples of U.S. specific assignments were also seen in the Business courses. For example, several students described learning about U.S. real-estate codes, a unit they felt did not prepare them globally and had no application locally. Modules with U.S. social implications were confusing to students without a historic context. For example, in a Business course one of the modules describes racism towards African Americans in the U.S. Without the historical context, the material was shocking for Nadira; “…we didn’t know that it [racism] was so bad. We learn in the books that Black people get treated so badly. We learned about a ton of material but it was in the U.S., it was not applicable here.” Although the material was not applicable in Asia, students offered that the materials could have been adjusted because racism exists in Asia, but in different forms. Students understood that if they work in international business they may encounter or witness racism of black individuals; however, the social content was out of place without a historic context or a way to apply the ideas locally. The students consistently called for localized materials or internationally focused courses.
**Development of Cultural Capital**

Students in TNE are developing cultural capital and social capital, knowledge and skills acquired passively and through socialization (Bourdieu & Richardson, 1986). Students develop a sense of belonging as their cultural capital increases, however a community of knowledge takes time to develop. U.S. Instructor, Alex, summarizes,

They have no peers that they can ask advice of, the faculty are inexperienced as well so even if the students try to ask faculty what to do the faculty might not be able to answer…so the community hasn’t been built yet. There is no community knowledge yet. The students who participated in the study were in their 3rd and 4th year of their programs and expressed similar sentiments. They felt that they were navigators of a new system, with one student in Cambodia referring to himself as a “guinea pig” another voicing a feeling, “you are alone.” To combat the lack of cultural capital, students share their difficulties so others can learn. For example, Leap shared, “when we don’t understand things, we also have a sense that there is no hierarchy, we all help each other. You don’t solve everything by yourself. There is an interconnected relationship between everyone.” Fourth year students in both countries expressed that the students have adapted to the MC and that they are beginning to build community knowledge and cultural capital, which is significant because TNE development takes time.

**Local and Religious Holidays**

Sense of belonging was not felt by students and lecturers when local and religious holidays were not considered by TNE partners. The U.S. school calendar is scheduled around U.S. holidays such as Thanksgiving (a U.S. only holiday) and a Winter Break that takes place during the popular Christian holiday of Christmas. Other holidays include historic days involving various U.S. based celebrations. In Cambodia and Indonesia however, few students are Christian,
with a majority in Indonesia identifying as Muslim. Both Cambodia and Indonesia have varying religious and holiday celebrations. One Lecturer in Cambodia, Rafi, passionately shared, “They [MC] haven’t looked at our holiday calendar…. they are being strict to have it [courses] at the same time, but each country has a different holiday you can’t hand them in at the same time. You can’t do that.” Administrators at both institutions reflected on the holiday cultural disconnection by sharing that they understand that the MC students are earning an U.S. degree, so they keep to the U.S. schedule. TNE students, however, would benefit if their cultural backgrounds were considered so they could develop a sense of belonging.

**Cross-Cultural Learning**

**Cross-Cultural Benefits**

The benefits of the FCM have had a cross-cultural influence. U.S. Instructors said there were benefits to the FCM that they were incorporating into their domestic U.S. courses. For example, one professor shared that the recordings they made for the MC students are shared on the domestic D2L page. Students in the U.S. benefitted from this extra resource. One U.S. Instructor Derek, summarized, “The good thing is I’m converting that model [FC to my U.S. Students as well…when we do active learning activities in the classroom, students can learn a lot more effectively…” Derek found that domestic students enjoyed having access to the lecturer on D2L and were re-watching the lectures for further absorption. The FCM is helping students by providing resources that students can use actively and passively. Several other U.S. Instructors found the FCM so beneficial, they were incorporating or planning to modify their other courses to use aspects of the FCM. However, one U.S. Instructor reported that U.S. students disliked the FCM because it lacked enough human interaction and relied on passive learning outside the classroom. He shared that his student evaluations decreased when this learning method was used.
Although there were mixed opinions of the FCM from the U.S. Instructors, the overwhelming majority found the learning method to be effective. An unexpected result of this study is that the FCM has had a cross-cultural benefit.

*Student Exchanges*

TNE students wanted interaction with main campus students. Students questioned why U.S. students were not in their classroom physically. For example, when the university in Indonesia previously held a partnership through TNE with a university in France, French students attended their school each semester. Within the U.S. MC partnership only one U.S. student attended the MC in Indonesia. The students wondered how their home institution was being represented globally and wondered why U.S. students were not attending their campus. Similarly, in Cambodia, students shared that exchange only occurs over the summer when classes are not offered. Very few students had been exposed to U.S. students. One student in Indonesia, Sheren, vocalized the importance of student exchanges, “I think it’s a great learning experience. It is important to connect to American students. There should be some interaction between us and them. If you really want to see a lot of improvements on both sides, then we should see each other.” Students shared that when students visit from the U.S. it is a chance to practice English and gain a better understanding of their institution. Students also shared that they would be more satisfied also be satisfied if U.S. students were in the online portions of their coursework so they could engage through the LMS assignments. Due to a complete separation from U.S. students, they felt disconnected from the UArizona campus.

*Peer-to-Peer Relationships*

Students emphasized their peer-to-peer relationships created a deep sense of belonging because they were UArizona students together. For example, during a group interview Budi
summarized, “The benefit of this community is that everyone is very vocal about their own mistakes and assignments. If one of us is struggling, everyone knows and we try and help as much as possible.” Students shared that they try to do all their work on campus together, including quizzes and homework assignments. Students in both countries spoke of an “interconnected relationship” between classmates. The students had a strong bond with each other and prioritized taking care of one another. Students shared that the FCM increases their ability to do teamwork during the in-class portion of learning. The peer-to-peer learning fits within the cultural context of both Indonesia and Cambodia. Students shared that they prefer group work and are more willing to ask a peer a question than an instructor. Each in-class period includes activities and teamwork, whether solving a problem or building a bridge. Students use class time to share ideas and solutions to assignments. Students articulated a strong bond that forms due to the in-class activities, appreciating that assignments are broken up in various group sizes, from two to three students to six to seven students. Students also conveyed that there are various levels of understanding by the students, causing there to be one or two “smart students” in each group. They shared that there is no competition between the “smart students” and the students who are struggling, rather, the “smart students” help the other students with the concepts. Aditya summarized, “the community is the best.” Students enjoy helping each other achieve their goals. Multiple students shared that the goal of each MC cohort is to graduate together. It was clear, peer-to-peer relationships build the strongest sense of belonging.

**RQ 1 Summary**

Research Question 1 (RQ1) resulted in findings that have substantial impacts on two fields, online learning and transnational education. This brief summary will be broken into two parts, the first shares a summary of the results for online learning, with a focus on the FCM. The
second part will conclude findings that can be applied to TNE. Implications for these findings will be described in-depth in Chapter 7.

**Online Learning**

Course design and course layout play a significant role in TNE student learning. The findings presented in RQ1 included the benefits of using LMS tools such as course announcements, due dates, time indicators that displayed time in both locations, and clear communication of the length of videos. One of the most significant findings in the course design was the need for captioning and transcripts of the video. For example, if a video was unable to download due to internet issues, students could read and study the transcript.

Video quality and content were most important to student learning and relationship building with U.S. Instructors. If the videos used in the LMS were not tailored for TNE students, then the TNE students were less likely to engage with the content. Key findings in video quality and content included the need for clear visuals to explain concepts, tailored videos that were recorded for TNE students and engaging videos that allowed students to interact with tools such as Play-Posit. The most significant finding in video content included providing supplementary materials for students. More specifically, if a video did not complete the concept for the student, students found supplementary materials on YouTube to further describe the material. Providing additional resources and materials that support the video content was especially significant in TNE because the course videos were not always accessible (e.g. missing transcription, difficult to understand, students unable to download).

Student exchanges typically occur when one student spends time across borders; however, MC students challenged this idea by suggesting student exchanges through the online platform. Although students would prefer a physical student exchange with U.S. students visiting
the MC and MC students visiting the U.S., an alternative idea presented by students was to include both students in the same LMS course. Students at the MC wanted to connect to U.S. students, but there is a complete separation between the domestic students and the MC students. Offering an online class where both domestic and MC students could be in the same place would serve as an online learning student exchange. Whether the idea is practical or not, the key finding is that students want to engage with their U.S. peers online.

**Flipped Classroom Model**

Internet access largely impacted student learning in the FCM. Students with poor internet access struggled to complete their assignments and made them more reliant on the in-person lecturer. The key finding in this section is the importance of having a local lecturer available when the online platform is inaccessible.

Course objectives and learning outcomes explicitly prepared and communicated with students on course expectations. In the FCM, learning outcomes were significant because students experienced two instructors, one in-person and one online. When a course had clear objectives, students understood what they would be tested on and what additional content they needed to successfully complete a learning module.

The FCM requires active learning (AL) which includes group work and engaged class discussion. One finding that resulted from the in-person class observations and interviews was the importance of classroom facilities that accommodate AL. For example, moveable desks played a role in students being able to quickly join group discussions and assignments. Although AL can occur without flexible class furniture, creating classroom activities based on space was important to the teaching methodology. The key finding in this section is when using the FCM, classroom space and facilities should be considered.
Students who participated in the FCM had positive classroom behaviors that translated to all their coursework, including their non-FCM courses. For example, students became more comfortable with AL by asking questions and participating in-class. Further, the FCM requires students to prepare in advance of the in-person class. This mindset of pre-prep helped the students engage in learning throughout their college coursework. Additionally, students in the FCM developed a strong peer-to-peer learning style. Students learning autonomy included how they help their peers succeed in their courses. This finding is significant because it highlighted the impact of the FCM on overall student learning.

Similar to students participating in the FCM, U.S. Instructors who created content for the FCM considered, or were in the process of adapting, the FCM into their U.S. courses because of the positive benefits. U.S. Instructors reported the benefits of AL and providing additional resources and materials online at the MC and wanted to offer their domestic students the same assistances. The key finding is that the FCM had a cross-cultural benefit and allowed domestic students the chance to use both IL and AL as well.

**Transnational Education**

While the FCM and online learning offer flexibility in their courses, one element to creating sense of belonging was when time zone differences were considered in course design. Beyond the classroom, TNE students were involved in internships, clubs and had familial responsibilities. When instructors create content, one important consideration to the design includes following the local culture in terms of assignment due dates. For example, if locally all the assignments are due Friday at 5:00pm because the university closes on Friday at 5:00pm and that is where students use the internet, then the TNE partner would plan the assignment to conclude by the local standards. Students struggled with due date inconsistencies; however, the
A larger finding was considering TNE students’ schedules so students could achieve their learning outcomes.

Students in TNE need accessible textbooks and materials that are available in their country. One significant finding offered in RQ1 was when students were unable to access textbook materials for one of the courses. On the other hand, one course observed in the LMS document analysis provided an open access textbook that students were able to access from the LMS directly. Students identified the importance of textbook materials in their learning and appreciated accessible materials. A key finding in TNE partnership is consideration of accessible textbook materials to support student learning.

TNE student’s cultural backgrounds are an important consideration to their student learning including their previous learning history, financial background, and local customs. Students at the MC were new to online learning and the FCM which required students to be both independent learners (IL) and AL. Further, some of the courses offered in the MC were only 7.5 week courses, something not typical of either culture. TNE students were highly adaptable and able to adjust, but the initial lack of flexibility impacted their grades and potentially their scholarships. The pressures some students face to maintain their scholarships made it clear why students sought out course flexibility as they were adapting to the FCM. In some cases, students who fail a course could lose their scholarships and the opportunity to attend college. Finally, students in Cambodia and Indonesia celebrate local and religious holidays that differ from their U.S. counterpart. TNE partners are challenged to be inclusive of local customs when designing the course schedule. Some U.S. instructors made attempts to get to know students by conducting a “Student Background Survey;” however, the overall consensus between administrators, students and lecturers in Cambodia and Indonesia was that instructors did not have a strong
cultural understanding desirable to provide students with the flexibility they needed to adapt to new types of learning. The main finding in this section of RQ1 is the importance of understanding TNE students cultural background when developing the flexibility of the course. Students enrolled through TNE should understand their career goals prior to selecting a TNE university. TNE programs differ in their coursework and content. In the MC, the content was focused through a U.S. lens which may not prepare students to participate in the local economy after graduation. Students shared several examples of course material that covered U.S. content, which was not tailored to local needs. Students shared a desire for localized materials, or materials that would make them competitive globally. For students wishing to stay in their home region, lecturers shared the difficulty the student may face in the job market due to the U.S. specific content. The key finding offered is that students career goals should match the TNE course offerings and content, which may also require TNE partners to reflect on their goal for students in their programs.
CHAPTER 5: RESULTS – RESEARCH QUESTION 2 -LEARNING AUTONOMY AND STUDENTS AS LEARNERS

RQ2: Learning Autonomy: How does the flipped classroom pedagogy engage students and promote learning in an online transnational education model?

Subquestion: Learning Autonomy: How do students perceive their role as learners?

Research Question 2 (RQ2) addresses students as learners and explores how the Flipped Classroom Model (FCM) engages students in a TNE setting. This section is broken into several sections to answer the question in-depth. The section begins with student understandings of the Flipped Classroom Model (FCM). Data used in this section includes interviews, in-person classroom observations and LMS document analysis. The section continues by highlighting perspectives on soft skills and concludes with perspectives on students who succeed in this learning pedagogy. The next section is dedicated to student learning styles, considering both independent learning (IL) and active learning (AL). Then the section transitions to the theme of identity, where students share how their identities influenced their learning outcomes. The last section focuses on student engagement and how students perceive learning outside the classroom through TNE. This section will conclude with a summarization of the findings for RQ2. Each section will first share findings in common in both Cambodia and Indonesia. If there is a unique finding in a specific country, the finding will be addressed at the end of the sub-section with details explaining specific country insights.

Flipped Classroom Model

The FCM offers a method of teaching whereby students learn both online and in-person; however, students had difficulty identifying the methods required for learning in the FCM. Students shared that there was never a time that anyone explained the FCM: what they would be learning or how they would be learning. Once students enrolled in a MC, students were placed
directly into the FCM, which required understanding two new learning pedagogies, IL and AL. U.S. Instructor, Alex, explained the difficulty for students in transitioning into the FCM, “typically the first several weeks are challenging regardless of the location for students because you are asking them to be a lot more engaged than they are used to being…[eventually] they develop the maturity to appreciate it.” Students widely shared the difficulty they had adjusting to the FCM. One challenge they faced was not really understanding the learning method. Students and lecturers had similar responses when asked “what is a flipped classroom?” Their responses included, “No,” “Not exactly sure” and “Is it an online class?” With further questioning, however, students explained the method by describing what they did in the classroom, as presented in Table 5.1:

**Table 5.1**

*Flipped Classroom Student Definitions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flipped Classroom Student Definitions</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;It’s the opposite of a traditional classroom, we do homework at school and we study by ourselves at home.&quot; - Prendy</td>
<td>&quot;Combines face-to-face with online platform&quot; - Aditya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;It’s a collaboration between two professors… &quot; - Nickindo</td>
<td>&quot;You prepare before the class because we discuss problems.&quot; - Agung</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;It’s a type of online learning where a global lecturer [U.S. Instructor] updates content and then a student somewhere in the world follows the content.&quot; - Rahmat</td>
<td>&quot;Studying by myself and implementing what I get from the lecturer into class.&quot; - Bopha</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
"An online class is just an online class, but if we have a question we might go to a teacher [local] and ask for it." - Rossa

"A unique type of conducting learning and teaching because we learn by ourselves at our own pace." - Rathana

"It’s a learning class, where students are encouraged to learn by themselves. When we come to class, we have only a discussion and activities." - Nimol

"The online learning, we are doing paired with the in-class experience." - Kosal

| "An online class is just an online class, but if we have a question we might go to a teacher [local] and ask for it. " - Rossa | "A unique type of conducting learning and teaching because we learn by ourselves at our own pace." - Rathana |
| "It’s a learning class, where students are encouraged to learn by themselves. When we come to class, we have only a discussion and activities." - Nimol | "The online learning, we are doing paired with the in-class experience." - Kosal |

A table representative of student perspectives on the definition of the Flipped Classroom Model.

From the language used in the student definitions, there are teaching concepts that strongly stand out, such as IL. Although the students in the FCM have access to two instructors, students felt strongly that their learning was independent. The student definitions also highlight the importance of the in-person course. Administrator Hasana summarized the value of the FCM, “we didn’t want to leave it [learning] online. If you leave it online, nothing will happen. The kids [students] won’t click on the videos.” This sentiment was shared by other administrators in Indonesia who recalled a previous TNE partnership that was online only. Students who were enrolled in the online only courses did poorly, according to the lecturers, because they were not watching the videos and did not have in-person accountability. By having the FCM available, administrators felt that the classes had the same quality as the U.S., enhancing students’ abilities to engage in discussion in the classroom to best reach learning objectives and outcomes.

Supporting the findings in RQ1, attending the in-person class encouraged students to watch the videos and participate in the online course work prior to the in-person class with a lecturer. The in-person portion of the FCM essentially held students accountable for their assignments outside of class. Further, the in-class portion provided a cultural context that the online content lacks.

Although the pre-work before the in-person class requires IL, the in-person portion balances the
IL with AL through group work, which led to increased alignment with course learning outcomes as indicated by student and lecturers.

Course Observations

Lecturers struggled to define the FCM learning pedagogy which caused inconsistent teaching methods used during the in-class lecture. Confusion on the FCM expressed during lecturer interviews became evident during in-person course observations in both Cambodia and Indonesia because of inconsistency in teaching methods used. Although there were inconsistencies, there were also commonalities in teaching methods used during the in-class FCM. For example, according to the Teaching Dimensions Observation Protocol TDOP observation codes common methods used included Small Group Work/Discussion (SGW), Instructor Display Question (IDQ) and Socratic Lecturer (SOC-L). SGW is a key teaching method used in the FCM because it encourages students to work in small groups to solve homework-based problems and assignments. However, this method was not used consistently. Through the in-classroom observation, it was clear that students are accustomed to SGW due to in-class behaviors. For example, students in Cambodia quickly joined their groups without additional instruction from the lecturer. Further, SGW enabled students to develop high peer-to-peer connections, and the peer-to-peer connections formed through SGW led to higher sense of belonging, as highlighted in Chapter 4, peer-to-peer relationships. Although SGW was used as a FCM teaching pedagogy, all courses observed were missing the student engagement dimension of TDOP that is typically seen in FCM teaching. While the student engagement dimension was absent in the teaching methods, students remained highly engaged through IDQ and SOC-L, wherein, students interacted actively with the lecturer.
In the FMC, lecturers engaged students through another observed teaching methodology: Emphasis (EMP), Humor (HUM), and Anecdote/example (ANEX). In the fourth classroom observation, one lecturer had the entire class laughing. Students were highly engaged through HUM the entire time. The lecturer also provided culturally relevant ANEX to explain and emphasize the course material. Student engagement was considered high according to TDOP because students were observed raising their hands, shouted out answers, and paid full attention. The key finding in the classroom observations was that the lecturers knew little about the FCM, which led to inconsistencies in teaching methods used. Nevertheless, lecturers adapted to the high student engagement required of the FCM by using strategies they were familiar with such as EMP, HUM, ANEX, and SOC-L.

**Training**

U.S. Instructors feared that the lecturer may not be prepared to teach the FCM pedagogy because of a lack of training available. U.S. Instructor Alex, summarized the concern, “in terms of faculty there, there is not a culture where they can learn active learning.” In the U.S., instructors have access to specialized training for AL. Although not all instructors participate in this training, one U.S. Instructor shared their positive experience in a three-week workshop on AL, which prepared the instructor for creating materials for the FCM. In contrast, the lecturers had a three-hour AL training to prepare for the FCM. In general, U.S. teaching practice encourages U.S. Instructors to be observed in their teaching methods, while also encouraging U.S. Instructors to observe others who are using AL. Lecturers were also hesitant to share their concerns with the teaching method but hinted at their own concern of being under-resourced. The U.S. Instructors generally provide facilitation guides for lecturers to use; however, lecturers shared that the facilitation guides were sometimes incomplete. This inconsistency in the
facilitation guides could be because not all U.S. Instructors participated in AL training. Further, lecturers shared that they received the facilitation guides after the course began, or that the lecturers found the facilitation guides to be unhelpful. The facilitation guides were unhelpful because they did not offer tailored materials, or the materials were given too late for the lecturer to effectively use. The overall finding in this section is that both lecturers and U.S. Instructors may not have had training in AL, which resulted in inconsistent FCM facilitation guides and teaching methods.

**Classroom Behaviors**

Students in both Cambodia and Indonesia shared similar cultural norms that differ from U.S. cultural norms in terms of classroom behavior; for example, “students speak less to show their respect to seniority to the professors,” according to Administrator Pisey. Students are less likely to ask an instructor a question about the course material. Administrators and lecturers in both locations explained this cultural notion - the ability to speak to an instructor is dependent on a student’s social class. Students from private high school education institutions, which are expensive to attend, are more likely to speak to the instructor and/or lecturer. On the other hand, those students on scholarships, meaning they come from families that have high financial need, are less likely to speak to instructors and lecturers. Understanding this cultural concept is significant due to the financial pressures concept addressed in RQ1. The FCM encourages students to bring questions to class based on the content they learned during the online portion of their learning. Culturally, students had to adjust to this teaching method. Students at the MC have adjusted to the learning model by using their peer-to-peer relationships in-class. Students in both locations were giggling and talkative to their peers even when the lecturer was teaching or speaking. In the U.S. this behavior may be considered disrespectful; however, culturally this
behavior is well accepted. Students were multitasking; working on group assignments while exchanging chitchat, a normal practice. If the instructor asked a question, which was done in most classroom observations (IDQ and IRQ), students responded without hesitation and remained fully engaged in the course. However, students were hesitant to ask questions of the lecturer. TNE students need encouragement to ask questions of the lecturer during the in-person part of the class to adjust to the FCM.

**Successful Students**

To become a successful student in the FCM a student must master IL and utilize course content on their own. Successful students benefited from having open access to materials from the MC through the LMS. A student in Indonesia, Dedi, shared, “If I forget some of the material I can go back and learn it again. I love the flipped class actually. There is just so much work to do. I enjoy it so.” Many students shared similar sentiments about how valuable it is to have access to the materials on D2L. Students review the materials not only in their current course, but they review the materials when they proceed to the next course. In the FCM, students are challenged to learn material outside of the classroom and bring their questions to the in-person course. Pich expressed happily, “I can see how much I am learning from the course and how the other people are challenged.” Students shared that once they mastered the D2L scheduling and navigating D2L, their confidence grew inside and outside the classroom. Students also reported that their FCM learning improved their learning in other courses because they learned how to prepare effectively. Although students felt that the workload of the FCM was heavier than their traditional courses, they reported stronger learning outcomes. This is largely due to the dual role of IL and AL.
Beyond becoming comfortable with IL, students noted that successful students ask questions. Although asking questions may not always fit the culture, in the FCM, the role of asking questions helps student learning. One Cambodian student, Raskmey articulated the importance of the in-person course, “If you don’t really understand the problem you can ask the professor [lecturer] who will really help you because the course will improve your learning.”

Developing student voice is something that takes time for the MC students to learn. In comparison to their high-school and local experiences, the teacher/instructor plays a large role in motivating students to engage in activities and to create a space where students can ask questions, even if those questions are asked peer-to-peer. Peer-to-peer learning is highly effective in the FCM. A student in Indonesia, Rizky, explained:

> It taught me to reach out to other people. Do you understand this? And what I mean is that I started to talk to them. I started to tell them I think it should be like this. They tell me what they think…I incorporate it into my own opinion, and actually this is really a benefit.

Students enjoyed sharing various perspectives and working together to find solutions. They viewed the FCM as an opportunity to challenge each other, share information and work together towards the goal of graduation.

Engineering students in Cambodia reported a higher sense of student success due to one of the U.S. Instructors leading the MC. One of the U.S. Instructor serves as their advisor, actively providing advice to students on how to apply for a Master’s degree in the United States. Muthia summarized their relationship, “It feels great to have someone familiar help us with that.” When conducting interviews, I knew instantly which U.S. Instructor the students were talking about because during his interview I spent time in his office. On his office walls, he had the pictures of
all his students by cohort. It seemed he was actively rooting them on. He also asked me if there was a way to bring the students Engineering T-Shirts, he wanted the students to have the same T-shirts the U.S. based students had. While I was unable to bring the T-shirts, it is notable how strong his connection was with the students. He had a clear relationship and cared for them as expressed by the students. He wanted MC students to feel that they are UArizona Engineering students, that they belong at the university. The students felt their success was, in large part, due to his dedication to helping them navigate the program and build community.

**Learning Styles**

Students shared that the FCM offered a chance to use learning styles that they had not been previously exposed to in previous learning environments, more specifically, independent learning (IL) and active learning (AL). IL can be challenging for TNE students due to aspects addressed in RQ1, including course design, course communication and course content. For the reasons highlighted in RQ1, students appreciate the “flipped” portion of the course, where they could challenge what they learned independently in the classroom with their peers. Students shared how the in-person course time was used, describing the experience as “full of activities,” “efficient use of time,” and “necessary.” The FCM seems to balance both IL and group activities. Students felt overall that the questions they had developed through IL would be answered in class. Students felt that IL could be improved with higher quality videos, tailored examples and higher engagement with the U.S. Instructor. In this section I will describe the findings for IL and AL.

**Independent Learning**

Students defined independent learning (IL) as self-taught learning, wherein the student is responsible for learning course materials on their own. Students reacted positively and negatively
to IL. Social students preferred to have in-class courses only, while others thrived at the chance to learn individually. A student in Indonesia, Aulia, explained, “In the classroom, I have to deal with people. I have to concentrate with the other people. The benefit is when we are using the videos, I can be more focused because I am alone.” IL was something that many students found as valuable, though difficult at first. In the FCM students spend time on their own learning the online materials. Many students expressed never learning independently prior to the model and found the transition difficult. Ahmad explained, “We have it tough, tough. It’s hard.” It was difficult for students to understand the expectations of the FCM and to know what should be absorbed prior to the in-person class and what would be contextualized for a local perspective. Students reported that their FCM learning took significantly longer than their other courses. One student in Cambodia, Rahmat, articulated, “If you have a course here we just go to class and explain it, but here, we have to look it up and spend more time on it. It’s just more time.” Overall, the student consensus between both countries was that IL increased their workload due to the time it takes to watch and complete the activities. Students also reported, however, that they overcame these challenges by increased IL skills such as time management and self-motivation.

Students from both Cambodia and Indonesia expressed how community plays a role in learning. Students often do their work together and measure success as a time when all students are successful. With IL, the community aspect of their learning is changed, causing a shift in how to relate to peers. In their other classes, students can tell when a peer is struggling. In the FCM students shared that it is hard to know if a student needs help. For example, Budi explained, “When they [a student peer] don’t understand, but they don’t want to share that they don’t understand. They just keep it to themselves. So we don’t know if they need help or
not.” Students were unsure how to help each other through the IL portion of the FCM. They shared that they all watch the videos independently, but they do their assignments together when they can. Some students reported being more successful in IL, expressing that it allowed them to focus on their work and not to be distracted by their peers. Sophea was careful to select her words when I asked what benefits she experienced in the FCM. After a long time, she laughed and said the following, “Because we learn by ourselves, we can understand more, if we understand it. If we don’t understand though, we don’t understand at all.” She laughed again. She felt like she was one of the students who understood the material, but feared for her peers who were uncertain that they had a full grasp on the materials. Peer-to-peer relationships have a role in IL at the MC.

**Active Learning**

Active Learning (AL) is used heavily in the FCM, though it may be new to the MC students. In one of the D2L courses, a U.S. Instructor defined AL in the syllabus, as seen in Figure 5.1:

**Figure 5.1**

*Active Learning Description*

“ACTIVE LEARNING

The class period will be devoted to student Active Learning (AL) activities. These AL activities will involve (you) the student solving problems individually or in teams of two”

: Image from a course syllabus describing active learning.

The definition used in the syllabus examples differs slightly from the common understanding of AL. A more general understanding of AL is when students engage in the course materials through active methods vs. passive methods. Examples of active methods include discussions,
problem-solving, case studies and small group work. Lecturer Renaldi from Indonesia explained further, “Due to the group discussion, they are more active, they have their own idea, they will share with their friends… the FCM will help them.” In the FCM, AL is significant because the students experience IL prior to the in-person course allowing them to be more active in the classroom. The learning outcomes from AL improve student engagement and allow for course discussion and activities.

The FCM increases student soft skills through AL. A student in Cambodia, Nadira, shared, “Every time I learn here I don’t think about what kind of knowledge I can get. I look at the soft skills, how to work on teams, the networking, that’s what I want to get out of this.” The student continued to share that AL allows the student to move beyond knowing how to look at a chart or make an analysis, but rather, an opportunity to be prepared for a career in teamwork. Students in the Business courses also shared this sentiment, expressing that they were gaining soft skills that would be valuable in the business world once they graduated. Students in this study described AL as a way to gain soft skills.

One of the MC courses included AL as a part of the grade, which can be seen in Figure 5.2, which students appreciated.

**Figure 5.2**

*Grading Scheme Example*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exams:</td>
<td>3@15%</td>
<td>45.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final:</td>
<td>1@25%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL:</td>
<td>25@5%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HW:</td>
<td>10@1%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quiz:</td>
<td>25@3%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

100%
Students voiced concern over a lack of grade for participation or course attendance. In the course highlighted in Figure 5.2, students said that their efforts during the in-person class were taken into consideration. By having AL as a graded item, students prepared more thoroughly before the class began. Lecturer Arif explained, “They learn better. They engage in more activities.” Students described AL as a way to apply their work effectively and as a way to build community in peer-to-peer relationships. The students felt strongly in both countries that the in-person portion of the course was necessary to supplement their IL outside the classroom.

**LMS Document Analysis**

Data collected in the LMS Document Analysis was used to answer RQ2 Subquestion, by focusing on how the LMS presents itself to TNE students as learners according to TTD. There are three types of engagement: learner to learner, learner to content, and learner to instructor. The learner to learner engagement takes place in the in-person AL of the FCM. The learner to content and learner to instructor develops through the LMS. Students are highly engaged as learners in the FCM through in-class AL, but the interaction within the LMS is inconsistent across courses offered in the MC. For example, one of the most inconsistent standards across the LMS document analysis was General Standard Five of the QM Rubric, “Learning Activities and Learner Interaction.” Elements in standard five can be seen in Figure 5.3:

**Figure 5.3**

*QM General Standard Five*
General Standard Five, “Learning Activities and Learning Interaction” of the QM Rubric focuses on how instructors’ interact with learners and design interactions

The entire Quality Matters (QM) Rubric is shown in Appendix (X). This is significant because U.S. Instructors can create engagement opportunities with students as learners through the LMS. For example, RQ1 introduced Play-Posit, where student Sheren expressed high engagement with the content because of the interactive tool. Yet, as seen in Figure 5.4, nearly half of the courses observed lacked engagement tools, where the students engaged with the content and the U.S Instructors beyond course videos:

**Figure 5.4**

*Use of Engaging Tools*

![Image of a pie chart showing the percentage of responses regarding learner engagement.](image)

*Image 5.4 highlights how the LMS courses in this study interact with QM standard five.*

TNE students in this study communicated that they would like more interaction with their U.S. Instructors. Student Ani explains, “Personally, I don’t feel connected to the lecturer in Arizona. I
don’t really feel connected because I only see them in the videos…it’s a one-way relationship.” Students who felt the lack of connection may have benefited from learner engagement between learner and instructor through the LMS. In the six courses observed, only 33.3% of the courses, included clear learning activities for students to interact with the U.S. Instructor, as seen in Figure 5.5.

**Figure 5.5**

*Interaction with U.S. Instructor*

![Pie chart showing interaction with U.S. Instructor](image)

*Shows that only 33.3% of the courses had opportunities for students to interact with the U.S. Professor through the LMS.*

Learning objectives had a part in how students perceived their role as learners. An additional example of instructor to student learning was first addressed in RQ1 when learning objectives were highlighted as an important element of communication between students and instructors. QM General Standard Two, shown in Figure 5.6, explains the elements of competent learning objectives:

**Figure 5.6**

*QM General Standard Two*

General Standard Two used in QM is important to RQ2 Sub question because the LMS course design influences how students perceive their role as learners. In RQ1, Student Sothy explained how students use learning objectives to be successful students. Learning objectives are a way for instructors to communicate with students their learning expectations. About half of the courses observed included prominent learning objectives, as seen in Figure 5.7, however, not all courses communicated students’ roles as learners. TNE students need clear expectations to know what they are supposed to deliver to their U.S. Instructors. At the same time, administrators and lecturers wanted the freedom to contextualize the learning outcomes to the local culture.

Administrator Fajar explained:

> Our faculty can figure out how they want to teach the content, how they want to achieve the learning outcomes. They can contextualize everything. There’s nobody that knows these students better than the faculty that work with them every day. We have to explain it; we have to get the point across. And maybe in a very different way. For the kids who maybe need to be challenged, we can challenge kids in a different way as well.

Due to the collaboration between lecturers and U.S. Instructors, the importance of clear learning objectives is important in TNE. The significance of this finding is that while learning objectives need to be clear for students to be learners, the learning objectives also need to be considerate of the local context offered by local instructors.

Figure 5.7
Use of Learning Objectives

Are the learning objectives clearly stated and prominently located in the course?
6 responses

- 50%
- 33.3%
- 16.7%

Yes
No
Sometimes
Not Available

Highlights General Standard Two of the LMS Document Review, where learning objectives are clearly stated in the D2L course.

Another significant example in the findings was when students addressed a desire to have interactive feedback from their U.S. Instructor. Feedback in the LMS was given through the gradebook. Students had, however, a direct desire to interact with U.S. Instructors through other forms of feedback. Student Nimol shared, “Our teacher here [lecturer] gives the feedback. If we could have feedback from the U.S. teacher on what we did correct maybe, we could feel more connection. For now, it’s purely transactional.” QM Rubric General Standard Three, shown in Figure 5.8, addresses the “Assessment and Measurement” that takes place through the LMS:

Figure 5.8

QM General Standard Three

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment and Measurement</th>
<th>Requirement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1 The assessments measure the achievement of the stated learning objectives or competencies.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 The course grading policy is stated clearly at the beginning of the course.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Specific and descriptive criteria are provided for the evaluation of learners’ work, and their connection to the course grading policy is clearly explained.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 The assessments used are sequenced, varied, and suited to the level of the course.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 The course provides learners with multiple opportunities to track their learning progress with timely feedback.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
General Standard Three, “Assessment and Measurement” of the QM Rubric focuses on feedback, assessment, grading, and clarity of objectives

Although students could receive instant feedback through the gradebook, the grades were mostly calculated by their local instructors. Administrator Hasana explained, “There should be a better mechanism for [student to instructor] feedback about the content and the context, but I don’t know that they [U.S. Instructors] can necessarily make changes like that.” The LMS can facilitate two-way interactions with students and instructors. The significance of this finding is that students seek interaction through LMS from their TNE instructors.

Overall, the most significant finding of the LMS observation is that the QM Rubric is not inclusive of new forms of TNE. On the surface a course could have a high score for QM standard 3.5, wherein, the instructor provides timely feedback for students. Nevertheless, the timely feedback may not consider the geographic location of the student receiving the feedback. More specifically, because of the time difference the next assignment could be due prior to receiving feedback on the previous assignment. Further, students shared throughout their interviews that feedback was not given from the U.S. Instructor, rather by the lecturer. Although a gradebook provides feedback, the lack of direct feedback from the U.S. Instructors removes students learning autonomy. TNE students cared about who was providing the feedback; as students were paying and attending a U.S. institution, they wanted feedback from the U.S. Instructor. Essentially, a course can pass the QM standards however additional factors may need to be considered for TNE students. QM standard 2.3 offers a bridge towards a cultural understanding because it includes the language, “from the learners’ perspective” when considering how learning outcomes are displayed; however, it is unclear when completing QM how the
perspective of the student is considered. For example, if the language or instructions of an assignment do not fit a localized context, the course may pass the standards, but the objective may be unclear to the student. Unclear learning objectives or learning objectives that are not contextualized remove learning autonomy from the student.

**Deficit Based Language**

During the LMS document analysis, two of the six D2L courses were found using deficit-based language in the online introduction to students. Deficit-based language occurs, for example, when a group of students is asked a question which causes that group to be viewed as less than another group, impacting the achievement gap. Several of the D2L courses began with a module to introduce students to online learning that included a quiz, “Is Online Learning for Me,” an example of which can be seen in Figure 5.9. In two of the LMS courses observed, this module is the first interaction students have with the course. In one of the courses, this module appears as a first quiz. Students reported that they were worried about their grades. Lecturer Jawad explained, “I have one student who received a D, but he is one of the best students. His grade is low because the load was too heavy and he was having family issues.” The wording used was concerning to the students because if online learning was not for them they did not have other options. Although there is only one example found in this study, it is significant because it introduces students to online learning in the MC, and it is taken as a template that future LMS courses can use as well.

**Figure 5.9**

*Deficit-Based Language Example*
RQ2 addresses how students see themselves as learners. The first quiz students encounter uses deficit language that does not support the “student as learners” viewpoint. The question offered as the title of the quiz is problematic. Students in the MC have no other option but to take the course with online learning, as it is a component within the FCM. Deficit based language impacts how students feel about a course. While this example is specific to two courses at a MC, the overall finding is that deficit language impacts students’ learning, especially when students are already struggling.

**Representation of TNE Students as Learners on LMS**

TNE students were not represented in the LMS document analysis of six courses. It is important to note that in all of the LMS photos, if the pictures were of hands, the hands were white. There were limited photos that included people of color, and there were no images of SE Asian students on D2L in the courses observed. RQ2 focuses on students and how they see themselves as learners; however, Figure 5.10 and 5.11 highlight the lack of imagery of SE Asian students in the MC LMS.

**Figure 5.10**

*LMS Image Example 1*
First image shown on the content page of an Engineering D2L course, this is the stock photo used weekly to describe the module. The image is of white hands working on a laptop.

**Figure 5.11**

*LMS Image Example 2*

First image shown in a Business course, serves as the banner for the course, the image is of white hands working on an assignment.

**Sense of Belonging: Student Identity**

Students had mixed reactions to the question, “Do you identify as a UArizona student?” Some laughed at the answer, “Of course” and others shied away from the answer saying they would first identify as a student from their local institution because the relationship with UArizona did not extend beyond the classroom. Students identify first with their local institution
largely because student activities are not offered at the MC. One student in Indonesia, Fahima, explained her MC identity, “…it’s more formally, informally, I have several friends studying in Arizona. They have extra-curricular, it’s different on this campus. We only follow the academic things, not the non-academic things.” The overall sentiment from students is that they felt different from traditional U.S. based students. They described themselves as “international” students because they were having a foreign experience. Students shared that they are using social media and following the UArizona accounts, and what they are seeing as the UArizona student experience is different from the student experience they are having at the MC. Exposure to various social media accounts and university branding made students want to go physically in-person to the U.S. campus. Several students shared that they would feel like real UArizona students if they could go visit or graduate in-person. This section highlights the findings of how students felt about their sense of belonging through several themes including, Student I.D. cards, sense of pride from academic success, and the role of university branding.

**Student I.D Cards**

The majority of students interviewed attached their UArizona student identity to having a student identification card (student I.D.). If they had the card, that meant they were official UArizona students. Prendy shared a common response to the question about identity, “Yes, because I have a Cat Card [name of student I.D.].” Many students smiled large grins, laughed with happiness or even pulled out their student I.D. card to show me that they had one. One student in Cambodia, Bintang, summarized the feeling of holding a student I.D., “The effect of actually holding the student ID and saying, ‘oh wow, I am actually a student at Arizona as well,’ even though I study online courses. You are a part of the UA as well although you don’t go to America and study there.” On the other hand, students who did not yet have their UArizona
student I.D. felt disconnected from UArizona. One student shared that she missed the chance to sign up for the card and did not know how to obtain one, so she did not feel like a real UArizona student yet. The significance of this finding is that students felt connected to UArizona because they had the same student I.D. card as students at the main campus.

**Sense of Pride from Academic Success**

When I followed-up with students about what makes them feel like a UArizona student, a handful of students answered with an academic focus, expressing that by taking the same classes as U.S. based students, they were equally UArizona students. Students shared several examples of how identity and sense of belonging comes from a sense of pride over their achievement in the coursework. For example, Raskmey shared that a U.S. Instructor emailed the class because they did well and earned high grades. He went on to say, “That kind of boosted me up. I feel like I belong here. Because the professor says I am working hard.” Acknowledgement from the U.S. Instructor made the students feel like they were seen and validated for their hard work. Similarly, Agung shared, “I think we feel a sense of pride and proud of ourselves…we can do a 7-week intensive course and still be able to complete it and get good grades.” Students felt accomplished with a sense of pride towards their academic achievement. They also felt that having access to the same curriculum and resources as U.S. based students gave them a sense of belonging to the TNE campus.

**University Branding**

Within a few minutes of being on-site at a MC, you would know that there is a partnership with a U.S. university because students are showcasing UArizona branding. Students in the study areas and waiting in the hallways before classes to start had their student I.D. cards hanging from their necks, UArizona stickers on their laptops, and some even wore UArizona
clothing items. Several students shared that having UArizona merchandise made them feel connected to the U.S. campus. One student in Indonesia, Randika, summarized,

   We could experience the same experience they have there…like, their merchandise. The shirt…I want to buy it, anything that has the logo…Why can’t I have it? Why didn’t we have it here, why can’t I buy it here. I have to buy it there, right? So it’s a shame, actually.

Students indicated that they had a strong sense of belonging when they were wearing or had access to university branded materials. Beyond the physical gear, students noticed that their resources on their D2L sites were often marked with UArizona branding. Students suggested that when the materials were branded with UArizona headings it appeared more official. During the in-class observations, some of the lecturers used PowerPoint slides or other visual aids that included UArizona branding. Students shared that they were more likely to download and save a document if it had the university branding on it because the document appeared to be official, and therefore, important. Access to materials and merchandise with UArizona branding caused a sense of belonging for TNE students.

**Sense of Place**

Students felt disconnected from UArizona because they did not know what the campus looked like. One student Ani pleaded, “I want to see exactly what my campus is.” When I asked if she had seen photos of the main campus the student responded, “No.” Several students approached me informally to ask what the campus was like and if there were truly cacti. I found it surprising that some students had not seen images of Arizona which caused me to do a deeper observation of the LMS. Throughout the LMS D2L pages there are places for instructors to select images. Many of the D2L sites did not include photos of Arizona, but instead included
pictures across the U.S., including San Francisco and Nevada. Other photos were stock photos of students in a classroom or at a computer without a sense of place. Figure 5.12 better exemplifies why students do not have a strong sense of place for their TNE site.

**Figure 5.12**

*LMS Sense of Place Image Example*

*First image shown on the content page of an Engineering D2L course, the image is of the San Francisco bridge rather than an icon in Tucson, Arizona.*

Students in Cambodia are more likely to experience a sense of place as a part of their MC identity. In the Cambodia MC office, a sense of place was offered due to large images of the UArizona campus in the office. Although, students reported that they rarely use the MC office space. The campus logo, however, is something that students widely recognize. Students wanted to purchase clothing items that had the logo. Aditya explained, “I also want their merchandise. The shirt, whatever there, I want to buy it. Anything that has the logo and the wildcat.” Students derived their sense of place from the UArizona logo rather than images of the campus.

Students in Cambodia studying Engineering have the opportunity to visit the U.S. to complete one of their labs over the summer because the MC is not equipped with the necessary materials. Students shared that going to the U.S. and visiting the campus in-person helped with their sense of belonging. A U.S. Instructor, Derek, explained
You feel like you belong right away after you study here and graduate here but if you are away…they still speak their language there, interact with their people there. They don’t have that sense until they set foot on UA campus, you know that’s the first thing they told me here.

Since their lab work took place over the summer, however, they were disappointed not to meet or spend time with the main campus students. Additionally, one of their main U.S. Instructors had to meet with them over skype during their visit because he was not available during the summer. It is important to note that this trip was made possible by a U.S. Instructor who applied for a grant to help cover the cost of the students’ airfare. Students shared that they would not have been able to afford the trip without the financial support from the U.S. Instructor, the same instructor highlighted previously as a reason for student success.

Students who went to visit in-person still had similar sentiments to other students in Cambodia and Indonesia; the feeling that their main identifier as a UAriziona student was their student I.D card. Nickindo explained,

I feel like I was already a student before I went to Tucson because I have a school I.D. card. When I get there they just recognize and I have a cat card [student I.D.] and can access thinks like the museum. Just a really good experience.

When I asked students to share what they experienced during their time in the U.S., they happily shared all the times they used their student I.D. card. They shared that they accessed an on-campus museum for free, were able to use the card to do laundry and open buildings, and by showing the student I.D. card they could travel on the “Cat-Tran” a mini-bus that transports students across campus. Although students proudly wear their student I.D. card as a lanyard on their MC campus, the card does not have a specific function. However, when on-campus in the
U.S., the student I.D. card had many functions and the students felt a deep sense of belonging by having the opportunity to use it.

Student Technology Abilities

Overall, students, administrators and lecturers shared that students had strong technological abilities. The challenges students faced around using technology were limited to accessing the LMS platform and navigating D2L. Although students were new to online learning, they adapted quickly; however, the navigation period had a negative impact on their grades. For example, a student in Indonesia, Rafi, shared,

For the first 1-2 months, I sucked at it [navigating D2L]. There were a bunch of quizzes that I didn’t know, the links no longer worked. I emailed the lecturer [U.S. Instructor] …the lecturer said ‘No, the deadline has passed.’ So I lost 2-3 quizzes and it made my grade bad.

Some of the D2L courses included D2L navigation modules, but students did not feel that these modules were specific enough to the MC or the FCM. Since the FCM was a new method to the students, they shared that the transition was “weird.” To further explain, Pich shared, “Before, I just had to come to class and listen to lectures and take notes.” Students had to adapt to watching lectures independently and even take tests and quizzes online, which proved to be challenging for students when they would take a quiz, but then not be graded on the items. They were unsure if it was an error on D2L or an error they were making because the internet disconnected.

Students reported receiving high marks on quizzes but receiving low grades in the gradebook. Administrators in Indonesia called for better training and flexibility from UArizona as students adjust and learn how to navigate D2L. The significant finding in this section is that students have
strong technology abilities and adapt well to online learning, meaning the errors students experience are likely due to LMS system and not of the student.

**Relationship to the Microcampus**

When interviewing students, I used the term Microcampus (MC) to describe their campus and the FCM learning modality used at their campus location. However, most students were unfamiliar with the term. In both Cambodia and Indonesia, students frequently used the term “Dual Degree” to describe the TNE model. According to one of the U.S. administrators, Grant, one of the unique factors in a MC is

having a physical presence on the campus and not having a virtual degree. Because a lot of transnational higher education is delivered online and we do it in-person and in a cooperative manner. We have space. It’s a campus within a campus.

Although there is a designation of space on campus, students did not feel that there was a staff member easily accessible to answer questions and support students consistently. Most students could not name a UArizona employee. Due to my role as a PhD student from Arizona many students approached me about helping them with various needs from how to apply to graduate school to asking me how to obtain a UArizona Student I.D. Sheren expressed her concern, “We need a person. Someone to care about us from Arizona.” Although the campus exists in terms of a campus space, it was clear why students viewed the program as a Dual Degree versus a MC. Students did not feel that the MC is a campus, but as a dual degree program.

**Connecting to Staff in Arizona**

TNE models need institutional support staff to create a sense of belonging. Students felt that there was not a way to connect to their TNE university beyond the classroom. Ani, a student
in Indonesia, expressed her anger, “Are there Arizona people here? Like one person we can talk to? I don’t know.” Another student in Cambodia, Rossa, echoed, “We don’t have people to lean on.” Students shared that there had been a few visits from U.S. Instructors and staff, but the visits were rare. Lecturer Darany explains, “Arizona supports them [students] getting in, but then they are relying on me.” Students reported a desire to be connected to the MC administration for assistance in advising, career, and graduate school, but more than that, they sought building a relationship with a staff member from the U.S. to help them navigate the MC. Agung summarized, “We try to be like real UA students…but Arizona is over there, Indonesia is over here.” The distance between the main university and the MC challenged how students make connections to staff and how they interpret their sense of belonging. Many students used the term “real” student. Having support structures and activities with UArizona staff would ultimately make students feel more supported and develop a sense of belonging.

**Student Activities**

Student activities are important to building sense of belonging in TNE. Unlike traditional U.S. campuses, students reported a lack of student activities available to them through the MC. Harrison, an administrator explained the role of the MC, “it’s an office with a logo, not a campus.” Students expressed that their educational needs were being met, but that a sense of community and opportunities to engage with each other outside of a classroom setting, and with their TNE institution, was missing. Rossa explained, “Arizona hasn’t given us anything but education.” This lack of student community was evident not only in the physical space of the MC, but in the online portions as well. On one of the D2L sites, an example of which can be seen in Figure 5.13, the language for a module included “100% Engagement” a campus initiative for students to participate in engagement activities. The module included ways for students to get
involved on campus, yet all the opportunities available through the direct links were for U.S. based campus activities that MC participants would be unable to attend. The same D2L course includes a module that reads, “Undergraduate Events Calendar.” Once again, all the events on the calendar were for U.S. based students and not for the MC students.

**Figure 5.13**

*Student Activities Module Example*

> Image from D2L course that highlights student activities available to U.S. based students, but not MC students.

The most common theme across all student participants was a desire to connect and interact with students living in the U.S. and to have access to student activities that would enhance their MC experience. Fahima explained, “There should be more interaction…give more interaction. There should be some interaction between us and them. If you really want to see a lot of improvements in both sides than we should see each other.” Students were hopeful that in future years of the MC student community program activities would increase. For example, they desired activities such as alumni/networking groups, game watching events, English club, orientation programming and advising sessions for post-graduation plans. Student Dedi explained, “If we could have a club, we could have more fun, right? We could experience the same experiences
like they have there.” Students also shared a feeling of isolation in their coursework, unaware of other MC students in varying majors, causing them to ask for student activities for the UArizona students at the partner institution. They understood that they may not be able to connect to their U.S. peers, but believed they could connect to their other MC peers on campus. A key finding is that TNE students were aware that student activities are not meant for them and that students desired activities to feel a sense of belonging with their TNE institution.

Students in Cambodia have participated in activities with UArizona students in a few instances. For example, they had a live skype session with computer science students to work on a coding database. Additionally, when UArizona U.S. based students participated in a short-term study abroad session, several Cambodia students had lunch together with the visiting students and played soccer. Rahmat explained the significance of the student interaction, “It would be nice to have a bit of interaction with some students with UA. Some students came last summer, but only a few people went. If we could all connect it would better.” Although these encounters were limited, students remembered the times they interacted with UArizona U.S. based students.

In Indonesia, students had difficulty recalling a time where UArizona sponsored student activities. In all the interviews, only one event became evident:

“Researcher: Do you feel like you have a community here?
Bopha: Yes, we had a pizza party.
Researcher: Who had the pizza party.
Bopha: I don’t know.”

Administrators shared that the pizza party was an event to introduce a new UArizona administrator. Students shared that they enjoyed this experience and that it welcomed them into the office where administrators from UArizona had office space, but it did not serve as a
resource or a connection as they still could not name an UArizona administrator. This finding is significant because if TNE partners build student activities, it is also important to consider the intended outcomes for students.

**Graduation**

Students amplified the sentiment that graduating at the UArizona in-person would create a sense of belonging that they were “real” university students. One 4th year student, Rathana explained, “In order for me to have the sense of belonging that I am a UA student…it makes sense to me if I graduate there directly.” Students have the option to graduate in-person, but there are financial implications. Many students shared they would be unable to afford the trip for graduation. Aditya sadly expressed,

> I don’t know whether my name is on the list or not [graduation list]. It’s just feeling like a ghost. Like being ghosted. Because I don’t know whether I have money of course going to Arizona is easy, but I am not thinking of going for vacation, I am thinking of graduation.

Students shared that if they were able to afford the journey, they would eagerly attend graduation, “if they enable me.” If students were unable to go to graduation in-person, they had the option of purchasing or borrowing UArizona graduation gear and attending a ceremony at their local campus. Despite this option, students expressed that by not graduating in-person they did not feel like they were receiving the true UArizona experience. The key finding is that graduation plays a significant role in student motivation to complete their studies at the MC; however, students feel a disconnection with their academic and student experience when they do not visit the U.S. campus in-person.

**Post-Graduation Plans**
One of the research questions asked in this study included, “What are your plans after graduation?” The intention of this question was to gauge where students felt a sense of belonging, whether they felt a tie to their home country or if they were seeking a MC degree to pursue international careers. A common theme was the student’s intentions to pursue further education abroad:

Researcher: “Where do you want to go?”

Muthia, 4th Year, Engineering Student: “Anywhere but Cambodia (Laughter)”

Researcher: “You want to leave?”

Student: “Definitely.”

To follow, many students emphasized the reason for wanting to leave was for better job opportunities abroad. Students who were not receiving scholarship awards felt they needed a return on their investment. One of the lecturers in Cambodia, Sokna, explained why students want to leave,

The biggest question is when you ask students when they finish, ‘where did they belong?’ Culturally? Professionally? Where can they work? Can they work in Cambodia? Not necessarily, because they are learning by American guys, and learning American building codes. If they graduate from law how can they apply it to a Cambodia environment? You can tell how many places they can work. They are not really employable here. In Civil Engineering, how are you going to teach the students and tailor it to the students? You either tailor it or expand it.

Students expressed that the curriculum used in the MC model is U.S. based, meaning students in the program who would like to stay in the local area would likely need a local certificate of some kind to pursue local opportunities. Students in both Indonesia and Cambodia shared that they would most likely pursue Master’s degrees or even PhDs in the U.S. or in Europe. The students
were also aware that a Master’s degree is needed in both Engineering and Business to be competitive globally and in surrounding Asian countries. Almost every student shared that they planned to continue with their education abroad. Yet, many of them shared the need for a scholarship to pursue education abroad. Although they had the intention of going abroad, they were unsure how to afford the experience. Several students stated that they would work for a few years locally before continuing their education. One of the reasons students selected to attend a MC was because of the accreditation that is associated with the MC. Students may be unable to apply internationally after their undergraduate without the U.S. accreditation. The key finding in this section is that students graduating from a MC will be dependent on more educational degrees because the MC does not prepare them to work anywhere but the U.S. due to the lack of global materials and cultural disconnection. Further, TNE students’ post-graduation plans include leaving their local communities.

Post-graduation, all participant groups doubted that MC students would continue a relationship with the university. The MC program was described as “transactional” by all participant groups. U.S. Instructor Alex, described why: “I don’t think they would have the same sets of loyalty or pride that our students on-campus would feel…I would be really shocked. This is feeling much more like a transactional thing than a community.” Indicators of connections post-graduation include participation in alumni/networking groups and institutional giving. One administrator in Cambodia, Grant, asked, “why would they stay in touch with us [UA]arizona] later?” It is unclear how students in the MC will continue their relationship with their TNE model or what type of role they will play as alumni. TNE students will not likely continue a relationship with the MC post-graduation.
The university in Indonesia holds an internship requirement as a part of the program. A few students who participated in the internship were among those that intended to stay in Indonesia. Students said they would have a strong opportunity to be offered a position after graduation. In fact, Indonesian administrator Ellie, stated, “We have had really great placement rates, 90-95% job rates. It’s unheard of here. In a country of one million, 200,000 kids each year are underemployed or not employed college graduates.” Although students may still pursue further education in the future, the internship pipeline to employment assisted them in planning their next few steps. The key finding in this section is that local internships are significant to students staying locally after earning a TNE degree.

Summary of RQ2

Research Question 2 (RQ2) examines how students learn in the FCM, more specifically, when they learn in a TNE environment. The findings in this section examined two main concepts, formal learning that takes place through the FCM, and informal learning that is developed through the MC. This section will be broken into two parts, online learning and student learning in TNE.

Online Learning: How Students Learn in the Flipped Classroom Model

One of the key benefits of online learning for TNE students was consistent access to course material and content from their online learning classroom. Students consistently shared that they revisited the materials not only in the semester they were focused on the class, but will access it for years to come. Students in this study had strong technological abilities. Despite early-on difficulties with adjusting to the LMS, students adapted to online learning. Once students mastered the LMS platform, they expressed that the online portion of the FCM strengthened their mastery of their coursework.
The LMS document analysis used an adapted QM Rubric to better understand how students viewed themselves as learners according to TTD. This analysis revealed a few key findings including the importance of interaction with the U.S. Instructor through the LMS. Although instructors provided course content, few instructors had direct ways to engage with TNE students through the LMS. Students highlighted two key ways they had hoped to interact with instructors online: through interactive activities and direct feedback from their U.S. Instructors.

The FCM engages students and promotes learning for TNE students because it engages students in independent learning (IL), and AL. Administrators in Indonesia highlighted a time when their university partnered with an online only TNE university. Administrators found that students were not viewing the videos or interacting with the course. In the FCM, however, students were attending the class after preparing independently and then participating in AL during in-class sessions. During in-class observations, students had a high engagement rate according to TDOP because of how they were participating with AL in the course.

While students had a strong grasp on the FCM, local in-person lecturers struggled to define the pedagogy which led to a mixed usage of teaching methods utilized during in-person classes. The in-person class observations found that most in-class lecturers were using AL, but inconsistently across the courses. According to TDOP, lecturers were not using student engagement teaching pedagogies. However, the lecturers were using small group work and instructor rhetorical questions for students to interact with the course content. Lecturers and U.S. Instructors shared a lack of training in the FCM, although U.S. Instructors having greater access to training tools than their counterparts. The key finding in this section is that while the FCM increased student learning at higher levels than their traditional classrooms (according to self-
reporting data from students, administrators and lecturers), lecturers could benefit from additional training on the FCM teaching practices.

Culturally, TNE students had to adjust to the FCM and were challenged to change their traditional classroom behaviors. The in-person classroom observations took place near the end of the student’s semester. Students were asking questions from the instructors. Administrators and lecturers explained during in-person interviews that in traditional classrooms students rarely ask questions. The FCM, however, encourages students to bring questions to class based on the content they learned during the online portion of their coursework. Students reported that successful students ask questions from their instructors and peers in the FCM. The finding offered in this section is that students fully adapted to the FCM despite cultural norms. Although the FCM is a unique teaching method in TNE, this study highlights that trying new teaching methods with TNE students can be beneficial to student learning. This study also highlights the importance of the in-person class time because it allowed for a cultural context to be provided by an in-person lecturer which helped students adapt to the material.

Transnational Education: Student Identity

Students who developed positive relationships with their U.S. Instructors felt a sense of belonging. Students from Cambodia spent time on the U.S. campus with their U.S. Instructor who also served as an advisor. Students felt that they could go to this instructor for more than course content. The significant finding offered for a broader TNE context is that TNE student relationships with their U.S. Instructors is a strong indicator of how students feel connected to their TNE university.

Students felt sense of belonging through their learning autonomy. For example, students gained a sense of pride from their personal academic success. MC campus students felt
accomplished for completing the same coursework as main campus students. Students also shared that having access to university branded learning materials helped with their sense of belonging. This finding is significant to TNE because student success through the FCM influenced their self-perceptions of themselves as well as their sense of belonging.

Student I.D. cards played a significant role in students developing sense of belonging. During in-class observations and interviews, students would proudly wear their Student I.D. cards on their necks or use university branded stickers on their computers to identify on their local campus as a MC student. This finding is significant because students also shared they had a lack of knowledge about what their campus looked like. In the LMS document analysis, clear photos of Tucson or the university campus were missing, replaced with U.S. monuments/landscapes or campus buildings that TNE students would be unable to identify. While students lacked a visual understanding of the TNE campus, they clung to their Student I.D. cards. The Student I.D. cards made TNE students feel like they were “real” UArizona students.

Students in TNE want student support staff from their TNE institution. Connecting to a staff member from their TNE institution, whether it be their U.S. Instructor or administrator, was a key factor in developing sense of belonging. The TNE partner institution felt the pressure of supporting students without assistance. Without student support staff, students felt that they were in a dual-degree program rather than at a TNE campus. Students would like support staff to plan student activities, help students navigate their coursework and to serve as an overall resource for advising and post-graduation plans. TNE models differ widely; however, the significant finding is that support staff is needed in TNE to create a sense of belonging.
Graduation was a significant motivator to students completing their TNE coursework. Students who were on the path to graduation emphasized a strong desire to graduate in-person in the U.S. to complete their TNE experience. To graduate in-person was the most important factor for students to feel like they had completed the true TNE experience. Unfortunately, financial implications would mean nearly all students would be unable to attend graduation in the U.S. in-person. The significance in this finding is that TNE students focus on graduation as a motivator and desire a graduation ceremony that honors their TNE coursework.

A majority of students in this study desired to leave their home region and to continue the pursuit of education and employment elsewhere after they competed their TNE degree. Students largely felt that their MC degree did not prepare them for local employment opportunities, or that their business and engineering degrees required additional coursework. The significance of this finding echoes RQ1, wherein, students should select TNE programs that best prepare them for their future goals, and that help students figure out their future goals. For students aiming to continue their academic coursework, the MC offers them a U.S. degree and a better chance of entrance to a graduate school abroad, but for students seeking to remain local, the skills and course content may not have been tailored for local employment.
CHAPTER 6: RESULTS - RESEARCH QUESTION 3 – DIALOGUE AND STUDENT ENGAGEMENT

RQ3: Dialogue: What are the experiences of U.S. Instructors and lecturers in engaging with students in a flipped classroom transnational education model?

Sub question: How do U.S. Instructors and lecturers provide support and build a sense of belonging in the course?

RQ3 addresses the role of dialogue in TTD and how U.S. Instructors and lecturers use dialogue to communicate with students through transnational education. The term “lecturer” was developed from the perspective of MC students and will be described in detail in “Instructor Titles.” Sub question considers the role of sense of belonging in course dialogue. This chapter begins by examining the relationship students built with the lecturer. The section transitions to explore the perceived relationships between students and U.S. Instructors through several lenses: language, feedback, connection, office hours and overall communication. These sections are separated because student participants expressed different relationships with lecturers and U.S. Instructors due to their distinct roles. U.S. Instructors had the role of content creators while lecturers had the roles of in-class facilitators, graders and relationship builders. Finally, the chapter concludes with a theme that dominated the participant interviews: power dynamics between the lecturer and the U.S. Instructor. By exploring the relationship between U.S. Instructors and lecturers, the findings unpack how students perceive their sense of belonging.

Students’ Relationship with Lecturer

The role of the lecturer was imperative to student learning in the FCM. Almost all students found their time with the in-person instructor valuable, with a few students preferring online learning only. The students who indicated they would prefer online learning only still advocated for a lecturer to contextualize materials when the student was unable to understand the
material on their own. The students unanimously shared that they needed a lecturer to reinforce the videos and online content. One of the key benefits of the in-person class with a lecturer was the motivation it gave students to be prepared. For example, Mony shared, “when he [lecturer] comes to class he always starts with several questions, he just points and says, ‘you answer the question’ so it motivates us to watch the video and read the notes in preparation.” Students expressed how important it was to have two instructors, one that can answer their questions immediately and one that can prepare content and was otherwise unavailable. Students felt the role of the lecturer was to be the intermediary between students and the U.S. Instructors. Students also felt that the lecturer could advocate for them or work with them to alter an assignment if the workload was too heavy or they had to miss class. TNE students reported a strong relationship with their lecturer.

**Instructor Titles**

TNE needs to consider the student perspectives when developing systems to improve dialogue between the U.S. Instructor and student. For example, students were frequently confused with the language used by the MC in terms of instructor titles. During the interview when I asked students what their relationship was with their “Global Lecturer” they often spoke about their U.S. Instructor. Sheren highlighted the confusion, “By Global Lecturer, what do you mean?” From the vantage point of the student, the “Global Lecturer” is the instructor who lives globally. The daily instructor is the “local” instructor because their role is to provide a cultural context for various aspects of the curriculum. Contention around the title “Global Lecturer” was evident amongst the lecturers as well. They would prefer to have a title that acknowledges their degrees and level of education. Many of the lecturers hold numerous degrees and have extensive teaching experience. The local administrators and lecturers felt strongly that the lecturers should
hold a courtesy appointment and become employees of the partner institution since they are
teaching and representing both universities. A changed title would impact how the lecturers view
themselves and their role in a MC. More specifically, they believed that it would make the FCM
more collaborative and equitable. Administrator Dennis explained how a title change would
impact the confidence of lecturers, “you’re a colleague and we recognize your credentials and
experience and as a courtesy we’re going to give you this appointment.” This finding is
significant because it highlights two main issues. First, lecturers had lower opinions of their
autonomy due to titles; and second, the need for TNE to think systematically from the student
perspective in order to improve dialogue between the U.S. Instructor, lecturer and student.

**Informal Communication between Lecturer and Student**

Students found it easier to connect with their lecturer through informal channels of
communication. The lecturers made themselves available to students in non-traditional ways by
connecting with students on social media and through their mobile devices. This informal
communication is due largely in part to students in Indonesia and Cambodia not typically using
email as a form of communication to their lecturers; instead, they use mobile devices to make
connections to administrators and lecturers. Lecturers shared that they use social media and
WhatsApp to communicate with students. Lecturer Sokna explained, “I have some of them on
Facebook…when something changes [in the course] you can send it to them like that.” One
lecturer specifically shared that he has created a secondary Facebook page for his students that is
separate from his personal Facebook page. Another lecturer created a separate Whatsapp phone
number where students ask questions at all hours of the day to ask clarification on assignments.
One feature on the app that is helpful for the students is a checkmark system where they can see
if the message was received or not. Additionally, if a lecturer saw many students that were
struggling with the same issue, they could adjust the following class. Administrators in Cambodia and Indonesia also received questions through the mobile platform Whatsapp. This finding is significant because TNE students communicate mainly through mobile devices, which may require TNE partners to shift how they communicate with students as modeled by lecturers.

**Language**

Language was not a barrier for lecturers who were not local to the region. Of the five classes observed in-person, four classes were taught by local Cambodians and Indonesians, and one was taught by a lecturer from outside of the region. Of the lecturer interviews, two included non-locals. I asked if the local language was used in the classroom, and all lecturers and students shared that the courses are always taught in English unless a word does not translate. One of the lecturers from outside the region said he was learning the local language while the other said it was unnecessary to do so, as the students in his class are highly efficient in English. The main purpose of learning the local language for the non-native lecturer was to communicate in slang on Whatsapp and in the classroom, which helped create a sense of belonging for the students. Ultimately, beyond some local language slang, there was no differences between local instructors and non-local instructors in the FCM because the non-local instructors had fully assimilated to the local country and had been in the area for a significant period of time.

**Use of Field Trip**

One of the lecturers in Cambodia initiated the use of field trips to help students reach the learning outcomes in their Engineering courses. One of the roles of the lecturer is to contextualize the material; however, not all the material has a local context. The lecturer wanted the Cambodian students to see bridges and building codes used in the materials that were not available locally. He orchestrated a field trip to Taiwan where he could show and introduce
course concepts in real life. A student who went on the field trip to Taiwan, Muthia, explained, “We can learn more in the field than in the classroom.” This finding is significant because the lecturer leveraged a location in SE Asia. Students were able to complete a quick weekend field trip at a low cost, rather than travelling to the U.S. to learn a specific concept. For example, in Taiwan, the students were able to see how buildings are structured for earthquakes and natural disasters. Students felt that it was helpful to learn from other countries to gain perspectives and deepen their understanding of the learning objectives. The field trip also enhanced the relationship between students and the lecturer. TNE models can utilize neighboring countries to leverage learning outcomes at a reduced cost to students.

**Students’ Relationship with U.S. Instructors**

**Student Expectations of U.S. Instructors**

TNE students had different expectations of the U.S. Instructor’s role in the MC than the U.S. Instructors had of themselves. Student Pich summarized the relationship, “it’s purely transactional.” Students in both countries expressed a lack of connection to the U.S. Instructor as the main challenge to FCM learning. Students described their relationship with U.S. Instructor as absent. From the vantage point of students, the role of U.S. Instructor was to provide content. The relationship between the students and the U.S. Instructor in the majority of courses studied did not extend beyond the course content. Students had the expectation that they would get to know and build a relationship with professors in the U.S. Without this interaction, students shared that they have been impacted negatively. More specifically, students reported that by not connecting regularly, their grades have suffered. For example, a student in Indonesia, Fahima, shared that during a test they were unsure if they were allowed to use calculators. Although they reached out to their U.S. Instructor, they did not receive a response in time for the exam, causing
the students not to use calculators on the test. The communication was unclear between the U.S. Instructor and the lecturer. Since it was the first test of the semester, students believed they should reach out to the U.S. Instructor. However, over time, they learned that they should reach out to the lecturer who would then reach out to the U.S. Instructor. Unfortunately, many of the students did not finish the exam or did poorly when they later found out they could have used calculators. Further, the instructions were missing from the LMS and the test itself. This lack of explicit testing instructions, along with the hierarchy of communication between the U.S. Instructor, lecturer and students caused a disconnection between students and U.S. Instructors in terms of content created for TNE students. More detailed instructions are needed for TNE students. Administrators and lecturers in both locations share that when mistakes like that happen, students do not speak out but instead accept the error. In the case with Fahima, she hoped that once the U.S. Instructor found out why the students did poorly on the exam, the problem would be addressed. She explained that because the students do not have a relationship with the U.S. Instructor, nothing was changed or adjusted, which left students feeling that the relationship between the U.S. Instructor and student was transactional.

Culturally, students are unlikely to bring up concerns or question the authority of the U.S. Instructor. Administrator Ellie explained, “…because of the culture issue, they may not speak out, they don’t complain. They don’t want to make any trouble.” When a U.S. Instructor makes an error in the course or on a student’s grade, it is highly unlikely that the student will complain to the U.S. Instructor. A few students shared that they do bring up problems as they arise, however, they do not always receive a response. For example, Sophea said, “ya, we complain but no change,” in response to the student stating that they are unable to see the materials in D2L. Students implied that if the U.S. Instructors had a relationship with the students, change would
occur, but for now, their emails have been disregarded. U.S. Instructors are following the
structure of the MC, but it is the student’s expectations of dialogue that are not aligned with the
model.

Students had an expectation that U.S. Instructors would provide course feedback; however, few students had a positive experience in receiving feedback. The MC model is
designed for lecturers to provide feedback. It was unclear to students that role of providing
feedback should only be for lecturers. Aditya shared her experience with course feedback, “The
only time I have received a response [from a U.S. Instructor] is for a presentation…and the only
feedback I got was, ‘interesting presentation.’” Students know that the lecturer is the grader for
the course, but they were hoping for more engagement from the U.S. Instructor. Students
ultimately described their relationship as “a one-way relationship.” The students were not alone
in this feeling. Alex, a U.S. Instructor echoed the students by expressing the following
the parts of teaching that are meaningful to me, the contact with students, the mentoring
of students, the helping students grow and overcome things that are challenging to them
is removed for the MC. The Global Lecturer is playing that role, but I am not.

It is apparent that both the U.S. Instructor and the students are seeking a relationship but have not
yet found a way to connect based on the current model.

One of the Cambodian students who did have the chance to go to the U.S. campus
expressed a deep connection with their U.S. Instructor. Bayu shared, “The professor really cares
about us, really cares about how we are doing and if we understand.” Cambodian students who
participated in the U.S. lab shared that they believed their U.S. Instructors could write a letter of
recommendation for graduate school on their behalf, whereas other students in both Indonesia
and Cambodia who did not travel to the U.S. were unsure if the U.S. Instructors knew their names or could write a letter for graduate school.

**Providing Program Feedback**

Students and lecturers described the inability to provide feedback to their U.S. Instructors. Student evaluations were used at the end of the course cycle. However, students did not feel comfortable with the format, timing or understand how answering the questions would impact the program. For example, a lecturer in Cambodia, Samuel, explained, “they [students] realize that’s how the program is run and that’s the way it is. And it doesn’t feel so flexible. Because the first semester they thought, oh, we can make demands. And then they realize that’s how the program is, and they just accept it.” Both lecturers and students were unsure how the feedback given through the student evaluations would impact the program or how their words would carry. Rasmey, a student, explained, “I don’t think Arizona has the perspective to fix it [issues].” Students and lecturers shared a common fear that negative feedback could cause harm in the TNE relationship, potentially causing the cancellation of the program rather than adaptive action. The finding offered in this section is that end of the semester student evaluations were not well received. Further, if feedback was given but no changes yielded, then students were not likely to give feedback again.

One Engineering course reviewed in the LMS document analysis offered transparency when the U.S. Instructor showcased student feedback. The U.S. Instructor provided a module entitled, “Lessons Learned.” In this module, the instructor considered student feedback from the end of class evaluations and through student communication to address areas in which students had varying opinions.

**Figure 6.1**
Lessons Learned Example

Titled “Lessons Learned” this figure is an example of U.S. Instructor incorporating student feedback into the course.

Highlighted in Figure 6.1, the “Lessons Learned” module showcased a table to show how each feedback item was addressed. Although not every piece of feedback had a direct result, it was clear that the U.S. Instructor listened to student feedback.

Communication

Use of Office Hours

Cultural differences play a role in how students use and understand U.S. Instructor office hours. Students felt that reaching out may have a negative impact on how the U.S. Instructor sees them. According to Lecturer Nary, in Indonesia, “…they [students] don’t even know what to ask…. they don’t even understand what the materials are and what they can figure out.” Lecturer Nary explained further, during a video conferencing call with the U.S. Instructor, a question
usually asked, “Does anyone [student] have any questions?” however students will likely not respond because they do not know what to ask and because they have not built a relationship with the U.S. Instructor. According to one Indonesian student, Mony, “Most of us, including me actually, I didn't have the courage to ask. When I don’t know, I leave not knowing because I didn’t ask.” Students shared that when a professor asked if anyone had questions the room will remain silent. After class, however, students will share that they did not know what or how to ask to their peers. Some U.S. Instructors offer office hours; however, MC students are unsure how to use those hours. One student in Cambodia, Ahmad, shared, “It seems like each professor wants the student to show more initiative. Since we live in a conservative country, we don’t take initiative…” in terms of reaching out to the professor on their own. Culturally, students are uncomfortable with asking questions without building a relationship with their U.S. Instructor. Although office hours may be available, students do not know how to use them. TNE students need clear guidance in how to use office hours and how to ask U.S. Instructors questions. The relationship building between U.S Instructor and TNE student is an important factor to creating TTD course dialogue. Essentially, students need to first find a sense of belonging with their instructor and then they will become more open to participating in dialogue.

**Video Calling**

Video calling plays an important role in developing a relationship between U.S. Instructor and MC student. More specifically, video calling allowed for students to feel, “more comfortable talking to the teacher,” according to Prendy. Students also had the expectation that there would be some sort of face-to-face connection with their U.S. Instructor. A student in Cambodia, Bintang, explained, “he has taught us this whole time, and we don’t get to meet him.” Students had a strong desire to meet with their U.S. Instructor, whether by email, skype or face-
to-face. Students felt that if the courses include face-to-face video calling it would help their comfortability in talking with the teacher and reaching out in the future. Students in both countries preferred video calling over email interaction. Although video calling improves the connection between the U.S. Instructor and students, the video calls were seldom used. Aulia explained her sentiments, “We actually have had 1 or 2 skype calls with them [U.S. Instructor] …personally, I don’t really feel connected to the lecturer in Arizona.” The student went on to share that they wished there was more of a connection, expressing that one to two calls in an entire semester is not significant. In both countries students reported that video calls happen infrequently, usually at the beginning and one at the midterm of the course. The key finding is that while video calling develops a relationship, the calls need to be frequent.

Video calling can be beneficial for helping MC students navigate resources. For example, after students performed poorly on the first exam of the class, the professor wanted to make sure the students at the MC were able to better utilize the resources. U.S. Instructor Alex explained, “I talked to them [students] about productive ways to use the materials and unproductive ways because I see it in-person all the time. In that case [poor test scores], it was dire enough that I skyped in the class, but other than that I don’t have any direct interaction.” Although Alex shared that there was not further interaction, students shared that the call after the poor test scores helped them feel cared for and built a sense of belonging. By highlighting the resources and materials, students improved and Alex did not follow-up with another call. Nickindo explained that video calling allows for students to feel, “more comfortable talking to the teacher.” By providing feedback on the tests, students felt that the U.S. Instructor was paying attention to the course and moving beyond transactional education. Video calling is rarely used in the MC
though it is seen as a channel for direct interaction for both students and U.S. Instructors. Thus, video calling is a tool that helps students develop a relationship with their TNE instructor.

Cambodia and Indonesia experienced little differences with video calling, except for internet connectivity issues. More specifically, the campus in Indonesia had challenges when students and lecturers tried to use skype, zoom and other video platforms during in-class lectures. Due to email access issues, U.S. Instructors and lecturers plan direct zoom calls for connection. However, not all students in Indonesia experienced video calling due to internet issues, which resulted in a lack of connection between students and U.S. Instructors. It is important for TNE to consider how to build a relationship between the U.S. Instructor and student when strong internet is not an option.

**Belonging to Two Universities, More Emails to Check**

TNE students face unique email challenges because students have multiple school identities. Administrators and U.S. Instructors communicate with students through the official UArizona email address; however, students were not actively using their UArizona email because they were used to using their local institutions’ email. Bintag, a Cambodian student, shared, “Most of us don’t know our Arizona email. We do it ourselves. It’s a little odd.” Administrators combat TNE communication emails by selecting to use email addresses from both locations. Administrator Grant explained, “When I email students, I try to email both their email addresses, because I do find here the students tend to be more responsive to their local email.” A common reason why MC students do not use their UArizona email is because students often forget their password. Further, they do not expect communication with their U.S. Instructors. Instructors in the U.S. were unaware of email access challenges but acknowledged that their emails did not always generate responses if they responded to a MC student through
their UArizona email address. Although students had a UArizona email address, communication through email remained a barrier. The significance of this finding correlates with a finding in RQ1 with the use of announcements through the LMS; since TNE have multiple identities, communicating through the LMS offers more assurance that the message will reach the student.

**Email Communication and Response**

Students in Indonesia and Cambodia were uncertain if they could communicate directly through email with their U.S. Instructors. Dedi shared her confusion, “If it is allowed, we can actually email them [U.S. Instructor] … I don’t think we are allowed to directly contact… I think it would be better if we could directly contact them.” Each course has its own set of policies regarding how communication should take place. The structure of communication seems to be consistent across degree programs and geographical locations. If a student has a question about the course material, they ask the lecturer. Then the lecturer arranges a set time to convey course issues with the U.S. Instructor directly to streamline the process. If a concern arises prior to the set time, the lecturer uses email to communicate. Through this structure, students are unsure if they can email their U.S. Instructors directly. Students are unclear of the email boundaries that exist and would like to communicate directly with their U.S. Instructors.

Several students shared various results from reaching out directly to U.S. Instructors reporting both unresponsive and responsive emails. A student in Indonesia, Randika, giggled with embarrassment when she shared that she had emailed her U.S. Instructor directly. She was unsure if it was okay to tell me and hid her face. I asked if the U.S. Instructor responded and her embarrassment disappeared as she stated, “Ah, yeah. Of course.” Since the U.S. Instructor responded, she knew it was okay. Another student in the same course shared with disappointment that he was unable to connect to his U.S. Instructor via email. Rizky explained,
“…they [U.S. Instructor] didn’t answer. I know they didn’t answer…” When the U.S. Instructor did not respond, the student decided not to reach out again. One factor of a non-response is due to the time difference. For example, when a student is asking a question about the assignment, by the time the U.S. Instructor receives the email the assignment may be due already. The U.S. Instructor may assume that the in-person lecturer will have handled the question negating the need for an email response. TNE students need a clear set of communication boundaries articulated through the MC because it has a direct role in how students perceive their sense of belonging.

Email communication between U.S. Instructors and students is important and significant to this study because it directly impacts TTD dialogue and sense of belonging. One 4th year Indonesian Business student, Nadira, shared an important example of a time when email communication impacted her grade. Nadira explained that she failed one of the quizzes in her business course. She had studied hard for the exam and had confidence that she understood the material and thought that there may have been an error on the quiz. She emailed the U.S. Instructor directly with a request to take a second look at her quiz. When the U.S. Instructor reviewed her quiz, there was an error; the lecturer had the wrong answer key for the grading. The student had in fact earned a high grade on the quiz, as did many other students. Their grades were corrected. The student went on to share how important it was for her to reach out directly via email, although many other students had earned poor grades as well, she was the only one willing to reach out about the possible error. Nadira is a unique student in that she is a local business owner and several years older than most students. Many students shared in both locations that they would feel uncomfortable to reach out via email if there was an error in the course. One Indonesia Administrator explained that students will not report if a link does not
work on the LMS platform because culturally a student should not correct an instructor. Instead, students will put in extra work to find the article that should have been linked to the material. In the U.S., Instructors regularly receive emails from students about grading, links that no longer work through the LMS and other types of questions. When I asked if the U.S. Instructors received communication from the MC students, they responded that it rarely occurs because the lecturer answers student questions on the ground. TNE courses need systematic processes to assist students in communicating with their U.S. Instructors.

**Power Dynamics**

Students were aware of the power dynamics between lecturers and U.S. Instructors. For example, Student Dedi shared, “The professor here does not have power at all, they have to ask and ask and ask, and can’t make their own decisions. It is really strange and annoying. Why is it that way?” The students wanted to understand why the lecturer does not have more autonomy. They would like the lecturers to decide on issues of homework due dates and absences as well as the removal of assignments when their course load is too heavy. Student Nimol described the lecturer as someone who “watches over us” rather than the teacher of the course. Students are confused on the relationship between lecturers and U.S. Instructors co-professors and overall felt that it caused barriers. In this section power dynamics will be addressed in the following areas: collaboration for cultural content, course design, LMS, technology access, timing, freedom of materials and relationship building between the U.S. Instructor and the Lecturer.

**Collaboration for Cultural Content**

Lecturers want to collaborate with the U.S. Instructors. Although some Lecturers shared that their expertise was added to the course; overall, they felt that the local cultural context was missing and caused additional challenges that could have been avoided if the lecturer could
collaborate on the design and content of the course in advance. Lecturer Sokna explained, “If I am teaching in the class, I know how to make it effective for my class.” By not including the lecturer, there was a sense of distrust felt by the lecturers. Lecturers wanted a role in shaping the materials for each week, expressing that sometimes there were too many materials that caused students to be confused. A common theme expressed by the lecturers was that it felt like a “boundary” put up by UArizona because the courses were designed before connecting to the TNE partner. They felt that UArizona was hesitant to include their voices because it would reduce the quality, but their goal was to increase the quality. For example, several lecturers shared that they would select more challenging problems for assignments. Lecturers felt that homework problem samples were easy for students, which caused the student to be underprepared for the exams. The sample problems did not match the areas in which the students were struggling. The lecturer would prefer to select the homework/samples based on the areas the students need to grow and practice. However, since the course was designed around the sample problems, they were unable to make the changes. The central finding in this section is that TNE partnerships should consider voices from the local culture in advance of the content being delivered and developed for TNE students.

TNE partnerships face a power imbalance when timing is not considered for lecturers and U.S. Instructors. One of the unique factors used in the MC FCM is the lecturer who is on-site and able to contextualize the curriculum for the learner. However, the lecturer often does not have the autonomy desired to contextualize the learning, which causes difficulty when teaching often due to lack of time. For example, in one of the MC courses a certain technology was selected that was unavailable in the country, which caused issues and delays in the course. Lecturer Darany shared, “I have a course next set and I don’t know who is teaching it [U.S Instructor] and I
probably won’t find out for a week or two [prior to the course start]…I want to know what the content is.” Lecturers are not always certain if they will continue as lecturers, what classes will be offered in a future semester or who their co-instructors will be, which is difficult in terms of timing and course planning. In one instance, a lecturer did not receive a facilitation guide for the course until the second week of the course. The lecturer was challenged with figuring out the class as the students were in progress with the course. Additionally, one lecturer in Indonesia shared that he does not receive the course’s Final Exam until a week or so before the exam which does not help him support student learning. While the U.S. Instructors may be aware of the final far in advance, the lecturer struggles with assigning additional homework that will help the student prepare for the final. By not knowing the material in advance, several lecturers shared difficulty in tailoring the class to the contextual needs. The students are aware of this power imbalance and shared that it impacts their learning. Lecturer Dewi summarized, “We don’t know what is applicable, I don’t think the teacher is really prepared because of the short time.” Further, U.S. Instructors may be unsure which problems are most applicable locally or which topics the students have mastered most efficiently since the lecturer is typically the grader for the course.

Strong course design in TNE relies on course flexibility between the U.S. Instructor and the lecturer. Administrator Hasna explained, “I think sometimes you design a course and don’t realize how much time certain content takes, or where students are with the particular content, so you have to have some sort of flexibility. No matter who is teaching it.” Although flexibility is an important factor of course design, the MC option does not always allow for the flexibility due to the limited time U.S. Instructors have to design the course. The U.S. Instructor designs the entire course before the lecturer has access to the course. The course design timeline is a challenge to lecturers in both countries because the lecturer is not always assigned a course prior
to the course start date, meaning they have little time to review the content thoroughly prior to teaching (usually 1-2 weeks). Administrator Fajar summarized, “If everybody is sort of respectful and flexible then we can do some really unique things here that makes sense in this context…because it’s not the same student population that you have in Tucson.” When lecturers are unable to prepare contextualized materials in advance, modify the materials, or guide students towards the final exam, the impact on student learning outcomes is negative. Ultimately, the lecturers and administrators expressed having more time to review the course material prior to starting, students would have better learning outcomes because the content could be contextualized in advance.

**Freedom of Materials for Cultural Context**

Lecturers were unsure how to gain freedom to modify materials and content provided by U.S. Instructors. For example, Lecturer Jawad expressed, “…a favorite lecturer in UA is top 10%, how can I argue with them? Maybe it applies to you [the U.S.], but it does not apply to us [Cambodia]…” Lecturer Jawad, like many other lecturers, wanted to modify the course materials to address the cultural context upfront. For example, in a Business course in Cambodia a professor shared how explaining U.S. terminology can be time consuming during the in-person course time, as students often giggle or become distracted by foreign terms. More specifically, in a marketing class the students were presented with the term “in-the-weeds” causing students to laugh at the concept rather than focus on the assignment. Similarly, Lecturer Purti, expressed difficulty with explaining terms in one of the Engineering courses. The material included “hammering,” which did not fit the cultural context. He explained, “We don’t have that here.” Although the lecturer understood the term hammering, he was unsure if he should remove it from the content so he left it in and explained the term to the students, questioning the FCM, “how
much freedom can we have to adjust, how much did we want to modify to fit the local culture...they [students] just need local examples to put it in context they can relate to.” The lecturer plays a pivotal role in helping students apply the materials to a local context. Leap explained, “Sometimes you understand what it means but not how to apply it. We need someone to explain how to apply it.” Lecturers have a desire to modify the materials to accommodate the local culture although they shared they were intimidated when considering updating the course materials. U.S. Instructors did not share with me an awareness of the cultural difference in their content or how they would feel removing or adding examples applicable to the local context. However, this study did not specifically ask U.S. Instructors about lecturers’ and students’ suggestions. A key finding in this section highlights the impact of not considering the local context in advance; in-person class time is spent teaching the students’ about the U.S. cultural context to help them understand the examples and terminology used. Lecturer expertise is not used effectively. For collaboration to take place between the U.S. Instructor and the lecturer, timing needs to be considered.

**Learning Management System for Lecturers**

Lecturers had difficulty navigating and adjusting to the LMS platform. For example, when conducting interviews in Cambodia and Indonesia lecturers would ask to meet with me briefly, not for an interview, but for D2L assistance. Lecturers asked logistical questions such as, “Do I request the site on D2L or does the U.S. Faculty Instructor?” to more technical questions, “What permission do I have in D2L? Can I adjust the gradebook?” I explained to the lecturers that sought assistance that I was unable to answer their questions, I was a researcher. Then they would follow, “Then who do I ask?” It is unclear to the lecturers what resources are available to them since they are not U.S. Instructors. Although tutorials exist online for instructors, many of
the lecturers are new to the D2L platform. Another U.S. Instructor explained that oftentimes the lecturer does not receive the content until the course starts, meaning the lecturers do not have time to become familiarized with the materials or D2L site. D2L training is available to U.S. Instructors; however, it was unclear what training exists for lectures as their role with their TNE partner is as a designated employee and not as a formal instructor. A clear finding in this section is that lecturers need access to resources and trainings on the LMS prior to the course starting.

**Technology Access Between Co-Professors**

MC institutions are challenged to find technologies available to all instructors and lecturers. Instructors in the U.S. and abroad have access to different software through their universities than their TNE partners. For example, in an Engineering course, a lecturer shared that he would have to spend his own money to gain access to a software needed to grade the student assignments. This example shows a disparity between technology access. Lecturer Carson explained, “I need to teach the course that Arizona provides, but I cannot have the same rights to access it. I can’t rely on the software.” Without the access to the software, the lecturer had to spend more time checking students’ work, unable to optimize the learning outcomes of the course. It was unclear if the U.S. Instructors or MC was aware of technology access issues lecturers may face when designing the course. Consideration of the TNE location and software access is important to developing cultural humility.

**Building Collaborative Relationships Between the U.S. Instructors and Lecturers**

The relationship between U.S. Instructors and lecturers varies from course to course; however, a consistent theme across the interviews was the need for a more collaborative relationship between the U.S. Instructor and the lecturer. Lecturer Carson explained the importance of relationship building in Asia, “because these two cultures have conversations over
dinner not in a boardroom. The relationship is important for these people [Asians].” From context gathered in interviews, U.S. Instructors and lecturers meet only briefly to discuss the course prior to the course start. Further, there was inconsistency in how often they meet. Just as the students shared their intimidation to contact the U.S. Instructors, lecturers expressed uncertainty towards contacting their counterpart or deciding what to share. U.S. Instructor Dennis commented, “When I talk to the global lecturer [lecturer] it’s more me talking. This is where we’re heading next, this is what we need to do next…I’m not getting much feedback.” It can be a struggle for both the U.S. Instructor and the Lecturer to discuss collaboratively about what is happening in the course to meet student needs. It is also important to note that some lecturers and U.S. Instructors have developed a rhythm for communicating and found time for weekly contact while some lecturers only contact the U.S. Instructors when problems arise. TNE success for student learning requires strong communication and collaboration between the lecturer and U.S. Instructor.

**Grading**

An additional tension between the lecturer and the U.S. Instructor was the role of grading. A few of the lecturers shared they felt like TAs of the course rather than collaborators or peers due to the amount of grading. For example, Lecturer Arif explained the workload,

Researcher: …do you have graders or are you doing all the grading?

Lecturer Arif: Maybe in the U.S., if the class has more than 30 students you have a grader. Here [I have] around 30 students I have to grade. And you know, that’s a lot of grading…we got like 12 homeworks, that’s too much…it’s a big problem. So I think that’s one of the things that the MC should look at our strengths and weaknesses.
Although the class sizes in the U.S. are much larger than those of the MC, most of the U.S. instructors have graders, teaching assistants (TAs) and/or preceptors to help with the heavy grading workload. At the MC, the lecturer is responsible for the in-class portion of the FCM as well as the grading. U.S. Instructor Dennis explained what he imagined the role of lecturer to be, “focus only on the active learning with students in the classroom, then some other work like homework assignments, someone else can help.” However, due to small class sizes and structures at partner institutions, graders are not available. Lectures felt that they spent so much time grading, that they were unable to reach the level of AL required for the FCM.

**Co-Instructor Selection**

A further tension that exists between the U.S. Instructors and the MC is how the lecturers are selected for the courses. U.S. Instructors sometimes felt that the local university did not have an instructor with the appropriate background which ultimately caused lower scores in the course. The U.S. Instructors desired having a role in selecting their counterpart. The hierarchy of the course structure caused tensions that may not be seen in the U.S. but were evident in-person and by students. It was unclear if the lecturers or the U.S. Instructors had voiced these concerns or sentiments towards the MC administrators. Students were aware of the tensions which caused hesitation on their course evaluations.

**Policy Setting**

In this study each participant type shared uncertainty about the difficulties of navigating policies across the MC. Students who faced medical or family emergencies were unsure who set the course policies. If students need to miss a class or take time away, they were unsure if they should email the U.S. Instructor or if they should contact the local university. When students requested time away from school for illness or familial crisis, the lecturer turned to the U.S.
Instructors to decide. U.S. Instructor Dennis shared how he responds to policy setting at the MC, “I don’t want to interrupt your [local campus] policies.” It was unclear to each party how the course policies were set and how to settle a disruption to the course. Although there are clear policies for academic code of conduct issues such as plagiarism or cheating, in class behavior issues and student needs are often ambiguous.

**Summary of RQ3**

Research Q3 focuses on TTD’s concept of dialogue and focused on how the relationship between the U.S. Instructor and the lecturer engaged student learning and sense of belonging through the MC. Students and U.S. Instructors described the MC as “transactional” due to a lack of a collaborative relationship and cultural disconnection between the U.S. and TNE partners. Interestingly, both students and U.S. Instructors sought a stronger relationship. In this summary, the findings will be divided into two sections: online learning and transnational education.

**Online Learning**

Due to the lack of U.S. Instructor interaction with TNE students on the online platform, students felt their grades were negatively impacted. As discussed in RQ2, students sought direct student feedback. When U.S. Instructors provided feedback, it lacked details students found relevant to improving their learning outcomes, so students lost motivation and felt a disconnection from the course. At the same time, though, U.S. Instructors expressed a desire to increase student engagement. Additionally, the LMS can be designed for U.S. Instructors to include explicit instructions for assignments. When these instructions were missing and a miscommunication occurred, students’ grades suffered. The significant finding offered is that strong feedback, clear instructions and follow-up is a way for students to interact with their U.S. Instructors.
Lecturers had a strong desire to collaborate with the U.S. Instructors. To contextualize the online learning content, lecturers need access to the online learning materials prior to the course start date. Lecturers reported difficulty contextualizing materials due to little to no review time prior to the course start for students. Furthermore, lecturers desired to work with the U.S. Instructors to decide on the coursework and content. For example, lecturers wanted to change the sample problems offered in the online content to assist student learning based on students’ background knowledge. Thus, lecturers want a role in developing the course content with the U.S. Instructors to culturally contextualize materials in advance for students.

Lecturers needed training on navigating the LMS. Although lecturers are not teaching online content, they use the LMS to provide grades to students and follow the materials. Since lecturers do not have sufficient time to review the course ahead of the state of the semester, lecturers had difficulty in helping students navigate the course after the semester began. In one case, a lecturer was unable to access software needed in the course to grade students. If training existed, problems such as access to course technologies could be addressed in advance of the course start. A noteworthy finding discovered is the need for TNE partners to provide trainings for on-site staff and lecturers to assist students in their learning.

Flipped Classroom Model

Video calling was used during the in-person FCM session to build a relationship between students and U.S. Instructors. When U.S. Instructors had a role during the FC session, students had a stronger sense of belonging and relationship with the U.S. While not every course could host a video call due to internet issues or timing, those courses that did have video calls from the U.S. saw some benefits. For example, video calls caused students to feel more comfortable contacting their U.S. Instructors. One important finding is the amount of video calls necessary to
build a relationship. Students shared that one to two calls a semester is not enough. If the video calls are consistent, it would help build a stronger relationship between the students and the U.S. Instructor.

The in-person lecturer was imperative to student learning in the FCM for several reasons: the lecturer motivated students to complete the online coursework; the lecturer contextualized the course material when possible; and, the lecturer provided course communication. Students felt strongly that the lecturer assisted in their learning because lecturers reinforced the online learning videos and other online content. For example, one Cambodian lecturer used a field trip in SE Asia to contextualize a concept offered in the online portion of the course that was not clear to students. Further, students were able to build a positive relationship with their lecturer through informal communication. For example, lecturers used their mobile devices to communicate with students outside of business hours through social media platforms, such as Facebook and through WhatsApp, for quick answers to homework questions. Although not all lecturers were from SE Asia, students reported a positive relationship and trust with their lecturer. Thus, the on-the-ground lecturer is important in contextualizing course materials and providing student support for learning.

**Transnational Education**

Students desired to provide feedback for their TNE courses. UArizona provides a method of collecting student feedback through end-of-semester evaluations. However, these evaluations were confusing to students. Students were unsure who they were evaluating: the overall experience, the in-class lecturer, the online learning, or the U.S. Instructor. Due to the unique TNE FCM, the student evaluation template did not fit the model. Although students found difficulty in providing feedback, one U.S. Instructor addressed student feedback directly in the
LMS in a module titled “Lessons Learned.” The U.S. Instructor collected the date on their own and shared it with students, so students knew the U.S. Instructor was open to feedback. The key finding for a large TNE audience is that TNE students need a clear pathway to provide feedback so the learning module can be properly assessed.

Students’ expectations of U.S. Instructors were hindered due to communication issues. For example, U.S. Instructors were available for office hours, yet TNE students were unfamiliar with how to use office hours. Students were given an email address from their TNE university, but rarely used it, even though communication from their U.S. Instructor and their TNE university would most likely come through the TNE email. Finally, students were unsure if they could communicate directly with U.S. Instructors or if they should communicate with their lecturers. Thus, TNE students need a clear understanding of how to communicate with their U.S. Instructors.

The relationship between U.S. Instructors and lecturers impacts student learning. Students were aware of power dynamic issues when it came to grading and course policy setting. Lecturers and administrators reported a cultural difference in relationship building. While U.S. Instructors conducted incremental check-ins with the lecturers, they did not have a strong relationship with one another outside of the check-ins, which caused some miscommunications and tensions negatively impacting student learning. The important finding offered for a larger TNE audience is that a collaborative relationship between the U.S. Instructor and the lecturer has a positive impact on student learning outcomes. Results of this study indicate that a collaborative relationship is built through consistent communication between the U.S. Instructors and lecturers, and by equalizing how lecturers and U.S. Instructors are perceived by all parties involved in a TNE (students, administrators, lecturers and U.S. Instructors). This “equalization”
or creation of a partnership may be accomplished by giving the lecturers a similar title to the U.S. Instructors, and/or allowing the lecturers to co-create course materials and content in advance of the course start.
CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Overview of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine student experiences in an online learning transnational education (TNE) model by exploring the flipped classroom pedagogy at a time when online learning is on the rise. This study focused on Southeast (SE) Asia, a region that has had a surge of TNE growth, though little research has been conducted on TNE student learning. The study uses Moore’s Theory of Transactional Distance (TTD) (1997) to conceptualize how dialogue, learning autonomy and course structure engages TNE students in their learning. This study also focused on how sense of belonging is developed in TNE through a TTD lens.

Furthermore, this study extended current research on TNE and online learning through in-depth interviews with students, administrators and instructors, in-person course observations, and a document analysis of a learning management system (LMS) called Desire2Learn (D2L).

Interviews were conducted with 49 participants across three countries, the U.S., Cambodia and Indonesia. Participants in Cambodia and Indonesia included students, lecturers and administrators. U.S. participants included U.S. Instructors and administrators. Six Microcampus (MC) Flipped Classroom Model (FCM) courses in an early phase of MC development were analyzed through a document analysis process, which included an adaptation of the Quality Matters Rubric (QM) focused on the flipped classroom model (FCM) in a single semester, Fall 2019. Additionally, six in-person classroom observations occurred in Cambodia and Indonesia using the Teaching Dimensions Observation Protocol (TDOP) observation methods. By utilizing the conceptual frameworks of TTD and sense of belonging, and through the triangulation method used in this study, the conclusion and implications in this chapter focus on three main concepts: student learning in a FCM, online learning and TNE.
Students in this study attended a MC, where they remained in either Cambodia or Indonesia, but engaged in online content created in the U.S. through their TNE institution. Students experienced a cross-border education without leaving their home region due to technology advancements in online learning. The MC was selected for this study because of the use of the FCM. The FCM is specifically unique in TNE because students learn from two instructors, one based in the U.S. and one based locally. In this study the U.S. Instructor created the content for the FCM course and is referred to as “U.S. Instructor.” The in-class instructor is referred to as “Global Lecturer” by the MC staff in the U.S.; however, the term “lecturer” is used throughout this study to describe the in-class instructor based on how students refer to this instructor. This study examined the relationships students developed with their U.S. Instructors and lecturers, their cross-border institution, as well as their online learning platform to understand student learning in TNE.

This research is based on the understanding that TNE institutions are growing to include online learning technologies. As universities continue to develop new forms of TNE, student learning and student sense of belonging is an important consideration. The principal research questions for this study were:

RQ1 on Structure: How does the course design and structure influence students’ sense of belonging as perceived by students in a flipped classroom transnational education model?
Sub question: How does the flipped model take into account cultural perspectives of cross-cultural learning?

RQ2 on Learning Autonomy: How does the flipped classroom pedagogy engage students and promote learning in an online transnational education model?
Sub question: Learning Autonomy: How do students perceive their role as learners?
RQ3 on Dialogue: What are the experiences of U.S. Instructors and lecturers in engaging with students in a flipped classroom transnational education model?

Sub question: How do the U.S. Instructors and lecturers provide support and build sense of belonging in the course?

**Summary of the Findings and Implications**

In this study, two MCs were selected to address gaps in TNE literature because of their use of the FCM, location in SE Asia, and use of an online LMS. Although the MC was at the center of this study, the findings and implications in this chapter focus on a broader perspective of online learning, the FCM and TNE. In Chapters 4, 5, 6, significant findings to the MC and to TNE were provided. However, the findings summarized in this section focus on key findings that can be applied more generally to the concepts of online learning as well as TNE. The main findings presented in each concept are inclusive of findings in both countries unless otherwise indicated.

**Research Question 1**

*RQ1 on Structure: How does the course design and structure influence students’ sense of belonging as perceived by students in a flipped classroom transnational education model?*

*Sub question: How does the flipped model take into account cultural perspectives of cross-cultural learning?*

This study found that TNE students’ sense of belonging is influenced by: the structure of the course (including the LMS design), instructor content, and engagement offered online through the FCM. The significance of exploring online learning in this study is that the FCM is a relatively new teaching method used in TNE, meaning there is much to discover in terms of best practices and cultural understanding when TNE students learn online. One of the most significant findings in the study was the impact of video content on student learning in TNE. For example,
students reported higher learning when engagement technology platforms such as Play-Posit were used to engage students with the course videos. At the same time, poor video quality dissuaded students from engaging with the video content provided by the U.S. Instructors. Overall, the findings offered several areas in which the videos produced for course materials were not meeting the needs of TNE students, while, at the same time, displaying the value videos have for student learning. Students needed to find additional resources to supplement incomplete U.S. Instructor videos. Finding supplemental materials was difficult for students due to internet connectivity issues and the amount of time students spent on their FCM in comparison to their traditional courses. For students learning in TNE, video content and quality were the most significant findings offered in student learning.

One of the noteworthy benefits of online learning and the FCM is how the learning pedagogy impacts student learning positively. Students shared self-reported data that the FCM improved learning not only in their U.S. TNE courses, but their traditional courses as well. This improvement in students learning, as self-reported by the students, was largely due to the active learning (AL) introduced to students in the FCM. Students were more prepared for these courses, more willing to answer questions, and had a positive reaction to working in groups on activities and assignments.

Due to the structure of the FCM, students developed their sense of belonging by creating relationships through peer-to-peer learning. A finding in RQ1 was revealed in the Peer-to-Peer Relationships section when a traditional form of qualitative interviewing was adjusted to meet the local culture; some students preferred to be interviewed alongside their peers, which spoke to a need of adjusting the study’s qualitative practices to fit the students’ cultural needs. The overall
finding is that the FCM increased peer-to-peer relationships, which caused a sense of belonging in their MC courses.

Sense of belonging was explored in RQ1, which resulted in a clear finding: TNE practices need to consider TNE students. The findings offered in RQ1 revealed numerous instances of how the structure of the course limits and builds sense of belonging for TNE students. Due to cross-border learning, it is especially important for the U.S. Instructor and the lecturer to provide content that articulates course objectives and learning outcomes. When the learning objectives were clear, students felt a sense of belonging because they clearly understood what they needed to achieve academically. Students also felt a sense of belonging when required materials were available through open access books and materials that were downloadable for future use. Some new ideas that students offered to create sense of belonging include: student exchanges, not only in-person, but online. Due to the physical distance and separation of the U.S.-based main-campus and the MC, students did not feel connected to U.S. Instructors or U.S.-based students taking courses at the main campus. Students at the MCs emphasized that they would like to improve their connection to the U.S.-based main campus.

Numerous examples were highlighted from student perspectives on the importance of cultural humility in the development of sense of belonging. Cultural humility occurs in TNE when a cross-border institution honors the beliefs, customs and values of the culture they are engaging with intention (Stubbe, 2020). Cultural humility became evident in the study when students called for course materials to be adjusted to TNE student needs for effective cultural relevance. For example, course examples and assignments that were not tailored or applicable to students’ local culture reduced students’ sense of belonging. In another example, students and lecturers expressed a need for cultural humility from TNE partners to include flexibility for local
or religious holidays. Ultimately, the cultural disconnection between the U.S. TNE partner and the local students caused a lack of flexibility of cultural adaptation to TNE student needs. In summary, the results of this study were significant to understanding that for sense of belonging to take place in online learning, cultural humility must to be acknowledged and addressed.

**Research Question 2**

*RQ2 on Learning Autonomy: How does the flipped classroom pedagogy engage students and promote learning in an online transnational education model?*

*Sub question: Learning Autonomy: How do students perceive their role as learners?*

Research Question 2 (RQ2) examines how students learn in a FCM TNE environment. The findings summarized in this section explore how students learn in the flipped classroom by considering student perspectives on the flipped classroom and through course observations. Although students adjusted favorably to the FCM, the study found that students were not introduced to the FCM formally, instead, they had to learn to adjust to the unique pedagogy. One important finding was about TNE students’ ability to adapt to the FCM by actively engaging online through independent learning (IL) and increased participation in-class during active learning (AL). Students adapted their learning behaviors to become learners in the AL portion of the FCM. For example, students were initially challenged to participate in the AL FCM because the model does not include traditional lecture style learning; instead, students need to prepare before class, participate in IL online, and work in small groups to complete assignments. Students thrived the most in AL where they also gained soft skills and had a chance to build sense of belonging through peer-to-peer relationships that were developed through small group work and AL assignments. The model also required students to participate in IL for the online portion of their coursework. Despite the difficulty students had with video content found in RQ1, students mastered IL by supplementing their learning and reviewing material on their own even
after a course concluded in continuation of their learning. By examining students as learners, one significant benefit of the FCM emerged, the FCM met the needs of multiple student learning styles by introducing AL and IL to TNE students. U.S. Instructors also saw this benefit and considered adopting the FCM to their U.S.-based main campus courses. A significant finding in this study is that students who reported success in the FCM had similar success in their other courses due to behavior changes developed through their MC experience.

The FCM was a new teaching pedagogy introduced to lecturers in the MC. Due to the limited experience with the FCM, lecturers and U.S Instructors expressed a need for increased training and resources. Although facilitation guides were provided by some U.S. Instructors, a more extensive training is needed for both U.S. Instructors and lecturers using AL. For example, during the in-person classroom observations lecturers did not use common AL teaching methods that focused student engagement teaching pedagogies. Although lecturers were not extensively trained in the FCM, they were able to adapt to the model by creating small group work assignments and increase peer-to-peer learning activities. Ultimately, lecturers connected to students and built a positive relationship due to their cultural understanding and a strong ability to support student learning. Students who had a positive relationship with their lecturer had the strongest sense of belonging to UArizona.

Student identity plays role in how students learn in TNE. Students in this study struggled with their TNE identity: are they domestic students or international students? In their own words, are they “real” UArizona students? Students in the MC are enrolled UArizona students, and are considered UArizona students by their TNE institution. However, due to the physical distance and separation students felt, their sense of belonging was brought into question.
The findings offered in RQ2 indicate students identify with their TNE institution, UArizona, on a formal level. For example, student I.D. cards played a significant role in students developing sense of belonging. Further, course materials with university branding also created student identity with UArizona. Students felt a sense of pride for completing UArizona courses, which further developed their sense of belonging. However, it was the informal connections that caused students to question their identity and sense of belonging. For example, images on D2L did not reflect a diversity of student learners in the MC. Additionally, the images on D2L did not offer students a sense of place or connection to the TNE institution causing students to wonder about the environment, location and student life on the main campus. One of the most significant findings was that MC students were aware of U.S.-based student activities in which MC students were unable to participate. Students had a strong desire to go in-person to Arizona at some point during their academic experience, but most importantly, for their graduation ceremonies. Without graduating in-person, they did not feel like real students of the TNE institution. From their perspective, by participating in a formal event, they would become real students. Without it, however, their student experience felt compromised. Cambodia students who had the opportunity to go abroad to the U.S. campus shared that the in-person experience created a sense of belonging and strongly identified as UArizona students.

Students expressed that they did not have a relationship with the MC, the experience was “transactional.” Students felt that if UArizona had a stronger student support system, it would improve their student identity and increase student learning and sense of belonging. Students in this study did not consider themselves real students of the TNE institution because they did not have the same access to resources, activities or experiences as both domestic and international students at the U.S.-based main campus have. It is significant to note that these students at the
MCs in Cambodia and Indonesia are not international students by UNESCO’s definition because they did not cross a physical border; their learning took place regionally. The findings in this study consider the importance of how TNE students identify with the TNE institution in order to improve research and resources to support further TNE development and student experiences in TNE models.

The most substantial finding offered in RQ2 discussed student plans post-graduation. A majority of students in this study intended to continue their studies in the U.S. or Europe because the TNE curriculum was not tailored for employment in their local environment. Instead, for many students, their MC experience was an educational step in their continued academic journey. Although the intention of this study was to understand sense of belonging, an outcome was the importance of student identity with the TNE institution. Institutions practicing TNE must consider the learning goals of their students. If the student intention is to stay locally, then increased cultural context is needed in the curriculum. If the student intends to further their education abroad, then TNE must consider content for a global audience.

**Research Question 3**

*RQ3 on Dialogue: What are the experiences of the U.S. Instructors and lecturers in engaging with students in a flipped classroom transnational education model?*

*Sub question: How do the U.S. Instructors and lecturers provide support and build sense of belonging in the course?*

The findings for Research Question 3 (RQ3) considered how U.S. Instructors and lecturers consider TNE students in their course design in creating dialogue and sense of belonging with students. One of the crucial findings for online learning across borders is the need for a cultural humility to be included in TNE courses. Cultural humility in coursework considers a local lens. For example, the MC uses an in-person lecturer (typically from the local region) to
facilitate the in-class portion of the FCM in order to provide a cultural context of the course material. Lecturers in this study added an important cultural context during the in-person courses and assisted with student learning. However, lecturers were unable to gain access to their courses in advance of the course start date. A strong example of cultural humility in TNE would be if the lecturers’ expertise were included when a course is in the development stage for TNE students.

Cultural humility was offered to TNE students when their feedback was heard by U.S. Instructors. For example, in one course explored in the LMS document review, a U.S. Instructor developed a way to showcase student feedback in “Lessons Learned,” (Figure 6.1) which improved students’ sense of belonging. In online learning, TNE students sought transparency not only in the gradebook, but in their feedback to instructors. Cultural humility was also offered when U.S. Instructors provided feedback through video calling. The video call helped students build a relationship with the U.S. Instructor, making students more comfortable communicating with their physically distant U.S. Instructors. An additional finding that developed in course dialogue included a miscommunication between students and the MC in terms of U.S. Instructor roles in online learning. Students in the MC had specific expectations of their courses that were not met, including communication often and consistently with the U.S. Instructors, as well as developing sense of belonging through activities and student support. The main finding offered for RQ3 is that for students to feel a sense of belonging with the MC, they need a relationship with their U.S. Instructors.

A significant finding in this section is that student learning in TNE requires strong communication between the U.S. Instructor and the lecturer on-site because their plays a significant role in student learning. Students were widely aware of power imbalances between U.S. Instructors and lecturers. For example, the language used in TNE was not from the vantage
point of the student, meaning that the titles and systems developed were not rooted in a local context which caused confusion (e.g. professor titles). Additionally, the U.S. Instructors had differing access to technologies than the lecturers, causing a stratification visible to students. This power dynamic was also realized by students when the course content did not have tailored materials that met the local context or when the course lacked flexibility. For example, lecturers had to contact U.S. Instructors to make decisions on grading, late assignments, and students’ personal emergencies. A finding offered in this study is the importance of utilizing local resources to meet student learning needs (e.g. course field trips, contextual lens). One of the local resources used by students and lecturers in this study included mobile communication. TNE students preferred to communicate with lecturers through social media platforms and through their mobile phones rather than communicate via university email. Ultimately, the results for RQ3 offer a significant finding that cultural humility should be integrated in TNE in order to serve TNE students.

**Implications for Future Practice**

The findings and implication summary presented in this chapter highlight implications of this study in three main concepts: FCM, Online Learning and TNE. This section of the chapter will focus on how the findings discovered through this study can inform future practices in each capacity. Implications in the online learning section inform best practices for instructional course designers and instructors developing online content for TNE students. The FCM has not been heavily studied in TNE. The FCM section offers insights on how to develop effective student learning through the FCM for instructors, TNE developers and TNE sites. Finally, the literature review highlighted seven types of TNE. This study introduced and focused on the MC, a new type of TNE. The implications for future practice in this section focus on TNE development.
**Online Learning**

Video content of online learning has a large impact on student learning. Based on the findings, the following implications arose as best practices to assist students in their learning. First, transcripts and captioning should be available for every video in TNE in case students have difficulty accessing or downloading the video. Second, clear audio should be used in videos. For example, if an instructor moves away from the microphone, students are unable to understand the content. Clear audio also includes the need for clear annunciation from the instructor in the videos and a reduced usage of filler words that make the content difficult to understand. Third, students would prefer if the videos are broken into 20-minute segments at a maximum for easier downloads, breaks between videos, and clear course concepts provided in the segment. More specifically, students would prefer the course materials to be divided into smaller, more digestible topics, rather than long lectures. Fourth, students would like interactive and engaging videos using tools such as Play-Posit to test their knowledge as they learn. Fifth, students would like the videos to have examples for practical understanding of the theoretical concepts. More specifically, a local context or examples that could be applied to the region. Sixth, students would like the videos that are uploaded through the LMS to be offered in a variety of formats so they can have options when downloading the videos. Seventh, visuals in the video should be clear to students, meaning they should be intended for the video audience. When a U.S. Instructor used their in-person course at the U.S.-based campus as the setting for a recording or a white board, students were unable to see the content due to poor video quality (e.g. camera not following the white board, glares, blurry, etc.). However, when the video had slides or notes that accompanied the videos, students were clearly able to visualize the content. Students also appreciated if they could download the materials/slides that accompanied the videos in advance.
of watching the course content videos. Finally, students would like to be directed to additional resources and materials to supplement the videos if the video content is unable to cover a topic. For example, if the instructor is introducing a software, a 20-minute video would be unable to instruct students on the full capacity of the software. Instructors can add additional links and materials on the LMS to supplement the instruction. The key implication is that videos should be designed for TNE students, meaning the instructor intentionally considers the student perspective, student culture and materials needed for a student to be successful mastering the content. Students were aware when a video was not designed for them, which negatively impacted their sense of belonging and motivation to watch the videos in the course. By creating content directly for TNE students, students will have higher learning outcomes.

TNE students would benefit from direct feedback from their U.S. Instructors through the LMS. Although the gradebook serves as a form of feedback for students, the grading was mostly completed by the in-person lecturer. Students felt a stronger sense of belonging and institutional identity to their TNE university when the U.S. Instructor provided personalized feedback. The LMS course design should include clear pathways for instructors to provide feedback to TNE students. U.S. Instructors can also use the LMS to include announcements or make additional content videos that support and encourage their TNE students. Students shared positive experiences when U.S. Instructors reached out to encourage students or gave additional advice on how to be successful in the course. Finally, students expressed that they rarely use email to communicate with U.S. Instructors and wished there was a mobile way to communicate with their U.S. Instructors. This calls for LMS to develop interactive feedback channels or for U.S. Instructors to engage with TNE students more often and consistently through the LMS. The
significant implication for best practices offered is that the LMS system can be used to interact with TNE students by providing student feedback.

**Flipped Classroom Model**

The key implication from this study is the importance of collaboration between co-instructors if two instructors are teaching together in the FCM. The FCM uses both online learning and in-person teaching. In the MC, and perhaps in future iterations of the FCM in TNE internationally, teams of co-instructors work together to achieve student learning outcomes with one instructor based in the U.S. and one based at a partner institution. Students are aware when co-instructors are not communicating clearly. For example, students were negatively impacted when class policy settings were unclear, when communication boundaries were not understood, and when grading issues arose. Additionally, when the U.S. Instructor created an AL assignment, the classroom space may not be conducive to the AL assignment. Further, in-person lecturers often had ideas of changing the course materials and sample problems to further challenge students. Although communication can be difficult due to time differences and the course timing, collaboration in course development and policies prior to the course start date is important to help students achieve learning outcomes.

TNE institutions that utilize local lecturers in the FCM need to develop opportunities for lecturers to practice autonomy. Although course content in this study was developed in the U.S., lecturers contributed to the content by providing a local context for the materials. However, lecturers had limited access to the materials in advance of the course start. Students would benefit from lecturers gaining access to materials in advance of the course start date in order to produce high quality contextualized materials. If the content is not ready prior to the course start, then lecturers need autonomy and flexibility to deliver content that meets local student needs.
The best practice in TNE is that local lecturers know and understand local students and should have a voice in adapting materials in advance of the course start.

Video calling during the FCM improved the relationship between students and U.S. Instructors. It was important to students for U.S. Instructors to be more active in the course by moving beyond course videos and into their in-person FC. Although it is not always possible for U.S. Instructors to host a video call with their TNE students due to time difference and internet access issues, those U.S. Instructors that can would create a stronger relationship and sense of belonging for their students. As a best practice, video calling should happen frequently because students reported having only one to two calls a semester was insignificant. The video calls should not be lectures, but instead, quick check-ins with students to build and cultivate a relationship. Students in this study expressed a lack of participation when a video call was used, and the U.S. Instructor asked questions like “do you have any questions?” Instead, check-ins should be intentional, offering feedback from assignments, guidance for future assignments, and ways for students to interact with their U.S. Instructor through prompted conversation.

**Transnational Education**

TNE partners need to develop clear missions available to students. For example, if a student’s goal is to graduate and continue in education, the coursework and mission of the TNE institution should reflect this goal. However, if the student’s goal is to remain local, then the TNE partner would need to tailor the curriculum to meet this goal. If the mission and learning objectives are clearly stated, students would have a clear expectation of how their TNE degree will assist with their future goals.

TNE institutions need consistent evaluations from students, employees and administrators to improve quality. Although the institution in this case study provided student evaluations at the
end of the course, typical of most U.S. practices, this practice was not helpful to TNE students. TNE needed the courses and administration changes to occur swiftly, but by the end of the semester, students are already impacted by the lack of course flexibility. Due to cultural differences, having consistent evaluations and ways for students to give feedback to all instructors and administrators would assist in developing cultural humility.

TNE educational instructors, but U.S. Instructors and lecturers, need cross-training. More specifically, instructors need training on LMS and online learning methodologies as a part of their onboarding. Lecturers in this study were partners with the TNE MC; however, had limited access to training prior to the course start date. U.S. Instructors had a limited scope on TNE student backgrounds including learning styles and cultural norms. Although facilitation guides were made available in most cases, the guides were limited in scope. A best practice in TNE would be cross-training between co-instructors, training on teaching methods, and training on LMS navigation.

TNE courses should be rewarding to teach for U.S. Instructors. Due to an overall lack of connection between students and their TNE university, U.S. Instructors felt disconnected from the joys they typically experience with their domestic students such as mentorship and helping students grow. At the same time, TNE students wanted a connection with the U.S. Instructors. The best practice offered in this implication is that increased interaction between the U.S. Instructor and student would increase U.S. Instructor retention.

Lecturers in this study accommodated their students by using their mobile devices to connect to students outside of school hours. More specifically, lecturers used social media and Whatsapp, as students rarely checked their university email and preferred mobile device
communication. TNE models should consider using mobile apps and social media platforms to communicate with TNE students.

TNE students should have the opportunity to engage with domestic students, not only through student exchange, but through mixed courses. In the MC model, TNE students were separated from main campus students. Due to this separation, students felt disconnected from their TNE university. Students suggested that they would feel more connected if they had coursework with domestic students so they could practice English and gain soft skills. TNE programs should find intentional ways to connect students across campuses.

TNE programs should offer TNE students direct pathways to connect to main campus to create a sense of belonging. In this study, students highlighted the strong desire to graduate at the main campus to feel like authentic students. Although a graduation ceremony was offered in their local region to honor students’ accomplishments, this was unsatisfactory to students. Students wanted to spend time at the main campus. To complete Engineering coursework, students in Cambodia had an option to do a summer lab at the MC’s main campus. Students enjoyed the experience, but expressed dissatisfaction because the campus was empty in terms of student population. If TNE programs offer a pathway to connect students to main campus, it should be at a time when TNE students can experience a sense of belonging and build relationships with student peers.

**Contributions to Existing Literature**

This study contributes to existing TNE literature in several capacities. First, the study highlights a gap in the definition of “international student” for students in new forms of TNE. Second, the study considers practicing adaptive qualitative methods for interviews. Third, the
study addresses missing concepts from TTD that support cross-cultural online learning in TNE. Finally, the study brings in a new concept to TNE higher education, cultural humility.

According to UNESCO (2020) international students are defined as students enrolled in institutions outside of their home country. TNE students studying in a MC are dual enrolled, attending university both in their home region and abroad through online learning. Students in this study identified as international students because they were having an experience that differed from domestic students and were enrolled in an institution outside their home region. These TNE students challenge the traditional definition of international student because the MC students earned a degree from an institution located outside their home country although the material and content were delivered in the students’ home regions. A majority of existing literature does not define the term “international student” in their work. Wilkins & Huisman (2011), explained the importance of defining international students to better understand international student choice. This study extends their argument to TNE students, calling for an updated definition of international student that distinguishes TNE students.

This study identified a gap of research on TNE students due to a lack of a clear definition. Students studying through TNE have unique needs that current research on the traditional international students may not apply. For example, this student considers sense of belonging based on Glass’s (2018) research that finds international students succeed in course completion when sense of belonging occurs. However, the students Glass studied fit the traditional definition of international student. This study offers a new lens and definition for TNE students through this definition: International Transnational Education students are students who are enrolled in institutions outside of their home country, though the education can be delivered in their home region.
This study used traditional qualitative method practices that were challenged due to cultural norms. Seidman (2013) explains that researchers can make alternatives to the structure and process of their interviews as long as the intent and structure of the interview can be reproduced and is documentable. Further, Seidman (2013) argues that there are “no absolutes in the world of interviewing” (p.22) emphasizing that the extant literature has not found one form of procedural interviewing more significant than another. This study offers a new strategy for conducting qualitative methods in Cambodia and Indonesia. Although this study was designed for 1:1 in-depth interviews, students, administrators and lecturers in Cambodia and Indonesia requested for interviews to be conducted with their peers. Unlike traditional focus groups, participants came to the interview asking if they could participate with their peers. Following Seidman’s (2013) alternatives to the structure and process (Chapter 2), I conducted three peer interviews, two in Cambodia and one in Indonesia. Students, lecturers and administrators who participated in peer interviews were more open and shared more freely because they felt more comfortable surrounded by their peers. This observation is significant to the qualitative methods procedures because allowing participants to invite their peers to their interview is a practice missing from the current literature. This adaptive practice furthered and strengthened the study. More specifically, participants felt more comfortable with the researcher because of cultural norms, wherein, peers have a strong sense of support for one another.

TTD is applied broadly throughout online learning; however, the conceptual framework lacks a cultural lens. This study used the Theory of Transactional Distance (TTD) (Moore, 1993) to conceptualize the online learning portion of the MC. The theory of TTD allowed for an understanding of how students interact with the course design offered in online learning. More specifically, Moore (1997) outlines the importance of connections and relationships developed
through online learning between the students, the course, and the instructors. This study challenged Moore’s (1993) original concept by complimenting TTD with Hurtado and Carter’s (1997) construct of sense of belonging: students’ perception of their connection to their university or college. Sense of belonging has been heavily studied in the U.S. for minority populations, and has more recently been applied to an international audience (Glass, 2018). Due to the unique teaching method used at the MC, where students are learning through online learning and also participating in a FC through the MC, sense of belonging added to the framework.

Throughout the findings in this study, however, it was clear that sense of belonging occurred for students when cultural humility was developed. Most international programs use the term cultural competency to describe a value or objective of cross-border learning. Cultural competency, however, is limited in scope because it focuses on the privileged culture and does not address cultural diversity effectively (Garran & Rozas, 2013). For example, cultural humility was shown when U.S. Instructors adapted course schedules to accommodate local culture, and when lecturers contextualized content for TNE students. Further, cultural humility was used when a lecturer used a field trip in the region to show students course concepts. Student participants in this study did not feel a sense of belonging when their culture was not considered. Cultural humility not only directly impacts students’ in-person experiences, but students’ and U.S. Instructors’ relationships through the LMS. Cultural humility resolves cultural competency’s shortcoming because it can be applied to higher education and online learning if a TNE institution honors the beliefs, customs and values of the local culture (Stubbe, 2020). The findings in Chapters 4, 5, 6, and the summary of the findings in this chapter, conceptualize how students perceive their sense of belonging. The final contribution to literature this study offers is
an addition to the TTD framework by placing cultural humility as the connection between sense of belonging and TTD, exemplified in Figure 7.1.

**Figure 7.1**

*The Theory of Transactional Distance and Sense of Belonging Connected through Cultural Humility*

*Figure 7.1 depicts the conceptual framework of this study with the additional pedagogy of cultural humility. Cultural humility connects to sense of belonging and TTD.*

**Implications for Future Research**

**Online Learning and the Flipped Classroom Model**

TNE students were not represented in images used on the LMS platform. In all six courses observed in the LMS document analysis, photos consisted of mostly Caucasian
appearing students. There were no images of SE Asian students. Further research should be conducted on how visual elements in LMS impact sense of belonging for students studying in TNE.

Evaluations were used in the MC at the end of the semester using a student survey. TNE students reported that they had difficulty using the student survey. Further research could deepen an understanding of how to gather effective student feedback from TNE students, specifically in the FCM.

Students in this study unveiled that video content was challenging in the FCM. The implications section of this chapter offers eight methods for improving videos for TNE students. Course designers and instructors would benefit from additional research if these methods were applied to TNE.

Co-Instructors were used in the FCM from varying cultures and backgrounds. Additional research should be conducted to understand the relationship between co-instructors when collaboration takes place across borders. This research could illuminate effective training practices for co-instructors.

TNE students communicate through mobile devices. Potential research could focus on effective strategies for communicating with TNE students across borders through new strategic communication initiatives. For example, research on this topic could inform LMS on how to integrate mobile devices on their platforms. Furthermore, potential solutions based on research could improve communication between the U.S. Instructor and student as well as student and TNE university.

Students in this study suggested a strong desire to interact with main-campus students. A future study could examine a TNE online learning model where international transactional
students are integrated to a fully U.S. domesticated campus. This would unveil how students experience sense of belonging when they are a part of the domestic campus course structure.

**Transnational Education**

This study introduced a gap in research for students in TNE programs. Further research on the term “International Transnational Education student” would help inform internationalization practices for TNE. Due to the increasing number of TNE students, exploration of this topic is timely. Additionally, by identifying and characterizing TNE students further research could be discovered in how to support students in modern higher education.

A clear finding of this study is that cultural humility plays a role in student learning, however, what remains unclear is how the power dynamics between co-instructors adds to the phenomenon. Student learning in the FCM was the focus of the study, however, the findings were not clear on how organizational structures hindered or elevated working dynamics for instructors. This is significant because an argument against the development of TNE is the spread of colonialism. Future research could consider team dynamics in co-collaborations in TNE. By researching the power dynamics and collaborations of instructors a better understanding of organizational power dynamics would be unveiled and potentially address a lack of cultural humility in TNE content for student learning. In this study, the U.S. Instructor typically holds a domestic campus role as a full-time employee, whereas the local lecture holds a role more similar to an adjunct. If this organizational structure continues in the MC or in other modes of TNE, future research on the topic of power dynamics could further unveil how lecturer appointments and systematic structures influence cultural humility and student learning. This research would help TNE institutions to understand organizational structures while addressing potential operational issues, especially as TNE models, such as the MC, continue to evolve.
Finally, it is important to learn and research about TNE instructor access to training and development. For example, in the MC model, the local lecturers are employed by the partnering institutions, meaning the resources offered differs from the U.S. Instructors. In the findings, an example was shared where the local instructor did not have access to the technology needed in the course. Further example and findings such as the one highlighted would emphasize the need for cultural humility in student learning design.

This study calls for additional research of how TNE students experience sense of belonging. Although existing research has identified sense of belonging for international students, TNE students have a different experience. Research topics that arose in this study for TNE students could include the following: student activities on TNE campuses, cross-border peer interaction for TNE students, administrative support for TNE students, advising TNE students, creating online content for TNE courses, and student exchanges for TNE students. Future research should also consider how a mixed form of TNE, the MC, compares to other forms of TNE.

Cultural humility is a pedagogy typically used in social work and public health; however, cultural humility can be applied to education. This study unveiled the role of cultural humility in developing student sense of belonging. Further research in the field of education would benefit from moving away from “cultural competency” and moving towards cultural humility. More specifically, further research could examine how to develop cultural humility in internationalization practices.

In conclusion, this study adds to existing literature and research on the imminent growth of cross-border online learning while at the same time challenging the field to consider cultural humility in TNE. As online learning continues to grow in order to meet student enrollment
demands, it is more important than ever to define TNE students. In order to adequately serve TNE student needs in this evolving modality of learning, future research should continue the conversation about TNE students through the lens of cultural humility.
APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR STUDENTS

Global Presence Interview Protocol

(For faculty and staff working at University’s sites abroad)

(After reading the consent form and upon approval by signature)

“Hello XXXX! My name is Lysette Davi. Thank you for your willingness to participate in this interview. Before we start, I’d like to remind you of a couple of things. This interview will be recorded but your identity will not be linked to your responses. If at any time, you feel the need to stop, please let me know. I expect for the interview to last about 30 minutes but feel free to cut it short if you need to or extend it if you would like to talk more about any specific topic.

Do you have any questions for me before we start? (*Answer any questions). Great! Let’s begin (**Start recorder*)

1. To begin, could you please describe to me about your educational journey? What led you to choose the Microcampus?

2. How did you hear about the Microcampus option?

3. What has your experience been so far with Microcampus?
   a. Experience with your classmates?
   b. Experience with your teacher?
   c. Experience with the UA?
   d. With the online portion

4. What is a flipped classroom?
a. The Microcampus is using a “Flipped Classroom” model wherein you are receiving your lectures online and doing the homework as a class. Is this the first time you have learned in this way?

5. Tell me about your experience with online learning?

   a. Follow-up questions to make sure that we can get a sense of the participant’s previous experience and current experience with online learning

6. What are some examples of challenges you face in your online learning through a micro-campus?

7. What are some of the benefits you see of online learning through a micro-campus?

8. How do you interact online? Is it different than how you interact in person?

9. How often are you interacting with the course? Is it similar or different than your other classes?

10. How do you like the timing of the class? Do you find you have the ability to self-pace?

11. How would you evaluate your overall relationship with flipped classroom learning?

   a. What benefits, if any, can you identify that you have personally experienced?

   b. What disadvantages, if any, can you identify that you have experienced?

12. What are the key aspects you think students need to be successful at the institution?

13. Is there anything else you’d like to tell me that we have not spoken about today?

Thank you very much for your time!
APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR FACULTY AND STAFF

Global Presence Interview Protocol

(For faculty and staff working at University’s sites abroad)

(After reading the consent form and upon approval by signature)

“Hello XXXX! My name is Lysette Davi. Thank you for your willingness to participate in this interview. Before we start, I’d like to remind you of a couple of things. This interview will be recorded but your identity will not be linked to your responses. If at any time, you feel the need to stop, please let me know. I expect for the interview to last about 60 minutes but feel free to cut it short if you need to or extend it if you would like to talk more about any specific topic.

Do you have any questions for me before we start? (*Answer any questions). Great! Let’s begin (**Start recorder*)

1. What has your experience been like teaching in a Microcampus flipped classroom model?

2. What are some of the benefits of this teaching pedagogy?

3. What are some of the challenges you see with this teaching pedagogy?

4. How do you connect to students in this model of learning?

5. How are students engaging in the content in this model?
   a. Is this meeting your expectations as an instructor?

6. Are you seeing cohort building in this model?
7. Why do you think the students are participating in this program? What would you say is their most salient rationale for enrolling in this type of learning?

8. How do students engage with you as an instructor?

9. How do you engage with students as an instructor?

10. How would you describe the type of students who tend to participate in this type of learning? (in terms of demographics, SES, etc.)

11. What are the key aspects you think instructors need to be successful with this model?

12. Is there anything else you’d like to tell me that we have not spoken about today?

Thank you very much for your time!
APPENDIX C: LMS DOCUMENT ANALYSIS REVIEW BASED ON QUALITY MATTERS RUBRIC

Quality Matters Rubric for LMS: Flipped Classroom Model

Name of D2L Course

Your answer

Do the instructions make it clear how to get started and where to find various course components?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- Not Available

Are Learners introduced to the purpose and structure of the course?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- Not Available

Are communication expectations for online discussions, email, and other forms of interaction clearly stated?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- Not Available
Are course policies with which the learner is expected to comply clearly stated within the course?
- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- Not Available

Are learners introduced to the instructor?
- Yes
- No

Are the learning objectives clearly stated and prominently located in the course?
- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- Not Available

Do the learning objectives describe outcomes that are measurable?
- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- Not Available

Do the learning objectives describe outcomes that are measurable?
- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- Not Available
Do the assessments measure the achievement of the stated learning objectives?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- Not Available

Does the instructor provide a platform for timely feedback to learners?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- Not Available

Are a variety of instructional materials used in the course?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- N/A

Do the learning activities provide opportunities for interaction with University Professor?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- N/A
Do the tools used in the course promote learner engagement?
- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- N/A

Is a variety of technology used in the course?
- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
- N/A

Does course navigation facilitate ease of use?
- Yes
- No
- Sometimes
APPENDIX D: LMS DOCUMENT ANALYSIS REVIEW RESULTS

Are course policies with which the learner is expected to comply clearly stated within the course?
6 responses

- Yes: 83.3%
- No: 16.7%

Are learners introduced to the instructor?
6 responses

- Yes: 83.3%
- No: 16.7%

Are the learning objectives clearly stated and prominently located in the course?
6 responses

- Yes: 50%
- No: 16.7%
- Sometimes: 33.3%
Does the instructor provide a platform for timely feedback to learners?
6 responses
- Yes: 50%
- No: 33.3%
- Sometimes: 16.7%

Are a variety of instructional materials used in the course?
6 responses
- Yes: 66.7%
- No: 16.7%
- Sometimes: 16.7%
- N/A: 6.7%

Do the learning activities provide opportunities for interaction with University Professor?
6 responses
- Yes: 50%
- No: 33.3%
- Sometimes: 16.7%
- N/A: 6.7%
Do the learning activities provide opportunities for interaction with University Professor?
6 responses

- Yes: 50%
- No: 33.3%
- Sometimes: 16.7%
- N/A: 0%

Do the tools used in the course promote learner engagement?
6 responses

- Yes: 50%
- No: 33.3%
- Sometimes: 16.7%
- N/A: 0%

Is a variety of technology used in the course?
6 responses

- Yes: 50%
- No: 33.3%
- Sometimes: 16.7%
- N/A: 0%
Does course navigation facilitate ease of use?
6 responses

- 50% Yes
- 50% No
### APPENDIX E: QUALITY MATTERS SPECIFIC REVIEW STANDARDS

#### Specific Review Standards from the QM Higher Education Rubric, Sixth Edition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Standards</th>
<th>Specific Review Standards</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Course Overview and Introduction</td>
<td>1.1 Instructions make clear how to get started and where to find various course components.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 Learners are introduced to the purpose and structure of the course.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.3 Communication expectations for online discussions, email, and other forms of interaction are clearly stated.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1.4 Course and institutional policies with which the learner is expected to comply are clearly stated within the course, or a link to current policies is provided.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1.5 Minimum technology requirements for the course are clearly stated, and information on how to obtain the technologies is provided.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1.6 Computer skills and digital information literacy skills expected of the learner are clearly stated.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1.7 Expectations for prerequisite knowledge in the discipline and/or any required competencies are clearly stated.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1.8 The self-introduction by the instructor is professional and is available online.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.9 Learners are asked to introduce themselves to the class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Learning Objectives (Competencies)</td>
<td>2.1 The course learning objectives, or course/program competencies, describe outcomes that are measurable.</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.2 The module/unit level learning objectives or competencies describe outcomes that are measurable and consistent with the course-level objectives or competencies.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.3 Learning objectives or competencies are stated clearly, are written from the learner's perspective, and are prominently located in the course.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2.4 The relationship between learning objectives or competencies and learning activities is clearly stated.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2.5 The learning objectives or competencies are suited to the level of the course.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment and Measurement</td>
<td>3.1 The assessments measure the achievement of the stated learning objectives or competencies.</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.2 The course grading policy is stated clearly at the beginning of the course.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3.3 Specific and descriptive criteria are provided for the evaluation of learners' work, and their connection to the course grading policy is clearly explained.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.4 The assessments used are sequenced, varied, and suited to the level of the course.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.5 The course provides learners with multiple opportunities to track their learning progress with timely feedback.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Materials</td>
<td>4.1 The instructional materials contribute to the achievement of the stated learning objectives or competencies.</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.2 The relationship between the use of instructional materials in the course and completing learning activities is clearly explained.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.3 The course models the academic integrity expected of learners by providing both source references and permissions for use of instructional materials.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>4.4 The instructional materials represent up-to-date theory and practice in the discipline.</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.5 A variety of instructional materials is used in the course.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Activities and Learner Interaction</td>
<td>5.1 The learning activities promote the achievement of the stated learning objectives or competencies.</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5.2 Learning activities provide opportunities for interaction that support active learning.</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.3 The instructor's plan for interacting with learners during the course is clearly stated.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.4 The requirements for learner interaction are clearly stated.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Course Technology</td>
<td>6.1 The tools used in the course support the learning objectives or competencies.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.2 Course tools promote learner engagement and active learning.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.3 A variety of technology is used in the course.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.4 The course provides learners with information on protecting their data and privacy.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Learner Support</td>
<td>7.1 The course instructions articulate or link to a clear description of the technical support offered and how to obtain it.</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.2 Course instructions articulate or link to the institution's accessibility policies and services.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.3 Course instructions articulate or link to the institution's academic support services and resources that can help learners succeed in the course.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.4 Course instructions articulate or link to the institution's student services and resources that can help learners succeed.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility and Usability</td>
<td>8.1 Course navigation facilitates ease of use.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.2 The course design facilitates readability.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.3 The course provides accessible text and images in files, documents, LMS pages, and web pages to meet the needs of diverse learners.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.4 The course provides alternative means of access to multimedia content in formats that meet the needs of diverse learners.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.5 Course multimedia facilitate ease of use.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.6 Vendor accessibility statements are provided for all technologies required in the course.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Meeting QM Specific Review Standards regarding accessibility does not guarantee or imply that the specific accessibility regulations of any country are met. Consult with an accessibility specialist to ensure that accessibility regulations are met.

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APPENDIX F: TEACHING DIMENSIONS OBSERVATION PROTOCOL CODE BANK

Code Bank (Basic Dimensions plus Optional Dimensions)

The following list of codes includes only code definitions. For a more extensive discussion of coding rules and different instructional scenarios that will likely be encountered, please consult the “TDOP Technical Manual” which is available on the TDOP website.

Teaching Methods

Teacher-focused instruction (teacher is the primary actor)

L Lecturing: The instructor is talking to the students and not using visuals, demonstration equipment, actively writing, or asking more than 2 questions in a row in a Socratic manner.

LW Lecturing while writing: The instructor is talking to the students while actively writing on a chalkboard, transparencies, digital tablet, or other material. The instructor must either be writing or referring to what they are writing (or have already written). This code also captures real-time drawing of graphics (e.g., molecular structure, physiological processes), and if the use of visual representations is of interest, this should be included in the notes section. (Note that this code also captures writing/drawing in front of students without speaking, as a separate code for silent writing was deemed superfluous).

LVIS Lecturing from pre-made visuals: The instructor is talking to the students while referencing visual aids, such as slides, transparencies, posters, or models (e.g., plastic model of molecular structure, examples of sedimentary rocks, multi-media). The instructor must be referring to the topic contained in the visual, but the visual serves only as a reference point for the material and not as a live demonstration of phenomenon.

LDEM Lecturing with demonstration of phenomena: The instructor actively uses equipment (e.g., lab equipment, computer simulation) to convey course content. The objects must be in active use in relation to the topic and must be used for more than a simple reference point (e.g., “here is an example of a sedimentary rock”) to demonstrate a process or phenomenon in class (e.g., “here is how sedimentary rock erodes over time” while physically demonstrating this process).

SOC-L Socratic lecture: The instructor is talking to the students while asking multiple, successive questions to which the students are responding. Student responses are either guiding or being integrated within the discussion. A minimum of 2 relevant student responses is required to use this code. (Note that SOC-L can be co-coded with other types of lecturing, such as LW, if the instructor is doing both writing AND interspersing his/her talk with questions).

WP Working out problems: This code refers to the instructor working out computations or problems. These can include balancing a chemical equation, working out a mathematical proof, or designing equations or Punnett squares, etc. The intent of the code is to capture the working through of some sort of problems in front of students. (If the computations/problems are on a slide and the instructor is actively working through problems, then this will be co-coded with LVIS. If this process is being written out, then this code will be co-coded with LW, and if students are being asked to participate in the problem-solving process via questions, code SOC-L).

IND Individualized instruction: The instructor provides instruction to individuals or groups and not the entire class. This often occurs while the instructor is roaming the classroom, but students or small groups may also approach the instructor. This code is usually co-coded with SGW or DW (see below). It is important to recognize that this code should not be used to classify the types of student-teacher interactions that are occurring in a large class setting – instead, use this code only when students are engaged in SGW or DW and the instructor is directly interacting with one or more students.

MM Multimedia: The instructor plays a video or movie (e.g., YouTube or documentary) without speaking while the students watch. If the instructor is talking over a video, movie, or simulation, then co-code with LVIS.

A Assessment: The instructor is explicitly gathering student learning data in class (e.g., tests, quizzes, or clickers).

AT Administrative task: The instructor is discussing exams, homework, or other non-content related topics.

Student-focused instruction (students are the primary actor)

SGW Small group work/discussion: Students form into groups of 2+ for the purposes of discussion and/or to complete a task.

DW Deskwork: Students complete work alone at their desk/chair.

SP Student presentation: Groups or individual students are giving to the class or are otherwise acting as the primary speaker or instructor in the classroom. In this instance, only select this code and none others as long as the primary instructor is not actively taking the lead in teaching the class.

Student-Teacher Dialogue

Teacher-led dialogue

IRQ Instructor rhetorical question: The instructor asks a question without seeking an answer and without giving students an opportunity to answer the question.
IDQ  Instructor display question: The instructor poses a question seeking information. These questions can: seek a specific fact, a solution to a closed-ended problem, or involve students generating their own ideas rather than finding a specific solution.

ICQ  Instructor comprehension question: The instructor checks for understanding (e.g., “Does that make sense?”) and pauses for at least five seconds, thereby indicating an opportunity for students to respond.

Student-led dialogue

SQ  Student question: A student poses a question to the instructor that seeks new information (i.e., not asking to clarify a concept that was previously being discussed) and/or clarification of a concept that is part of the current or past class period.

SR  Student response to teacher question: A student responds to a question posed by the instructor, whether posed verbally by the instructor or through digital means (e.g., clicker, website).

PI  Peer interactions: Students speaking to one another (often during SGW, WCD, or SP).

Instructional Technology

CB  Chalkboard/whiteboard/Smart Board

OP  Overhead projector/transparencies

PP  PowerPoint or other digital slides

CL  Clicker response systems

D  Demonstration equipment: These could include chemistry demonstrations of reactions, physics demonstrations of motion, or any other material being used for the demonstration of a process or phenomenon. The objects must be in active use in relation to the topic. This can also include objects such as rocks being passed around a classroom.

DT  Digital tablet: This refers to any technology where the instructor can actively write on a document or graphic that is being projected onto a screen. This includes document cameras as well as software on a laptop that allows for writing on PDF files.

M  Movie, documentary, video clips, or Youtube video

SI  Simulation: Simulations can be digital apps or web-based applications.

WEB  Website: Includes instructor interaction with course website or other online resource (besides Youtube videos). This can include using a website for student responses to questions (in lieu of clickers).

Potential Student Cognitive Engagement

CNL  Making connections to own lives/specific cases: Students are given examples (either verbally through illustrative stories or graphically through movies or pictures) that clearly and explicitly link course material to popular culture, the news, and other common student experiences. Students may also be given specific cases or incidents in order to link an abstract principle or topic (e.g., flooding) with a more readily identifiable instance (e.g., 2013 floods in Boulder, Colorado). For this code to be used, the observer will need to make a judgment that the specific case is something meaningful to students, such as a local historic item or location, or a widely recognized incident. In general, a high bar is required here that is based on specificity and salience to students, such that showing a picture of a sedimentary rock will not be sufficient for this code, but if the picture was of the Grant Canyon and named as such, it would be coded as CNL.

This code will be particularly important in biology (e.g., Dolly the sheep) and geoscience courses.

PS  Problem solving: Students are asked to actively solve a problem (e.g., balance a chemical equation, work out a mathematical equation/algorithm). This is evident through explicit verbal (e.g., “Please solve for X”) or written requests (e.g., worksheets) to solve a problem. This is coded in relation to closed-ended exercises or problems where the instructor has a specific solution or end-point clearly in mind.

CR  Creating: Students are provided with tasks or dilemmas where the outcome is open-ended rather than fixed (e.g., students are asked to generate their own ideas and/or products rather than finding a specific solution). The task can be delivered verbally or in written form. This is coded in relation to open-ended exercises or problems where the instructor does not have a specific solution or end-point clearly in mind.

Pedagogical Strategies

HUM  Humor: The instructor tells jokes or humorous anecdotes; this code requires laughter from at least a couple of students.

ANEX  Anecdote/example: The instructor gives examples (either verbally through illustrative stories or graphically through movies or pictures) that clearly and explicitly link course material to (a) popular culture, the news, and other common student experiences, or (b) widely recognized cases or incidents that illustrate the abstract (both types are co-coded with CNL).
**Organization:** The instructor writes or posts an outline of class (i.e., advance organizer) or clearly indicates a transition from one topic to the next verbally or through transitional slides. This transition from one topic to another can indicate a change in topics within a single class or from a previous class to the present class. These transitions must be verbally explicit statements to the class (e.g., “Now we’re moving from meiosis to mitosis”) as opposed to ambiguous statements such as “Now we’ll pick up where we left off on Monday.” This may also include statements concerning how concepts covered in different portions of the class (e.g., lecture, homework, and lab) may overlap.

**Emphasis:** The instructor clearly states that something is important for students to learn or remember either for a test, for their future careers, or to just learn the material well.

**Student Engagement**

**Very High:** More than 75% of the students in the immediate area of the observer are either (a) actively taking notes, or (b) looking at the instructor/course materials.

**High:** Between 50% and 75% of the students in the immediate area of the observer are either (a) actively taking notes, or (b) looking at the instructor.

**Medium:** Between 25% and 50% of the students in the immediate area of the observer are either (a) actively taking notes, or (b) looking at the instructor.

**Low:** Less than 25% of the students in the immediate area of the observer are either (a) actively taking notes, or (b) looking at the instructor.
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