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TRANSNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION: CHALLENGES, PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT, AND EXPATRIATE MANAGEMENT

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Statement of originality

I declare that this thesis is my original work and it has not been published. Authors and works consulted are properly cited in this thesis and listed in the list of references.

Tran Nguyen Hai Ngan

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Peter Drucker's quote, “You cannot manage what you cannot measure,” serves as a guiding principle and the reason for my research direction in operational efficiency management. This quote was initially introduced to me by my thesis supervisors, Professors Sérgio and Carla. Despite traversing diverse fields - from tourism and hospitality management to marketing - I found myself captivated by the realms of operations and efficiency management. Initially inclined towards marketing for my PhD, it was through perusing professor profiles at the University of Algarve that I became intrigued by the field of operations management and efficiency. Recognising the vital role of performance measurement in organisational success, I realised the importance of comparing our unit's performance against others for well-informed decision-making. Operational efficiency, a domain I had been immersed in for the past decade without formal training, became my newfound interest. This realisation prompted me to redefine my research focus, develop initial proposals, and approach Professor Carla, whose publications laid the groundwork for my interest.

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ABSTRACT

Over the past three decades, Transnational Higher Education (TNE) has witnessed a remarkable surge, enabling Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) worldwide to extend their educational offerings to global markets. TNE, also known as international programme and provider mobility, refers to a scenario where institutional providers move across national borders to deliver higher education programmes and credentials to students in other countries without the physical presence of students in the country of the foreign higher education institution. The categorisation of TNE into six types – franchise programmes, partnership programmes, international branch campuses, joint universities, self-study distance education, and distance education with local academic partners - illustrates the diverse delivery mechanisms employed in this global educational phenomenon.

In recent years, TNE has not only increased exponentially in size but has also seen the emergence of new forms of partnership and delivery modes in the HEI context. The development patterns of these modes of delivery in the UK's higher education, for example, reveal interesting trends. Collaborative provision, overseas partner organisations, and flexible learning options have all seen varying degrees of growth, with collaborative provision experiencing the greatest proportional increase from 2017–18 (10.9%), attributed to the rise in double and multiple-degree programmes. This expansion serves as a foundation for diverse teaching and learning philosophies, accommodating students from different countries seeking international degrees to enhance their knowledge and employability. The motivation of institutions from both home and host countries to provide these degrees has significantly contributed to the internationalisation of higher education. The appeal of TNE programmes has grown, particularly in situations where studying abroad might be impractical due to concerns about high tuition fees and relocation costs, especially for mature learners who wish to continue working and staying with their families. The benefits of TNE extend to both home and host institutions, encompassing financial growth, market penetration, capacity building, skills development for students and teachers, and opportunities for cultural intelligence development.

However, the expansion of TNE is not without challenges. Challenges such as ensuring comparable quality assurance for students at both home and host institutions, transferring knowledge effectively, fostering collaboration between academic staff of both institutions and achieving expected financial outcomes are prevalent. Moreover, despite the positive trajectory, tracking TNE development and producing usable data present challenges, especially in host

countries with developing higher education systems. Data tracking efforts are more active in large sending countries, such as the UK, where organisations like The Higher Education Statistics Agency play a pivotal role. The impact of TNE is not limited to specific regions; it spans across Asia, Africa, the European Union, the Middle East, North America, non-EU Europe, Australasia, and South America.

Challenges persist, necessitating ongoing attention to quality assurance, knowledge transfer, collaboration, and improved outcomes. A framework for assessing opportunities and risks associated with the establishment of international branch campuses identifies three main types of factors influencing the sustainability of TNE: environmental factors, industry factors, and organisational factors. These factors encompass government policies, legislation, and regulations, market attractiveness and profitability, and the availability of resources and competencies in the institutions involved. Despite these identified factors, the existing literature on TNE is scattered, and a systematic review of challenges and success factors as perceived by key stakeholders has been lacking. Hence, there arises a compelling need for a thorough examination of the existing literature on TNE, with a specific focus on understanding the challenges perceived by diverse stakeholders involved in the sustainable transition of these programmes from their home institutions to host institutions. This systematic review is essential to comprehensively capture the nuances of TNE dynamics and contribute significantly to the understanding of its sustainable evolution.

Guided by the positivism paradigm, but also benefiting from insights from qualitative methodologies and holistic perspectives, this research comprises three scientific papers. The first study systematically reviews TNE literature, identifying key challenges leading to stakeholder dissatisfaction and factors contributing to the sustainable transition of TNE programmes. Challenges encompass difficulties in programme management, ensuring quality assurance, adapting curricula to local contexts, accommodating offshore students' learning styles, creating study environments for TNE students equivalent to those in-home institutions, ensuring academic staff preparedness, and facilitating capacity building and knowledge transfer in host countries. The literature analysis highlights that the sustainable development of TNE programmes relies on six main factors: the effectiveness of operations, internationalisation of curricula, transnational experience of students, development of transnational staff, proper legal/regulatory framework in host countries, and the development of a global systematic and consistent data collection for quality assurance and recognition.

The second study focuses on academic franchising, a mode gaining popularity among HEIs. Although this partnership model contributes to the development of teaching and research capabilities in the host institutions as well as enhances market coverage, brand recognition, and the global reputation of the franchisor, its operation faces the challenge of optimising resource utilisation across the franchisee network to enhance efficiency and effectiveness. However, assessing efficiency and effectiveness in HEIs is complex due to the need to take into account multiple inputs, outputs, and outcomes. To address this challenge, the second study employs Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA), a non-parametric technique capable of providing a comprehensive measure of relative performance, considering various indicators without demanding information about their specific weights. The focus of the study is on evaluating the efficiency and effectiveness of academic franchisees within a specific network, emphasising the optimisation of resources to improve student admissions, graduation rates, and academic performance in business-related undergraduate programmes associated with the TNE network of an esteemed university from the UK, referred to as University X. The DEA models are enhanced by the introduction of weight restrictions based on production trade-offs aiming at identifying realistic improvement measures. By investigating the trade-offs between admission efficiency, teaching efficiency, and effectiveness of 18 academic franchisees within a single network, this study contributes valuable insights to the existing literature and offers practical implications for both the TNE franchisor and franchisees.

In the third study, in light of the growing interest in TNE and the increasing trend of international academic mobility, particularly among self-initiated expatriates (SIEs), this qualitative study delves into the less-explored management dynamics of SIEs, with a specific focus on the TNE context. Grounded in the International Adjustment Framework and the Ability, Motivation, and Opportunity (AMO) framework, the research involves 22 in-depth interviews with both host institution managers and SIEs across 11 TNE programmes. By adopting a holistic approach that considers the perspectives of key stakeholders, the study provides valuable insights into SIE motivations, host institution hiring rationales, the challenges associated with adaptation, as well as adjustment practices that can contribute to improved performance. Its objective is to enhance expatriate management practices, foster knowledge transfer, and advocate for diversity and inclusion in global team management within the TNE landscape. The findings uncover a gender imbalance among SIEs and reveal that expatriation is predominantly driven by pull factors. Host institutions highlight the desire to internationalise training curricula as a key motivation for hiring SIEs, placing value on qualifications and adaptability. Challenges related to visas and work permits impact both parties. While overall satisfaction with SIEs' performance exists, opportunities for enhancing resourcing and retention are identified. The study also proposes a conceptual model that illustrates the interplay between SIEs and host institutions, encompassing motivations, challenges, and their impacts on both SIEs and organisational performance.

The three studies collectively contribute to the knowledge base of TNE, offering practical insights, frameworks, and guidance for improving the efficiency, effectiveness, and sustainability of TNE programmes. The first research study undertakes a meticulous review of the existing TNE literature, shedding light on the multifaceted challenges faced by stakeholders during the transition of TNE programmes from home to host institutions. This in turn allows the identification of key factors which are critical to the sustainable development of TNE programmes. The second study focuses on the operational aspects of TNE, specifically academic franchising. Employing DEA, the research delves into the efficiency and effectiveness of academic franchisees within a TNE network. By pinpointing inefficiencies and ineffectiveness in individual franchising programmes, the study provides actionable insights for both TNE franchisors and franchisees, urging the balance between admission and teaching efficiency while ensuring the effective utilisation of resources to achieve high-quality teaching and learning across diverse franchisee networks, thus enhancing the overall performance and sustainability of TNE initiatives. The third study focuses on the human capital aspect of TNE, specifically the motivations and challenges faced by SIEs within TNE institutions. By exploring the incentives for international talent and examining adjustment practices at individual and institutional levels, this research makes a significant contribution to fostering sustainable global human capital in TNE.

Keywords: transnational higher education, challenges, success factors, systematic literature review, franchising network, DEA, efficiency, effectiveness, self-initiated expatriate, international adaptability

RESUMO

Ao longo das últimas três décadas, o Ensino Superior Transnacional (TNE) testemunhou um aumento notável, permitindo às Instituições de Ensino Superior (IES) em todo o mundo alargarem as suas ofertas educativas aos mercados globais. O TNE, também conhecido como sistema de mobilidade internacional de programas e prestadores, refere-se a um cenário em que os prestadores institucionais atravessam as fronteiras nacionais para oferecer programas e credenciais de ensino superior a estudantes em países vizinhos, sem a presença física de estudantes no país da instituição de ensino superior estrangeira. A categorização do TNE em seis tipos – programas de franchising, programas de parceria, campi de filiais internacionais, universidade conjunta, educação à distância com estudo autónomo e educação à distância com parceiros académicos locais – ilustra os diversos mecanismos de prestação utilizados neste fenómeno educacional global.

Nos últimos anos, o TNE não só aumentou exponencialmente em dimensão, mas também viu o surgimento de novas formas de parceria e novos modelos de prestação no contexto das IES. Os padrões de desenvolvimento destes modelos no ensino superior do Reino Unido, por exemplo, revelam tendências interessantes. A oferta colaborativa, as organizações parceiras no estrangeiro e as opções de aprendizagem flexíveis registaram graus variados de crescimento, com a oferta colaborativa a registar o maior aumento proporcional entre 2017 e 2018 (10,9%), atribuído ao aumento de programas de diplomas duplos e múltiplos. Esta expansão serve de base para diversas filosofias de ensino e aprendizagem, acomodando estudantes de diferentes países que procuram diplomas internacionais para aprimorar o seu conhecimento e a sua empregabilidade. A motivação das instituições dos países de origem e de acolhimento para ministrar estes diplomas contribuiu significativamente para a internacionalização do ensino superior. O apelo dos programas TNE tem crescido, especialmente em situações em que estudar no estrangeiro pode ser impraticável devido a preocupações com as elevadas propinas e os custos de relocalização, especialmente para alunos trabalhadores-estudantes que desejam continuar a trabalhar e ficar com as suas famílias. Os benefícios do TNE estendem-se tanto às instituições de origem como às instituições de acolhimento, abrangendo o crescimento financeiro, a penetração no mercado, o desenvolvimento de capacidades, o desenvolvimento de competências para estudantes e professores e oportunidades para o desenvolvimento da inteligência cultural.

No entanto, a expansão do TNE não está isenta de desafios. Alguns destes desafios consistem em garantir sistemas de controlo de qualidade comparáveis tanto nas instituições de origem como nas instituições de acolhimento, em transferir conhecimento de forma eficaz, em promover a colaboração entre o pessoal académico de ambas as instituições e em alcançar os resultados financeiros esperados. Além disso, apesar da trajetória positiva, acompanhar o desenvolvimento do TNE e produzir informação útil apresenta desafios, especialmente nos países de acolhimento com sistemas de ensino superior em desenvolvimento. Por enquanto, os esforços de recolha de dados são mais ativos nos grandes países emissores, como o Reino Unido, onde organizações como a Agência de Estatísticas do Ensino Superior desempenham um papel fundamental. O impacto do TNE não se limita, no entanto, a regiões específicas; abrange toda a Ásia, África, União Europeia, Médio Oriente, América do Norte, Europa fora da UE, Australásia e América do Sul.

Os desafios existentes, exigem que seja dada atenção contínua à garantia de qualidade, transferência de conhecimento, colaboração e melhoria de resultados. A literatura existente relativa a oportunidades e riscos associados ao estabelecimento de filiais internacionais identificou três tipos principais de fatores que influenciam a sustentabilidade do TNE: fatores ambientais, fatores industriais e fatores organizacionais. Esses fatores abrangem políticas, legislação e regulamentações governamentais, atratividade e lucratividade do mercado e a disponibilidade de recursos e competências nas instituições envolvidas. Apesar dos fatores identificados, a literatura existente sobre TNE está dispersa, sendo útil uma revisão sistemática dos desafios e dos fatores de sucesso, tal como percecionados pelas principais partes interessadas. Assim, surge uma necessidade premente de uma análise aprofundada da literatura existente sobre TNE, com um foco específico na compreensão dos desafios percecionados pelas diversas partes interessadas envolvidas na transição sustentável destes programas, das suas instituições de origem para as instituições de acolhimento. Esta revisão sistemática é essencial para capturar de forma abrangente as nuances da dinâmica do TNE e contribuir significativamente para a compreensão da sua evolução sustentável.

Guiado pelo paradigma do positivismo, mas também beneficiando de insights de metodologias qualitativas e perspectivas holísticas, esta tese é composta por três artigos científicos. O primeiro estudo analisa sistematicamente a literatura sobre TNE, identificando os principais desafios que levam à insatisfação das partes interessadas e os fatores que contribuem para a transição sustentável destes programas. Os desafios abrangem dificuldades na gestão dos programas, garantia da qualidade, adaptação dos currículos aos contextos locais, acomodando os estilos de aprendizagem dos estudantes offshore, criação de ambientes de estudo para os estudantes do TNE equivalentes aos das instituições locais, garantia da preparação do pessoal académico e auxílio ao desenvolvimento de capacidades e transferência de conhecimentos nos países anfitriões. A análise da literatura permite perceber que o desenvolvimento sustentável dos programas TNE depende de seis fatores principais: a eficácia das operações; a internacionalização dos currículos; a experiência transnacional dos estudantes; o desenvolvimento do pessoal transnacional; a existência de um quadro jurídico/regulatório adequado nos países de acolhimento e o desenvolvimento de um sistema de recolha de dados para a garantia e reconhecimento da qualidade.

O segundo estudo centra-se no franchising académico, modalidade que está a ganhar popularidade entre as IES. Embora este modelo de parceria contribua para o desenvolvimento de capacidades de ensino e investigação nas instituições anfitriãs, para a melhoria da cobertura do Mercado e para o reconhecimento da marca e a reputação global do franqueador, as suas operações enfrentam o desafio relacionado com a otimização da utilização de recursos em toda a sua rede de franqueados para melhorar a sua eficiência e efetividade. No entanto, avaliar a eficiência e a efetividade nas IES é complexo devido à necessidade de tomar em consideração múltiplos recursos, múltiplos serviços e múltiplos resultados. Para enfrentar esse desafio, o segundo estudo emprega o Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA), uma técnica não paramétrica capaz de fornecer uma medida abrangente de desempenho relativo, considerando vários indicadores e sem exigir a especificação dos pesos relativos de cada um. O foco do estudo está na avaliação da eficiência e eficácia dos franqueados acadêmicos dentro de uma rede específica, enfatizando a otimização de recursos para melhorar a admissão de alunos, taxas de graduação e desempenho acadêmico em cursos de graduação relacionados a negócios associados à rede TNE do país. estimada universidade do Reino Unido, conhecida como Universidade X. Os modelos de DEA foram melhorados através da introdução de restrições aos pesos por forma a produzir medidas realistas de melhoria do desempenho. Ao investigar os conflitos entre a eficiência de admissão, a eficiência de ensino e a efetividade de 18 franqueados académicos dentro de uma única rede, este estudo contribui para a literatura existente e oferece implicações práticas tanto para o franqueador como para os franqueados da rede de TNE estudada.

No terceiro estudo, à luz do crescente interesse pelo TNE e da tendência crescente de mobilidade académica internacional, particularmente entre os expatriados autoiniciados (SIEs), este estudo qualitativo investiga a dinâmica de gestão menos explorada dos SIEs, com um foco específico no contexto do TNE. Fundamentada no Quadro de Ajustamento Internacional e no quadro de Capacidade, Motivação e Oportunidade (AMO), este terceiro estudo envolve 22 entrevistas com gestores de instituições anfitriãs e SIEs em 11 programas de TNE. Ao adotar uma abordagem holística que considera as perspetivas das principais partes interessadas, o estudo fornece informações valiosas sobre as motivações dos SIEs e das instituições anfitriãs, os desafios associados à adaptação, bem como sobre os ajustamentos necessários para melhorar o desempenho. O seu objetivo é melhorar as práticas de gestão de expatriados, promover a transferência de conhecimento e defender a diversidade e a inclusão na gestão de equipas globais no contexto TNE. As conclusões deste estudo revelam um desequilíbrio de género entre os SIEs e revelam que a expatriação é predominantemente impulsionada por fatores de atração. As instituições de acolhimento destacam o desejo de internacionalizar os currículos de formação como uma motivação fundamental para a contratação de SIEs, valorizando as qualificações e a adaptabilidade dos SIEs. Os desafios relacionados com vistos e autorizações de trabalho têm impacto em ambas as partes. Embora exista satisfação geral com o desempenho dos SIEs, são identificadas oportunidades para melhorar relacionadas com a obtenção de recursos e a retenção de SIEs. O estudo propõe ainda um modelo conceptual que ilustra a interação entre os SIEs e as instituições anfitriãs, abrangendo motivações, desafios e seus impactos no desempenho organizacional.

Os três estudos contribuem coletivamente para a base de conhecimento do TNE, oferecendo conhecimentos práticos, enquadramentos e orientações para melhorar a eficiência, a efetividade e a sustentabilidade dos programas TNE. O primeiro estudo de investigação realiza uma revisão sistemática da literatura existente sobre TNE, lançando luz sobre os desafios multifacetados enfrentados pelas partes interessadas durante a transição dos programas TNE das instituições de origem para as instituições anfitriãs. Isto, por sua vez, permite a identificação de fatores-chave que são críticos para o desenvolvimento sustentável dos programas TNE. O segundo estudo foca-se nos aspetos operacionais do TNE, especificamente o franchising académico. Empregando o DEA, a pesquisa investiga a eficiência e a efetividade dos franqueados académicos dentro de uma rede TNE. Ao identificar programas com potencial de melhoria ao nível da eficiência e da efetividade, o estudo faz contribuições práticas para franqueadores e franqueados da TNE, enfatizando a importância de estabelecer um compromisso entre as várias dimensões de desempenho. Só garantindo uma utilização eficiente e efetiva de recursos é que será possível alcançar ensino e aprendizagem de alta qualidade nas diversas redes de franqueados, melhorando assim o desempenho global e a sustentabilidade das iniciativas TNE. O terceiro estudo centra-se no aspeto do capital humano do TNE,

especificamente nas motivações e desafios enfrentados pelos SIEs nas instituições do TNE. Ao explorar também os incentivos à contratação de talento internacional e as práticas de ajustamento a nível individual e institucional, este estudo dá um contributo significativo para a promoção do capital humano global sustentável nas empresas transnacionais.

Palavras-chave: ensino superior transnacional, desafios, fatores de sucesso, revisão sistemática da literatura, rede de franchising, DEA, eficiência, eficácia, expatriado autoiniciado, adaptabilidade internacional.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS USED

Abbreviation	Meaning
AMO	The Ability, Motivation, and Opportunity enhancing practices model
DEA	Data envelopment analysis
DMUs	Decision-making units
HEIs	Higher education institutes
SIEs	Self-initiated expatriates
TNE	Transnational higher education

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

To provide a strong background for the proposed conceptual frameworks in the three studies in this thesis, definitions of theories, relevant constructs and key terms are presented below.

Higher education institutions (HEIs): are organisations that provide post-secondary education and award academic degrees or professional certifications (Bordogna, 2020). These institutions go beyond the level of education provided by secondary schools and offer advanced learning opportunities in various academic and vocational fields (Bordogna, 2020). Higher education institutions can take different forms, including universities, colleges, community colleges, technical and vocational institutions, and graduate schools.

Transnational higher education (TNE): TNE, also known by international programme and provider mobility, refers to a situation where institutional providers move across national borders to deliver higher education programmes and credentials to students in neighbouring countries without the physical presence of students in the country of the foreign higher education institution (Knight & McNamara, 2017). According to Sudhana et al. (2020), TNE can be divided into three types, which are distance model, in-country delivery model, and blended model.

Home countries: are the nations where the educational institutions providing the transnational programmes are originally based or headquartered. These countries play crucial roles in overseeing the quality of education, ensuring regulatory compliance, and maintaining the reputation of their educational institutions in the transnational context (Knight & McNamara, 2017).

Home country institutions: are the educational institutions that provide and oversee the educational programmes offered in a foreign (host) country. The home country institution is responsible for designing the training curriculum, pedagogy, and ensuring the quality and standards of education are consistent with those of the home country (Knight & McNamara, 2017).

Host countries: are the nations where the educational programmes offered by foreign institutions are delivered. The roles of host countries in TNE contribute to creating a regulatory framework, ensuring academic quality, fostering cultural integration, and supporting the overall success of transnational education programmes within their jurisdictions. Collaboration between home and host countries is essential to create a mutually beneficial and sustainable TNE environment (Knight & McNamara, 2017).

Host country institutions: are the educational institutions, organisations, or entities situated in the country where the transnational education programmes are being delivered. These institutions collaborate with or host the operations of foreign educational providers, allowing them to offer academic programmes within the host country. Depending on the nature of the collaboration, the host country institutions can either export and duplicate the home programmes in another country or correspond to the joint development of the programmes between the home and host institutions (Knight & McNamara, 2017).

Quality assurance agencies: These are organisations or agencies responsible for evaluating and ensuring the quality and standards of the education provided by higher education institutions, including those involved in TNE (Hou et al., 2017). Through the institutional and programme accreditation, conducting external quality assurance audit, and the recognition of foreign qualifications, quality assurance agencies play a pivotal role in upholding the quality and credibility of transnational higher education, fostering international collaboration, and maintaining the confidence of students, employers, and the broader academic community (Hou et al., 2016).

Academic franchising: Franchising is a contractual arrangement between a franchisor and a franchisee, permitting the franchisee to use the franchisor's brand, products, services, and operational procedures for local service or product delivery (Pon & Ritchie, 2014). Academic franchising is gaining popularity among HEIs, offering benefits for franchisors, franchisees, and enrolled students (Pon & Ritchie, 2014).

Effectiveness management: refers to the achievement of the desired effects (outcomes).

Resource effectiveness: refers to the systematic process of optimising the use of resources to achieve the desired effects (or outcomes).

Efficiency management: refers to the systematic process of optimising the use of resources to achieve desired outputs or objectives with the least possible waste. It is defined as "the ratio of a firm's observed output to the maximum output which could be achieved given its input levels" (Johnes, 2006a, p.274)

Admission efficiency: the capacity to use the resources available to maximise the volume of students registered in each programme.

Teaching efficiency: the capacity to use the resources available to maximise the volume of graduates in each programme.

Data envelopment analysis (DEA): is a quantitative method, a non-statistical and non-parametric technique, which is used in efficiency management and operations research to assess the relative efficiency of a set of entities, often referred to as decision-making units (DMUs) (Wohlrabe & Friedrich, 2017). In contrast to traditional methods that rely on assumptions about inefficiencies, DEA calculates efficiency by analysing inputs and outputs through linear programming. It establishes a production possibility frontier and measures efficiency as the ratio of weighted outputs to weighted inputs (Johnes, 2006a). This technique can also be used to evaluate effectiveness and resource effectiveness. DEA is particularly useful in situations where traditional methods may not be applicable due to the lack of a common unit of measurement for inputs, outputs and outcomes.

Input and output DEA orientation models: DEA model can take two forms either input-oriented, focusing on minimising inputs and still satisfying the given output levels, or output-oriented, also known as output maximisation without using more inputs (Tyagi et al., 2009). Non-oriented models can also be used, if both output maximisation and input minimisation are required.

Decision-making units (DMUs): are the entities or organisational components that are the focus of efficiency/ effectiveness analysis. Understanding their performance in terms of resource utilisation, output production and outcome achievement can inform strategic decision-making and drive improvements within an organisation (Aviles-Sacoto et al., 2015).

Weight restrictions: In DEA, weight restrictions refer to constraints or limitations placed on the weights assigned to input and output variables during the efficiency evaluation process (Johnes, 2006a).

Production trade-offs: refer to the idea that imposing constraints on the weights assigned to inputs and outputs can affect the efficiency scores and the trade-offs between these factors. These trade-offs should be based on assumptions that certain concurrent changes to inputs and outputs are technically acceptable in the production process, ensuring that the results are realistic and enable producible improvements (Podinovski, 2015).

Expatriate academics: are individuals who leave their home countries for long-term academic roles (Neri & Wilkins, 2019). Academic work encompasses teaching, research, and related activities such as syllabus development and curriculum revision, which can vary among institutions (Neri & Wilkins, 2019).

Self-initiated expatriates (SIEs): in contrast to organisational expatriates who are dispatched by their organisations for short-term international assignments, SIEs proactively seek international opportunities (Kumarika Perera et al., 2016). In HEIs, SIEs possess international backgrounds, English proficiency, and experience with home institutions, enabling them to transfer teaching materials and deliver curricula locally (Singh et al., 2022).

The international adjustment framework: as proposed by Black et al. (1991), it focuses on the adaptation process of individuals, particularly expatriates, when they move and work in a foreign country. This theory provides a framework to understand how individuals cope with the challenges of living and working in a new cultural and professional environment.

The Ability, Motivation, and Opportunity enhancing practices model (AMO): it is a theoretical framework used in organisational studies and human resource management. It suggests that three key factors—ability, motivation, and opportunity—interact to influence individual and organisational performance (Fan et al. 2022). In the context of human resource management practices, AMO-enhancing practices refer to strategies and interventions designed to improve these three components.

CHAPTER ONE – GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research background and overview

In the context of Transnational Higher Education (TNE), a transformative journey has unfolded over the last three decades, reshaping the global landscape of higher education. This evolution has been marked by an unprecedented need in the adoption of TNE programmes, allowing Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) worldwide to extend their academic offerings to international markets. Simultaneously, students from diverse corners of the globe have gained access to a rich tapestry of teaching philosophies (Bordogna, 2020). The significance of this transformation is evident in the staggering increase in TNE students, reaching 598,485 by the academic year 2012/13 (Dowling-Hetherington, 2020). Offshore overseas student enrolments have witnessed an equally dramatic rise, escalating from an estimated 50,000 in the mid-1980s to an impressive 404,000 in 2016/17 (Bennell, 2019). This monumental shift is underpinned by a confluence of factors, including the growing aspirations of local students seeking international degrees to enhance their knowledge and employability. TNE programmes have become particularly relevant in those situations where studying abroad is not a viable option for students who are concerned about the high tuition fees and costs involved in the relocation to a new country or for mature learners who want to continue working and staying with their families. TNE programmes have, therefore, become preferred by students who wish to gain an international degree while staying in their home country (Sin et al., 2019; Sudhana et al., 2020). Concurrently, institutions from both home and host countries have actively contributed to the internationalisation of higher education (Ashour, 2018; Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019). The rising demand for transnational programmes stems from the compelling factors of financial growth, market penetration, and capacity building which benefit not only the home and host institutions but also contribute to the skill development of host countries at a national level (Rowley & Skipper, 2020).

Diverse TNE modes of delivery:

To cater to the rising demand, TNE programmes have undergone continuous development, diversifying into various models. Sudhana et al. (2020) categorise TNE into distance, in-country delivery, and blended models. Knight and McNamara (2017) contribute a nuanced classification framework, introducing modes such as franchise, partnership, international branch campus, joint university, self-learning distance education, and distance education with local partners. These models vary in their relationships, ranging from independent to collaborative partnerships. According with Knight and McNamara (2017), independent relationship refers to the total reliance of the host institutions on the curriculum, pedagogy, and quality assurance designed by the home institution. On the contrary, collaborative relationship appears when both home and host institutions take responsibility in designing, delivering, and managing the quality assurance of the academic programmes. To help classify the six categories of TNE delivery modes, three criteria or questions can be used: (i) who awards the qualification, (ii) who has the primary responsibility for the academic curriculum, and (iii) who has the primary responsibility for external quality assurance.

Global Reach and Educational Preferences:

TNE has experienced exponential growth globally, transforming the landscape of higher education. This phenomenon is not limited to specific regions but has become a global trend, impacting various countries and educational systems. Top host regions for TNE programmes in 2018-2019 include Asia (50.2%), Africa (20.3%), the European Union (12.4%), the Middle East (9.2%), North America (4.2%), non-EU Europe (2.7%), Australasia (0.5%), and South America (0.5%) (Jisc, n.d.). China, United Arab Emirates, and Malaysia are the top three TNE destinations, with the United Kingdom, the United States, and Australia being active TNE sending countries (Jisc, n.d.).

In the UK, 52 percent of international students enrolled in UK qualification programmes took some form of TNE provision in another country without physically going to the UK (Knight & McNamara, 2017). Among various TNE delivery modes in the UK's higher education, overseas partner organisations registered the highest rate of students (52.1%), followed by collaborative provision, distance, flexible and distributed learning, and overseas campuses, occupying 24.7%, 18.1%, and 4.3%, respectively (Wake & Ryan, 2020). Collaborative provision experienced the greatest proportional growth, especially in double and multiple degree programmes (Knight & McNamara, 2017; Wake & Ryan, 2020). The undergraduate level dominates TNE programmes, accounting for 80.9%, while postgraduate levels have gradually risen by 7.4% since 2014–15 (Wake & Ryan, 2020). Business Management is the most popular subject, followed by Medicine programmes and Arts and Humanities (Siora et al., 2016).

Despite the rise in interest in TNE, there is insufficient research about its challenges and success factors, about performance assessment and management in this context, as well as about expatriates' successful management. In order to contribute to this literature, this thesis includes three research articles, consisting of: (1) a systematic literature review regarding the challenges and success factors in TNE; (2) a case study exploring the use of a non-parametric technique to measure the performance of a sample of franchising programmes from a franchising network; (3) a qualitative study about the successful management of self-initiated expatriates in the context of TNE.

Challenges in TNE operations and the need for a systematic literature review:

Despite the promising expansion, TNE struggles with challenges, ranging from the complexity of tracking and reporting data (Knight & McNamara, 2017) to operational hurdles affecting sustainability, quality assurance, knowledge transfer, collaboration, and financial outcomes (Hu et al., 2019; Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020). Indeed, the issue of tracking TNE development is underscored by a notable gap between the acceleration of TNE itself and the incomplete achievement of robust data production (Knight & McNamara, 2017). Notably, education agencies in major sending countries, such as The Higher Education Statistics Agency – HESA (UK) and The Quality Assurance Agency - QAA (UK), actively engage in data tracking. Additionally, various associations, including Universities UK, the British Council, the Careers Research & Advisory Centre (CRAC), the International Education Association of Australia, and the National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER) – Australia, contribute to collecting data and producing annual reports on higher education development patterns. However, a significant lag in TNE data collection and reporting persists in host countries, particularly those with developing higher education systems (Knight & McNamara, 2017). This complex landscape highlights the need for concerted efforts to enhance data tracking and reporting mechanisms in both sending and host contexts.

As for the operational challenges of TNE, a number of studies have delved into challenges associated with ensuring comparable quality assurance for students both at home and host institutions (Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020), transferring knowledge from home to host institutions, ensuring collaboration between academic staff of both institutions and achieving expected financial outcomes, in between other issues (Hu et al., 2019; Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020). Over the years several studies have been conducted that summarise the challenges relating to curriculum development (Edwards et al., 2014; Li, 2020; Wahlström, 2020; Waterval et al., 2015), capacity building (Shams & Huisman, 2016), student experience and adaptation (Eaves, 2011; Wilkins, 2020), TNE partnership development (Bordogna, 2018; Wilkins, 2016), quality assurance (Bentley et al., 2017; Shams, 2017; Sharp, 2017; Zwanikken et al., 2013), qualification recognition (Hou et al., 2017), adaptation of visiting lecturers (Mizzi, 2017), ethical issues in the development of TNE (Wilkins, 2017), management of international branch campus (IBC) (Healey, 2015; Shams & Huisman, 2016), power distribution between partnered institutions (Djerasimovic, 2014) and to the regulatory framework of host countries.

When discussing the opportunities and risks associated with the establishment and management of TNE programmes, Wilkins (2016) offers a comprehensive framework for evaluating the sustainability of TNE, consisting of three crucial factors: environmental, industry, and organisational. Environmental challenges encompass navigating government policies, legislation, and regulations in both home and host countries, posing hurdles to organisational legitimacy, particularly in the presence of bureaucracy. Communication barriers stemming from time and cultural differences further complicate collaboration. Turning to industry factors, Wilkins emphasises the need for a meticulous examination of market dynamics, including uncertainties in labour supply, student demand, qualifications, tuition affordability, and competitive landscape, all exerting substantial influence on TNE programme operation and sustainability. Organisational considerations revolve around the availability of resources, such as campuses, books, finance, and equipment, alongside institutional competencies, as integral components for establishing competitive advantages in service delivery and knowledge transfer (Wilkins, 2016). This structured framework provides a holistic approach for institutions engaged in or contemplating TNE, facilitating strategic decision-making in the face of multifaceted challenges and opportunities.

Despite the identification of these factors, the strands of previous literature are highly scattered and the challenges and success factors of TNE as perceived by key stakeholders have not been systematically reviewed. For that reason, to understand the development and challenges of TNE operation as a whole, it is fundamental to systematically review TNE literature, identifying challenges leading to stakeholder dissatisfaction and systematising factors contributing to sustainable programme transitions from home to host institutions. In this paper, we chose to exclude the distance model from analysis as this studying mode is criticised for not being able to promote cultural participation, exchange and understanding (Bovill et al., 2015). Notably, online education programmes are not approved in some host countries due to their lack of physical local presence which creates difficulties for students to get their degrees recognised by employers and host countries (Wilkins & Juusola, 2018).

Performance Measurement and Efficiency Analysis in TNE:

In examining the performance of TNE programmes, particularly focusing on franchising modes, challenges to sustainable operation and development have been identified

(Hu et al., 2019; Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020). While existing research often emphasises outcome measurements, a gap exists in assessing the efficiency and effectiveness of these programmes, essential for competitiveness (Witte & López-Torres, 2017). Academic franchising, emerging as a favoured TNE mode, proffers strategic advantages such as extended market coverage and a lightened financial burden (Pon & Ritchie, 2014; Ribeiro & Akehurst, 2014). However, measuring the performance of HEIs poses challenges due to the multiple inputs involved (such as human resources, financial resources, and shared facilities) that contribute to the production of various outputs (such as the number and qualification of graduates, employability) (Witte & López-Torres, 2017; Johnes, 2006). Quantifying these inputs and outputs is complex (Chen et al., 2021). The simultaneous consideration of multiple inputs and outputs is also challenging.

To address the challenges at hand, researchers have increasingly adopted the Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) method, which directly integrates multiple inputs and outputs to compute a production possibility frontier. This approach facilitates the comparison of relative performance across diverse educational institutes and programmes, allowing for the identification of efficient and inefficient decision-making units (DMUs) (Aviles-Sacoto et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2021; Johnes, 2006).

However, in traditional DEA models, optimisation programmes might assign disproportionate weight to a single input and output, potentially neglecting others. To solve this problem, it is possible to include weight restrictions in the DEA models (Allen et al., 1997 offer a review). As discussed by Podinovski (2004: 1311), in "most cases, the construction of weight restrictions is based on value judgements concerning the perceived managerial importance of inputs and outputs", which may lead to non-realistic improvement factors. In contrast, the trade-off approach, as opposed to the traditional "value thinking" approach, employs a "technology thinking" method to establish weight restrictions based on production trade-offs, ensuring alignment with the technological aspects of the production process (Podinovski, 2004). This method offers distinct advantages over traditional approaches, as it relies on realistic production trade-offs rather than subjective judgments, which may not accurately reflect production realities and can distort the economic interpretation of efficiency (Podinovski, 2004). Weight restrictions derived from realistic trade-offs ensure that targets for inefficient DMUs are achievable, reflecting a realistic improvement factor (Podinovski, 2004). While there is a reasonable number of studies employing DEA in the HEI context, only a small number, such as Podinovski and Husain (2015), have incorporated trade-off weight restrictions. Moreover, despite franchising being one of the most popular TNE delivery modes, research assessing the performance of franchising programmes is scarce (Tran et al., 2022).

This study, hence, aims to contribute to this literature by undertaking a comparative performance analysis within a United Kingdom (UK) franchising network, concentrating specifically on 18 business-related undergraduate programmes. Noteworthy is the fact that the United Kingdom (UK) holds the position as the second-largest provider of international education, contributing an estimated annual value of £496 million to the UK economy in 2015 (Jisc, n.d.). Over the years, there has been a substantial 81 percent increase in the number of UK Higher Education TNE students since 2008-09, rendering the UK an exemplary case study for a comprehensive analysis of TNE performance (Jisc, n.d.).

An esteemed university from the UK, referred to as University X, serves as an intriguing case study. TNE students at University X make up a substantial 16 percent of the total TNE students across UK HEIs (Siora et al., 2016). With a global footprint through 43 collaborative partners, including 29 operating on a franchise basis, University X holds a pivotal position in the global education landscape (University X, n.d). This research, focused on the case study of University X, aims to unravel the intricacies of programme efficiency and effectiveness management within the TNE framework. Production trade-offs between the resources and the outcomes are introduced to obtain realistic improvement measures. By studying the trade-offs between admission efficiency, teaching efficiency and effectiveness, this study offers relevant insights to the literature and to the TNE franchisor and franchisees. To ensure privacy and confidentiality, organisational identities were anonymised.

Expatriate Management in TNE:

Regarding human resource management, gaining insights into the expatriate management practices of host institutions is crucial. International talents stand as key stakeholders, playing a significant role in the successful development and operation of TNE programmes. Indeed, many Asian countries have actively engaged in TNE partnerships with institutions from developed nations to deliver cross-border programmes to learners in the host market. Through these partnerships, host institutions aim to diversify their educational programmes to the market, build global competence within the organisation (Caligiuri, 2000), increase their institutional ranking (Singh et al., 2022), and enhance their teaching and research capabilities (Bu & Kero, 2019; Cai & Hall, 2016; Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020). Therefore, many universities have launched different remuneration packages to attract international academics who are geographically dispersed and culturally diversified, promoting the transferal of knowledge, addressing global demands, and form an international labour force (Cai & Hall, 2016; Chen & Zhu, 2020; Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020). Host governments actively support institutional internationalisation. Vietnam's Prime Minister's Decision 69/QĐ-TTg, in particular, aims to integrate foreign curricula elements and programmes, into at least 50 percent of tertiary institutions by 2025, promoting the attraction of transnational academic talent and education hub development (Luong et al., 2023).

Academic expatriates, a pursuit for career advancement and global recognition, takes various forms such as 'flying lecturers,' 'third-country expatriates,' and self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) (Chen & Zhu, 2020; Froese, 2012). Due to operational challenges stemming from low foreign language proficiency among local staff, labour shortages, curriculum mismatches, and poor communication, fly-in faculty members or organisational expatriates (OEs) are often sent by home institutions to the host countries for short time periods yearly to facilitate the transition of curriculum and teaching practices (Nhan & Nguyen, 2018; Tran et al., 2022). However, the high costs associated with fly-in faculty have led host institutions to explore SIEs as an alternative (Froese, 2012). Unlike organisational expatriates, SIEs actively seek international career opportunities (Froese, 2012). SIEs possess international backgrounds, English proficiency, and experience with home institutions, enabling them to transfer teaching materials and deliver curricula locally (Singh et al., 2022). With the rising need for host institutions to offer international services or products to both local and international learners, it is essential that TNE host institutions develop a culturally diverse international team that can manage transnational operations effectively (Mello et al., 2022). Many empirical studies emphasise the significant role of SIEs in transferring knowledge, skills, and abilities to the host companies (Meuer et al., 2019).

In the TNE context, expatriates often face challenges adapting to new work environments, with studies highlighting underperformance and a 20 percent turnover rate (Wilkins et al., 2018). Despite these challenges, studies on international staff management, especially within TNE, are limited, with sustainable expatriate management remaining underexplored (Hechanova et al., 2003; Bu & Kero, 2019; Chen & Zhu, 2020). Most studies focus on multinational enterprises (Fan et al., 2022). To the best of our knowledge, there is a singular study authored by Froese in 2012, which delves into the motivations and adaptations of SIEs. While this study did not specifically concentrate on the TNE context, it serves as a foundational cornerstone for comprehending the dynamics of SIEs within the higher education environment.

This study, incorporating insights from the ability-motivation-opportunity (AMO) framework, international adjustment framework, and work performance literature, also aims to investigate SIE motivations, review host institutions' adjustment practices, identify challenges during adaptation, assess their impact on SIE performance, explore evaluation criteria used by host institutions, and determine factors enhancing effective SIE performance in the TNE context. By addressing these aspects, the research contributes valuable insights for institutions aiming to improve expatriate management practices, facilitate knowledge transfer, and promote diversity and inclusion in the sustainable development of global teams within TNE (Chang et al., 2012; Black et al., 1991; Froese, 2012; Fan et al., 2022).

At its core, this comprehensive research project seeks to provide a holistic understanding of the evolving TNE landscape, from diverse programme models and global reach to operational challenges, performance measurement, and the intricate domain of expatriate management. The objectives encompass a systematic literature review, comparative efficiency analysis, and an in-depth exploration of expatriate management practices within the TNE framework. Through this multifaceted approach, the research aspires to contribute valuable insights for institutions aiming to navigate the complexities of TNE, improve programme efficiency, and enhance expatriate management practices in the pursuit of sustainable global education initiatives.

1.2 Research aims and objectives

Based on the comprehensive review of existing literature, the general purpose of this thesis is to comprehensively examine various dimensions of TNE, each with a distinct focus contributing to the overall understanding and enhancement of TNE operations. The first study systematically reviews existing TNE literature, aiming to uncover challenges during the transition of TNE programmes and identify crucial factors for sustainable development. The second study delves into the operational complexity of TNE, specifically academic franchising, utilising DEA to assess efficiency and effectiveness. This study seeks to provide actionable insights for TNE franchisors and franchisees, promoting a balance between admission and teaching efficiency while ensuring teaching and learning effectiveness. The third study focuses on the human capital aspect, exploring the motivations and challenges of self-initiated expatriates within TNE institutions. By investigating incentives for international talent and adjustment practices at individual and institutional levels, this research aims to contribute significantly to the creation of sustainable global human capital within the context of TNE.

Together, these studies aim to inform, improve, and advance the development and operations of TNE programmes.

This is an article-based thesis, in which each of its three papers approaches an above-mentioned research gap and corresponding research objectives. These specific objectives are:

1. To systematically review the literature on TNE in order to identify the main challenges that tend to lead to the dissatisfaction of key stakeholders towards TNE programmes as well as to systematise the factors that most contribute to a sustainable transition of these programmes from home institutions to host institutions (Study 1).
2. To assess the relative efficiency and effectiveness of academic franchisees within a single network in business-related majors, focusing on their efficient performance in terms of student admissions, graduation rates as well as their teaching effectiveness in terms of high graduation classification achievements of graduates in business-related undergraduate programmes affiliated with the TNE network of the University X through the use of DEA (Study 2).
3. To explore the motivations and challenges of SIEs and the incentives for host institutions to attract international talent, examine adjustment practices at individual and institutional levels, focusing on enhancing SIEs' skills, motivation, and working conditions, and identify determinants that create conditions conducive to successful SIE performance (Study 3).

1.3 Significance of the study

The first research study significantly advances the theoretical understanding of TNE by synthesising key findings from a systematic literature review. The research findings contribute significantly to the theoretical understanding of TNE by uncovering multifaceted aspects of its complexity. The identification of factors influencing TNE programme management, such as host country regulations, market conditions, and decision-making regarding programme localisation or standardisation, enriches the theoretical framework guiding TNE research proposed by Shams and Huisman (2016). The synthesis of literature reveals the enormous influence of academic regulations and intervention from host countries, emphasising the role of 'educational sovereignty' policies in shaping TNE dynamics (Ong & Chan, 2012). The unequal geographic distribution of TNE, concerns about the validity of imposed curricula, demands for equitable partnership approaches, and rising requests for a "real transnational experience" further contribute to a nuanced understanding of TNE's theoretical landscape (Leung & Waters, 2017; Gunter & Raghuram, 2018). The research also delves into challenges, including profitability issues, quality assurance, and the shortage of qualified teaching staff with an international background, offering a comprehensive theoretical foundation for studying TNE complexities. The practical implications of the research findings are substantial, providing actionable insights for institutions engaged in TNE and guiding strategic decision-making. The emphasis on careful market analysis and strategic positioning in deciding whether to localise or standardise TNE programmes offers practical guidance for programme management (Shams & Huisman, 2016). The research underscores the importance of addressing challenges related to academic regulations, unequal geographic distribution, curricular validity, partnership approaches, and the demand for a genuine transnational experience in the practical implementation of TNE programmes (Ong & Chan, 2012; Leung & Waters, 2017; Gunter & Raghuram, 2018). Moreover, the insights into challenges like profitability issues, maintaining quality assurance, and addressing the lack of qualified teaching staff provide practical considerations for institutions navigating the operational aspects of TNE (Shams & Huisman, 2016). The outcomes of this study lay a critical groundwork for subsequent investigations (paper 2 and paper 3). The second study, cantered on academic franchising, employs DEA to assess the efficiency and effectiveness of TNE programmes across diverse countries. The third study, delving into the motivations and challenges of SIEs within TNE institutions, significantly enhances our comprehension of human capital aspects. These studies collectively construct a holistic understanding of TNE, encompassing operational and human capital dimensions to propel the progression and durability of TNE initiatives.

Study 2 aims to fill gaps in existing literature by assessing the efficiency and effectiveness of academic franchisees within a single network. Unlike prior studies that predominantly concentrate on public universities, with limited attention to private-for-profit institutions, this research employs DEA to evaluate franchising programmes, driven by financial profit-seeking motives. The study diverges from the traditional focus on research and teaching outcomes, emphasising the admission and teaching efficiency as well as the effectiveness of TNE programmes integrating information about realistic production trade-offs between the inputs and outcomes. By addressing these gaps, the research contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of efficiency and effectiveness in HEIs, issues of high relevance in the education literature (Miranda et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2021; Cherchye & Abeele, 2005; Mayston, 2014).

The third study makes substantial contributions to the understanding and effective management of SIEs in the TNE context, addressing gaps in existing literature and aligning with global education and sustainability objectives. First, it delves into the unique challenges faced by SIEs, emphasising their distinct characteristics, including the lack of formal pre-departure training and independent initiation of international assignments. This exploration is crucial for understanding the motivations and challenges of SIEs in TNE (Mello et al., 2022; Meuer et al., 2019; Froese, 2012). Second, the study addresses a critical gap by focusing specifically on SIEs in TNE, recognising their significant role in higher education institutions. This focus differentiates it from previous studies (Froese, 2012) that predominantly examined expatriates in general education settings. Third, it adopts a holistic approach, considering perspectives from both SIEs and host institutions, responding to the need for in-depth SIE management research and aiming to identify areas of misalignment in expectations. Fourth, the research investigates how perceived challenges impact SIE performance, providing practical insights for practitioners aiming to attract and support SIEs in creating a diverse and inclusive international academic team. Fifth, the study aligns with UNESCO's Objective 4, emphasising the importance of improving the recruitment, support, and professional development of expatriate professors and staff to enhance the quality of education (Wulf, 2016). Lastly, it relates to Sustainable Development Goal 17, highlighting the significance of partnerships in achieving goals, emphasising collaboration between local governments, host institutions, expatriates, and local students to support working permit applications and promote international networking and knowledge exchange within the academic community.

1.4 Study design

This study employs a pragmatic research design, also known as mixed-methods research, which integrates both quantitative and qualitative methods to provide a comprehensive understanding of complex and multifaceted research questions (Creswell, 2009). Acknowledging the absence of a one-size-fits-all method, this design integrates both quantitative methods and qualitative methods (Creswell, 2009). The integration occurs at various stages, including data collection, analysis, or interpretation, providing a nuanced understanding of the research problem. A key principle of pragmatic research is flexibility, allowing researchers to choose methods based on the nature of the question, ensuring the most appropriate approach is employed (Creswell, 2009). Pragmatic research designs can follow a sequential or concurrent approach, with each phase informing the next or involving the simultaneous collection and analysis of both types of data. This design is particularly well-suited for studies dealing with real-world complexities, emphasising practical applications and offering actionable recommendations for stakeholders (Creswell, 2009). By recognising philosophical pluralism, incorporating different perspectives like positivism and interpretivism, pragmatic research aims to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2009).

The main aim of this thesis is to comprehensively explore various dimensions of TNE, each study contributing uniquely to the overall understanding and improvement of TNE operations. The first study conducts a systematic literature review to uncover challenges during the transition of TNE programmes and identify crucial factors for sustainable development. A systematic review is employed due to its comprehension and transparency in reviewing large bodies of literature, which are fundamental characteristics to reduce the challenges of subjective selection of papers for revision and to enhance reproducibility (Lockwood & Oh, 2017). In addition, the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) flowchart is used to indicate the process adopted in identifying and selecting the relevant papers. This study systematically examines 227 papers from 2000 to 2021 retrieved from the Web of Science (WoS) database using a specific search string, focusing on transnational higher education topics. The inclusion and exclusion criteria, along with data extraction methods, are detailed in Chapter Two of this thesis.

Moving to the second study, the research delves into the operational complexity of TNE, specifically academic franchising, utilising DEA to assess efficiency and effectiveness. DEA, a non-statistical and non-parametric quantitative research technique, is widely applied to assess the efficiency of higher education programmes (Wohlrabe & Friedrich, 2017). In contrast to traditional methods that rely on assumptions about inefficiencies, DEA calculates efficiency by analysing inputs and outputs through linear programming. It establishes a production possibility frontier and measures efficiency as the ratio of weighted outputs to weighted inputs (Johnes, 2006). The focus of the second study is on comparing the performance of various franchising programmes across South-East Asian countries, utilising programme-level data as inputs and student-level outputs. The research model consists of three stages: measuring admission efficiency, teaching efficiency, and teaching effectiveness across 18 franchising programmes. Key human and physical resources, including teaching staff, classrooms, marketing/admission staff, academic support staff, and the number of registered students, are considered in the first stage. The second stage examines teaching efficiency using inputs, namely classroom count, teaching staff with and without a doctoral degree, academic support staff, and the number of registered students with the number of graduated students as the output. The third stage evaluates teaching effectiveness by considering the number of graduated students as input and graduation classifications (e.g., first-class, upper-second class, lower-second class, and third-class) as outputs. The study relies on two main data sources: student data obtained from University X for the year 2019 and programme data concerning 18 franchising programmes spanning Vietnam, Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong, and Zambia, all integrated into the University X network. The acquisition of the latter dataset was made possible through collaboration with the University X International Partnerships Representative for South East Asia. A comprehensive discussion of the DEA method and its applications is presented in Chapter Three.

The third study shifts the focus to the human capital aspect within TNE, exploring the motivations and challenges of SIEs within TNE institutions. Qualitative research interviews, a method commonly associated with interpretivism and constructivism, are employed here. Qualitative methods aim to explore meanings, understand experiences, and delve into the subjective aspects of a phenomenon, aligning more with non-positivist paradigms (Ritchie et al., 2013). Given the scarcity of research on SIE management in the TNE context, qualitative research is apt for comprehending the motivations and challenges encountered by SIEs and host institutions. The framework analysis method is selected for its structured approach, aligning with applied research and providing a systematic framework for analysing qualitative data (Srivastava & Thomson, 2009). This method allows for the systematic examination of predefined theoretical frameworks guiding research questions, facilitating rigorous exploration of complex phenomena. The research focuses on contrasting the perspectives of two crucial stakeholders, SIEs and host institutional managers, across 11 diverse host institutions involved in three different TNE modes of delivery. Two sets of interview scripts were developed for host institution managers and SIEs, facilitating a comparative analysis across diverse stakeholders and cases. Semi-structured interviews, chosen for their flexibility in question selection, are the primary data collection method, allowing for in-depth exploration of responses. Detailed discussions of the data collection and analysis methods are presented in Chapter Four.

In combining these diverse research methods, the thesis adopts a pragmatic stance, leveraging the strengths of different paradigms to offer a comprehensive and holistic understanding of TNE. The systematic literature review sets the stage by synthesising existing knowledge, DEA brings a quantitative lens to the performance of TNE programmes, and qualitative interviews add depth to the exploration of human capital dynamics. This multifaceted approach aims to inform, improve, and advance the development and operations of TNE programmes, embracing the complexity inherent in this educational domain.

1.5 Outline of the thesis

This thesis is structured into three scientifically interrelated papers, presented in the English language. The project unfolds through three distinct stages, as depicted in Figure 1.1.

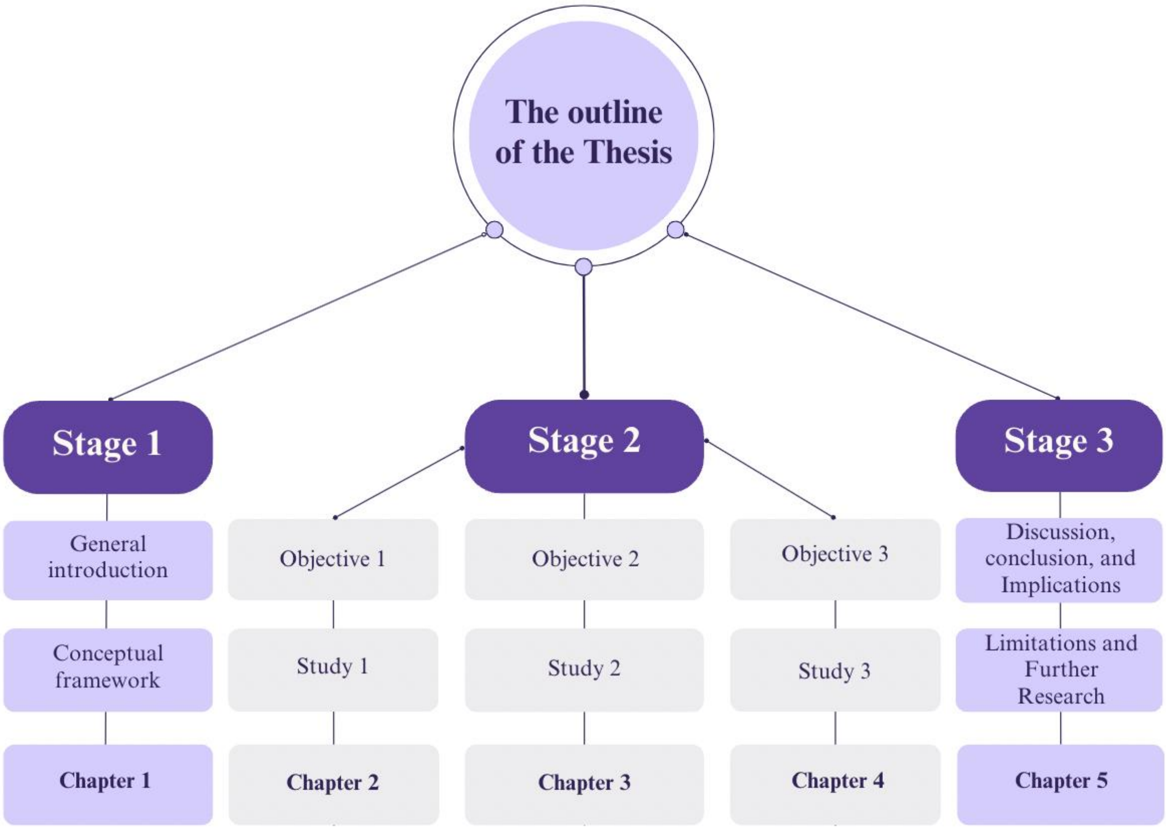
The First Stage is dedicated to discussing the state of the art, specifying the research objectives and detailing the methods, as outlined in Chapter One. This chapter extensively reviews the literature, delving into key concepts pivotal to the study. It explores TNEs, diverse modes of TNE delivery, involved stakeholders, challenges perceived by different TNE stakeholders, and the success factors crucial for sustainable TNE operations. This comprehensive review forms the bedrock for addressing both the research objectives and directions. Furthermore, Chapter One outlines the research methodology, specifying the necessity for conducting a relative performance assessment across various TNE programmes. It also identifies inputs, outputs, and outcomes for efficiency and effectiveness analysis, details data collection methods, and elucidates the chosen methodologies.

Stage Two unfolds in three separate chapters, marked as Chapter Two, Three, and Four, each presenting the research findings aligned with specific research objectives.

The Third Stage, encapsulated in Chapter Five, synthesises the main findings and contributions of this thesis. Within this chapter, theoretical contributions and practical implications are thoroughly discussed. Furthermore, the chapter addresses the limitations of this research and provides directions for future research.

In summary, the thesis progresses through a structured framework, advancing from the establishment of the conceptual groundwork to the presentation of research findings, culminating in a comprehensive synthesis of contributions, implications, limitations, and avenues for future exploration.

Figure 1.1 – The outline of the thesis



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CHAPTER TWO

STUDY 1: CHALLENGES AND SUCCESS FACTORS OF TRANSNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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Abstract

This paper provides an analysis of the literature on transnational education to identify the key challenges and success factors for the sustainable operation of transnational higher education (TNE) programmes as perceived by key stakeholders. Probing the stakeholders' perspectives and applying a systematic approach, this study analyses 227 English-written articles retrieved from the Web of Science (WoS) database published from 2000 to 2021.

Key challenges identified include difficulties in managing the TNE programmes, ensuring quality assurance, adapting the curricula to the local contexts, accommodating offshore students' learning styles, creating studying environments for TNE students equivalent to those in the home institutions, ensuring preparedness of the academic staff and facilitating the knowledge transfer in the host countries. The analysis also highlights six factors for the sustainable development of TNE programmes, including the effectiveness of the operations, the internationalisation of the curricula, the transnational experience of the students, the development of the transnational staff, the existence of a proper regulatory framework in the host countries, and the development of a global systematic data collection for quality assurance. In addition, the evidence collected suggests that while the transition from domestic into a foreign programme can be rewarding, it demands appropriate planning and implementation.

Keywords: transnational higher education, challenges, success factors, systematic literature review

2.1 Introduction

Over the past 30 years, transnational higher education (TNE) has increased exponentially, enabling Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) from across the globe to promote their higher educational curriculum to overseas markets and allowing students from different countries to gain access to diverse teaching and learning philosophies (Bordogna, 2020a). Indeed, by 2012/13, the total number of TNE students had increased to 598,485 (Dowling-Hetherington, 2020) while the number of offshore overseas student enrolments has grown from an estimated 50,000 since the mid-1980s to 404,000 in 2016/17 (Bennell, 2019). The increasing desire of local students to pursue an international degree and the motivation of institutions from both home and host countries to offer these degrees, have contributed to the internationalisation of higher education (Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019). TNE programmes have become particularly relevant in those situations where studying abroad is not a viable option for students who are concerned about the high tuition fees, relocation costs, or for mature learners who want to continue working and staying with their families. TNE programmes have, therefore, become preferred by students who wish to gain an international degree while staying in their home country (Sin et al., 2019; Sudhana et al., 2020).

2.1.1. Classification frameworks of the TNE modes of delivery

TNE, also known by international programme and provider mobility, refers to a situation where institutional providers move across national borders to deliver higher education programmes and credentials to students in neighbouring countries without the physical presence of students in the country of the foreign higher education institution (Knight & McNamara, 2017). According to Sudhana et al. (2020), TNE can be divided into three types: distance model, in-country delivery model, and blended model (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1. Models of TNE delivery (Sudhana et al., 2020)

Models of delivery	Examples of delivery	Description
Distance Model	E-learning, virtual universities, Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC).	It involves the mobility of programme and curriculum without any physical contact of the providing institutions with the students.

In-Country Delivery Model	Dual degree, franchising, validation, and international branch campus.	An institution from one country develops a physical presence in another country either directly or through a third party. This model requires no student mobility.
Blended Model	Twinning/Articulation, joint venture, consecutive degree.	It involves either a short-term mobility of the faculty from the home institution to the host institution (flying faculty) or students moving overseas to complete their study as part of their programmes.

Knight and McNamara (2017) also developed a classification framework of different modes of TNE delivery or International programme and provider mobility (IPPM), which acts as a foundation for distinguishing different categories of TNE delivery. The framework is based on two organising principles. The first principle relates to the nature of the relationship between the home and host institutions (independent versus collaborative) whereas the second principle refers to the modes of delivery.

The first principle is represented in the two columns of Table 2.2. According with Knight and McNamara (2017), independent relationship refers to the total reliance of the host institutions on the curriculum, pedagogy, and quality assurance designed by the home institution. On the contrary, collaborative relationship appears when both home and host institutions take responsibility in designing, delivering, and managing the quality assurance of the academic programmes. The second principle is represented in the three lines of Table 2.2. Row one distinguishes franchise programmes, which basically duplicate the home programmes in another country, from partnership programmes, which correspond to the joint development of the programmes between the home and host institutions. Row two differentiates between international branch campus, which is the satellite operation of the parent institution at a new country, and the joint university, which is co-developed by both sending and hosting countries. In turn, row three distinguishes the self-learning distance education, where students solely study the programmes online without the involvement of the local institution, from the distance education with local academic partners. To help classify the six categories of TNE delivery modes, three criteria or questions can be used: (i) who awards the qualification, (ii) who has the primary responsibility for the academic curriculum, and (iii) who has the primary responsibility for external quality assurance.

Table 2.2. Common TNE classification framework for IPPM

Row	Independent TNE Provision	Collaborative TNE Provision
1	**Franchise programmes** Commonly used terms: import/ export, validation, foreign, non-local	**Partnership programmes** Commonly used terms: joint/double/multiple degrees, twinning programmes
2	**International branch campus** Commonly used terms: satellite, offshore campus, portal campus	**Joint university** Commonly used terms: co-developed, bi-national, cofounded, joint ventures university.
3	**Self-study distance education** Commonly used terms: fully online education, MOOC, open university	**Distance education with local academic partner** Commonly used terms: online or distance education with reference to local academic partner

2.1.2. The development of TNE

In recent years, TNE has not only increased exponentially in size but new forms of partnership and delivery modes have also emerged. Taking the UK as an example, the records in 2016 showed that 52 percent of international students enrolled in the UK qualification programmes took some form of TNE provision in another country without going to the UK. A similar trend was also reported in Australia, another large sending country (Knight & McNamara, 2017).

Among the top host regions of UK's higher education TNE provision are Asia (50.2%), Africa (20.3%), the European Union (12.4%), the Middle East (9.2%), North America (4.2%), non-EU Europe (2.7%), Australasia (0.5%) and South America (0.5%) (Wake & Ryan, 2020).

Although the ranking order in Australia is different, Singapore, Malaysia, China, Vietnam and Hong Kong, are also the top hosting countries of onshore students (Wake & Ryan, 2020).

With regards to the development patterns of different TNE modes of delivery, in UK the collaborative provision experienced the greatest proportional growth from 2017–18 (10.9%) with the increase in double and multiple degree programmes, while the development of international branch campuses and joint institutions are reported to be quite stable in the last few years (Knight & McNamara, 2017; Wake & Ryan, 2020). Also, the undergraduate level dominated the TNE programmes, with 80.9 percent being recorded. However, the number of students studying at the postgraduate level has risen gradually by 7.4% from 2014–15 (Wake & Ryan, 2020). Business Management is the most popular subject delivered in most of the host countries, followed by Medicine programmes, then Arts and Humanities (Knight & McNamara, 2017).

Moreover, with the development of new technologies and learning platforms, distance education is being revolutionised with the emergence of the massive open online courses (MOOCs), fully online programmes and blended learning options (Knight & McNamara, 2017; Wake & Ryan, 2020). Interestingly, however, the tracking of TNE development and the production of usable data has not been fully achieved in comparison with the accelerating development of TNE itself (Knight & McNamara, 2017). Although data collection and reporting is actively done by national data collection agencies and by several associations in the large sending countries, host countries seem to be lagging behind, especially in the case of the developing higher education systems (Knight & McNamara, 2017).

2.1.3. Factors influencing the sustainability of TNE

TNE can generate benefits for both home and host institutions, including financial growth, market penetration, capacity building, skills development for students and teachers, as well as chances for cultural intelligence development (Rowley & Skipper, 2020). While some TNE programmes are reported to generate positive outcomes, there exist also challenges that hinder the sustainable operation and development of TNE. Key challenges include ensuring comparable quality assurance for students both at home and host institutions, transferring knowledge from home to host institutions, ensuring collaboration between academic staff of both institutions, and achieving expected financial outcomes (Hu et al., 2019; Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020). Over the years, several studies have been conducted that summarise the challenges relating to curriculum development (Li, 2020; Wahlström, 2020), capacity building (Shams & Huisman, 2016), student experience and adaptation (Eaves, 2011; Wilkins, 2020), TNE partnership development (Wilkins, 2016), quality assurance (Bentley et al., 2017; Zwanikken et al., 2013), qualification recognition (Hou et al., 2017), adaptation of visiting lecturers (Easton et al., 2021), ethical issues in the development of TNE (Wilkins, 2017), management of international branch campus (IBC) (Healey, 2015; Shams & Huisman, 2016), power distribution between partnered institutions (Djerasimovic, 2014), and to the regulatory framework of host countries.

Based on the framework for assessing opportunities and risks associated with the establishment of international branch campuses, there are three main types of factors influencing the sustainability of TNE: environmental factors, industry factors, and organisational factors (Wilkins, 2016). Firstly, in terms of **environmental factors**, the government regulations of both home and host countries impose certain challenges for the programmes to obtain the organisational legitimacy, especially when bureaucracy exists. Moreover, time and cultural differences as well as different studying and working styles between countries also create communication barriers for the collaboration process (Wilkins, 2016). Secondly, in terms of **industry factors**, the attractiveness and profitability of the market need to be carefully examined. Indeed, the three main uncertainties from the industry, including input uncertainties (supply of labour), market uncertainties (student demand, student qualification, the tuition fee affordability), and competitive uncertainties (existing competitors, new entrants to the market, and threats of substitutes) all can hinder the sustainability of the TNE programmes (Wilkins, 2016). Thirdly, in terms of **organisational factors**, the availability of resources in the institutions involved (campuses, books, finance, equipment, etc.) and their competencies in delivering services and promoting knowledge transfer are vital to create the competitive advantages for the institutions (Wilkins, 2016). Despite the identification of these factors, the strands of previous literature are highly scattered and the challenges and success factors of TNE as perceived by key stakeholders have not been systematically reviewed.

For that reason, this study focuses on systematically reviewing the literature on TNE in order to identify the main challenges that tend to lead to the dissatisfaction of key stakeholders towards TNE programmes as well as to systematise the factors that most contribute to a sustainable transition of these programmes from home institutions to host institutions. In this paper, we chose to exclude the distance model from analysis as this studying mode is criticised for not being able to promote cultural participation, exchange and understanding (Bovill et al., 2015). Notably, online education programmes are not approved in some host countries due to their lack of physical local presence which creates difficulties for students to get their degrees recognised by employers and host countries (Wilkins & Juusola, 2018).

In particular, in this paper we review the TNE literature from 2000 to 2021 aiming to answer the following research questions:

Q1. Who are the key stakeholders of TNE?

Q2. What are the challenges of TNE as perceived by the key stakeholders?

Q3. What are the success factors that the key stakeholders consider critical to ensure a sustainable operation of TNE in the host countries?

The rest of the paper is organised as follows. The next section discusses the research methods used to select and analyse the relevant literature. Then, the paper reviews and summarises the key findings on the challenges and success factors of TNE as perceived by the main stakeholders. Finally, the last section concludes with some closing remarks.

2.2 Methods

A systematic review is employed due to its comprehension and transparency in reviewing large bodies of literature (Lockwood & Oh, 2017). In addition, the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) flowchart is used to indicate the process we have adopted in identifying and selecting the relevant papers (Fig. 2.1). We systematically examine 227 papers from 2000 to 2021 retrieved from the Web of Science (WoS) database using the search string (transnational OR twinning OR franchising OR “dual degree” OR “joint degree” OR “international branch campus”) AND (education AND higher) in the title, abstract, or keywords. This search string was used because we were only interested in papers focused on the topic of transnational higher education. Due to difficulties in understanding other languages, only articles written in English were chosen.

2.2.1. Inclusion and exclusion criteria

As there are so many forms of transnational collaboration and typologies to define and describe the model of delivery, including “franchising”, “international programme and provider mobility” and “internationalisation”, in our search we started by using the keyword “transnational education”. As reviewed and synthesised by Knight and McNamara (2017), “transnational education” is a proper term to refer to all international and provider mobility programmes, as it covers all types of cross-border education. However, we realised that some relevant papers existed which did not include the term “transnational education” in the title, keywords or abstract. This led us to expand the search string, as indicated previously, to include a combination of terms frequently associated with transnational education. Considering that transnational education can cover different levels of education, this review focuses only on higher education. As a consequence, papers were excluded whenever they:

- focused on programmes for migrant students and refugees, as the motivation to participate in TNE is related to political tension and security needs;
- focused on “distance learning” or “e-learning”, as these models of delivery have different characteristics which are out of the scope of this review;
- focused on “dual programmes” or “joint programmes” which are operated within the same country without cross-border mobility applied for students, staff, and programmes;
- focused on topics other than TNE programmes;
- were not empirical studies;
- were not peer reviewed.

2.2.2. Data extraction

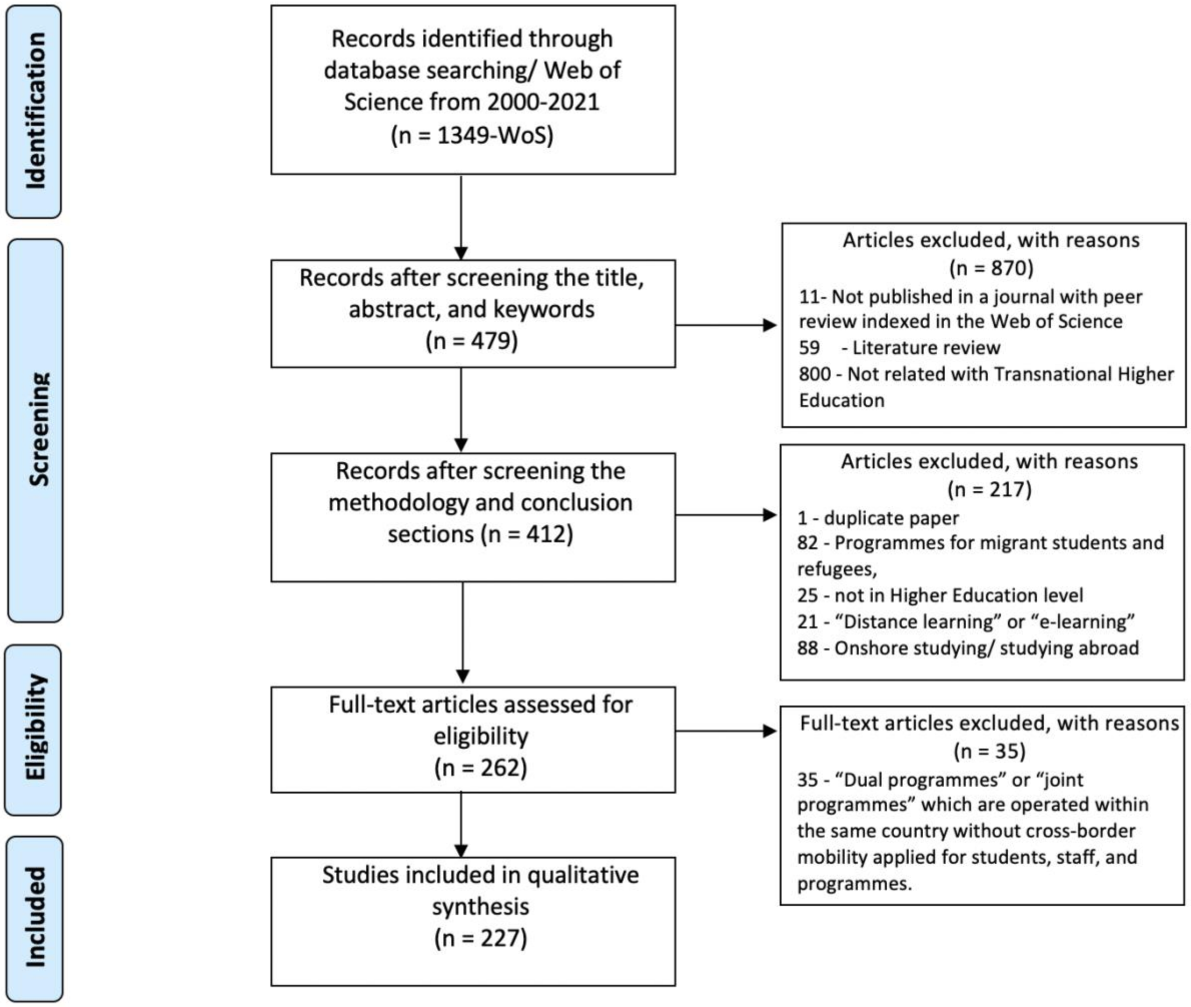
In order to identify relevant papers, we searched the Web of Science All Databases (formerly Thomson Reuters Web of Knowledge) using the search string presented above. As a result of this search, carried out on September 8, 2021, 1349 potentially relevant papers were identified. As indicated in Figure 1, two other potentially relevant papers were also identified from other sources.

Titles, keywords, and abstracts were initially scanned to remove duplicates and to check the relevance of the papers. Based on this initial screening, 870 papers were excluded for the following reasons: 11 papers were excluded because they were not peer reviewed, 59 were excluded because they are literature reviews and do not document empirical work, and 800 papers were excluded because they do not relate with transnational higher education.

After this initial screening, the Methodology and Conclusion sections of the remaining 479 papers were carefully reviewed. Among these papers, 217 were excluded from further analysis for the following reasons: One paper was duplicated, 82 focused on programmes for migrant students and refugees, 25 were not related with the Higher Education level, 21 focused on "Distance learning" or "e-learning" and 88 focused on onshore studying or studying abroad.

The last step consisted of scrutinising the full-text of the remaining 262 papers. After further eliminating 35 papers which focused on "dual programmes" or "joint programmes" operated within the same country without cross-border mobility, there were 227 studies that qualified for this review (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1. PRISMA Diagram



2.3 Results and Discussion

The characteristics of these papers, including authors, date of publication, methods used, sample size, TNE mode, challenges perceived by stakeholders and success factors identified are provided in the supplementary material. In what follows, we discuss the main findings of the analysis of these papers in order to provide an answer to the three research questions indicated previously.

2.3.1. Key stakeholders of TNE

From the data extracted, nine key stakeholders of TNE can be identified. These are the host countries, home institutions, host institutions, academic and non-academic staff of the home countries, academic and non-academic staff of the host countries, students who study at the host institutions, expatriates who move from third countries to work at the host institutions, quality assurance agencies, and employers (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3. Summary of key stakeholders identified

Numbers of studies	Stakeholders	References
24	Host countries	(Ashour, 2017; Chankseliani, 2020; Chen et al., 2019; Chiang, 2012; Ding, 2018, 2019; Guimón & Narula, 2020; Hanada et al., 2021; He, 2016; Hill et al., 2014; Hou et al., 2014; Lane, 2011; Lane & Kinser, 2011; Lien & Keithley, 2020; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2001; Mok, 2011; Mok & Han, 2016b; Nhan & Nguyen, 2018; Ong & Chan, 2012; Sidhu, 2009; Varghese, 2015; Wilkins, 2010; Wilkins & Juusola, 2018; Xu & Sylwester, 2017)
23	Home institutions	(Aasmundtveit et al., 2018; Asgary & Robbert, 2010; Bellini et al., 2016; Griffith et al., 2014; He & Wilkins, 2018a; Healey, 2015a, 2016, 2018b; Keay et al., 2014; Kleibert, 2020; Kompanets & Väätänen, 2019; Kosmützky, 2018; Lee, 2020; Ma & Montgomery, 2021; Pon & Ritchie, 2014; Prestwich, 2007; Russell, 2015; Sandhu & McQuarrie, 2016; Sidhu & Christie, 2015; Valiulis & Buèinskas, 2016; Waterval et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2011; Ziguras & Pham, 2014)
44	Host institutions	(Aasmundtveit et al., 2018; Abdullah et al., 2008; Asgary & Robbert, 2010; Bellini et al., 2016; Bencheva et al., 2017; Busse et al., 2013; Caniglia et al., 2018; Cuthbert et al., 2010; Deshpande & Tsai, 2021; Fang, 2012; Farrugia & Lane, 2013; Feng, 2013; Franklin & Alzouebi, 2014; Griffith et al., 2014; Healey, 2015a, 2015b, 2018b; Hou, 2020; Juusola & Rensimer, 2018; Kompanets & Väätänen, 2019; Kosmützky, 2018; Lee, 2020; Ma & Montgomery, 2021; Mifsud, 2015; Miller-Idriss & Hanauer, 2011; Neri & Wilkins, 2019; Nguyen et al., 2016; Pon & Ritchie, 2014; Prestwich, 2007; Reichel, 2012; Sewankambo et al., 2015; Shams & Huisman, 2016; Sia, 2014; Sidhu & Christie, 2015; Starr-Glass & Ali, 2012; Sutrisno & Pillay, 2013, 2015; Tierney & Lanford, 2015; Valiulis & Buèinskas, 2016; Vora, 2015; Wilkins & Huisman, 2021; Wilkins & Juusola, 2018; Wilkins & Neri, 2019; Wilkins & Urbanovič, 2014)
26	Academic & non-academic	(Al-Mansoori & Koç, 2019; Bordogna, 2019b, 2019a, 2020a, 2020b; Bovill et al., 2015; Fredriksson, 2018; Greek & Jonsmoen, 2021; Green, 2013; He & Liu, 2018;

	staff at home institutions	Heffernan & Poole, 2005; Hoare, 2012, 2013; Jais et al., 2015a, 2015b; Keevers et al., 2014, 2019; Nawaz, 2018; Smith, 2014; Sy & Cruz, 2019; Szkornik, 2017; Tharapos & O'Connell, 2020; Toohey et al., 2017; Trahar, 2015; Wilkins et al., 2017; Wilkins, He, et al., 2018)
36	Academic & non-academic staff at host institutions	(Al-Mansoori & Koç, 2019; Bilsland et al., 2020; Bilsland & Nagy, 2015; Bordogna, 2019b, 2019a; Campbell & Rolls, 2017; Chen, 2014; Deshpande & Tsai, 2021; Easton et al., 2021; Greek & Jonsmoen, 2021; Gunter & Raghuram, 2018; Harden, 2006; Hayes et al., 2015; He & Liu, 2018; He & Wilkins, 2018b; Heffernan & Poole, 2005; Holden, 2018; Hou & McDowell, 2014; Hoxha et al., 2020; Jing et al., 2020; Juusola & Räihä, 2018; Keevers et al., 2014, 2019; Kettula et al., 2013; Leung & Waters, 2017; Lim et al., 2016; Mackay et al., 2016; Mifsud, 2015; Mok & Han, 2016b; Naidoo & Sibiya, 2018; Paterson, 2017; Smith, 2009; Wilkins, Butt, et al., 2018; Wilkins et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020)
6	Expatriates	(Bu & Kero, 2019; Cai & Hall, 2016; Chen & Zhu, 2020; Lamers & Admiraal, 2018; Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020; Liu & Lin, 2017)
90	Students	(Ahmad, 2015; Allahar & Sookram, 2018; Arunasalam, 2016; Arunasalam & Burton, 2018; Balmer & Liao, 2007; Bartram, 2007, 2008; Belderbos, 2020; Berka & Island, 2013; Bhuian, 2016; Bilsland et al., 2020; Boulton, 2019; Chee et al., 2016; Chen, 2014; Corno & Lal, 2015; Dai, Lingard, et al., 2020; Dai, Matthews, & Renshaw, 2020; Dai, Matthews, & Reyes, 2020; Dai & Garcia, 2019; Datta & Vardhan, 2017; Ding, 2018; Dowling-Hetherington, 2020; Ergenc, 2020; Fang & Wang, 2014; Goh, 2008; Goodall, 1996; Gottlieb & Beatson, 2018; Harden, 2006; Hayes et al., 2015; He & Liu, 2018; He & Wilkins, 2018a; Heffernan et al., 2010, 2018; Holden, 2018; Hollister, 2020; Hou & McDowell, 2014; Hoxha et al., 2020; Jing et al., 2020; Juknytė-Petreikienė et al., 2021; Kharouf et al., 2015; Koda & Yuki, 2013; Leung & Waters, 2017; Li, 2020; Li, 2017; Lin et al., 2020; Maxwell-Stuart & Huisman, 2018; Mifsud, 2015; Mok et al., 2018; Mok & Han, 2016b, 2016a; Moufahim & Lim, 2014; Naidoo & Hollebeek, 2016; Naidoo & Sibiya, 2018, 2019; Owusu-Kumih et al., 2019; Palmer et al., 2019; Paterson, 2017; Rahman et al., 2021; Seddon, Cobbold, et al., 2020; Seddon, Vo, et al., 2020; Sidhu & Christie, 2015; Sim et al., 2021; Sin et al., 2019; Swanson & Swanson, 2019; Tan et al., 2017; Tang et al., 2018; Tawash et al., 2021; Troedson & Dashwood, 2018; Tsang, 2013; Vu & Doyle, 2014; Waigand, 2019; Wallace, 2016; Waters & Leung, 2012, 2013b, 2013a; Waterval et al., 2018; Wilkins, He, et al., 2018; Wilkins & Huisman, 2013a, 2013b; Wilkins & Juusola, 2018; Wilson-Mah & Thomlinson, 2018; Wu et al.,

		2020; Yang et al., 2020; Yao & Collins, 2019; Yao & Tuliao, 2019; Yarosh et al., 2018; Yu, 2020; Zhang et al., 2020; Zhao & Hu, 2020; Ziguras, 2003)
9	Quality Assurance Agencies	(Bentley et al., 2017; Eaves, 2011; Hou et al., 2016, 2017; Mishra, 2019; Shroff & Kratochvil, 2018; Smith, 2010; Trifiro, 2018)
2	Employers	(Belderbos, 2020; Waters & Leung, 2012)

As illustrated in Table 2.3, students are the stakeholders most commonly identified in the TNE literature. Of the 227 papers analysed, more than one-third pay attention to the voices of the students. The views of the students are followed by the views of the host institutions, academic and non-academic staff at host institutions and by the views of the host countries.

This finding is relevant as it extends the list of stakeholders indicated by Healey (2015b). In particular, five additional stakeholders are identified, including the academic and non-academic staff both at home and at the host institutions, expatriates, quality assurance agencies, and employers.

2.3.2. TNE Delivery modes

Among different TNE modes of delivery, the international branch campuses received the most attention from researchers, accounting for a third of the total papers. This mode of delivery is followed by the joint programmes/joint ventures and articulation programmes. Franchising, dual degree and twinning programmes received much less attention from researchers. Another noticeable feature is that a large number of papers do not indicate a specific type of TNE delivery (Table 2.4).

Table 2.4: Summary of the number of papers by TNE delivery modes

No.	Models of delivery	Types of TNE delivery modes	Number of papers
1	In-country delivery Model	Franchising	20
2		International branch campus	73
3		Dual degree/ Twinning programmes	20
4	Blended Model	Joint degree programmes/ Joint venture/ Joint university	30
5		Articulation with mobility of students or flying faculty	25
66	General (which do not specify the mode of TNE delivery)		60

2.3.3. The participating home and host countries in TNE programmes

In consistency with the report from the UK higher education TNE provision in 2018-2019, the host countries most studied are China, Malaysia and the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) states which include Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates, whereas the United Kingdom, Australia, the United States and other European countries are the dominant home countries for sending the TNE programmes. Interestingly, China and Malaysia increasingly take the role of new emergent sending countries (Table 2.5).

Table 2.5. Summary of the papers focusing on one or more of the top 10 countries of the home and host institutions

Host countries		Home countries	
Countries	**No. of papers**	**Countries**	**No. of papers**
China	56	United Kingdom	63
Malaysia	32	Australia	44

Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) states (Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates)	22	European countries (Germany, France, Finland, Netherlands, etc.)	30
Singapore	15	United States	24
Vietnam	12	Canada	8
Hong Kong	12	China	3
European countries	12	Asia (China, Japan, Malaysia, India)	4
Emergent Asia destinations (Taiwan, Japan, Indonesia, etc.)	20	Scotland	3
Emergent destinations (Africa, Middle East, the BRICs, Former Soviet countries)	16	Russia	2
Mixed	36	Mixed	59

2.3.4. Challenges of TNE as perceived by the key stakeholders

Managing TNE faces a set of challenges since different stakeholders tend to have different and sometimes conflicting interests regarding TNE. In addition, there are also important differences in the learning and teaching styles due to geographical and cultural differences between countries. These differences, together with the need for cross-national standards compliance, have made it difficult for the host countries, home, and host institutions to achieve their objectives of capacity building and knowledge sharing, and have resulted in resistance from staff to participate in TNE programmes and, ultimately, in dissatisfaction from students (Hill et al., 2014).

For institutions from both countries to obtain national legitimacy, develop brand recognition amongst local and international employers and promote transnational communication of practice, the internationalisation of the curricula and the development of transnational staff are key success factors. It is the internationalisation of the curricula and the development of the transnational staff that ensure proper support for the student transition and the formation of intercultural competence.

Indeed, promoting the branding practices in relation to the legitimacy building of TNE programmes helps enhance the trust of local students and creates higher career acceptance rate for graduates (Dowling-Hetherington, 2020; Juusola & Räihä, 2018). Moreover, in order to embrace the complexities involved, the TNE programmes are suggested to operate in a way that incorporates students' needs and learning styles, industrial needs, and good global practices instead of promoting educational imperialism (Bilsland et al., 2020; Clarke et al., 2016).

To ensure the quality in education, transnational education should start at the faculty level. Instead of transferring the teaching materials and requiring the teaching staff at the host countries to follow these materials, building the transnational faculty community to transfer knowledge, to discuss about differences, and to exchange the good practices amongst teaching staff from both institutions is suggested (Keay et al., 2014; Keevers et al., 2014). As to enhance the learning experience for local students, the foundation and language bridging programmes are proven to reduce the linguistic gaps and cultural differences in the learning and communication styles (Holden, 2018). Moreover, student mobility, even applied with short trips, is suggested to be central to TNE programmes, as it helps students to enrich their cultural experience, develop intercultural competence, and increases students' satisfaction (Juknytė-Petreikienė et al., 2021; Yarosh et al., 2018).

Challenges perceived by host countries

TNE is considered detrimental when its existence fails to promote capacity building in local educational systems as there is no evidence of organisational learning at institutional level (Ding, 2018, 2019). Moreover, the knowledge imposition process potentially decreases cultural values among local students and also fails to prepare graduates for the local market (Chiang, 2012). Another major challenge relates to the fact that TNE tends to be an inequitable form of education, which only grants access to wealthy students from urbanised areas (Guimón & Narula, 2020; Montgomery, 2016). Please refer to table A2 in the Appendices.

2.3.4.1. Challenges perceived by home institutions

The complexity and multidimensional nature of TNE has created numerous challenges for both home and host institutions (Healey, 2015a). For both institutions, the main objective is to ensure the sustainable operation in terms of profit assurance, its diffusion and quality assurance (which guarantees the reputation of both institutions) (Bordogna, 2020a; Healey, 2016, 2018b, 2018a). Without proper management, both institutions either lose the financial profit or damage their reputation (Ris, 2020). For home institutions, difficulties in ensuring the quality of the programme and in managing the staff involved in its delivery, have also been frequently reported. Indeed, balancing expectations of internal and external stakeholders can be very challenging as managers from home institutions face the dilemma between, in one hand, globalising the curriculum or adapting it to the local context and, in other hand, maintaining the quality standards or lowering the requirements for commercialisation (Healey, 2016; Wilkins & He, 2020). Apart from that, maintaining collaborative partnerships between two institutions as well as finding ways to engage staff to the programmes are other daily operational challenges that home institutions have to face (Healey, 2018b; Waterval et al., 2017). Please refer to table A2 in the Appendices. Challenges perceived by host institutions

Host institutions face four major challenges: achieving profitability, ensuring academic performance, maintaining valuable collaborative partnerships and promoting institutional legitimacy. Indeed, the high operation costs resulting mostly from fees associated with the fly-in faculty and the international service arrangements for students, all become financial burdens (Healey, 2018b; Jing et al., 2020; Shams & Huisman, 2016). Moreover, ensuring academic performance is also challenging due to the low foreign language proficiency among students, shortage of skilled labour, deficiency in institutional regulation and low quality of curriculum design and implementation (Hu et al., 2019; Nhan & Nguyen, 2018). Indeed, the insufficient English proficiency of local non-academic staff and students might represent a major problem as students often fail to understand lessons delivered in English and communicate with foreign lecturers (Ding, 2018; Hu et al., 2019). Additionally, the adaptation process of teaching materials and assessment requirements between two institutions remain limited due to the lack of mutual understanding and bonding between academic staff (Hill et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2019). Another rising challenge for host institutions is whether to rely solely on home institution's legitimacy for delivering the programmes or to promote their local institutional legitimacy simultaneously and actively commit resources to make substantive changes to organisational structure and processes (Juusola & Rensimer, 2018). Without taking an active action, host institutions simply deliver programmes of other countries, without proper intervention to achieve stakeholders' expectations, including knowledge development for academic staff, service innovation for students, brand building for local institutions, or curriculum consolidation (Nguyen et al., 2016). Please refer to table A3 in the Appendices.

2.3.4.2. Challenges perceived by academic and non-academic staff of home institutions

Professional improvement is considered the most significant advantage that staff from home institutions gain from joining TNE programmes (Juusola & Räihä, 2018). However, the increasing administrative tasks, absence of autonomy in controlling the delivery of the courses, and lack of direct interaction with students at the host institutions, are the main reasons that make them either resist to engage or feel dissatisfied with their jobs (Szkornik, 2017; Toohey et al., 2017). For flying lecturers, who are required to go for a short-term mobility to perform teaching at host countries, the differences in culture, learning styles, language deficiency of students, and the feeling of loneliness and isolation, all affect their quality of teaching and cause physical and emotional exhaustion (Jais et al., 2015a, 2015b; Trahar, 2015). Adaptation to the working timeline and the frequent mobility requirements are also reported to cause work-life imbalance for home lecturers (Jais et al., 2015a, 2015b). Please refer to table A4 in the Appendices.

2.3.4.3. Challenges perceived by academic and non-academic staff of host institutions

Teaching and non-academic staff from the host institutions also tend to feel exhausted from high demand jobs as the majority of them reveal to be under stress as a result of being afraid of underperforming and not meeting the teaching quality required by home institutions (Lim et al., 2016; Mackay et al., 2016). Lack of organisational training and support make them even more dissatisfied, leading to high turnover rates (Anderson et al., 2018). Notably, perceived inequality in the power relation is another major source of dissatisfaction as local staff do not feel involved in updating the curriculum and adjusting the assessment methods (Lim et al., 2016), as presented in Table A5 in the Appendices.

2.3.4.4. Challenges perceived by expatriates

Different experiences and pedagogy practices, multicultural experience, and language competences are the potential advantages that international teaching staff can bring to TNE at host countries (Jeannin, 2017). The recruitment of international teaching staff is indeed aligned with the strategic plan of many host institutions to promote themselves as education hubs to attract international students, talents and projects (Hill et al., 2014; Shams & Huisman, 2016).

Unfortunately, the difficulties in comprehending local culture, students' needs and learning styles, and the perceived isolation from the teaching communities, hinder the full contribution of expatriates (Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020). Furthermore, without clear information about the career ladder, expatriates do not feel that they belong to the organisation which detrimentally impacts their motivation and long-term commitment (Jeannin, 2017), as summarised in table A6 in the Appendices.

2.3.4.5. Challenges perceived by students

The satisfaction of students plays a crucial role in defining the sustainable development of TNE programmes in such a competitive environment where students carefully look not only for a good academic programme but also for a good service (Bhuian, 2016). The unfamiliar teaching and assessment methods, lack of adaptation of the curricula to the local context, mismatch between what is advertised and the actual service performance, feeling of isolation and powerlessness, and the lack of local recognition of the TNE degree, all contribute to low academic performance, stress, and high drop-out rates of learners.

As synthesised by previous studies, a major disappointment of students comes from the failure of TNE programmes to respond to the learning needs of local learners (Arunasalam, 2016). Indeed, students tend to face problems in comprehending lessons due to either their language deficiency or unfamiliarity with the teaching methods of the foreign lecturers (Arunasalam & Burton, 2018; Dai, Matthews, & Renshaw, 2020). Moreover, the curricula from home institutions are implemented with little adaptation to local terminology and practices, failing to acknowledge cultural differences and, consequently, failing to prepare the students for the local labour market (Ahmad, 2015; Moufahim & Lim, 2014). In addition, students also do not appreciate the processes behind the services, interpersonal contacts, and the physical aspects offered by the universities (Bhuian, 2016). Indeed, the lack of adequate facilities like on-campus libraries, sport centres and classrooms, in addition to the lack of responsiveness of lecturers and administrative staff, all are sources of frustration for the students (Waters & Leung, 2013b). It is important to highlight that students from the host countries usually are not able to access some important benefits offered by the home institutions, such as their students' communities, clubs, or exchange programmes (Hou & McDowell, 2014). Some papers also report that the low recognition of some TNE programmes in host countries has created problems for graduates in seeking employment opportunities (Chee et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2020). Table A7 in the Appendices presents the challenges faced by the TNE students.

2.3.4.6. Challenges perceived by quality assurance agencies

The popularity of TNE programmes has put the issue of quality assurance on many nations' and quality assurance agencies' agendas. The core concerns are whether the participating institutions offer equivalent learning environment for TNE students, and whether the academic staff and the learning outcomes of the TNE programmes at the host institutions meet the minimum standards required by the accrediting bodies (Hou et al., 2016). As summarised from the studies (table A8 in the Appendices), the difficulties in ensuring quality of learning derive from (1) the strong dominance of the exporter countries in the practices of quality assurance, meaning that local partners are required to comply with all the standards set by the export countries and institutions (Bentley et al., 2017), (2) lack of external quality assurance mechanisms in host countries, meaning that the host institutions often recklessly adopt international accreditation, which is considered as "cultural imperialism" and not only reduces the national jurisdiction over these programmes, but also results in limited data being collected by the host countries regarding the TNE programmes and students (Bentley et al., 2017; Shroff & Kratochvil, 2018), (3) lack of reciprocal recognition of quality assurance among agencies, from home and host institutions, which results in graduates having difficulty in obtaining the academic recognition (Trifiro, 2018), and (4) lack of networks of joint review activities which limit information sharing, meaning that TNE providers have to undergo overlapping external quality assurance processes required by both home and host countries agencies (Trifiro, 2018).

2.3.4.7. Challenges perceived by employers

The outcomes of the training programmes are also measured based on students' acquisition of knowledge and skills which help them enhance their career productivity (Belderbos, 2020). Although TNE graduates are highly valued for their language proficiency, several employers claim that TNE graduates are perceived as not being familiar with the local business culture, lacking hard skills, lacking subject-specific knowledge and/or computing skills and not being able to perform job-related tasks (Belderbos, 2020); as summarised in table A9 in the Appendices.

In summary, although TNE continues to grow, it also faces remarkable challenges. The most relevant challenges include the need to ensure the proper management of the TNE programmes in both host and home institutions, their quality, that the curricula are adapted to reflect the local contexts, that the learning styles and needs of the offshore students are taken into account, and that the academic staff in both institutions are prepared.

2.3.5. Success factors for a sustainable TNE

There are four domains of factors influencing the success and failure of cross border curriculum partnership identified by Waterval et al. (2015), including (1) the domain of the students, (2) the domain of the teachers, (3) the domain of the curriculum, and (4) the domain of soft and hard project management. In terms of the domain of the students, differences in learning behaviour, differences in entry level and qualification of students, and in language ability have all to be properly dealt with to ensure the successful transition of the students into the TNE programmes. As for the domain of the teachers, differences in the content and didactical approaches as well as the feeling of ownership over the curriculum may hinder the performance of teaching staff, so measures need to be implemented to mitigate the likely impact of these issues. In the domain of the curriculum, more attention needs to be paid on understanding differences in the local contexts, in the learning resources and support systems, and in the time zones between countries. Finally, as for the general management factor, frequent communication between partners, the internal commitment of home institutions, and the proper quality assurance procedures play important roles in sustaining the operation of TNE programmes.

Similarly, the findings also indicate that (1) the effectiveness of the operations, (2) the internationalisation of the curricula, (3) the transnational experience of the students, and (4) the development of the transnational staff are crucial for the sustainability of TNE programmes. Two more domains which have been found to have significant influence are the existence of a proper legal/regulatory framework and the development of a global systematic and consistent data collection for quality assurance and recognition (please refer to table A10 in the Appendices).

First, to ensure a high performance of the TNE operations, both institutions need to develop the right balance between service optimisation and operations' cost effectiveness, move from quality assurance to quality and service enhancement, increase brand recognition and obtain international accreditation, as well as develop a transnational community of practice to facilitate knowledge transfer at the institutional levels (Bordogna, 2020a; Greek & Jonsmoen, 2021).

Second, while some researchers argue that the curriculum design and delivery from home institutions should be maintained in order to provide equivalent learning outcomes (Jing et al., 2020; Yao & Tuliao, 2019), others claim that curricula need to be internationalised to prepare students for local and international careers (Allahar & Sookram, 2018; Ergenc, 2020). To develop a transnational curriculum, the development of a transnational community of practice comprising staff from both institutions is fundamental for synthesising transnational knowledge, capturing contemporary learning practices and ensuring a timely review and upgrade of the curriculum, its contents and pedagogy (Clarke et al., 2016.

Third, it is suggested that transnational student experience can be enhanced during student enrolment, student transition, and after they graduate, through the alumni associations (Bilsland et al., 2020). To assist students in choosing a TNE programme, an understanding of students' needs is essential to design and deliver proper services and academic qualifications (Gottlieb & Beatson, 2018; Heffernan et al., 2018). Moreover, proper students' transition support plays an essential role in enhancing their experience with the TNE programmes (Boulton, 2019; Chen, 2014; Wallace, 2016). Additionally, to fully enhance the cultural competence development, students should participate in international cultural exchange programmes (Juknytė-Petreikienė et al., 2021).

Fourth, successful TNE programmes are also dependent on proper staff resourcing. In particular, the recruitment criteria need to cover attitude, cultural awareness and sensitivity as well as openness to engage in self-reflection. Of course, issues like qualification, language skills, and international working experience are also important (Hoare, 2013; Naidoo & Sibiya, 2018). Moreover, proper teacher induction and continuous training are necessary (Hoxha et al., 2020; Mackay et al., 2016; Sy & Cruz, 2019). Moreover, recognition from both institutions and proper incentive programmes need to be in place to improve staff engagement (Tharapos & O'Connell, 2020; Waterval et al., 2017).

Fifth, for the host countries, proper regulations need to be available to guide the development of TNE and to ensure that TNE programmes contribute to social and economic development (Allahar & Sookram, 2018; Mok & Han, 2016a). More specifically, to encourage quality assurance and the creation of value to local students and society, host countries are suggested to create an independent quality assurance body to guide actions and monitor performance of TNE (Nhan & Nguyen, 2018). For instance, strict measures to act against low quality programmes and providers need to be in place to prevent any attempt of commodification of knowledge.

Finally, it is fundamental to recognise the importance of building consistent quality assurance standards and procedures at the global scale. Quality assurance agencies from different countries are suggested to adopt a long-term partnership commitment to regularly update the TNE developments and practices in the respective national contexts, sharing information of students and programmes activities, benchmarking quality assurance processes, engaging with all stakeholders in developing international qualification recognition guidelines and agreements, and facilitating the joint quality assurance review process (Shroff & Kratochvil, 2018; Trifiro, 2018).

2.4 Conclusion

Managing a TNE programme is complex due to its vulnerability to numerous factors, including host country regulations and market conditions (students' readiness, qualified staff availability, rivalry and threats of new entrance) which are beyond the control of the higher education institutions (Shams & Huisman, 2016). Therefore, the decision to localise or standardise the programmes and the extent to which localisation can be applied, should be based on careful market analysis and strategic positioning of the programmes (Shams & Huisman, 2016).

In what follows, we summarise the main findings emerging from the systematic review:

a) Enormous influence of academic regulations and intervention from the host countries

To ensure the quality of national capacity building and to secure the economic and political status, strict 'educational sovereignty' policies and academic regulations have been applied by several host countries discouraging the entrance of TNE foreign partners (Ong & Chan, 2012).

b) Unequal geographic distribution of TNE

TNE programmes solely follow the export-import relations originating from developed countries into developing countries (Kosmützky, 2018). Also, to ensure financial benefits and obtain favourable conditions, most TNE programmes are located in rich city centres where high income students can gain access (Kosmützky, 2018), meaning that the remaining students do not have the opportunity to experience TNE.

c) A rising concern about the validity of the imposed curricula from home institutions

As cultural and social capital is a crucial dimension in perceiving cross-cultural and intra-cultural differences, standardising the curricula, teaching and assessment methodologies are likely to decrease the cultural and social capital available at the host countries. For that reason, programme developers should maintain a certain degree of localisation in developing the quality assurance, teaching curriculum, and methods of delivery (Hou et al., 2016, 2017; Ong & Chan, 2012).

d) A demand for 'equitable partnership approaches'

There is a rising trend for increasing 'equitable partnership approaches' that involve joint responsibility with host country partners for the development and delivery of TNE programmes (Leung & Waters, 2017). In particular, it is suggested that both institutions should develop a community of practice to foster mutual learning, timely reflection and improvement of the curriculum and the support services offered to TNE students (Keay et al., 2014).

e) A rising request for a "real transnational experience"

There is a rising request for a blended delivery model to be implemented as it encourages the mobility of staff and students, facilitating the transnational teaching and learning experience (Gunter & Raghuram, 2018). Moreover, as the market for transnational education becomes more competitive, students should be given more choices to practice their consumerism power. Not only is it fundamental to build the brand identity of the programmes, congruent with the prospective students' self-image of the studying environment and the quality of the services they will receive, but also to provide students with knowledge and skills that improve their employment prospects in the local and international workplaces (Sudhana et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020).

f) A question about the profitability of TNE operation

Many TNE partnerships are developed with the commercial objective to increase the revenue for both institutions. However, a number of TNE programmes have questioned the commercial benefits of TNE, because they failed to attract local students and to increase the scale of the operation, obtaining a low profit margin due to the high operation costs.

g) Challenges in maintaining and promoting quality assurance

The pressure to localise the teaching curriculum, the low English proficiency of local students and staff, the difficulty in the collaboration of staff from both institutions due to cultural, language, and the time differences and lack of quality assurance guidance from the host countries, all contribute to the challenges in maintaining and promoting quality assurance.

h) Lack of qualified teaching staff with international background

Without proper training and transnational background, staff from the host institutions tend to be under stress as a result of being afraid of not meeting the teaching quality standards required by home institutions. As for the expatriates, the difficulties in comprehending local culture, students' needs and learning styles, as well as the perceived isolation from the teaching communities, all hinder the full contribution of this group of stakeholders.

i) Risks of non-recognition of TNE qualification

There are also risks related with the non-recognition of TNE qualification, due to the difficulty for agencies in different countries to reach agreement regarding the reciprocal recognition of quality assurance decisions. This is due to lack of understanding of other countries' and agencies' systems, differences in quality assurance, reference points and processes, different views of TNE, lack of track record, legislative policy and political barriers.

Also, from the analysis performed, new patterns of TNE development and new research opportunities are emerging, as described below:

1) **The operation of TNE should account for the local, national and regional influences of the host institutions**

As identities and economic, political and cultural developments in some regions of the world have all played a significant role in the rapid regional development of transnational higher education, local or national case studies should not be considered in isolation. In the future, researchers should pay particular attention to case studies involving world regions such as Middle East or South East Asia (Gunter & Raghuram, 2018; Miller-Idriss & Hanauer, 2011).

2) **The rise of an "education hub" in emergent markets**

There is an emergence of a new transnational destination for global academic training resulting from the promotion of an "education hub" by Singapore and Malaysia (Sidhu, 2009). Adopting the "market-accelerationist state" approach and with the instruction of host governments, many host institutions established transnational strategic directions and proactively developed their transnational higher education sectors, collaborating with foreign institutions and employing foreign talent 'to learn to do the job' and provide educational training to not only local but also international and regional students (Sidhu, 2009). The "education hub" approach has become a popular approach since it satisfies dual aims of reducing the need for students to go abroad and also of generating economic return to the host (Hill et al., 2014; Shams & Huisman, 2016). As indicated previously, there is a rising number of countries which appear to be both home and host institutions (e.g. China, Malaysia, Singapore). Considering that the future prospect of transnational higher education from the Western countries is uncertain due to low financial return, stricter intervention of host countries in order to discourage the "for-profit" models, the development of national world-class universities in the host countries, the high international competition of different programme providers, and the criticism for lack of localisation of the curriculum (Bennell, 2019), future studies should also look at the impact that the emergence of the "education hubs" might have on the transnational education sector.

This systematic literature review provides valuable insights to the practice of TNE but it is not without its own limitations. In particular, the fact that we only analysed papers retrieved from the Web of Science database, leaving out some other well-known databases, might limit some of the conclusions drawn. The Web of Science was chosen as the search engine because it is the most widely accepted and frequently used database for scientific literature searching and analysis. Therefore, while some aspects might not have been covered, it is very likely that the comprehensiveness of our analysis covers all of the most important challenges and success factors of TNE. Furthermore, we have not separately analysed the challenges and success factors related with different modes of TNE. Future studies should verify if different modes present different challenges and success factors.

While important insights are derived from our systematic review, more studies are required to improve our understanding on the perceptions that industrial employers have on the knowledge and skills acquired by the TNE students. Also, most papers seem to focus on measuring the achievement of outcomes and not on measuring the outputs of the programmes, which leads to the suggestion that more research is required to assess the efficiency of these programmes in order to complement the analysis of their effectiveness. In particular, it is important to analyse not only the efficiency of the different TNE programmes but also to contrast their efficiency against local programmes. Finally, as only two studies address the challenges of TNE from the point of view of the employers and only six studies were identified about expatriates' challenges, more studies should also be devoted to these two groups of stakeholders.

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CHAPTER THREE

STUDY 2: ASSESSING PERFORMANCE OF TRANSNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES OF A FRANCHISING NETWORK BY USING DATA ENVELOPMENT ANALYSIS

(This paper is under consideration for publication in the Journal of the Operational Research Society)

Abstract

Franchising programmes in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) face the challenge of using their resources efficiently and effectively across the franchisee network. However, the measurement of efficiency and effectiveness in HEIs raises challenges related with the fact that these institutions use multiple inputs to produce multiple outputs aiming at achieving multiple outcomes. Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) is a non-parametric technique which produces an aggregate measure of relative performance accounting for the multiple inputs, outputs and outcomes, allowing the introduction of information about production trade-offs.

This study explores how DEA can be used to assess the efficiency and effectiveness of academic franchisees within a single network. To do so, a case study is discussed focusing on the use of resources to improve student admissions, graduation rates, and graduation marks in business-related undergraduate programmes affiliated with the Transnational Higher Education (TNE) network of a well-established British university. Production trade-offs between the resources and the outcomes are introduced to obtain realistic improvement measures. By studying the trade-offs between admission efficiency, teaching efficiency and effectiveness, this study offers relevant insights to the literature and to the TNE franchisor and franchisees.

Keywords: transnational higher education, franchising network, DEA, efficiency, effectiveness.

3.1. Introduction

Over recent decades, globalisation has increased interconnectedness across economies, industries, and cultures worldwide (Siora et al., 2016). In response, Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) have embraced internationalisation, driven partly by the growing demand for global educational experiences (Rowley & Skipper, 2020; Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019). This internationalisation can occur either at the home institution or abroad through Transnational Higher Education (TNE) practices (Siora et al., 2016). TNE involves educational providers or programmes crossing national borders to offer education in host countries, providing alternatives to studying abroad (Knight & McNamara, 2017). TNE not only facilitates knowledge transfer but also fosters global knowledge and cultural sensitivity among students (Knight & McNamara, 2017). TNE is particularly suited for students concerned about high tuition fees and relocation costs, mature learners who want to balance work and family commitments, or individuals facing travel restrictions during pandemics (Mok et al., 2020). Six modes of TNE delivery have been identified based on key questions such as the awarding of qualifications, responsibility for the academic curriculum, and external quality assurance. These modes include franchising programmes, partnership programmes, international branch campuses, joint universities, self-learning distance education, and distance education with local academic partners (Knight & McNamara, 2017). Among TNE modes, franchising programmes have gained popularity, especially in the UK's higher education system (Knight & McNamara, 2017).

Despite the potential benefits, TNE programmes face challenges that impede their sustainable operation and development (Hu et al., 2019; Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020). While existing education research has largely focused on measuring programme outcomes (such as students' grades), there is a need for additional research to assess the efficiency (doing the things right) of these programmes, complementing the analysis of their effectiveness (doing the right things) (Witte & López-Torres, 2017). Numerous empirical studies have raised questions about the perceived quality of teaching and training, students' satisfaction, academic performance, employability, and the value for money invested in education, as there is no clear positive relationship between expenditure and educational outcomes (Worthington, 2001). Efficiency management is crucial for HEIs (Chen et al., 2021) and also for TNE programmes to remain competitive. Therefore, evaluating efficiency is vital, enabling the identification and strengthening of franchisors' core capabilities and successful management of franchising partnerships across different locations (Park et al., 2020). However, measuring the efficiency of HEIs poses challenges due to the multiple inputs involved (such as human resources, financial resources, and shared facilities) that contribute to the production of various outputs (such as the number and qualification of graduates, employability) (Witte & López-Torres, 2017; Johnes, 2006a). Quantifying the relationship between these inputs and outputs is complex (Chen et al., 2021). To overcome this challenge, researchers have increasingly turned to the Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) method, which directly incorporates multiple inputs and multiple outputs to compute a production possibility frontier. This allows for the comparison of the relative performance among different educational institutes and programmes, enabling the identification of efficient and inefficient decision-making units (DMUs) (Aviles-Sacoto et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2021; Johnes, 2006a).

The popularity of the DEA method relates with the fact that the weights attached to each input and output are derived from the data itself, rather than being imposed by the analyst. Through an optimisation procedure, the DEA technique selects the optimal weights for each input and output of each DMU in order to produce the highest possible efficiency score. However, in a conventional DEA model, this optimisation procedure may assign significant weight to a single input and/or a single output while assigning close to zero weights to the remaining inputs and outputs. To solve this problem, it is possible to include weight restrictions in the DEA models (Allen et al., 1997 offer a review). As discussed by Podinovski (2004: 1311), in "most cases, the construction of weight restrictions is based on value judgements concerning the perceived managerial importance of inputs and outputs", which may lead to non-realistic improvement factors. The trade-off approach, in contrast to the traditional "value thinking" approach, employs a "technology thinking" method to establish weight restrictions from realistic trade-offs, ensuring that they align with the technological aspects of the production process (Podinovski, 2004). This method offers distinct advantages over traditional approaches that rely on judgments that may not accurately reflect production realities and can distort the economic interpretation of efficiency (Podinovski, 2004). Weight restrictions, derived from realistic production trade-offs, ensure that inefficient DMUs' targets are achievable, and that the efficiency reflects a realistic improvement factor (Podinovski, 2004).

Although there is a reasonable number of studies employing DEA in the HEI context, only a small number of these studies (such as, for example, Podinovski and Husain (2015)) have incorporated trade-off weight restrictions. Furthermore, although franchising is one of the most popular TNE delivering modes, there is a scarcity of research assessing the performance of franchising programmes (Tran et al., 2022). Indeed, to the best of our knowledge, no study has been published documenting the use of the DEA technique to benchmark franchising programmes in the context of TNE.

To contribute to this research area, the study examines the comparative efficiency and effectiveness within a franchising network operating under the same franchisor for similar business-related undergraduate programs. The case study chosen for this research involves a well-established London-based university (referred to as University X), founded in 1890. With over 43 collaborative partners worldwide, including 29 operating on a franchise basis, University X has established a significant presence in the global education landscape. University X's approach to Transnational Education (TNE) and its successful management of franchising networks make it an intriguing case study. The research focuses on comparing the performance of 18 business-related undergraduate franchising programmes within the University X franchising network. To ensure privacy and confidentiality, organisational identities were anonymised.

The following research questions will be explored:

- How can DEA be used to compare the admission efficiency, teaching efficiency and teaching effectiveness of franchising programmes, accounting for realistic production trade-offs between the performance indicators?
- Which franchising programme(s) within the network exhibit the best performance in each performance dimension?
- What are the most relevant learning benchmarks and targets for programmes that have potential to improve in each performance dimension?
- What trade-offs can be identified between the three performance dimensions and what can be learnt from that?

This analysis provides valuable insights for TNE researchers, the University X, as well as its franchisees. In specific, we (1) develop performance assessment models in the context of TNE programmes, including multiple dimensions and incorporating managers' views regarding appropriate production trade-offs between the inputs and outputs; (2) explore the potential trade-offs between the multiple dimensions of performance, and (3) explore the usefulness of the performance results obtained in the context of the organisations involved offering suggestions for performance improvement.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: Section II provides a comprehensive literature review on efficiency management in HEIs and franchising networks. Section III discusses the DEA technique. Section IV scrutinises the performance of the franchising education network associated with the University X. Subsequently, Section V engages in a detailed discussion of the empirical results. Finally, Section VI concludes the paper by summarising key findings, addressing limitations, and proposing avenues for future research.

3.2. Literature review

3.2.1. Performance management in franchising education

Franchising is a contractual arrangement between a franchisor and a franchisee, permitting the franchisee to use the franchisor's brand, products, services, and operational procedures for local service or product delivery (Pon & Ritchie, 2014). Academic franchising is gaining popularity among HEIs, offering benefits for franchisors, franchisees, and enrolled students (Pon & Ritchie, 2014). Expanding internationally through franchising enhances market coverage, brand recognition, and the global reputation of the franchisor (Pon & Ritchie, 2014; Ribeiro & Akehurst, 2014). Franchising also provides strategic flexibility, leveraging local market understanding for effective adaptation (Ribeiro & Akehurst, 2014). Furthermore, franchisee-managed daily operations reduce the financial burden on the franchisor (Ribeiro & Akehurst, 2014). In return, this partnership model contributes to the development of teaching and research capabilities in the host institutions or franchisees (Pon & Ritchie, 2014). Moreover, the TNE mode of collaboration helps raise the hosts' institutional profiles in international league tables, facilitating lecturers' and students' exchange (Pon & Ritchie, 2014).

Despite the potential benefits of this mode of TNE, the literature on academic franchising programmes has identified several failures that can be attributed to various factors. These failures include issues with admission processes, low teaching quality, insufficient training resources, and disparities in quality assurance between the partners involved (Pon & Ritchie, 2014). The success of these collaborations, as per the resource-based view theory, hinges on trust and cooperation within the franchise network (Ribeiro & Akehurst, 2014). Franchisors are expected to leverage their expertise and branding to create a well-designed product or service, establish a strong brand identity, and share operational best practices with franchisees (Ribeiro & Akehurst, 2014). In return, franchisees should use their local knowledge to align the franchised model with local preferences, making it appealing and accessible to the local customer base. This underscores the importance of effective collaboration and knowledge exchange for academic franchising programmes to achieve high levels of performance.

Performance management is crucial in higher education, especially with reduced public funding and the growing demand for accountability in teaching, research, and learning outcomes (Kumar & Thakur, 2019). As discussed by Neely et al. (2005: 1229), “the level of performance a business attains is a function of the efficiency and effectiveness of the actions it undertakes”. Efficiency can be defined as the capacity to maximise outputs given the level of resources used. Following Johnes (2006a, p.274), efficiency can be measured as "the ratio of a firm’s observed output to the maximum output which could be achieved given its input levels". We argue that in the context of education, a useful distinction can be made between admission efficiency and teaching efficiency. Admission efficiency denotes an institution/programme's ability to maximise enrolment considering the resources invested in student recruitment. Teaching efficiency, on the other hand, refers to the capacity to maximise graduation levels considering the resources allocated to teaching.

Teaching effectiveness, defined as "doing the right things" according to De Witte and López-Torres (2017: 339), is concerned with producing desired effects in education which involve ensuring teaching quality, achieving high education attainments, and equality in learning outcomes (De Witte & López-Torres, 2017). As suggested by Ramírez-Hurtado and Contreras (2016), the effectiveness of an education system can be evaluated through educational attainment, measured by the proportion of students graduating with high-degree classifications. This underscores the importance of considering not only the quality of teaching but also the overall success and equality in the educational outcomes achieved by students within a given system.

As revealed in the study by De Witte and López-Torres (2017), a clear distinction exists between the efficiency and effectiveness literature in education. However, recognising the social sensitivity of each education system, it is crucial to consider the nuanced relationship between investment and educational outcomes, maintaining a balance between efficiency and effectiveness dimensions in policy creation (Lafon, n.d.). Given this, a comprehensive performance management analysis that encompasses both effectiveness and efficiency become imperative. In alignment with the future agenda for School Effectiveness Research (SER) outlined by Teddlie and Reynolds (2000), it is necessary to study ineffective schools/programmes to uncover factors influencing effectiveness and challenges in transferring practices, addressing a historical focus on well-functioning schools.

This paper aims to contribute to this literature by assessing admission efficiency, teaching efficiency and teaching effectiveness of franchising programmes. In doing so, it assesses the capacity of these programmes to optimise resources, increase student enrolment and improve graduation rates, as well as their capacity to elevate the proportion of students graduating with high-degree classifications.

3.2.2. Measuring university efficiency and effectiveness using DEA models

DEA, a non-statistical and non-parametric technique, is widely applied to assess the efficiency of higher education programmes (Wohlrabe & Friedrich, 2017). In contrast to traditional methods that rely on assumptions about inefficiencies, DEA calculates efficiency by analysing inputs and outputs through linear programming. It establishes a production possibility frontier and measures efficiency as the ratio of weighted outputs to weighted inputs. Crucially, DEA autonomously determines these weights, allowing for relative efficiency comparisons among units (Johnes, 2006a). DEA analyses do not start with pre-existing assumptions about the distribution of inefficiencies or the functional form of the production function (Johnes, 2006a). Instead, DEA calculates efficiency independently, reflecting each unit's most efficient state relative to all others in the dataset. In the context of HEIs, the operational efficiency of a particular programme (also called DMU) is measured by comparing the level of results produced and resources used by this programme with those of the best practice programmes (also called benchmarks).

The selected DMUs or sample should ensure homogeneity among similar programmes offered by the same franchisor, with allowances for differences like target learner characteristics and English entrance scores. Efficiency assessment in HEIs spans multiple levels, as outlined by Ramírez-Hurtado and Contreras (2017). These levels include institutional operational efficiency, performance of individual faculties or programmes, and individual students’ efficiency derived from student characteristics and performance. Some studies have utilised DEA to compare the performance of programmes or institutions, as shown in Table B1 in Appendices. Typical inputs used to measure education production efficiency include teaching, research, and learning characteristics, while popular outputs are defined in terms of student test scores, post-graduation employability, and research outputs (Wohlrabe & Friedrich, 2017).

Table B1 presents a synthesis of previous studies assessing the efficiency of academic DMUs across various educational levels, including institutions, university faculties, programmes, and students. As delineated in Table B1, the previous studies are specific to individual countries, spanning from Western to Asian regions, or encompassing multiple countries, utilising data from prominent World University rankings like the Times Higher Education, QS World University rankings, or Shanghai rankings. The efficiency evaluation encompasses four primary input categories: student-related, family-related, institutional, and community/environmental factors. HEIs commonly measure outputs through teaching indicators, including metrics such as enrolled students, graduates, passing rates, average test scores, graduation classifications, employability, learning efficiency, and satisfaction surveys from students or employers. Additionally, research outputs are also examined, encompassing publications in journals or books, citation counts, research grants or incomes, patents, contracts, research awards, and the number of defended dissertations and theses.

Despite the merits of DEA, its application in comparing the performance of TNE programmes has been notably absent. In a systematic literature review on efficiency in education conducted by Witte and López-Torres (2017), 89 studies measured efficiency at the university level, 58 at the high-school level, and 44 at the national level, based on empirical papers retrieved from 1977 to 2015. Therefore, until 2015, research on the educational efficiency of TNE programmes had not been reported according to the findings of Witte and López-Torres (2017). Surprisingly, this situation seems to remain as no studies dealing with this issue were also found since 2015 in some well-known bibliographic databases such as Scopus and Web of Science.

Our paper's focus is on comparing the performance of various franchising programmes across South-East Asian countries. Performance will be measured using three dimensions: admission efficiency; teaching efficiency; teaching effectiveness. We will utilise programme-level data as inputs, with outputs measured at the student level and aggregated to the programme level.

These outputs encompass the number of registered students, the number of graduated students, and the number of students graduating with different degree classifications.

3.2.3. The contributions of this research

The existing literature on efficiency in HEIs predominantly focuses on public universities, with limited attention given to private-for-profit institutions that primarily emphasise teaching (Miranda et al., 2012). Furthermore, there is a notable absence of research comparing the relative efficiency of franchising programmes, which are driven by financial profit-seeking motives.

As illustrated in Table B1 in the Appendices, most of the existing studies employ traditional DEA models to measure the efficiencies of universities in terms of research and teaching, without detangling the process into its several stages (admission efficiency; teaching efficiency and teaching effectiveness). Evaluating the performance of the different stages of the processes is useful to identify the parts of the process that require intervention to improve performance.

Diverging from public universities, which prioritise research and teaching outcomes, private universities and TNE programmes place greater emphasis on the sustainable operation of these programmes, as measured by learner enrolment numbers and graduation rates. Surprisingly, there is a dearth of research focusing on comparing the performance of universities based on their enrolment outcomes (Cherchye & Abeele, 2005; Mayston, 2014).

Although it is possible to identify several DEA studies that have included weight restrictions in the higher education context (see, for example, Sarrico and Dyson, 2004; See et al., 2022; Tavares et al., 2021), only a few studies in this context (Podinovski, 2007 and Podinovski and Husain, 2015) have included weight restrictions based on the production trade-off approach. Considering that, when using other types of weight restrictions, "the resulting efficiency measure, although providing better discrimination between efficient and inefficient units, can no longer be interpreted as a realistic improvement factor" (Podinovski, 2004: 311), the use of production trade-offs in the HEI context can be advantageous.

This study aims to address these gaps in the literature by examining the relative performance of franchising programmes in private-for-profit institutions accounting for feasible production trade-offs. By considering the characteristics and objectives of private universities and TNE programmes, and employing a three-stage DEA model, this research contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of performance in HEIs, as well as an understanding of the trade-offs between the different dimensions.

3.3. Methods: A three-stage DEA model incorporating production trade-offs

3.3.1. Model orientation and scale assumptions

In this study we evaluate the performance of franchising programming with three DEA models. In this section we discuss the mathematical formulations of these models and justify our modelling choices.

DEA models can take different orientations: input-oriented (focusing on minimising inputs and still satisfying the given output levels); output-oriented (aiming at output maximisation without using more inputs) (Tyagi et al., 2009) or non-oriented (aiming at both input minimisation and output maximisation).

The output-oriented approach is chosen for this study for three reasons. Firstly, educational services should mainly fulfil their duties which are maximising the outputs, enhancing students' understanding, and increasing employability (Miranda et al., 2012). Secondly, as academic staff and support staff are the key human resource inputs of education, it is difficult to adjust the number of inputs in a short time (Miranda et al., 2012). Thirdly, the number of enrolled students, as an input, is also fixed, considering that, in the short run, it cannot be adjusted (Johnes, 2006a). However, for long-term strategic planning, universities are advised to formulate comprehensive strategies aimed at enhancing their admission efficiency. This involves a proactive approach to attract and admit a larger cohort of students within the constraints of available resources. The estimation of output expansion targets derived from the stage 1 model serves the purpose of guiding universities in setting realistic goals for sustainable growth in student admissions over an extended timeframe.

When choosing a DEA model, one important consideration is deciding between assuming constant returns to scale (CRS) or variable returns to scale (VRS). The CRS assumption considers that variations in the inputs should lead to proportional variations in the outputs. It implies that the scale of operation does not significantly affect efficiency. It suggests that both large and small units or programmes can achieve equal performance in converting inputs to outputs (Tyagi et al., 2009). On the other hand, the VRS assumption acknowledges that increasing the number of inputs may lead to a disproportionate increase in the outputs (Tyagi et al., 2009). In this respect, the VRS model only assumes that an increase in the inputs should not lead to a decrease in the outputs. The CRS model reflects the technical efficiency (TE) of a programme, while the VRS model reveals its pure technical efficiency (PTE). Scale Efficiency (SE) can be calculated by dividing the TE by the PTE. It is important to note that if a programme is deemed efficient or effective in the CRS model, it will also be considered efficient or effective in the VRS model, though the converse is not necessarily true.

The relationship between the size of operation and the efficiency or effectiveness of a DMU is typically observed in large sample sizes (Tyagi et al., 2009). Given the small sample size of only 18 DMUs in our study, and the reasonableness of the proportionality assumption, we have decided to adopt the CRS model. By selecting the CRS model, we focus on overall technical efficiency and effectiveness, without studying scale issues. This approach allows us to assess the admission and teaching efficiency of the programmes as well as their effectiveness without segmenting them based on size-related classifications.

3.3.2. Incorporating weight restrictions based on feasible production trade-offs

While conventional DEA offers valuable insights for real-life applications, it lacks the ability to explicitly incorporate decision-makers' preferences or value judgments (Boloori et al., 2021). To address this limitation, some researchers have integrated value judgments as weight constraints in the DEA multiplier model (Ghazi & Lotfi, 2022; Alirezaee & Sani, 2016; Basso & Funari, 2018). However, this approach can sometimes lead to incorrect or inconsistent expansion of the production possibility set, which should represent feasible input-output relationships (Boloori et al., 2021). To overcome this challenge, Podinovski (2004) introduced the concept of trade-off weight restrictions. These restrictions are based on "technology thinking" rather than "value thinking." Value-based weight restrictions reflect experts' value judgments about the relationship between inputs and outputs, which may not always align with technological possibilities. In contrast, weight restrictions based on production trade-offs consider potential substitutions in production technology between inputs and outputs. These trade-offs are based on the assumption that certain concurrent changes to inputs and outputs are technically acceptable in the production process, ensuring that the results are realistic and enable producible improvements

(Podinovski, 2015; Ghazi & Lotfi, 2022). This distinction is critical for avoiding the formation of infeasible or inconsistent production relationships (Podinovski & Bouzdine-Chameeva, 2015).

The use of trade-off weight restrictions offers several benefits. Firstly, trade-off weight restrictions mitigate the risk of biased or unrealistic performance scores by accounting for variations in institutional characteristics, goals, and resource allocation patterns (Podinovski & Bouzdine-Chameeva, 2015). This ensures that the performance analysis considers the specific context and constraints of universities, resulting in valid and reliable assessments (Podinovski, 2015). Secondly, trade-off weight restrictions enable decision-makers to navigate the inherent trade-offs between different inputs and outputs within higher education (Boloori & Afsharian, 2017; Alirezaee & Boloori, 2012). By explicitly capturing these trade-offs, decision-makers can evaluate universities' performance in a comprehensive and fair manner, considering the multifaceted nature of higher education institutions.

To ensure the formulation of appropriate trade-off weight restrictions for each input and output in the model, we conducted an interview with an International Partnerships Representative for South East Asia of the University X, institution under analysis. This representative, due to his significant role in data collection and analysis, later became one of the co-authors of this article. During this interview, it was possible to elicit his subjective judgements on feasible trade-offs between the inputs and the outputs.

3.3.3. Mathematical formulation of the DEA models used

Consider a scenario with *n* DMUs under evaluation. Each DMU utilises *m* non-negative inputs to generate *s* non-negative outputs. In this context, DMU_j represents the specific DMU being assessed in the set of *j* = 1, …, *n* DMUs. The values x_{ij} and y_{rj}correspond to the observed levels of the ith input and the rth output at DMU_j. The mathematical framework used to compute the relative radial efficiency score for each DMU was introduced by Charnes et al. (1978, p.432) and corrected in Charnes et al. (1979) and is outlined in equation (1). Solving a linear programming problem, with an output orientation, allows us to determine both the maximum radial efficiency score of a specific DMU_0 ($z_0 = 1/g_0$) and the optimal weight values for each input (υ_i) and each output (u_r).

$$min\ g_o = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathrm{v}_i x_{i0}$$

Subject to:

$$\sum_{r=1}^{s} \mathrm{u}_r y_{rj} - \sum_{i=1}^{m} \upsilon_i x_{ij} \leq 0; \qquad j = 1, \dots, n$$

$$\sum_{r=1}^{s} \mathrm{u}_r y_{r0} = 1$$

$$\mathrm{u}_r, \upsilon_r > 0; \quad r = 1, \dots, s; \quad i = 1, \dots, m \qquad (1)$$

Using the methodology introduced by Podinovski (2004), let's assume we have K judgements that define production trade-offs between inputs and/or outputs. Each of these K judgements can be expressed as vectors ($\mathrm{A}_t \in R^m, \mathrm{B}_t \in R^s$) applied to the input and output sets, respectively, where t = 1, 2, …, K. As Podinovski (2004) suggested, we can consider these assessments as homogeneous weight restrictions in the following format:

$$\sum_{r=1}^{s} \mathrm{u}_r \mathrm{B}_t - \sum_{i=1}^{m} \upsilon_i \mathrm{A}_t \leq 0; \qquad t = 1, 2, \dots, K \qquad (2)$$

Weight restrictions in the format of (2) can be directly incorporated into the multiplier-based DEA model in (1). Additionally, as illustrated by Podinovski (2004), when dealing with K judgements representing production trade-offs, the output-oriented DEA model, assuming constant returns to scale (CRS), takes the form below.

$$max\ z_o$$

Subject to:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{rj} \lambda_j + \sum_{t=1}^{K} \pi_t \mathrm{B}_t \geq y_{r0} z_o; \qquad r = 1, \dots, s$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{ij}\lambda_j + \sum_{t=1}^{K} \pi_t A_t \leq x_{i0}; \qquad i = 1, \ldots, m$$

$$\lambda_j, \pi_t \geq 0; \quad j = 1, \ldots, n; \quad t = 1, \ldots, K \qquad (3)$$

The incorporation of weight restrictions within model (3) has a noteworthy impact on the production possibilities, enhancing the level of discrimination in the assessment process, as discussed by Podinovski (2004). The significance of this lies in the necessity for these restrictions to be founded on production trade-offs that are not only theoretically sound but also practically achievable for all units involved in the analysis, hence the importance of deriving these restrictions from decision-makers' knowledge.

It's important to note that the DEA models for efficiency and effectiveness necessitate non-negative inputs, outputs, and outcomes.

The formulations presented above were used to calculate the relative efficiency and relative effectiveness of the franchising programmes, substituting the inputs, outputs and weight restrictions by those relevant in each model, as described below.

3.4. Measuring the performance of the franchising education network of the University X

The United Kingdom (UK) is the second largest provider of international education which brought an estimated annual value of £496 million to the UK economy in 2015 (Jisc, n.d.). There has been an 81 per cent increase in the number of UK TNE students since 2008-09 (Jisc, n.d.). This makes the UK a suitable case study for TNE performance analysis. Moreover, based on the data published by The Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA), the HEI enrolments with the UK HE provider through collaborative provision with overseas partner organisations accounted for the biggest number of TNE students, which took 56.6 per cent of the total TNE students (HESA, n.d). In addition, business and management are the UK subjects delivered in most TNE programmes in most countries (Siora et al., 2016). According to the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education, the University X has a student population of over 34,400 with 15,600 enrolled with overseas partners. The TNE students of this university account for 16 per cent of the total TNE students offered by the UK's Higher Education Institutions (Siora et al., 2016).

Considering its international relevance in the TNE context, the University X provides a suitable case study for performance analysis.

3.4.1. Input/ Output selection and data sources

A suitable selection of input and output indicators is a crucial step in DEA analysis (Chen et al., 2021). According to Smith (2019), in educational franchising operations, host institutes often prioritise two key aspects: increasing student enrolment and improving teaching practices to achieve high graduation rates. These institutes aim to replicate and deliver the same programmes offered at the home institution to local learners. According to Chen et al. (2021), some common inputs that contribute to student enrolment efficiency may include marketing and promotional efforts, admission processes and staff, scholarship and financial aid, and enrolment management systems. On the other hand, inputs for teaching practices often consist of three aspects: human resources, physical resources, and financial resources (Chen et al., 2021). In terms of human resources, the number of teaching staff, the number of support staff, the number of senior teaching staff (with a doctorate degree), the proportion of teachers and learners, etc. are the most popular inputs in the previous studies (Chen et al., 2021). Previous studies often used metrics such as the total number of classrooms, school building area, fixed assets value, and teaching/research equipment value to assess physical resources (Chen et al., 2021). However, the school building area is often overlooked despite its significance (Chen et al., 2021). Chen et al. (2021) highlight that campuses located in different cities can vary significantly in size due to programme locations. Since data on fixed assets and teaching/research equipment values are challenging to obtain, our analysis includes the number of programme-specific rooms as an additional input. Financial resources are not considered in this analysis due to unavailable data.

The research framework we use to assess the performance of franchising programmes consists of three dimensions: admission efficiency, teaching efficiency and teaching effectiveness. The relative performance of 18 franchising programmes is measured through 3 different models and stages, one for each dimension. In the first stage model, we account for the key human and physical resources as inputs, including teaching staff, classrooms, marketing/admission staff and academic support staff. The number of registered students is used as the output in this first stage model. In the second stage, we examine teaching efficiency using the following inputs: number of classrooms; teaching staff with and without a doctoral degree; academic support staff; number of registered students. In turn, the number of graduated students is used as an output. In the third stage, we evaluate teaching effectiveness by considering the number of graduates as input and the graduation classifications (e.g., first-class, upper-second class, lower-second class, and third-class) as outputs. Considering that it was not possible to obtain data regarding the employability of the graduates and the rates of admission into post-graduate studies, the graduation classifications work as proxies for the outcomes expected. Figure 3.1 presents the schematic representation of the three-stage process evaluated in this study.

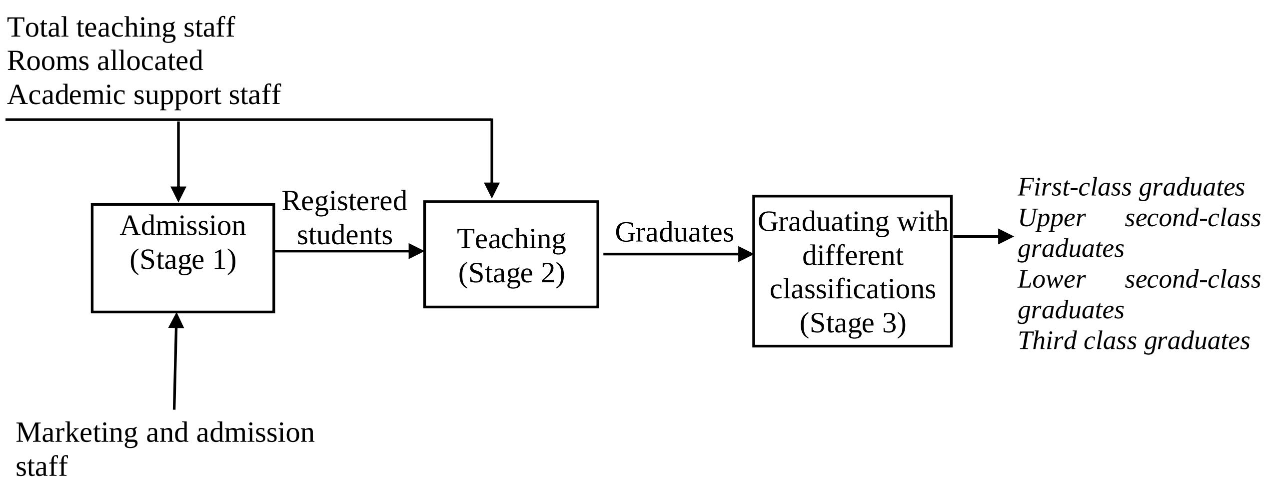

Figure 3.1: *Three-stage process of TNE programme performance in terms of enrolment and teaching efficiency as well as teaching effectiveness*

This empirical study utilises two main sources of data. Firstly, student data has been obtained from the University X for the year 2019. This data includes information related to the outputs of 18 franchising programmes offered in five different countries, namely Vietnam, Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong, and Zambia. The provided student data comprises franchisee names, franchising programme details, the number of registered students per programme, and the total number of students who graduated from each cohort classified by degree classification. With the support of the University X International Partnerships Representative for South East Asia, the second set of data relates to the resources used to produce the outputs of the corresponding 18 business-related undergraduate franchising programmes. The resources allocated to each programme include the total number of admission/marketing staff, classrooms, lecturers with and without doctorate degrees, and the total number of academic support staff. Key characteristics of the research object can be summarised as follows:

(1) All franchising programmes analysed in this study are managed by the University X and adhere to the same training materials, guidelines, and quality assurance procedures.

(2) The selected programmes are all related to the Bachelor in Business Management degree.

(3) All students admitted comply with the University X entry requirements (in terms of prior education and English proficiency).

(4) The collected data corresponds to the same academic year, specifically 2019.

The specific inputs and outputs included in this study are presented in Table 3.1. For the admission stage, the selection of inputs (teachers, physical classrooms, academic support staff and marketing/admission staff), is based on their significant roles in the educational process. Teachers play a crucial role in delivering educational content, facilitating learning, and assessing student progress (Liem & Chong, 2017; Tinto, 2012; Bohara et al., 2022). Physical classrooms are essential for higher education training, providing opportunities for face-to-face interaction, practical learning, and access to lecturers and resources, as well as fostering networking and socialisation (Widiastuti et al., 2020). Academic support staff contribute to fostering a positive learning environment, enhancing academic skills, and promoting student engagement (Bedenlier et al., 2020; Tran et al., 2020). Marketing and admission staff also hold importance in attracting and converting prospective students into enrolled students (Bohara et al., 2022; Tinto, 2012). The number of students registered is used as the output in stage 1.

When measuring teaching efficiency, in addition to the aforementioned inputs, the distinction between teachers with and without a PhD degree is crucial, because senior staff have more experience in teaching and research, which should contribute to higher graduation rates. The use of the number of students registered as an input is important to ensure feasible output targets and also because they capture the resources to be transformed, while the other inputs are transforming resources.

The degree classification of students serves as a clear indicator of teaching effectiveness, reflecting the level of knowledge and skills attained through instruction. A higher proportion of students achieving first-class and upper-second-class degrees indicates a greater level of success in delivering effective instruction, promoting student engagement, and facilitating effective learning outcomes. It is assumed that students graduating with higher classification have a higher probability of securing qualified employment and/or being admitted into postgraduate studies. Conversely, a higher proportion of lower-second-class and third-class degrees may suggest areas for improvement in teaching methodologies and student support. By examining the distribution of degree classifications, we can gain valuable insights into the overall effectiveness of the teaching practices employed within the franchising programmes under study. In the UK, undergraduate degrees are classified into different categories based on the level of academic achievement, including First-Class Honours (70%+), Upper-Second-Class Honours (60%-69%), Lower-Second-Class Honours (50%-59%), Third-Class Honours (40%-49%), and Ordinary Degree (not meeting honours criteria) (HESA, n.d.).

Table 3.1: Input and output indicators for the franchising programmes

		Indicators	**Unit**
Admission efficiency (Stage 1)	Inputs	X_{11}: Number of teaching staff	People
		X_{12}: Number of classrooms	Rooms
		X_{13}: Number of marketing and admission staff	People
		X_{14}: Number of academic support staff	People
	Outputs	Y_{11}: Number of registered students	People
Teaching efficiency (Stage 2)	Inputs	X_{21}: Number of classrooms	Rooms
		X_{22}: Number of teaching staff without a PhD	People
		X_{23}: Number of PhD teaching staff	People
		X_{24}: Number of academic support staff	People
		X_{25}: Number of registered students	People
	Outputs	Y_{11}: Number of graduates	People
	Inputs	X_{31}: Number of graduates	People

Teaching effectiveness (Stage 3)	Outputs	Y_{31}: Number of the first-class graduates	People
		Y_{32}: Number of the upper-second class graduates	People
		Y_{33}: Number of the lower-second class graduates	People
		Y_{34}: Number of the third-class graduates	People

3.4.2. Trade-off weight restrictions included in the models

Stage 1 - Admission efficiency

Three weight restrictions were developed for the inputs following the decision-makers judgement regarding feasible trade-offs.

WR1: Weight of teaching staff – weight of classroom ≥ 0

Weight of teaching staff ≥ weight of classroom

WR2: Weight of classroom – weight of marketing and admission staff ≥ 0

Weight of classroom ≥ weight of marketing and admission staff

WR3: Weight of marketing and admission staff – weight of academic supporting staff ≥ 0

Weight of marketing and admission staff ≥ weight of academic supporting staff

The first weight restriction states that the number of registered students should not be altered if the number of classrooms is reduced by, at most, one and the number teachers is increased by, at least, one. The statements related to the other three weight restrictions can be understood by adapting a similar reasoning. These trade-offs are considered realistic in the current higher education context because teaching staff is considered the most essential input, as emphasised by education regulations, due to their role in ensuring quality education, professional standards, student well-being, monitoring and evaluation, and policy implementation (UNESCO's Global Education Coalition, 2023). Advancements in technology have made physical classrooms less essential, as online classes can effectively facilitate learning (Tinto, 2012; Widiastuti et al., 2020). Marketing and admission staff, while still significant, can be more easily substitutable, as alternative means, such as referrals, partnerships, or a strong reputation, can attract students (Tinto, 2012; Bohara et al., 2022). Finally, academic support staff provide expertise on programme details, curriculum, and course offerings, helping prospective students understand the programme. However, if necessary, their role could be substituted by other types of staff.

Stage 2 - Teaching efficiency

In the model assessing teaching efficiency, there are five inputs representing various factors: the number of teaching staff with and without a doctorate degree, the number of classrooms, the number of academic support staff, and the number of registered students. To prevent an overemphasis on some of the resources, neglecting other essential resources, we included three weight restrictions in model 2.

The reasoning for these three weight restrictions was also derived from a technological thinking, aiming to identify feasible trade-offs between the inputs. For example, the first weight restriction (WR4) states that the number of graduates should not be altered if the number of teachers without a PhD is reduced by, at most, one and the number of teachers with a PhD is increased by, at least, one. Programme efficiency is determined by its capacity to increase the number of graduates relative to registered students and available resources. Teaching staff with doctoral degrees are highly regarded for their advanced knowledge, expertise, and ability to bring the latest research into the classroom, fostering academic integrity (Elliot & Kobayashi, 2018; Liem & Chong, 2017). Teaching staff, who have not had doctorates, also provide valuable knowledge and experience to guide students (Elliot & Kobayashi, 2018). Academic support staff have a lower weight, as students can succeed with self-directed learning, faculty support, peer assistance, and online resources (De Freitas et al., 2021; Liem & Chong, 2017; Coros & Madrigal, 2021). Similar trade-offs to the one expressed above can be inferred from the other two weight restrictions (WR5 and 6 below).

We decided not to include weight restrictions regarding the input ‘number of registered students’ because, if a programme has graduated all the registered students, no added staff and/or added classrooms may help increasing the number of graduates. With this in mind, for the programmes evaluated with almost all the weight attributed to the input 'number of registered students' (ignoring the other inputs) the optimisation model will identify slacks in the remaining inputs, signalling that there is a possibility of reducing these inputs. In total, three weight restrictions have been developed for model 2.

WR4: Weight of teaching staff with doctorate degree – weight of Teaching staff without one ≥ 0

Weight of teaching staff with doctorate degree $\geq$ weight of Teaching staff without one

WR5: Weight of Teaching staff without doctorate degree – weight of classroom ≥ 0

Weight of Teaching staff without doctorate degree $\geq$ weight of classroom

WR6: Weight of classroom – weight of academic support staff ≥ 0

Weight of classroom $\geq$ weight of academic support staff

Stage 3 - Effectiveness

The assumptions regarding the feasible trade-offs between the outputs in stage 3 are as follows:

WR7: Weight of first-class graduates – 1.3 weight of upper-second class graduates ≥ 0

Weight of first-class graduates $\geq$ 1.3 weight of upper-second class graduates

WR8: Weight of upper-second class graduates – 1.3 weight of lower-second class graduates ≥ 0

Weight of upper-second class graduates $\geq$ 1.3 weight of lower-second class graduates

WR9: Weight of lower-second class graduates – 1.3 weight of third-class graduates ≥ 0

Weight of lower-second class graduates $\geq$ 1.3 weight of third-class graduates

These weight restrictions state that, for a certain level of graduates, it should be feasible to increase the number of graduates with lower qualifications by at most one point three, as long as the number of graduates with higher classifications decreases by, at least, one. In this respect, we are saying that if, for example, the number of graduates with higher classifications goes down by 10, it should be feasible to increase the number of graduates with lower classifications by 13.

In specifying these trade-offs, a coefficient of 1.3 was applied in all restrictions with the aim of moderately rewarding higher classifications. Higher coefficients should be used to provide a greater emphasis on higher classifications. We undertook a sensitivity analysis regarding the trade-off coefficient to establish between different classification categories. In Section IV, we will discuss the implications of using different coefficients.

Attaining a higher classification in the UK graduation system necessitates greater academic performance and effort due to several factors. Firstly, higher classifications require exceptional mastery of the subject matter and consistent outstanding academic performance, reflecting higher academic standards (Tulbure, 2018). Secondly, students pursuing higher classifications often undertake independent research projects, dissertations, or extended essays, demonstrating advanced skills in self-directed learning, critical analysis, and synthesis of information (Tulbure, 2018). Lastly, faculty members provide increased support and feedback to students aiming for higher classifications, offering personalised supervision and targeted guidance (Liem & Chong, 2017).

3.5. The empirical results

This study utilises data from 18 franchising business-related undergraduate programmes belonging to the same franchising network of the University X in five Asian countries, including Vietnam, Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong, and Zambia in 2019. The data was shared by the University X as well as by 18 representatives of the franchising programmes. This data was then compiled by an International Partnerships Representative from the University X based in South East Asia.

Table 3.2 presents the descriptive statistics of the data used. It is possible to verify that the number of students registered in each programme ranges from 11 to 183. The volume of resources used in each programme also varies. For example, the number of classrooms allocated to each programme varies from 2 to 11.

Table 3.2: Descriptive statistics of the data used in the DEA models (year 2019)

Resources/ Students and graduates	Number Academic Support staff	Number of Classrooms	Number of teaching staff without PhD	Number of PhD staff	Number of registered students	Number of class graduates	Number of first-class graduates	Number of upper-second class graduates	Number of lower-second class graduates	Number of third-class graduates and pass
Average	2.2	5.1	5.3	1.9	74.7	70.1	8.1	27.3	28.8	5.9

St Dev	1.9	2.5	2.7	1.9	53.4	49.1	7.1	22.6	26.7	5.1
Min	1	2	2	0	11	10	0	2	3	0
Max	7	11	12	7	183	175	22	100	108	16

The performance results obtained for the 18 programmes (assuming CRS) for each one of the performance dimensions are presented in Table 3.3. It is possible to verify that there is only one programme (DMU 7) that scores 100% in the three stages.

Table 3.3: Performance results for the three stages, assuming CRS

Programme	Admission efficiency	Teaching efficiency	Teaching effectiveness
1	52.14%	96.75%	84.20%
2	65.00%	100.00%	80.83%
3	66.09%	100.00%	87.81%
4	52.74%	100.00%	97.44%
5	63.37%	100.00%	84.32%
6	100.00%	100.00%	91.89%
7	**100.00%**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**
8	20.51%	100.00%	90.81%
9	21.24%	90.91%	88.50%
10	80.39%	100.00%	88.11%
11	24.48%	95.55%	88.79%
12	100.00%	100.00%	83.79%
13	29.59%	91.31%	90.71%
14	56.93%	100.00%	94.58%
15	79.72%	96.28%	100.00%
16	53.43%	94.85%	81.41%
17	85.65%	99.50%	100.00%
18	37.31%	100.00%	90.60%
Average	60.48%	98.06%	90.21%
St Dev	26.10%	3.08%	6.21%
Min	20.51%	90.91%	80.83%
Max	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

With regards to the other programmes, it is possible to verify that the greatest potential to improve is in the admission efficiency. This is the performance dimension that presents the lowest average (60.48%). This suggests that, with the current resources, some programmes should be able to recruit a higher number of students. The potential to improve in terms of teaching efficiency is considerably lower (average of 98.06%), suggesting that, once we take into account the number of registered students, most programmes perform relatively well in terms of graduation volume. This highlights the importance of considering the number of registered students in efficiency analysis.

The average teaching effectiveness score is 90.21% (scores ranging from 80.83% to 100%) suggesting that, despite a relatively good performance in terms of graduation volume, programmes are not equally effective in achieving good outcomes (high classifications). The effectiveness scores presented in Table 3.3 were obtained considering the weight restrictions discussed above (using a 1.3 coefficient between the different classifications). A sensitivity analysis was also undertaken for different coefficients, from 1 to 1.5. When the coefficient of 1 is used, all programmes achieve a score of 100%. However, this would not be appropriate as no distinction between different classifications would be made as weights between different classification standards would be allowed to equalise. The results obtained with weight restrictions based on coefficients above 1 are very consistent, with higher coefficients leading to relatively lower effectiveness scores. For example, when a coefficient of 1.5 is used, the effectiveness average decreases to 85.26% (ranging from 71.36% to 100%). With this coefficient, DMUs 7, 15 and 17 maintain the 100% score.

Another important aspect to analyse is the evidence of a trade-off between efficiency and effectiveness. From Figure 3.2, it is possible to verify that, some programmes achieve maximum performance in teaching efficiency but show some potential to improve in terms of teaching effectiveness. Programme 2 is the best example of this scenario. Whilst showing the capacity to use its resources efficiently, it has a relatively poor capacity when it comes to achieving good classification outcomes (less than 2% of the graduates achieve first class and only 27% achieve upper second class). On the contrary, some programmes show maximum performance in terms of teaching effectiveness, but are not using the resources efficiently. DMU 15 is the best example of this situation. Despite the potential to improve in terms of efficiency, this programme shows a very good performance in terms of classification outcomes (33% of its graduates achieve first class and 35% achieve upper second class). These two examples suggest that, for some programmes, there might be a trade-off between efficiency and effectiveness. However, programme 7 suggests that it is possible to achieve a balance between these two performance dimensions. This programme uses its resources efficiently to graduate students and is able to perform relatively well in terms of classification outcomes (36% of its graduates achieve first class and 24% achieve upper second class). Furthermore, we can identify some programmes that have potential to improve in both dimensions (DMUs 1, 9, 11, 13 and 16).

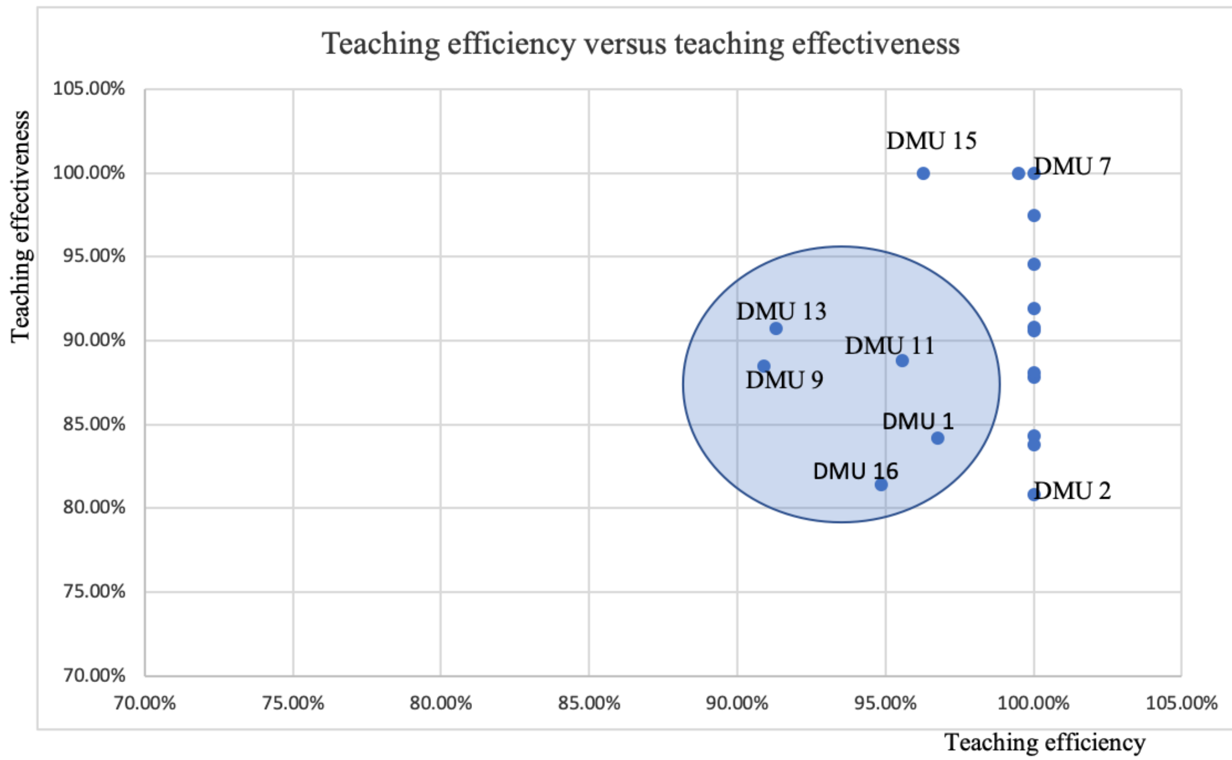

Figure 3.2: Teaching efficiency versus teaching effectiveness (assuming CRS)

In order to discuss in more detail, the improvement potential of some of the programmes, below we discuss the specific results obtained for each performance dimension and discuss the targets and benchmarks identified.

3.5.1. Stage 1: Potential to improve in terms of admission efficiency

The admission efficiency results obtained indicate that three programmes achieved a perfect admission efficiency score of 100% (DMUs 6, 7, and 12). It is worth noting that higher scores approaching 100% indicate superior performance (Table 3.4). On the other hand, DMU 8 was categorised as the programme with the most potential to improve in terms of admission efficiency, with a recorded efficiency score of 20.51%. In addition to DMU 8, there were four other programmes that obtained efficiency scores below 50%. These programmes were DMU 9 (21.24%), DMU 11 (24.48%), DMU 13 (29.59%), and DMU 18 (37.31%). These findings highlight significant performance disparities among the evaluated programmes, signalling a significant potential to recruit more students.

Table 3.4: The admission efficiency scores, assuming CRS

DMU	Efficiency rate Stage 1	No of Marketing/ Admissions staff {I}{V}	No. classrooms {I}{V}	No. of teaching staff {I}{V}	No. Academic Support staff {I}{V}	No. of students {O}{V}	Benchmarks
1	52.14%	0.23	0.31	0.46	0	1	6 (0.03); 12 (1.24)
2	65.00%	0.17	0.35	0.48	0	1	6 (0.75); 12 (0.90)
3	66.09%	0.17	0.38	0.45	0	1	6 (0.38); 12 (0.45)
4	52.74%	0.22	0.26	0.52	0	1	6 (0.06); 12 (0.38)
5	63.37%	0.11	0.38	0.51	0	1	6 (0.32); 12 (0.07)
6	100.00%	0.1	0.43	0.48	0	1	11
7	100.00%	0	0	1	0	1	2
8	20.51%	0.22	0.26	0.52	0	1	6 (0.06); 12 (0.38)
9	21.24%	0.15	0.34	0.51	0	1	6 (0.17); 12 (0.13)
10	80.39%	0.21	0.32	0.42	0.05	1	12 (1.00)
11	24.48%	0.11	0.38	0.51	0	1	6 (0.32); 12 (0.07)
12	100.00%	0	0.46	0.54	0	1	15
13	29.59%	0.1	0.39	0.51	0	1	6 (0.27); 12 (0.18)
14	56.93%	0	0.3	0.7	0	1	12 (0.77)
15	79.72%	0	0.01	0.99	0	1	7 (0.30); 12 (0.49)
16	53.43%	0.15	0.4	0.45	0	1	6 (0.52); 12 (0.39)
17	85.65%	0	0.01	0.99	0	1	7 (0.11); 12 (0.54)
18	37.31%	0.1	0.39	0.51	0	1	6 (0.27); 12 (0.18)
Average	60.48%	0.11	0.30	0.59	0.00	1.00	
St. Dev.	26.10%	0.08	0.14	0.19	0.01	0.00	
Min.	20.51%	0.00	0.00	0.42	0.00	1.00	
Max.	100.00%	0.23	0.46	1.00	0.05	1.00	

In Table 3.4, the four columns presented after the efficiency score indicate the optimal proportion of weight attributed to each input in the assessment of each programme. For example, in the evaluation of the first programme, 23% of the input weight was attributed to marketing and admission staff, 31% of the input weight was attributed to the number of classrooms and 46% of the input weight was attributed to the teaching staff.

In consistency with the weight restrictions imposed, the teaching staff is the input that receives the largest proportion of weight (with an average of 58.61%). In fact, some programmes have been evaluated with a very large proportion of the input weight attributed to the teaching staff (DMUs 7, 15 and 17). On the contrary, a reasonably balanced weight distribution is also visible in other programmes (2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 16 and 18). It is important to emphasise that, whilst the optimal weight structure of non-efficient units is unique, there tend to be alternative optimal solutions to the weight structure identified for efficient units.

The benchmark column in Table 3.4 provides valuable insights into the expected outputs of the inefficient DMUs by considering the total value of the ratio of the reference units. For example, in the case of DMU1, the expected output would be the weighted sum of DMU6 (183 students) and DMU12 (153 students), with 0.03 and 1.24 as the weights, respectively, resulting in an estimated figure of approximately 195 students. This indicates that, based on the available inputs, DMU1 should have recruited 195 students instead of the recorded 102 students.

The expected outputs of all inefficient programmes are presented in Table 3.5 (rounded down to achieve the most conservative target). These findings present a compelling case for further investigation into the factors contributing to the success of efficient programmes and the identification of strategies to enhance the performance of less efficient units. Understanding the processes behind the successful recruitment of students by the best practice programmes can provide important information for formulating targeted interventions and improvement strategies that can bridge the performance gap among the programmes.

Table 3.5: The expected admission outputs

DMUs	Total number of students {O}	Benchmarks	Target for number of students (based on benchmarks)	Number of additional registered students to achieve admission efficiency
1	102	6 (0.03); 12 (1.24)	195	93

2	179	6 (0.75); 12 (0.90)	275	96
3	91	6 (0.38); 12 (0.45)	138	47
4	36	6 (0.06); 12 (0.38)	69	33
5	44	6 (0.32); 12 (0.07)	69	25
8	14	6 (0.06); 12 (0.38)	69	55
9	11	6 (0.17); 12 (0.13)	51	40
10	123	12 (1.00)	153	30
11	17	6 (0.32); 12 (0.07)	69	52
13	23	6 (0.27); 12 (0.18)	77	54
14	67	12 (0.77)	117	50
15	70	7 (0.30); 12 (0.49)	88	18
16	83	6 (0.52); 12 (0.39)	154	71
17	75	7 (0.11); 12 (0.54)	87	12
18	29	6 (0.27); 12 (0.18)	77	48

3.5.2. Stage 2: Potential to improve in terms of teaching efficiency

Once the admission efficiency scores were obtained, we proceeded to estimate the teaching efficiency of the 18 programmes also using a CRS assumption with an output orientation. Table 3.6 presents these results. The teaching efficiency scores highlight some variations in performance among the evaluated units. DMUs 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 14 and 18 demonstrate very good performance, with a score of 100%, indicating the capacity to maximise graduation volume with the resources available.

Table 3.6: The teaching efficiency scores, assuming CRS

DMUs	Efficiency rate _ Stage 2	No# Academic Support staff {I}{V}	No# classrooms {I}{V}	Number of teaching staff without PhD {I}{V}	No of PhD staff {I}{V}	Total number of students {I}{V}	No# of class graduates {O}{V}	Benchmarks
1	96.75%	0	0	0.06	0.03	0.91	1	**2** (0.38); **5** (0.43); **14** (0.23)
2	100.00%	0	0.02	0.08	0.03	0.88	1	1
3	100.00%	0	0.01	0.09	0.02	0.88	1	0
4	100.00%	0	0.04	0	0	0.96	1	6
5	100.00%	0.01	0	0.02	0	0.97	1	7
6	100.00%	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
7	100.00%	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
8	100.00%	0	0	0	0	1	1	4
9	90.91%	0	0	0	0	1	1	**4** (0.19); **5** (0.05); **8** (0.09); **18** (0.03)
10	100.00%	0.28	0	0	0.04	0.68	1	0
11	95.55%	0	0	0	0	1	1	**14** (0.25)
12	100.00%	0.36	0	0.32	0.31	0	1	0
13	91.31%	0	0	0	0	1	1	**4** (0.58); **5** (0.03); **8** (0.05); **18** (0.01)
14	100.00%	0	1	0	0	0	1	4
15	96.28%	0.05	0	0.02	0	0.93	1	**4** (0.64); **5** (0.68); **14** (0.25)
16	94.85%	0	0	0.08	0	0.92	1	**7** (0.25); **14** (1.07)
17	99.50%	0	0.03	0	0	0.96	1	**4** (0.11); **5** (1.57); **8** (0.08); **18** (0.02)
18	100.00%	0	0	0	0	1	1	**4** (0.29); **5** (0.39); **8** (0.11)
Average	98.06%	0.04	0.06	0.15	0.02	0.73	1.00	
St. Dev.	3.08%	0.10	0.23	0.32	0.07	0.41	0.00	
Min.	90.91%	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	
Max.	100.00%	0.36	1.00	1.00	0.31	1.00	1.00	

In the DEA literature, two efficiency notions exist: weak efficiency and Pareto-Koopmans efficiency (Mirdehghan & Fukuyama, 2016). The Farrell–Debreu measure is based on weak efficiency, where any non-zero slacks are ignored whereas a DMU is Pareto–Koopmans efficient if no improvement in input utilisation or output production is possible without worsening other aspects (Mirdehghan & Fukuyama, 2016). In this respect, it is important to note that while DMU18 meets Farrell's criteria for teaching efficiency, the Pareto-Koopmans definition reveals inefficiencies as slacks are observed in this programme. Since all registered students into this programme are already graduated, these results suggest an opportunity to optimise resource allocation. Learning regarding how to save in resources can be obtained from the three programmes identified as its benchmarks (DMUs 4, 5 and 8).

The information presented in the benchmarks' column is useful to calculate Pareto-Koopmans targets both for inputs and outputs. In Table 3.7 we present the targets for Programme 1 to illustrate the usefulness of the information regarding the benchmarks and their respective coefficients. Based on the referenced benchmark of DMU2 ($\lambda \cong 0.38$), DMU5 ($\lambda \cong 0.43$), and DMU14 ($\lambda \cong 0.23$), there is evidence that Programme 1 could have graduated 100 students instead of 97. Furthermore, based on the resources used in the benchmark programmes, there is evidence that Programme 1 could reduce the number of academic support staff from 7 to 4 and the number of classrooms from 8 to 7, maintaining the level of teaching staff. Similar calculations could be undertaken to estimate the targets for the other programmes.

***Table 3.7**:* Expected inputs and outputs for Programme 1 based on teaching efficiency

	No. Academic Support staff	No. Classrooms	Number of teaching staff without PhD	No of PhD teaching staff	Number of registered students	No. of graduates
DMU 2 – Observed ($\lambda \cong 0.38$)	7	11	12	3	179	175
DMU 5 – Observed ($\lambda \cong 0.43$)	1	3	2	2	44	44
DMU 14 – Observed ($\lambda \cong 0.23$)	1	3	7	0	67	66
DMU 1 - Observed	7	8	7	2	102	97
DMU 1 - Target (rounded to the most conservative level)	4	7	7	2	102	100

3.5.3. Stage 3: Potential to improve in terms of teaching effectiveness

To evaluate the teaching effectiveness of the franchising programmes under study, we utilised the number of graduates in different degree classifications (first-class, upper-second class, lower-second class, and third-class) as the outputs. The number of graduates served as the input in our model, using a CRS assumption with an output-oriented approach. As previously discussed, this model aims to identify the programmes that are most successful in graduating students with high classifications, as this is assumed to facilitate employment and admission into postgraduate studies. The teaching effectiveness results are presented in Table 3.8.

It is worth noting that three programmes, DMUs 7, 15 and 17 achieved the maximum score of 100%. Notably, DMU 7 is consistently ranked as efficient in admission and teaching, earning recognition also for its effectiveness in delivering high-quality education and producing a significant number of students with high-degree classifications upon graduation.

Interestingly, among these, DMUs 15, and 17 did not rank as efficient units in either the admission efficiency or teaching efficiency dimensions, making their good performance in teaching effectiveness noteworthy. This suggests that their focus should be in improving the number of registered students and also the number of graduates. Conversely, DMU 12, which was previously identified as efficient in terms of admission and teaching, now falls into the group of programmes with the most potential to improve in terms of effectiveness with a score of 83.79% in teaching effectiveness. This suggests that, considering the resources available, this programme presents a good recruitment and a good graduation rate, but shows potential to improve in terms of students' classifications. Learning from its benchmark (DMU 15) can help improve the classifications in this programme. These findings emphasise the importance of assessing teaching effectiveness as a separate dimension from admission efficiency and teaching efficiency, as it helps identify the sources of the problems, making it easier to tailor improvement paths.

Table 3.8: The teaching effectiveness scores, assuming CRS

DMUs	Teaching effectiveness rate _ Stage 3	No. of graduates {I}{V}	No. of first-class graduates {O}{V}	No. of upper-second class graduates {O}{V}	No. of lower-second class graduates {O}{V}	No. of third-class graduates and Pass {O}{V}	Benchmarks
1	84.20%	1	0.11	0.38	0.42	0.09	**15** (1.47)
2	80.83%	1	0.03	0.33	0.58	0.07	**15** (2.65)
3	87.81%	1	0.15	0.39	0.43	0.03	**15** (1.33)
4	97.44%	1	0.4	0.36	0.17	0.07	**15** (0.55)
5	84.32%	1	0.1	0.42	0.37	0.11	**15** (0.67)
6	91.89%	1	0.12	0.62	0.23	0.04	**15** (2.62)
7	100.00%	1	1	0	0	0	0

8	90.81%	1	0.3	0.39	0.18	0.14	**15** (0.21)
9	88.50%	1	0.29	0.22	0.43	0.07	**15** (0.15)
10	88.11%	1	0.23	0.32	0.36	0.08	1**5** (1.77)
11	88.79%	1	0.09	0.55	0.32	0.04	**15** (0.24)
12	83.79%	1	0.03	0.45	0.47	0.05	**15** (1.76)
13	90.71%	1	0	0.79	0.18	0.03	**15** (0.30); **17** (0.02)
14	94.58%	1	0.39	0.33	0.18	0.1	**15** (1.00)
15	100.00%	1	0.64	0.33	0.04	0	14
16	81.41%	1	0.06	0.31	0.55	0.07	**15** (1.17)
17	100.00%	1	0.22	0.78	0	0	2
18	90.60%	1	0	0.68	0.32	0	**17** (0.39)
Average	90.21%	1.00	0.23	0.43	0.29	0.06	
St. Dev.	6.21%	0.00	0.26	0.20	0.18	0.04	
Min.	80.83%	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
Max.	100.00%	1.00	1.00	0.79	0.58	0.14	

Based on the benchmark coefficients provided, Table 3.9 presents the expected graduation outcomes for Programme 1. The analysis suggests that the emphasis is placed on maximising the number of high-achieving graduates while seeking to minimise the number of lower-classifications, subject to the number of registered students. These considerations are crucial in aligning the graduation outcomes with the desired objectives and targets of the programmes. As an illustrative example, DMU1 could strategically shift its graduation outcomes. Instead of the current attainment of 7, 32, 45, and 13 graduated students in the first-class, upper-second class, lower-second class, and third-class categories, respectively, the institution could aim for a more effective outcome with 32, 34, 28, and 3 students across these categories. Inspiration on how to achieve this improvement in classifications should come from its benchmark (DMU15). By assigning appropriate trade-off weight restrictions, the analysis provides insights into the expected distribution of graduates across different degree classifications, enabling decision-makers to strategically allocate resources and improve the overall quality of graduates.

Table 3.9: The expected graduation outcomes for Programme 1 based on the effectiveness analysis

	No. of class graduates {I}	No. of first-class graduates {O}	No. of upper-second class graduates {O}	No. of lower-second class graduates {O}	No. of third-class graduates and Pass {O}
DMU 15 – Observed ($\lambda \cong 1.478$)	66	22	23	19	2
DMU 1 - Observed	97	7	32	45	13
DMU 1 - Target (rounded)	97	32	34	28	3

3.6. Conclusion

In this study, we have compared the performance of several franchising programmes under the same franchising network. These programmes were evaluated using three performance dimensions (admission efficiency; teaching efficiency; teaching effectiveness). To accomplish this, we used data from 18 undergraduate business-related franchising programmes in Asia countries in 2019 of the University X franchising networks. We have applied a three-stage DEA model, incorporating in the analysis the resources used, the number of students registered, the number of students graduated and the graduation classifications. To ensure that the weight structures used in the evaluation are consistent with production trade-offs expected in the context under analysis, weight restrictions were introduced in the models. These weight restrictions were developed based on the judgement of one of the managers working with franchising programmes in the University X. This reduced the risk of producing biased or unrealistic performance scores and increased the face validity of the results.

The three-stage analysis of the 18 franchising programmes revealed significant variations in performance. Only one programme scored 100% in the three dimensions, suggesting potential to improve in all the other programmes. Admission efficiency was the dimension where most improvement potential was identified, suggesting that, with the current resources, most programmes could recruit more students.

Notably, the complex nature of programme efficiency became evident as certain units excelled in one dimension but showed room for enhancement in others, revealing trade-offs between the performance dimensions. Some programmes demonstrated exceptional performance in terms of efficiency, but demonstrated potential to improve in terms of teaching effectiveness.

Other programmes, on the contrary, revealed exceptional performance in terms of teaching effectiveness, presenting the potential to improve in terms of efficiency.

These findings underscore the multifaceted nature of programme evaluation and emphasise the importance of assessing admission efficiency, teaching efficiency, and teaching effectiveness as distinct dimensions. Rather than evaluating programmes with a single model where the several stages are opaque, we argue that it is useful to open the transformation process and evaluate the different stages separately, as this allows identifying the sources of underperformance and facilitates the development of improvement plans.

The University X can use the best practices identified in each category as case studies for cross-training and consultation within their franchising network. By addressing weaknesses and implementing observed practices from best-performing units, programmes can optimise their performance and strive for greater efficiency and/or effectiveness.

Despite being based on a case study, our research provides valuable insights as an illustrative example of performance assessment of franchising programmes, offering guidance on how to use DEA to compare programmes and to enhance overall efficiency and effectiveness in delivering quality education. The results obtained with this technique, namely, the identification of best practice targets and benchmarks can be of great value to assist performance improvement in the education context.

3.6.1. Limitation of the research

The study has limitations worth acknowledging. Firstly, the choice of inputs and outputs may affect the study's validity (Worthington, 2001). Due to data unavailability, some important factors such as financial resources, and students’ marks on entry were omitted. Qualitative measures like curriculum quality, student satisfaction, and post-graduation employability were also absent. The dataset, tracked in 2019, lacks longitudinal records to identify trends in franchising programme operations over time. Future research could improve the analysis by including additional indicators, such as the students’ marks on entry. Qualitative factors like programme reputation, curriculum quality, student satisfaction, faculty diversity, and graduate employability should also be considered. External factors like regional demographics, market competition, and regulatory frameworks should be assessed, especially in diverse national contexts. Conducting longitudinal studies tracking franchising programme performance over time would be beneficial.

Secondly, future studies could use network DEA (Färe and Grosskopf, 2000) to integrate the three-stage analysis. Furthermore, it is well known that using DEA to identify efficient units has limitations (Giménez et al., 2007). It lacks a comprehensive analysis of the causes behind inefficiencies, neglecting operational characteristics, objectives, and practices. Future research could combine quantitative analysis with in-depth case studies of selected franchising programmes. This approach could reveal factors influencing performance, such as resource reallocation, process optimisation, or faculty development. Insights could identify strategies employed by efficient franchising programmes for potential application elsewhere.

Thirdly, the evaluation is limited to 18 academic franchising programmes in Southeast Asia under a UK franchisor's network. It is expected, therefore, that environmental factors have influenced the analysis. The generalisability of findings to business-related undergraduate franchising programmes in different host nations managed by non-UK franchisors is uncertain. Expanding the research's scope to encompass more programmes and diverse delivery modes would provide a comprehensive understanding of TNE models (Clermont et al., 2015; Giménez et al., 2007).

3.7. Acknowledgement

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3.8. Declaration of interest statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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CHAPTER FOUR

STUDY 3: SELF-INITIATED EXPATRIATE'S MANAGEMENT IN HOST TRANSNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS: MOTIVATIONS, PERCEIVED CHALLENGES, AND WORK PERFORMANCE

(This paper has been submitted to The International Journal of Human Resource Management)

Abstract

In response to the growing interest in Transnational Higher Education (TNE) and the rise in international academic mobility, notably by self-initiated expatriates (SIEs), this qualitative study examines the underexplored management dynamics of SIEs, particularly in the TNE context. Grounded in the International Adjustment Framework and the Ability, Motivation, and Opportunity framework, the research entails 22 in-depth interviews with host institution managers and SIEs across 11 TNE programmes. By adopting a comprehensive approach involving both key stakeholders, the study offers insights into SIE motivations, host institution hiring rationale, and adaptation challenges. Its goal is to improve expatriate management practices, facilitate knowledge transfer, and promote diversity and inclusion in global team management within TNE. The findings reveal a gender imbalance among SIEs and that expatriation is predominantly driven by pull factors. Host institutions emphasise the desire to internationalise the training curricula as one of the main reasons for hiring SIEs, valuing qualifications and adaptability. Challenges related to visas and work permits affect both parties. While overall satisfaction with SIEs' performance exists, opportunities for improving resourcing and retention are identified.

A conceptual model is proposed, illustrating the interplay between SIEs and host institutions' motivations, challenges, and impacts on both SIEs and organisational performance.

Keywords: transnational higher education, qualitative study, expatriate academic, self-initiated expatriate, international adaptability

4.1. Introduction

Many Asian countries have actively engaged in Transnational Higher Education (TNE) partnerships with institutions from developed nations to deliver cross-border programmes to learners in the host market. Through these partnerships, host institutions aim to diversify their educational programmes to the market, build global competence within the organisation (Caligiuri, 2000), increase their institutional ranking (Singh et al., 2022), and enhance their teaching and research capabilities (Bu & Kero, 2019; Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020). Therefore, many universities have launched different remuneration packages to attract international academics who are geographically dispersed and culturally diversified, promoting the transferal of knowledge, addressing global demands, and form an international labour force (Cai & Hall, 2016; Chen & Zhu, 2020). Host governments actively support institutional internationalisation. Vietnam's Prime Minister's Decision 69/QĐ-TTg, in particular, aims to integrate foreign curricula elements and programmes, into at least 50 percent of tertiary institutions by 2025, promoting the attraction of transnational academic talent and education hub development (Luong et al., 2023).

International academic mobility has become a common pursuit among scholars aiming to advance their global career profiles (Froese, 2012). This has resulted in various forms of mobility, including 'flying lecturers', 'third-country expatriates', 'expatriates', 'international scholars', 'short-term project workers', and self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) (Chen & Zhu, 2020; Froese, 2012). SIEs, in contrast to organisational expatriates (OEs), who are sent by their organisations for short-term international assignments, proactively seek international opportunities (Kumarika Perera et al., 2016). Interestingly, in TNE institutions, expatriates often struggle to adapt to new work environments, resulting in underperformance and approximately 20 percent turnover rates (Wilkins et al., 2018). Despite these challenges, only a few studies have addressed international staff management (Hechanova et al., 2003; Bu & Kero, 2019). Sustainable expatriate management, especially within the TNE context, remains an underexplored area, with most studies focusing on multinational enterprises (Fan et al., 2022). To the best of our knowledge, there is a singular study authored by Froese in 2012, which delves into the motivations and adaptations of SIEs. While this study did not specifically concentrate on the TNE context, it serves as a cornerstone for comprehending the dynamics of SIEs within the higher education environment.

Incorporating insights from theories like the ability-motivation-opportunity (AMO) framework (Chang et al., 2012), the international adjustment framework's adaptation stages (Black et al., 1991), and the literature on work performance, this study aims to:

(i) investigate the motivations driving SIEs to seek overseas employment and host institutions' reasons for hiring them;

(ii) review host institutions' practices for SIEs adjustment;

(iii) identify challenges faced by SIEs and host institutions during adaptation;

(iv) assess how these challenges impact SIEs work performance from both perspectives;

(v) identify the evaluation criteria used by host institutions for assessing the performance of SIEs;

(vi) determine the factors, as perceived by both parties, that enhance the effective performance of SIEs in the TNE context.

By doing so, this research sheds light on a number of issues which can assist institutions improve their expatriate management practices, facilitate knowledge transfer, and promote diversity and inclusion in the sustainable development and management of global teams within the TNE context.

Contributions of the present study

This study holds significance for SIE management in the TNE context across several key dimensions. First, it underscores the unique challenges that SIEs face. Unlike traditional expatriates, SIEs often lack formal pre-departure training and initiate their international assignments independently, without predefined timelines. This diversity in drive and behaviour, along with specific adaptation challenges within the educational context, calls for a deeper investigation of the motivations and challenges experienced by SIEs (Mello et al., 2022; Meuer et al., 2019; Froese, 2012).

Second, our research addresses a critical gap in the literature by focusing on SIEs in TNE. SIEs make up a significant proportion of staff mobility in higher education institutions (HEIs), ranging from 30 to 70 percent, yet the existing literature has only superficially explored their distinct dynamics (Froese, 2012). Previous studies have primarily focused on expatriates in general education settings without explicitly examining the concepts of SIE management in the TNE context.

Thirdly, our study takes a holistic approach, considering both the viewpoints of SIEs and host institutions. This comprehensive perspective responds to the call for in-depth SIE management research, aiming to identify areas of misalignment in expectations and offer strategies for effective SIE management, as emphasised by Fan et al. (2022).

Fourth, our research investigates how perceived challenges impact SIE performance, providing valuable insights for practitioners aiming to attract and support SIEs in creating a diverse and inclusive international academic team as recommended by Sanders and de Cieri (2021).

Fifth, our study aligns with UNESCO's Objective 4, which emphasises the importance of improving the recruitment, support, and professional development of expatriate professors and staff to enhance the quality of education (Wulf, 2016).

Finally, our research relates to Sustainable Development Goal 17, highlighting the significance of partnerships in achieving sustainability objectives. It emphasises that collaboration between local governments, host institutions, and expatriates is important to support working permit applications as well as to promote international networking and knowledge exchange within the academic community.

The remainder of the paper is organised as follows: The next section reviews prior research in TNE development, international mobility motivations, global team formation, adaptation challenges, and performance effects. Then, the following section details the research methodology, presents the case study findings, discusses their implications, and proposes a conceptual model to explain SIEs' motivations and adaptation in the context of TNE. Finally, the conclusion addresses the limitations of the study and suggests future research directions.

4.2. Literature review

4.2.1. TNE and the demand for a global team

TNE, also known as international programme and provider mobility, involves HEIs delivering their programmes and credentials to students in other countries through different types of partnership, like franchising, collaborative programmes, joint universities, international branch campuses, self-learning distance, and distance education modes (Knight & Liu, 2019). TNE has witnessed significant growth over the years, allowing HEIs worldwide to offer their educational programmes to international markets and providing students from different countries access to diverse teaching and learning approaches (Bordogna, 2020). The increasing demand among local students for international degrees, especially when access to public universities is limited, along with the motivation of institutions in both home and host countries to offer these programmes, has led to a rise in TNE enrolment (Dowling-Hetherington, 2020).

Collaborative partnerships between home institutions (curriculum designers) and host institutions (educational delivery) yield benefits in terms of financial growth, market expansion, skills development for students and teachers, and chances for cultural intelligence development (Rowley & Skipper, 2020). However, although some TNE programmes are reported to generate positive outcomes, challenges also exist that hinder the sustainable operation and development of TNE, resulting in host institutions struggling to meet financial objectives, maintain academic quality, and foster knowledge transfer (Tran et al., 2022). These problems stem from low foreign language proficiency among local staff, labour shortages, curriculum mismatches, and poor communication (Tran et al., 2022).

To address these problems, fly-in faculty members are often sent by home institutions to the host countries for short time periods yearly to facilitate the transition of curriculum and teaching practices (Neri & Wilkins, 2019). However, the high costs associated with fly-in faculty have led host institutions to explore SIEs as an alternative (Froese, 2012). Unlike OEs, SIEs actively seek international career opportunities (Froese, 2012). SIEs possess international backgrounds, English proficiency, and experience with home institutions, enabling them to transfer teaching materials and deliver curricula locally (Singh et al., 2022). With the rising need for host institutions to offer international services to both local and international learners, it is essential that TNE host institutions develop a culturally diverse international team that can manage transnational operations effectively (Mello et al., 2022). Many empirical studies emphasise the significant role of SIEs in transferring knowledge, skills, and abilities to the host companies (Meuer et al., 2019).

4.2.2. Expatriate academics

Academic work encompasses teaching, research, and related activities such as syllabus development and curriculum revision, which can vary among institutions (Neri & Wilkins, 2019).

Academic SIEs are individuals who leave their home countries for long-term academic roles (Neri & Wilkins, 2019). Those in administrative or support roles, attending conferences, conducting fieldwork, or seeking citizenship are not considered academic SIEs due to differing motivations (Neri & Wilkins, 2019). Academic expatriates fall into three categories: those recruited from their home countries, international recruits, and locally recruited staff (Neri & Wilkins, 2019). TNE institutions often prefer locally available SIEs who can teach English to local students or possess specialised knowledge for part-time teaching for potentially low operational costs (Neri & Wilkins, 2019).

In recent years, universities have shifted to more flexible employment arrangements to match enrolment levels, moving from tenure track appointments to one-to-three-year fixed-term contracts (ILO, 2018). These arrangements may include visiting professors and part-time teaching staff with hourly contracts, as well as separate contracts for various duties (ILO, 2018). Academic expatriates are often recruited on fixed-term (one academic year) or part-time contracts (semester or hourly basis) (Schartner et al., 2022).

4.2.3. Motivations for international mobility of SIEs

Research on the motivations of expatriates reveals two categories: push and pull factors (Huang, 2018). Push factors are circumstances in an individual's home country that compel them to seek opportunities abroad, often stemming from negative conditions such as economic challenges, political instability, or limited career prospects (Huang, 2018). In contrast, pull factors represent the positive attributes of a foreign destination that attract individuals to work overseas, including better job opportunities, higher wages, safety, and an improved standard of living culture (Froese, 2012). From a career development perspective, expatriates are pulled to international roles due to task challenges, increased autonomy, and a sense of task significance (Mello et al., 2022). In the context of HEIs, Froese (2012) found that SIEs are influenced by both push and pull factors, with international experience and better job conditions being dominant pull factors, while limited career prospects and high living costs in the home market act as relevant push factors.

Prior research, particularly that of Neri and Wilkins (2019), has primarily addressed issues related to managing expatriate academics at international branch campuses (IBC), with limited focus on SIEs despite SIEs being the primary source of expatriates in TNE. Our study aims to fill this gap by exploring the motivations of SIEs for international relocation and the motivations of host institutions for foreign staff recruitment in the context of TNE. The resourcing and management practices of SIEs from the perspectives of both stakeholders and the impacts of these practices on SIEs' work performance will be explored.

4.2.4. The global team development: A shared journey of challenges for SIEs and host institutions

In global staffing development, host institutions and SIEs encounter a common set of challenges which profoundly influence the effectiveness and sustainability of international placements. Host institutions bear tangible and intangible costs when inadequately managing SIEs, as recruiting SIEs can be two and a half times costlier than hiring local staff. Additionally, losing SIEs to local competitors who know how to use the international labour force worsens the situation (Hechanova et al., 2003). Regrettably, the sustainability of expatriate competence enhancement practices in TNE is challenged by deficiencies. These include a lack of cultural training and support (Meuer et al., 2019), difficulties in establishing comprehensive systems for resourcing, induction, training, and development to aid SIEs in their adaptation (Hechanova et al., 2003), and issues related to role clarity (Singh et al., 2022). Indeed, socialisation processes organised by host institutions play a vital role in fostering bonds among SIEs and local teams, enhancing well-being, and developing favourable orientations toward the organisation (Singh et al., 2022). Without organisational support, SIEs can feel lonely and isolated. Furthermore, achieving role clarity is essential for SIEs' successful integration. Understanding tasks, responsibilities, and performance expectations empowers them to voice opinions and engage confidently in their roles (Singh et al., 2022). Conversely, role ambiguity leads to confusion, making it challenging to prioritise and allocate resources, negatively impacting work adjustment, job satisfaction, and intention to withdraw (Singh et al., 2022).

The expatriates, in turn, encounter challenges stemming from cross-cultural differences in work approaches (Bu & Kero, 2019), knowledge transfer difficulties (Chen & Zhu, 2020), changing job roles, and language barriers (Hechanova et al., 2003). SIEs, who arrange their international assignments independently, have to deal with many challenges ranging from settling in a new country, choosing a new workplace, getting familiar with a new social and work context, and fulfilling host institutions' expectations for their roles (Singh et al., 2022). Viewing these challenges through Bourdieu's lens reveals two main issues: explicit disjuncture and implicit disjuncture (Chen & Zhu, 2020). Explicit disjuncture includes difficulties in daily communication, cultural differences, and limited access to support, leading to loneliness and isolation (Chen & Zhu, 2020; Haldorai et al., 2021). The time-consuming language learning process hinders communication and policy updates. Implicit disjuncture involves grappling with an organisation's underlying logic, making it challenging to navigate interpersonal relationships and office politics (Chen & Zhu, 2020). The expectation of a welcoming environment may clash with complex institutional cultures, hindering adaptation and development (Chen & Zhu, 2020). This lack of readiness and adaptability can lead to passive collaboration with local members and poor performance (Hechanova et al., 2003). Struggling to adjust may lead to stress, depriving individuals of the energy needed to adequately perform their tasks which eventually hampers job performance (Kumar et al., 2008), leading to job disengagement, higher turnover rate, and early contract termination intentions (Kumarika Perera et al., 2016).

Consequently, effective international resourcing and SIE management practices are crucial for the operation of TNE (Caligiuri, 2000). When SIEs encounter less uncertainty about their roles and the organisation's objectives, they tend to adapt better to new social and work environments, investing more effort in assisting colleagues and demonstrating stronger commitment to organisational goals (Singh et al., 2022). Understanding the challenges faced by SIEs is essential for employers to implement effective expatriate competence enhancement practices that align with local culture and work norms (Fan et al., 2022; Lamers & Admiraal, 2018). This mutual understanding establishes the groundwork for a sustainable international resourcing plan, aiding host institutions in fulfilling their internationalisation strategies.

4.2.5. International adjustment framework

The theory of international adjustment, as proposed by Black et al. (1991), encompasses two crucial stages in the process of expatriates' adaptation to a new international environment: anticipatory adjustment and in-country adjustment. Anticipatory adjustment involves proactive efforts made by expatriates prior to their relocation to mitigate uncertainties, particularly regarding the behaviours and norms expected in the new setting (Black et al., 1991). Once in the host country, in-country adjustment becomes important requiring expatriates to deal with a multifaceted spectrum of adjustments, including general adaptation to the living conditions, acclimatising to work-related roles and expectations, and establishing effective interactions within the local community (Black et al., 1991). Successful adjustment through both stages is instrumental in ensuring that expatriates can effectively navigate their new environment and contribute positively to their roles and to the organisations they serve (Hechanova et al., 2003).

Anticipatory adjustment

Early studies on cross-cultural adjustment emphasised the importance of anticipatory adjustment before individuals choose international work assignments and their subsequent in-country adaptation (Black et al., 1991; Kumar et al., 2008). According to Black et al. (1991), the more accurately individuals form expectations about international transitions and roles, the fewer negative surprises and culture shocks they experience. Accurate expectations enable individuals to develop better interaction and working attitudes to adjust effectively to a new environment. These expectations are often built on prior international experience and training gained from related assignments. Familiarity with the country, industry, or similar international roles also tend to reduce uncertainty (Black et al., 1991; Kumar et al., 2008).

In-country adjustment

Expatriates typically undergo three types of adjustment when relocating abroad: general adjustment (adapting to living conditions), interaction adjustment (establishing local connections), and work adjustment (adapting to workplace norms) (Kumar et al., 2008). Poor adjustment can lead to job dissatisfaction, early returns, psychological withdrawal, and subpar performance (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005).

The international adjustment framework by Black et al. (1991) identifies five in-country adjustment factors affecting expatriates' attitudes and readiness at host institutions. These encompass individual factors (personal skills and adaptability), job factors (role clarity, novelty, discretion, and conflict), organisational culture factors (cultural differences, social and logistic support), organisational socialisation (tactics, communication), and non-work factors (cultural novelty and family adaptation) (Black et al., 1991). To excel in the context of TNE, academic staff need intercultural skills to accommodate diverse learning styles among non-native English-speaking students (Lamers & Admiraal, 2018). Successful adjustment hinges on individuals' willingness and proactivity to embrace new cultures, socialise, and understand workplace dynamics (Black et al., 1991). Unaddressed, these factors can hinder SIE performance, impacting the host institutions negatively.

4.2.6. Expatriate enhancing practices – AMO framework

According to the study conducted by Fan et al. (2022), host institutions can significantly enhance the adaptation and performance of expatriates through expatriate competence-enhancing practices. This approach comprises three key dimensions: ability, motivation, and opportunity-enhancing practices (AMO). Ability-enhancing practices start with a well-planned recruitment and selection process, ensuring that individuals possess the necessary skills and knowledge for international roles. Additionally, ongoing training and development programmes play a crucial role in sharpening existing competencies and preparing expatriates for the challenges of the transnational context (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). Motivation-enhancing practices are equally vital, encompassing intrinsic and extrinsic motivators (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). Intrinsic rewards include creating a supportive learning environment, fostering job satisfaction, instilling a willingness to excel, nurturing a corporate identity, and promoting collaboration within the team (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). Complementary to this, extrinsic rewards like financial incentives, recognition, job security, and work-life balance initiatives further motivate and engage expatriates (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). Lastly, opportunity-enhancing practices revolve around providing expatriates with the necessary tools, inclusive working conditions, supportive leadership, clear processes, and sufficient time to perform their roles effectively (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). These practices remove barriers and facilitate expatriates’ productivity and adaptation.

4.2.7. Organisational performance

The discussion above clearly shows that effective expatriate resourcing and management practices are crucial for the sustainable operation of TNE programmes (Caligiuri, 2000) as companies with systems to identify, develop, and transfer employee competencies tend to gain a competitive edge (Fan et al., 2022). Proper expatriate competence management is, therefore, vital as task performance relies on employees' abilities, motivation, and knowledge transfer opportunities (Chang et al., 2012). Recruited expatriates should contribute with their knowledge, skills, and abilities to the host company, ultimately enhancing its performance (Chang et al., 2012).

The AMO model, as discussed by Appelbaum et al. (2000), focuses on enhancing both plant performance and employees' discretionary behaviour. Discretionary behaviour involves employees voluntarily going beyond their basic job requirements to support the achievement of the organisation's goals (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). According to this model, employees' discretionary efforts positively impact various aspects of organisational performance, including financial outcomes in terms of market share, profit, and customer satisfaction, operational outcomes which are reflected in job performance, productivity, service quality, and human resource outcomes, resulting in stronger employee commitment and higher retention (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016).

While the effects of AMO-enhancing practices have been studied in various industries like steel, apparel, and medical electronics, their impact on SIEs' performance in the context of TNE remains unexplored. Additionally, different industries employ diverse measurement criteria to assess the performance of SIEs, making it fundamental to identify the most relevant in the context of TNE. Thus, this study also aims to identify the specific criteria employed by host institutions to enhance the performance of SIEs.

4.3. Research methods

Cross-cultural adaptation and work adjustment of expatriates in the context of TNE has received limited attention, especially regarding qualitative research methods. An exception is Froese's (2012) qualitative study, which provides insights into the motivations of SIEs in the higher education sector. Given the scarcity of research on SIE management in the TNE context, it is important to use qualitative research for comprehending the motivations and challenges encountered by SIEs and host institutions. Qualitative research delves into the complexity of why and how phenomena occur (Ritchie et al., 2013). In this study, a suitable method for exploring those motivations and challenges is the framework analysis (Srivastava & Thomson, 2009). This structured approach suits applied research (Srivastava & Thomson, 2009) and provides a systematic framework for analysing qualitative data, allowing rigorous exploration of complex phenomena. The framework analysis approach facilitates the systematic examination of predefined theoretical frameworks guiding research questions. In our research, aimed at comprehending the motivations and challenges perceived by SIEs and host institutional managers, the framework analysis method aligns with our use of predefined theoretical frameworks, which guide our research and interview questions. In turn, the comprehensive literature review on TNE development, SIEs, expatriate adjustment, and expatriate management informed our interview focus.

Moreover, the structured and adaptable nature of the framework analysis is valuable for conducting comparative analyses across diverse stakeholders and cases (Srivastava & Thomson, 2009). By contrasting the perspectives of SIEs and host institutional managers across 11 diverse host institutions involved in three different TNE modes of delivery, the framework analysis method also allows for systematic exploration of the similarities and contrasting aspects that emerge from these voices.

Two sets of interview scripts were developed, including one for the host institution managers who are managing the TNE programmes in the host countries and have had experience managing SIEs (Appendix 1 in Supplementary Material) and one for the SIEs that have been working in the TNE network in the host countries for more than a year so that their performance has been registered and evaluated (Appendix 2 in Supplementary Material). Semi-structured interviews were chosen as the primary data collection method due to their flexibility in question selection and the ability to delve deeper into responses when necessary.

In particular, one-on-one interviews were conducted either face-to-face or through remote methods, utilising platforms such as Google Meet or Zoom. Conducted in English, these interviews typically lasted between 60 to 90 minutes, ensuring participants had extensive opportunity to share their insights and experiences. With participants' consent, the responses were recorded to facilitate accurate data documentation and analysis, preserving the study's integrity and reliability. To ensure privacy and confidentiality, participant and organisational identities were anonymised.

Following the interviews, audio recordings were transcribed into written documents using Notta.ai's transcription service (Notta, n.d.). As recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006), to ensure data accuracy, transcripts were cross-checked against the original audio recordings before being imported into the data analysis software.

The process of analysing the transcripts was conducted using NVivo 14 software. The analysis employed a thematic approach, following the guidelines outlined by Braun and Clarke in 2006. This involved six key phases: first, researchers familiarised themselves with each transcript; second, initial codes were generated to identify recurring patterns and concepts in the data; third, these initial codes were used to identify broader themes that encapsulated the perceptions of the participants; fourth, a comprehensive review of the identified themes was conducted; fifth, the themes were clearly defined and given appropriate names; finally, a report summarising the nature and significance of each theme and sub-theme was produced. Subsequently, the data was analysed under the close revision of original transcripts, research questions, and literature. This process aimed to highlight the similarities and differences in participants' perspectives and experiences (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

4.3.1. The context: the transnational higher education in Vietnam

Malaysia, Vietnam, and Singapore are among the top 10 host countries for TNE programmes (Tran et al., 2022). The development of TNE programmes in Vietnam has been a strategic response to internationalisation efforts initiated in the mid-2000s, notably through the Higher Education Reform Agenda (Luong et al., 2023). These initiatives aim to reform the education system, update the curriculum, improve human resources in terms of faculty development and graduates' competences by attracting foreign students, recruiting international scholars, and supporting cross-campus research collaborations (Nguyen et al., 2016). The evolution of internationalisation in Vietnam encompasses the adoption of English as a medium of instruction, the incorporation of foreign curricula, and the establishment of international partnerships (Nguyen et al., 2016). Decision 69/QĐ-TTg further emphasises the importance of internationalisation in tertiary institutions by 2025 (Luong et al., 2023). As a result, in 2021, there were 408 international programmes catering to over ten thousand students annually, including advanced programmes derived from top-ranked foreign universities and articulated programmes offered in collaboration with international institutions (Luong et al., 2023).

However, TNE in Vietnam faces specific challenges which make it a very interesting case to study. Unlike some Asian nations that excel as education hubs for internationalised higher education services, Vietnam encounters challenges in this area which hinder its internationalisation strategy (Nguyen et al., 2016). A significant challenge is the perceived lack of management expertise among TNE administrators in Vietnam, particularly concerning academic workforce development. Consequently, addressing these challenges and enhancing the capabilities of administrators in developing a transnational labour force is crucial for the growth of TNE in Vietnam (Nguyen et al., 2016) but also in other nations where similar problems are prevalent.

4.3.2. Sample

To collect the data for this research, from September to November 2023, respondents in Vietnam were approached using purposive and snowball sampling techniques. Initial contact with potential participants was established via email, and upon their agreement, interviews were scheduled at their convenience. In total, 22 participants were interviewed, comprising 11 host institution managers and 11 SIEs. These participants were drawn from 11 TNE institutions, representing three primary modes of TNE delivery, including franchising programmes, IBC, and collaborative programmes, which are considered the three most popular offline TNE modes of delivery (Knight & Liu, 2019).

The majority of SIEs interviewed are male (81.8%), consistent with Froese's (2012) findings on male expatriate activity. Nationalities in the sample include two Filipinos and New Zealanders (18.2% each), with the remaining nationalities representing Americans, Pakistanis, Mexicans, Swedes, Malaysians, Koreans, and Australians (9% each). Notably, 45.5% are Asian expatriates, reflecting the increasing presence of non-Western academics in the international labour force. Most SIEs in the sample (63.6%) are aged 40 to 60. Many SIEs work as visiting lecturers rather than fixed-term contract staff. In terms of their experience in the host country, 27% possess less than 3 years, while the majority have substantial experience, indicating long-term commitments (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1. *Demographics of participating SIEs*

Gender	*Age*	*Nationality*	*TNE programme mode*	*Position*	*Years of experience*
9 males *2 females*	*3 people: 31s -40s* *7 people: 41s-60s* *1 person: > 60s*	*2 Filipinos* *2 New Zealander* *1 American* *1 Pakistan* *1 Mexican* *1 Swedish* *1 Malaysian* *1 Korean* *1 Australian*	*5 franchising programmes* *5 collaborative programmes* *1 IBC*	*7 Part-time lecturers* *4 fixed-term contract staff lecturers*	*3 people: 1-3 years* *3 people: 4-6 years* *5 people: >6 years*

Among host institutional managers, 72% are male managers aged 30-40. In terms of experience, 18% have less than 3 years, 45.5% have 4-6 years, and the rest have over 6 years. The study includes managers from franchising, collaborative programmes, and one IBC. In managing SIEs, 36.4% oversee 2-5 fixed-term contract SIEs, while most institutions prefer more than 5 visiting SIEs per semester, aligning with the higher proportion of part-time SIEs. Participants report that the majority of their SIEs are aged 31-40, constituting 72% (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. *Demographics of participating host institutional managers*

Gender	***Age***	***TNE programme mode***	***No. of SIEs***	***Average age of the SIEs***	***Years of managerial experience***
8 males *3 females*	*8 people: 31s -40s* *3 people: 41s-50s*	*5 franchising* *5 collaboratives* *1 IBC*	*4 institutes: 2-5 fixed term contract SIEs* *7 institutes: > 5 part-time SIEs*	*8 institutes: 31s-40s SIEs* *3 institutes: 41s-50s SIEs*	*2 people: 1-3 years* *5 people: 4-6 years* *4 people: >6 years*

The following section presents the findings derived from the analysis of the data collected.

4.4. Results

4.4.1. Motivations

SIEs

Although SIEs in Vietnam are motivated by a combination of pull and push factors, pull motivations play a significant role in their decision to undertake international assignments. These pull factors are primarily driven by the appeal of Vietnam as a host country, a preference for international work environments, a desire to make a meaningful educational impact, competitive compensation, including accommodation and flight benefits, the opportunity to work at institutions with high rankings and the desire to reunite with family. On the other hand, push motivators are the perceived limited career prospects in their home countries.

As depicted in Table 4.3, SIEs embark on overseas work due, predominantly, to pull factors. Notably, only one individual, a male with a fixed-term contract in the 40-60 age group, mentioned transitioning to teaching abroad due to limited career prospects, job insecurity, and intense competition in his home country. SIEs are motivated to work overseas by a range of pull factors, with international exposure being the most prominent (8 SIEs). This is closely followed by national attraction (5 SIEs), encompassing favourable climates, rich cultures, scenic landscapes, and local charm. Additionally, family reunion, financial benefits, job significance, and institutional ranking also contributed to their decision. Considering the impact of TNE programme delivery modes, participants in franchising programmes seem to prioritise international exposure, closely followed by national attraction and job significance. Participants in collaborative modes seem to be driven also by international exposure but also by the opportunity to reunite with family members residing in host countries. Finally, those in IBC seem to be motivated by financial incentives and the prestige associated with high institutional rankings in addition to international exposure and the natural attractions of the host countries.

As cited by one SIE working at an IBC:

"Working in a prestigious international university provides flexibility to transition to other esteemed institutions. The presence of international branch campuses in multiple countries further facilitates mobility, allowing me to relocate when opportunities arise."

Table 4.3. *Pull and push motives of SIEs to work overseas comparison*

	Pull factors						***Push factors***
	Family reunion	*Financial benefits & incentives*	*High institutional ranking*	*International exposure desire*	*Job significance*	*National attraction*	*Limited job opportunities & high living costs*
Age							
31-40	*1*	*1*	*1*	*2*	*1*	*1*	*0*
41-60	*2*	*2*	*0*	*5*	*2*	*3*	*1*
60+	*0*	*0*	*0*	*1*	*0*	*1*	*0*
Gender							
Male	*2*	*3*	*1*	*6*	*2*	*3*	*1*
Female	*1*	*0*	*0*	*2*	*1*	*2*	*0*
Nationality							
Western	*3*	*2*	*0*	*5*	*2*	*4*	*1*
Non-Western	*0*	*1*	*1*	*3*	*1*	*1*	*0*
TNE mode of delivery							
Franchising	*0*	*1*	*0*	*4*	*3*	*3*	*1*
IBC	*0*	*1*	*1*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*

Collaborative	*3*	*1*	*0*	*4*	*0*	*2*	*0*
Employment contract							
Fixed-term contract	*0*	*2*	*1*	*3*	*2*	*2*	*1*
Part-time	*3*	*1*	*0*	*5*	*1*	*3*	*0*

Host institutions

Host institutions have diverse motivations for hiring SIEs, ranging from internationalising the training curriculum, advertising purposes or enhancing institutional appeal to students and parents, boosting students' language skills and global perspectives, enhancing institutional rankings, strengthening local research and teaching capabilities, reducing operational costs, and developing a transnational team. Among these motivations, the development of an international training curriculum when hiring SIEs appears to be the dominant reason, cited by 9 out of 11 institutions.

Aside from developing the international training curriculum, TNE programmes with less than 3 years of operation primarily hire SIEs to enhance language skills and provide global perspectives to students. In contrast, programmes operating for 4 to 6 years view SIEs as valuable resources for advertising, reputation enhancement, and building research and teaching capacity for the local team, in addition to improving students' language skills and global mindset. Regarding delivery modes, franchising seems to prioritise the internationalisation of the curriculum, while collaborative programmes seem to be driven primarily by the desire to increase the institutional ranking. These two factors, are also indicated by IBC programmes. Interestingly, however, collaborative programmes are the only ones that specifically emphasise developing a global workforce and cost-effective alternatives to expatriate recruitment (Table 4.4). As cited by one manager from a 28 years operation collaborative programme:

> *"The primary motivation is cost-saving, given that significant expenses are attributed to flight tickets and accommodation. Historically, flight tickets constituted 25% of total hiring costs, and now they have risen to approximately 30 or 35%. Amidst intense market competition, our focus is on cost reduction while ensuring a pool of available teachers in Vietnam. Hence, we actively seek expatriates already residing in the country."*

Table 4.4. *Host institutions' SIEs hiring motivations comparison*

Group of respondents	*Advertisement purposes*	*Develop global workforce*	*Increase institutional ranking*	*Internationalise training curriculum*	*Lower operational cost*	*Research & teaching capacity building*	*Students' language skills & global mindset*
Years of operation							
1-3 years	*1*	*0*	*1*	*2*	*0*	*0*	*2*
4-6 years	*4*	*0*	*5*	*3*	*1*	*4*	*4*
6 years	*1*	*1*	*0*	*4*	*1*	*0*	*1*
TNE modes of delivery							
Franchising	*3*	*0*	*1*	*5*	*0*	*0*	*3*
IBC	*1*	*0*	*1*	*1*	*0*	*1*	*1*
Collaborative	*2*	*1*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*3*	*3*

The selection process for recruiting SIEs varies but typically includes resume screening, interviews with human resource representatives or academic managers, document checks for academic qualifications and visa/work permits. Four out of eleven institutions use a three-stage process: CV screening, interviews, and document checks. Most institutions employ a fourth-stage that includes a demo teaching session where candidates showcase their ability to deliver lessons, offering insights into teaching style, subject mastery, and methods. This phase may involve student and department head assessment to evaluate the candidate's suitability. A manager of a 28-year operation TNE programme stressed the significance of assessing a candidate's suitability through a demo teaching session.

> *"Demo teaching serves as a crucial step in our SIE hiring process, allowing students, the key participants, to provide feedback on the academic expatriate's suitability for our programme. Beyond assessing qualifications, our programme values student input on the actual teaching delivery, ensuring a comprehensive evaluation of candidates."*

The selection criteria for SIEs encompass cultural awareness, long-term commitment plans, passion for teaching, academic qualifications, industry expertise, research credentials, and teaching experience. Most host institutions prioritise industry experience and networks to provide practical insights, cited by 10 out of the 11 host institutions. Another vital criterion is the academic degree, with a preference for candidates holding a doctorate (PhD) degree, although master's degree holders are also considered, cited by 8 institutions. Personalities, passion for teaching, and relevant teaching experience are also vital criteria (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5. *SIEs' selection criteria*

Group of respondents	Cultural awareness & adaptation	Language proficiency	Long-term commitment plan	Personalities, passion for teaching	Professional academic degrees	Professional expertise, experience, & network	Researching & publication qualification	Teaching experience	The alignment teaching schedule	The valid visa & work permit
TNE modes of delivery										
Franchising	1	1	2	3	5	5	0	3	0	1
IBC	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
Collaborative	2	1	2	4	2	4	3	4	0	0
Types of SIEs' employment contract										
Fixed-term contract	1	1	1	2	4	4	2	2	1	1
Part-time	2	1	3	5	4	6	2	5	0	1

As reflected in Table 4.5, while certain selection criteria like academic qualifications and professional expertise are consistently important across all TNE modes of delivery, there are differences in emphasis, reflecting the unique priorities and goals of each type of TNE. Franchising programmes prioritise academic qualifications, teaching passion, and professional expertise and network of SIEs. In contrast, IBC and collaborative programmes place significant value on research qualifications aside from teaching and industry experience. As continuously emphasised by one host institution manager of a collaborative programme:

> *"SIEs must demonstrate a strong academic profile with a minimum of five publications in reputable Scopus or ISI journals. They are expected to actively engage in training and collaboration with our staff to produce high-quality research papers, aiming for publication in well-regarded journals."*

Host institutions use various recruitment channels for SIEs, including employee referrals, HR departments, international conferences, online sources, and home institution recommendations. The most effective method is word of mouth and recommendations from local staff with international experience. Personal and professional networks, as well as referrals from professors and programme teachers, also play a vital role in recruitment, facilitating swift adaptation, minimising mismatches, and reducing recruitment costs. Online sources like the institution's website and forums are also utilised. In one collaborative programme that prioritises research-qualified SIEs, candidates are identified through an international conference participation list hosted by that institution.

4.4.2. Adjustment practices

SIEs – general, work, and interactive adjustment practices

As illustrated in Table 4.6, SIEs employ diverse strategies for work adjustment, including staying updated in their industries, balancing local and global teaching approaches, seeking support from peers and managers, and adapting to student learning differences. Seek support from colleagues and managers to grasp local regulations and integrate industry insights is employed by most of SIEs (cited by 7 SIEs). Notably, middle-aged SIEs (41-60 years old) adjust to the work setting by tailoring their teaching through self-study and group discussions to address both local and global teaching needs of local students (5 SIEs). In terms of nationalities and employment contracts, Western SIEs and visiting lecturers prioritise balancing local and global teaching approaches as well as seeking support from host institutional members, while non-Western SIEs and fixed-term contract lecturers focus on industry updates as well as support from colleagues and managers.

For general adjustment, all SIEs tend to integrate into the local community, emphasising the importance of researching local work culture and corporate norms, learning the language, and gaining on-ground experience through building connections with locals, attending events, and exploring various regions contribute to successful adaptation (9 SIEs). Five SIEs in the middle age group emphasised the importance of cultivating a cultural adaptation mindset, stressing attributes such as patience, humility, and openness to learning. This involves acknowledging the normality of culture shock, embracing it as part of the adventure, avoiding anger or lashing out, respecting cultural differences, and seeking clarification when in doubt. One SIE mentioned avoiding expatriate communities due to negative perceptions of locals.

> *"I stay away from expatriates. Many expats tend to speak negatively about local people. I'm part of a few expat Facebook groups, and it frustrates me how they often condescend to the locals. It would be better if they embraced the local culture and understood the context instead of imposing their views. Life becomes much more enjoyable when you let go of the homegrown mentality and accept the cultural differences."*

Another avoids expatriates due to their temporary stay in Vietnam.

"I don't like to get too involved with expats due to the transient nature of their presence. Building a relationship only to see them leave after a short period can be disheartening

Being more specific about the reason behind the decision to avoid close connections with fellow expatriates from the same country, one SIE who has been in Vietnam for more than 11 years disclosed:

"I appreciate being in Vietnam for the sense of anonymity it provides. Here, I can pursue my interests freely. However, connecting with fellow Filipinos means that everything I do becomes a topic back home. Details like my earnings become public, and I find that aspect uncomfortable."

Regarding interactive adjustment, eight SIEs invest time in establishing meaningful relationships, participating in social activities, and building rapport with colleagues and locals. Besides, three SIEs prioritise small family and friend circles, trusting that needed connections will emerge naturally. Notably, authenticity and sincerity are claimed to be essential for meaningful professional connections.

Table 4.6. *The work, general, and interactive adjustment practices of SIEs*

Group of respondents	***Work adjustment***			***General adjustment***			***Interactive adjustment***		
	Update & apply new knowledge to the job	*Address both local and global teaching needs*	*Seek support from colleagues & managers*	*Develop cultural adaptation mindset*	*Integrate in expat community*	*Integrate in local community*	*Being authentic, being sincere*	*Invest time & effort to establish meaningful relationships*	*Through family connection*
Age									
31-40	*2*	*0*	*3*	*0*	*1*	*2*	*0*	*3*	*1*
41-60	*2*	*5*	*3*	*5*	*1*	*6*	*2*	*5*	*2*
60+	*0*	*0*	*1*	*0*	*0*	*1*	*0*	*0*	*0*
Nationality									
Non-Western SIEs	*2*	*1*	*3*	*1*	*1*	*2*	*1*	*3*	*0*
Western SIEs	*2*	*4*	*4*	*4*	*1*	*7*	*1*	*5*	*3*
TNE Mode of delivery									

Franchising	*2*	*2*	*2*	*3*	*1*	*5*	*1*	*3*	*1*
IBC	*1*	*0*	*1*	*0*	*1*	*0*	*0*	*1*	*0*
Collaborative	*1*	*3*	*4*	*2*	*0*	*4*	*1*	*4*	*2*
Working position									
Fixed-term contract	*3*	*0*	*2*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*1*	*3*	*1*
Part-time	*1*	*5*	*5*	*4*	*0*	*6*	*1*	*5*	*2*

Host institutions – AMO enhancing practices

Abilities enhancement practices

Institutions employ diverse strategies to enhance SIEs' skills, incorporating academic support services and teaching assistants (5 institutions), feedback mechanisms from students, managers, and colleagues (6 institutions), as well as orientation and development programmes. The majority of respondents highlight the significance of SIEs' orientation, training, and development, encompassing compliance and orientation programmes for introducing corporate culture, cultural and student communication training to bridge gaps, faculty networking for collaboration, continuous professional development, and research collaboration. Table 4.7 indicates that teaching assistants were not utilised by the IBC programme, with only collaborative programmes emphasising research collaboration hubs for academic exchange and engagement between visiting SIEs and local academics. Regarding skills enhancement practices for different employment contracts, institutions with fixed-term SIEs prioritise training and development, while those with part-time staff focus on academic support, teaching assistants, and regular feedback.

Table 4.7. *The applied abilities enhancement practices*

	Academic support service & teaching assistant	***Chances for receiving feedback***	***Orientation, training, & development***				
			Compliance & orientation programme	*Cultural & student communication training*	*Faculty networking & knowledge sharing*	*Ongoing professional development*	*Research collaboration hub*
TNE Mode							
Franchising	*2*	*2*	*3*	*2*	*2*	*1*	*0*

IBC	*0*	*1*	*1*	*1*	*0*	*1*	*0*
Collaborative	*3*	*3*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*1*
Types of SIEs' employment contract							
Fixed-term contract	*2*	*2*	*4*	*3*	*3*	*2*	*0*
Part-time	*3*	*4*	*2*	*2*	*1*	*2*	*1*

Motivation enhancement practices

Host institutions employ a variety of strategies to enhance SIEs' motivation, including careful student selection (2 respondents), the provision of administrative support (5 respondents), professional development for a smooth transition (7 institutions), staff empowerment (4 institutions), and competitive salaries with regular reviews (5 respondents) (Table 4.8). Emphasised by most TNE programmes, professional learning and development practices are a key motivator for SIEs and include networking opportunities, professional development funds, as well as research and publication support. One successful collaborative programme motivates SIEs who value connections over salary through networking arrangements with alumni and the industrial community. The programme coordinator states:

> *"The majority of our SIEs are professionals seeking valuable networks and potential clients. With this in mind, we regularly organise gatherings and sponsor dinners every month, bringing together SIEs, students, and alumni."*

Franchising programmes empower SIEs to voice suggestions and seek higher positions, while collaborative programmes, primarily for visiting SIEs focused on teaching and research, offer accommodation and travel support, flexible work arrangements allowing up to 6 months in their home countries, a pathway for SIEs to obtain longer fixed-term employment contracts, and salary increases. IBC programmes concentrate on personal learning and development opportunities and salary increases to motivate their SIEs.

Table 4.8. *The applied motivation enhancement practices*

	A well-selected pool of students	***Administrative support***				***Empowering SIEs***	***Personal learning & professional development***			***Competitive salary with regular review***
		Accommodation & travel support	***Flexible work arrangement***	***Pathway to full-time teaching roles***	***Work permit & documentation support***		***Networking opportunities***	***Professional development supports***	***Research & publication support***	
TNE Mode										
Franchising	*2*	*0*	*1*	*0*	*2*	*3*	*2*	*1*	*0*	*1*
IBC	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*1*	*1*	*1*	*1*
Collaborative	*0*	*2*	*2*	*1*	*2*	*1*	*2*	*1*	*1*	*3*
Types of SIEs' employment contract										
Fixed-term contract	*0*	*1*	*2*	*0*	*1*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*1*	*2*
Part-time	*2*	*1*	*1*	*1*	*3*	*2*	*3*	*1*	*1*	*3*

Condition enhancement practices

When asked about the SIEs' management and retention procedures, one franchising institution's manager admitted to lacking clear guidelines for creating favourable conditions for part-time SIEs. They noted that the institution had developed general working conditions primarily for local lecturers. In contrast, the other host institutions have well-established procedures and policies in five key areas: hiring (10 institutions), class operation and quality assurance (9 institutions), department, school, and programme meetings (3 institutions), performance management (8 institutions), and SIE support and benefits (7 institutions). All institutions but one, employ a structural hiring process for SIEs to ensure the selection of qualified candidates. Legal checks for academic qualifications, visas, and work permits are meticulously conducted before extending final teaching invitations, ensuring compliance with all necessary regulations. Class operation and quality assurance practices encompass annual audits, class observations, feedback mechanisms, and small class sizes, often capped at 30 students. As pointed out by one of the institutions, collaborative programmes incorporate co-teaching to bridge language barriers between SIEs and local students and emphasise research activities.

> *"Normally we have the co-teaching process. The foreign lecturer will take care of 60% of the hours and another 40% will be taught by a Vietnamese lecturer."*

Another institution employs an alternative collaborative teaching arrangement that grants SIEs additional time for research activities:

> *"The most important thing about our collaboration is the research. We let them teach half of the class and our local lecturer will take half of the class."*

Performance management and reward policies also receive considerable attention, independently of the programme mode, to ensure staff development and recognition (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9. *The applied conditions enhancement practices*

	Without any condition enhancement practices	***With condition enhancement procedures and policies***				
		The hiring procedure and policies	*Class operation & quality assurance*	*Department, school, and programme meeting*	*Performance management & reward*	*SIEs' support & benefits*
TNE modes						
Franchising	*1*	5	4	1	4	2
IBC	*0*	1	1	1	1	0
Collaborative programme	*0*	4	4	1	3	5
Types of SIEs employment contract						
Fixed-term contract	*0*	4	4	2	4	2
Part-time	*1*	6	5	1	4	5

4.4.3. The perceived challenges

SIEs

As depicted in Table 4.10, although the majority of SIEs face challenges in adapting to their new living environments, including cultural differences (6 SIEs), loneliness, homesickness (2 SIEs), building social connections (2 SIEs), and transportation difficulties (2 SIEs), it is interesting to note that three SIEs in franchising programmes reported no difficulties. One SIE specifically pointed out that cultural differences hinder mutual understanding and collaboration:

> *"The concept of 'saving face' in Vietnamese culture can be challenging to grasp. Despite nods, agreement, and smiles, people may not truly comprehend what you're saying. There's a tendency not to admit when they don't understand."*

Interaction challenges derived mainly from the administrative disruptions in SIEs' support (4 SIEs), often encompass high administrative staff turnover, visa complications, and limited classroom scheduling support. Aside from this, cross-cultural workplace adaptation is the other challenge for some SIEs as they navigate unfamiliar environments and customs (4 SIEs). Notably, a Western female SIE expressed frustration and disengagement due to unspoken hierarchies and racism targeting certain nationalities among SIEs.

> *"There exists a hierarchy within the expatriate community, where British and Americans often place themselves at the top, followed by Canadians, Australians, New Zealanders, and non-white teachers. This unspoken hierarchy can lead to issues such as sexism and racism within the community."*

At work, SIEs encounter issues relating to cross-cultural pedagogical challenges, including challenges in collaborating with local teachers, communication and feedback gaps, diverse student backgrounds, pressure to pass students, and resource limitations which all hinder their teaching and research roles (cited by 8 SIEs). Other work adjustment challenges comprise ineffective management roles, low payment process, and performance expectation disparity dilemma. One non-Western SIE in a fixed-term contract position working in a franchising programmes mention that he/she faced difficulties gaining institutional recognition due to lower academic qualifications, leading to a need for transparent evaluation processes.

> *"In the banking industry, my capabilities and deliverables were prioritised over degrees. In education, while I appreciate the emphasis on continuous professional education, there's a distinct focus on qualifications rather than performance. Regardless of job effectiveness, the system tends to be qualification-centric, demanding constant proof of capability. It becomes exhausting at times."*

Table 4.10. *Challenges perceived by the participating SIEs*

	General adjustment					Interactive adjustment			Work adjustment			
	No challenges	Cultural differences	Loneliness & homesickness	Social connection difficulties	Transportation difficulties	Administrative disruptions in SIEs' support	Cross-cultural workplace adaptation	Nationality-based racism among SIEs	Cross-cultural pedagogical challenges	Ineffective management roles	Low payment process	Performance expectation disparity dilemma
Age												
31-40	1	3	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
41-60	2	2	1	2	1	2	3	1	6	2	1	2
60+	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Gender												
Male	2	5	2	1	2	4	3	0	7	2	1	2
Female	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
Nationality												
Western SIEs	2	4	0	2	1	2	3	1	6	2	1	0
Non-Western SIEs	1	2	2	0	1	2	1	0	2	0	0	2
TNE mode												
Franchising	3	3	1	1	1	1	2	0	3	2	1	1
IBC	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Collaborative	0	2	1	1	0	3	1	1	5	0	0	1
Working position												
Fixed-term contract	2	3	1	1	2	0	2	0	1	1	0	1
Part-time	1	3	1	1	0	4	2	1	7	1	1	1

Host institutions

Host institutions encounter pivotal challenges in hiring and managing SIEs (Table 4.11). The primary hurdle lies in managing SIEs' performance, with cultural differences (9 institutions) often impacting their adaptation to local professional norms and communication styles. Recruiting qualified candidates, especially those with doctorate degrees and teaching skills, is also a major challenge (7 institutions). This challenge is particularly significant for collaborative programmes that prioritise SIEs with doctorate degrees and intensive publication experience. Motivating and retaining SIEs pose also a very important challenge (7 institutions), with salary expectations exceeding local standards and preferences for extensive administrative support. The preference for short-term contracts complicates retention efforts, and visa processing delays add to the challenges, as mentioned by one of the institutions.

> *"The biggest difficulties are work permit and visa applications. We have to explain to the government the types of expertise and knowledge that we are looking for as well as why we need international people but not local people."*

One SIE emphasised the estimated time required for the work permit application process, highlighting its potential impact on their arrival and commencement of work.

> *"It's really hard to get a working permit for expatriates. It can take three to six months."*

Table 4.11. *Challenges perceived by the participating host institutions*

Group of respondents	***Recruiting SIEs***	***Motivating & retaining SIEs***	***Obtaining the work permit for SIEs***	***Performance management & evaluation***
TNE Mode				
Franchising	*2*	*2*	*3*	*4*
IBC	*0*	*1*	*1*	*1*
Collaborative	*5*	*4*	*2*	*4*
Types of SIEs' employment contract				
Fixed-term contract	*3*	*2*	*3*	*4*
Part-time	*4*	*5*	*3*	*5*

4.4.4. The performance evaluation

SIEs

SIEs' self-assessments vary, with a majority expressing satisfaction with their teach outcomes (6 SIEs), developing local connections (2SIEs), and successful research publications (2

SIEs) (Table 4.12). However, about a fourth of the sample (3 SIEs) expresses discontent, especially as some non-Western SIEs who resist certain teaching assignments as they age. Two SIEs from franchising programmes see room for improvement through higher qualifications, better understanding of student needs, and increased engagement in seeking clarity regarding task expectations. As shared by one SIE:

> *"My job is to motivate students to study hard. Given that not all students invest enough time in their studies, incorporating instructional videos could make my teaching more effective and appealing."*

Table 4.12. *Self-evaluation conducted by the participating SIEs*

Group of respondents	***Not really satisfied***	***Improvement is needed***	***Satisfied***		
			In developing relationship with local people	*In publication*	*In teaching outcomes*
Nationality					
Non-Western SIEs	*2*	*1*	*0*	*2*	*2*
Western SIEs	*1*	*1*	*2*	*0*	*4*
TNE mode					
Franchising	*1*	*2*	*0*	*0*	*3*
IBC	*1*	*0*	*0*	*1*	*0*
Collaborative	*1*	*0*	*2*	*1*	*3*
Working position					
Fixed-term contract	*2*	*2*	*0*	*1*	*1*
Part-time	*1*	*0*	*2*	*1*	*5*

Host institutions

All host institution managers express satisfaction with the accomplishments of SIEs, especially those with several years at the host institution. They excel in building positive relationships with colleagues and students, adapt to national and corporate cultures, and consistently deliver outstanding performance in teaching and research. When asked to compare the adjustment abilities of Western and non-Western SIEs, evaluations vary. One collaborative programme manager highlighted the challenges faced by Asian SIEs, stating:

"Asian people tend to follow their habits, they stick to what they are familiar with. When something new comes along, it's not easy for them to change their habits."

From a different perspective, two managers of two franchising programmes observed that:

"Western individuals appear to adhere to their international practices and may not align well with the local situation and expectations."

4.4.5. The determinants leading to effective SIEs' resourcing and performance SIEs

From the perspective of SIEs, ensuring their successful performance requires actions from three key stakeholders. Firstly, SIEs should invest time and effort in cultural preparation, recognising the typical 8-month adjustment period when relocating to a new place. Secondly, the host government can simplify visa and work permit applications. Thirdly, host institutions should provide supports to help SIEs adjust better to the working and socialisation process. The most critical role lies with host institutions, as suggested by most of the interviewed SIEs. They can support SIEs by promoting an inclusive culture with collaborative research initiatives and inviting visiting lecturers can enhance interaction and adjustment for SIEs (cited by 5 SIEs). Furthermore, to support SIEs adjust better to the new working environment, institutions can adopt flexible hours to maximise productivity, manage workloads effectively to prevent stress, and prioritise clear communication and streamlined processes (suggested by 9 SIEs) (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13. *Determinants leading to effective SIEs' resourcing and performance: Insights from SIEs themselves*

Group of respondents	***Actions taken by SIEs***		***Actions taken by the host government***	***Actions taken by host institutions***	
	Awareness of cultural & corporate cultures	*Take the time and put in the effort to adjust to the new place*	*Make the visa and work permit application easier*	*For interaction adjustment - The promotion of an inclusive culture*	*For work adjustment & performance - Flexible working hours, clear role clarity & better communication*
Nationality					
Non-Western SIEs	*0*	*1*	*1*	*2*	*3*

Western SIEs	*1*	*1*	*0*	*3*	*6*
TNE Mode					
Franchising	*0*	*0*	*0*	*2*	*4*
IBC	*0*	*1*	*0*	*0*	*1*
Collaborative	*1*	*1*	*1*	*3*	*4*
Working position					
Fixed-term contract	*0*	*1*	*0*	*2*	*3*
Part-time	*1*	*1*	*1*	*3*	*6*

Host institutions

Host institution managers underscore the collaborative effort in ensuring SIEs' success, emphasising the institution's role in attracting qualified SIEs through quality programmes, competitive compensation, reputation, and alignment with career goals (cited by 9 institutions). Effective interviewing techniques should be employed to select motivated candidates who are passionate about the roles to foster commitment. To enhance SIEs' adjustment, 7 institutions advocate for comprehensive performance enablers, including top-level management support, performance assessments, flexibility, industry exploration, local relationships, and personal motivation practices. Additionally, 6 institutions stress the importance of creating conditions for better interaction with colleagues, students, and industry partners to aid SIEs' success through the provision of integrated professional engagement support, fostering close relationships, providing motivation, encouraging collaboration, and offering necessary resources. The managers recognise that SIEs' expertise, adaptability, long-term dedication, commitment, and embrace of the host country are crucial for success (Table 4.14).

Table 4.14. *Determinants leading to effective SIEs' resourcing and performance: Insights from host institutions*

Group of respondents	***Conditions should be provided by the host***			***Conditions should be possessed by the SIEs***			
	Hiring qualified SIEs	*For better work adjustments - Comprehensive Performance Enablers*	*For better interaction adjustment - Integrated professional engagement support*	*Expertise & teaching capabilities of SIEs*	*Flexibility & capacity to adjust well to the environmental context*	*Long term dedication and commitment*	*Love the host country*
TNE Mode							
Franchising	*4*	*3*	*1*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*0*
IBC	*1*	*1*	*1*	*0*	*1*	*1*	*0*
Collaborative	*4*	*3*	*4*	*4*	*3*	*3*	*3*
Types of SIEs' employment contract							
Fixed-term contract	*3*	*3*	*3*	*2*	*3*	*2*	*1*
Part-time	*6*	*4*	*3*	*4*	*3*	*4*	*2*

4.5. Discussion

The insights are drawn from both SIEs and host institution managers participating in various TNE programmes in Vietnam.

4.5.1. Demographic profiles of SIEs

The analysis uncovers a gender imbalance among SIEs, with a higher representation of males, aligning with findings by Huang (2018) indicating a nearly fourfold difference in male-to-female expatriates. In terms of origin, despite host institutions' aim to attract more English-speaking expatriates, over half of the participants come from neighbouring non-English-speaking countries such as Malaysia, the Philippines, and Korea. This trend mirrors the rise of non-English-speaking expatriates noted in international firms (Ceric & Crawford, 2016) and higher education (Huang, 2018; Froese, 2012).

4.5.2. Similar views of SIEs and Host Institution Managers on SIE Management

Similarity 1: Challenges in obtaining visa and work permit

Previous studies, as summarised by Ceric and Crawford (2016), have examined the macro factors influencing the expatriation and retention motivation of SIEs in a general context, including wage levels, economic opportunities, accommodation costs, entertainment, and national branding. In the context of Vietnam, both SIEs and host institutions face a common challenge related to obtaining visa and work permits. This process is often complex, lasting up to eight months and exacerbated by language barriers, as application forms are in Vietnamese. Additionally, the absence of clear government guidelines adds to the complexity. SIEs struggle with the intricacies of paperwork, while host institutions often lack well-defined procedures for expatriate employment. Delays in visa and work permit approvals, often extending into the academic semester, create feelings of insecurity and threaten the performance of SIEs. Notably, the challenge of visa and work permit applications, which is not reported in previous studies, appears to be relevant in the current context of Vietnam. Therefore, it is recommended that host institutions collaborate more closely with the government to address the challenges related to attracting international academics and seek government support to simplify and streamline the visa and work permit processes for qualified academic SIEs.

Similarity 2: Selection Criteria Prioritisation

Qualifications and skills receive attention, but it is crucial to recognise that openness to experience and adaptability are vital for SIE success. Research by Kumar et al. (2008) highlights the significance of these traits for expatriates. However, both host institutions and SIEs often prioritise academic and research qualifications, overlooking adaptability and openness to experience. This shared limitation underscores the need to shift towards considering these behavioural criteria as critical, as seen in the hotel industry's successful adoption of prior international experience (Haldorai et al., 2021).

Similarity 3: Performance evaluation

Regarding performance evaluation, SIEs seem to consider their performance as positive due to their success in establishing local connections and in carrying out successful research and teaching. In spite of this, several SIEs consider that there is scope for improvement. Host institutions also generally appreciate SIEs' performance, particularly those with extended tenures who align well with organisational expectations.

4.5.3. Perceptual Differences: Implications for SIE Resourcing and Retention

Difference 1: Motivations to expatriate versus recruitment attractions

The participating SIEs are primarily attracted to overseas work by the appeal of the host country, a preference for international work environments, a desire to make a meaningful educational impact, competitive compensation, and opportunities at well-ranked institutions. This aligns with the findings of Froese (2012), Ceric and Crawford (2016), and Huang (2018). A new finding from this research reveals that host institutions, however, have their own motivations, influenced by the operational duration of their programmes. Newer initiatives focus on curriculum development, while established ones seek reputation enhancement and cost savings. Therefore, it is suggested that institutions should tailor recruitment strategies and messaging to align with SIE preferences and institutional objectives.

Difference 2: High salary and support requirement versus cost-effective solutions

Once again, the findings underscore the dilemma faced by host institutions in balancing the need to hire qualified SIEs while managing operational costs. Despite appearing cost-effective compared to fly-in faculty from home institutions, SIEs often require higher salaries than local faculty, extensive administrative support, and orientation for effective adaptation, as highlighted by Singh et al. (2022) and Meuer et al. (2019). Ensuring the mental well-being of SIEs is crucial, as suggested by Vaiman et al. (2015), as they adapt to new living and work environments. Host institutions should prioritise their development objectives by targeting highly qualified academic SIEs with doctorates, extensive publication records, and teaching experience or budget-constrained SIEs without such qualifications and background.

Difference 3: Contrasting retention preferences

Host institutions often struggle with accommodating SIEs' requests for annual salary increases and their preference for short-term contracts, which complicates retention efforts due to their self-managing career considerations and mobility (Vaiman et al., 2015). To address this, institutions should first create a work environment that SIEs value and align their organisational culture and management styles with the retention motivations of key staff, as suggested by Ceric and Crawford (2016). Secondly, institutions can consider implementing performance-based compensation structures, providing non-monetary incentives, and offering opportunities for professional growth and development, as recommended by Vaiman et al. (2015), Ceric and Crawford (2016), and Meuer et al. (2019).

Difference 4: Employment readiness and the need for orientation

Host institutions hire SIEs with the aim of enhancing the curriculum, promoting diverse teaching and research practices, increasing cultural awareness, and building international teams. However, many SIEs lack clear role definitions, awareness of cultural and organisational differences, and understanding of student learning styles. These gaps hinder collaboration, leading to frustration, disengagement, and reduced effectiveness. To address this issue, job design and orientation practices are crucial. Host institutions should ensure that academic SIEs understand their roles, potential challenges, and how to actively adapt to the local working context. Additionally, mentoring and co-working systems, as suggested by Haldorai et al. (2021), can be implemented, particularly in terms of co-teaching, to facilitate knowledge transfer between local and expatriate staff.

Difference 5: Performance evaluation and recognition

While host institutions believe they have proper task allocation and performance evaluation procedures, many SIEs express the need for improved performance management practices. Some SIEs face challenges in gaining institutional recognition due to lower academic qualifications, leading to reduced engagement and self-doubt. To address this, host institutions can implement formal performance management practices, including clear individual goal setting, as demonstrated by one IBC programme. This is in line with the recommendation by Ceric and Crawford (2016). Goal setting is essential for helping SIEs establish performance targets, motivations, and commitment to their goals. Additionally, host institutions can provide frequent appreciation for well-executed work, demonstrating care for SIEs' socioemotional needs and overall well-being, as recommended by Singh et al. (2022).

Difference 6: Determinants for successful SIE performance

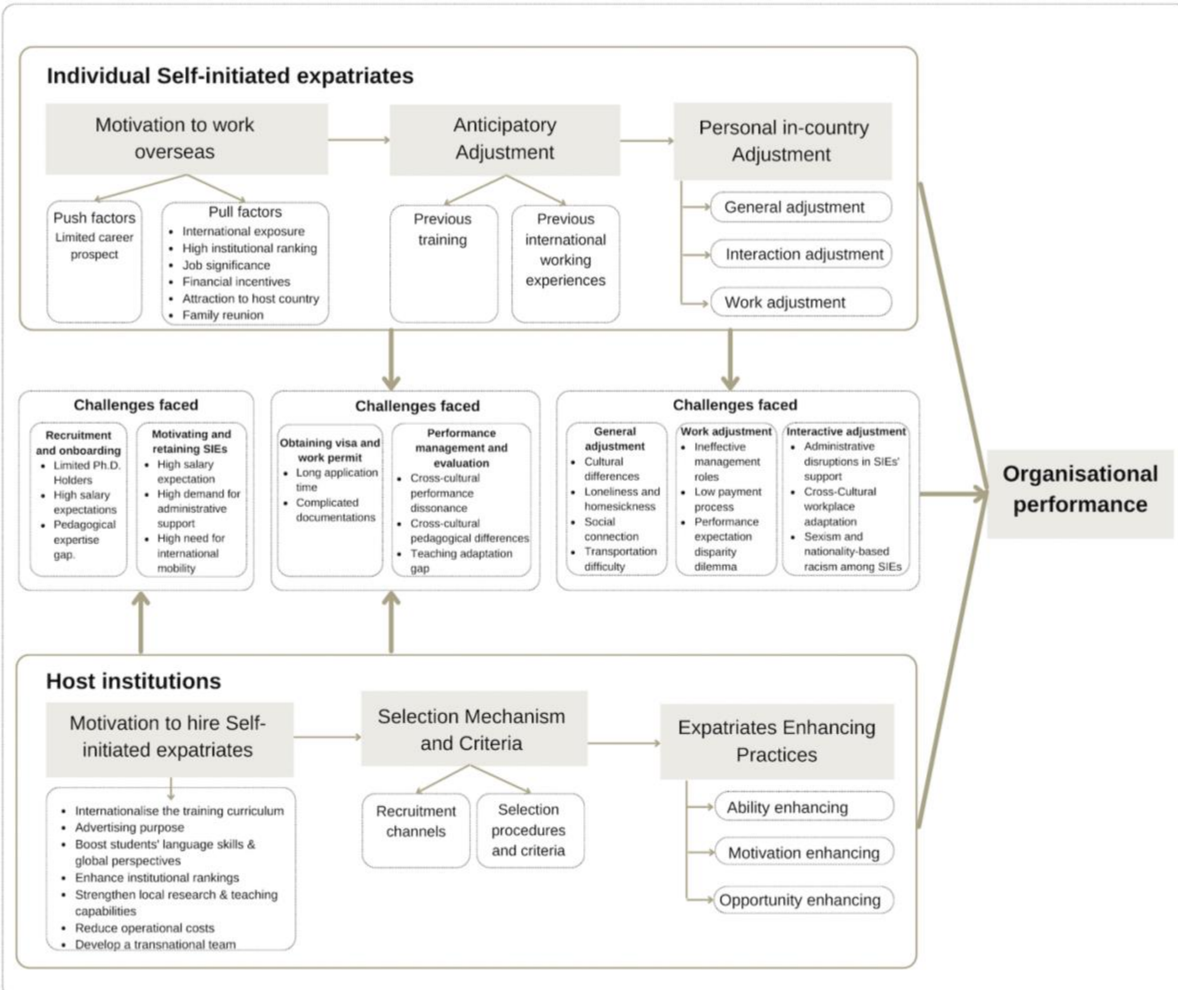
SIEs recognise the crucial role of organisational support in their adaptation and performance. They currently face challenges related to high administrative staff turnover, inadequate support for classroom scheduling, and a lack of orientation and effective communication, all of which negatively impact their performance. Following the suggestions of

Hechanova et al. (2003), host institutions can provide conducive working conditions, including flexibility, clear communication, and streamlined processes. To improve interactive adjustment, expatriates should engage more with local colleagues and people outside expatriate communities. Host institutions can foster an inclusive culture and collaborative research initiatives to facilitate SIE collaboration with local academics. Top-level management support, flexible teaching methods, and nurturing local relationships are vital components of successful support mechanisms. Host institutions also emphasise that SIEs' expertise, adaptability, commitment, and ability to embrace the host country are pivotal for their success. SIEs can enhance their performance by investing in cultural preparation and understanding the typical adjustment period when relocating. Sustainable expatriate management and performance require mutual understanding and collaboration between both stakeholders.

4.5.4. Development of the conceptual model

Drawing from the insights gained through this research, a conceptual model (Figure 4.1) is put forward. This model aims to elucidate the motivations and adaptive practices of SIEs and host institutions. It is designed to explore (1) how SIEs' motivations to work abroad influence their anticipatory adjustment, (2) how anticipatory adjustment affects their in-country adjustment practices, and (3) the impact of these adjustments on their performance at host institutions. Additionally, the framework aims to expose (1) the relationship between SIEs' resourcing motivations from host institutions and their resourcing practices, (2) the link between resourcing practices and expatriate enhancement practices, and (3) how these resourcing and expatriate enhancement practices influence organisational performance. Importantly, the model acknowledges that both stakeholders may encounter challenges throughout this process that could impede their adaptation and performance.

__Figure 4.1:__ The integrated model of SIE motivation and adaptation in TNE



4.6. Conclusion

This study contributes to the literature by studying, for the first time, the motivations, perceived challenges and work performance of SIEs and host institutions in the TNE context. The simultaneous study of the perspectives of both SIEs and host institutions allowed the identification of areas of alignment and misalignment between these two key stakeholders in TNE. In some aspects, similar views were found, such as the difficulties in obtaining visa and work permits, the prioritisation given to qualifications overlooking adaptability and the general positive assessment of the performance of SIEs. However, different perspectives were identified in some important aspects such as the need for host institutions to improve in terms of role clarity and communication, facilitating cultural and organisational adaptation, as well as in terms of developing formative performance management. Misalignment regarding appropriate salary and administrative support was also identified, with general SIEs expectations above those of host institutions.

This study offers valuable insights into the dynamics of SIEs and host institutions in international academic assignments, emphasising the need to understand motivations, foster effective adjustment practices, and address challenges for SIE success in diverse TNE programmes. Collaboration among SIEs, host governments, and institutions is crucial in the evolving landscape of international education.

However, it is essential to note the limitations of this qualitative research, which involved a relatively small sample of 11 host institution managers and 11 SIEs in specific TNE programmes in Vietnam. As a consequence, the findings may have limited generalisability. Despite the limitations of qualitative research, particularly in terms of generalisability, its distinctive strength lies in its ability to conduct in-depth explorations, capturing insights and providing a comprehensive understanding of complex phenomena. Qualitative methods excel in uncovering the richness of human experiences, cultural influences, and individual perspectives, making them invaluable tools for researchers seeking a deeper understanding in the context of SIE management.

Future research could expand on this qualitative foundation with larger, more diverse studies and quantitative methods to validate trends. Longitudinal research could explore the long-term impacts of international academic assignments. Additionally, investigating technology and virtual education's role in post-pandemic international assignments is a promising avenue. Future studies could also delve into issues of sexism and racism, particularly among non-Western and female SIEs through interviews.

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4.8. Declaration of interest statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

4.9. Ethical considerations

The study was approved and signed by the University of Algarve's Ethics Committee (CE-FEUAlg Pn° 013/2023).

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CHAPTER FIVE: GENERAL CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter brings the thesis to a close by engaging in comprehensive discussions on the fundamental discoveries and their impact on both theoretical frameworks and practical applications. It begins by providing an overview of the conclusions drawn from each scientific paper, subsequently delving into the broader contributions and implications derived from these findings. Furthermore, the chapter outlines any limitations identified, offering valuable insights that can guide prospective research initiatives. At its core, this comprehensive research project seeks to provide a holistic understanding of the evolving TNE landscape, from diverse programme models and global reach to operational challenges, performance measurement, and the complexity of expatriate management. The three studies collectively contribute to the knowledge base of TNE, offering practical insights, frameworks, and guidance for improving the efficiency, effectiveness, and sustainability of TNE programmes. The first research study undertakes a systematic review of the existing TNE literature, shedding light on the multifaceted challenges faced by stakeholders during the transition of TNE programmes from home to host institutions. This in turn allows the identification of key factors which are critical to the sustainable development of TNE programmes. The second study focuses on the operational aspects of TNE, specifically academic franchising. Employing DEA, the research delves into the efficiency and effectiveness of academic franchisees within a TNE network. By pinpointing inefficiencies and ineffectiveness in individual franchising programmes, the study provides actionable insights for both TNE franchisors and franchisees, urging the balance between admission and teaching efficiency while ensuring the teaching effectiveness across diverse franchisee networks, thus enhancing the overall performance and sustainability of TNE. The third study focuses on the human capital aspect of TNE, specifically the motivations and challenges faced by SIEs and host institutions. By exploring the incentives for international talent and examining adjustment practices at individual and institutional levels, this research makes a significant contribution to fostering sustainable global human capital in TNE.

Through this multifaceted approach, the research aspires to contribute valuable insights for institutions aiming to navigate the complexities of TNE, improve programme efficiency and effectiveness, as well as enhance expatriate management practices in the pursuit of sustainable global education initiatives.

5.2 Discussion, contributions, and implications

5.2.1 Discussion and theoretical contributions

This comprehensive research thesis delves into the multifaceted landscape of TNE, offering practical insights derived from three distinct studies that collectively contribute to a holistic understanding of the evolving TNE ecosystem. The first study provides an analysis of the literature on transnational education to identify the key challenges and success factors for the sustainable operation of TNE programmes as perceived by key stakeholders. The study on franchising programmes enriches the theoretical framework by exploring variations in admission efficiency, teaching efficiency and effectiveness, offering insights into potential paths for performance improvement. In expatriate management, the research contributes theoretical perspectives on common challenges perceived by SIEs and host institutions in TNE programmes.

In the **first study**, the theoretical contribution of the extensive analysis on TNE lies in its systematic identification and categorisation of key stakeholders, TNE delivery modes, participating countries, and challenges perceived by these stakeholders. By delving into the literature, the research establishes a comprehensive understanding of the complex relationships and dynamics inherent in TNE programmes. Notably, it expands upon existing frameworks by identifying additional stakeholders such as expatriates, quality assurance agencies, and employers. The exploration of challenges faced by various stakeholders, from host and home institutions to students and quality assurance agencies, contributes to the theoretical foundation of TNE studies. The research also provides insights into the specific challenges perceived by each stakeholder group, acknowledging the multifaceted nature of TNE operations. Key challenges identified include difficulties in managing the TNE programmes, ensuring quality assurance (Trifiro, 2018), adapting the curricula to the local contexts (Bilsland et al., 2020; Clarke et al., 2016), accommodating offshore students' learning styles (Pyvis, 2011; Trahar, 2015), creating studying environments for TNE students equivalent to those in the home institutions (Clarke et al., 2016; Khan et al., 2014), ensuring preparedness of the academic staff (Keay et al., 2014; Keevers et al.,

2014) and facilitating capacity building and knowledge transfer in the host countries (Mok & Han, 2016; Mok & Xu, 2011).

The theoretical contribution of the **second study** lies in its application of DEA to assess the efficiency and effectiveness of franchising programmes in higher education across multiple dimensions, specifically focusing on admission efficiency, teaching efficiency, and teaching effectiveness. By employing a DEA model with weight restrictions based on production trade-offs, the research offers a methodological advancement in evaluating the performance of educational programmes, considering inputs, outputs and outcomes. The separate study between admission efficiency, teaching efficiency and effectiveness, as well as the identification of trade-offs between the different performance dimensions, contributes to the theoretical understanding of performance in the context of TNE. The consideration of several performance dimensions emphasises the importance of evaluating educational programmes not only in terms of efficiency but also in their ability to produce high-achieving graduates across different degree classifications.

The **third study**, which focuses on the motivations, adjustment practices, challenges, and performance evaluation of SIEs in the context of TNE programmes in Vietnam contributes significantly to the existing literature on international mobility and academic expatriation. The findings highlight the essential interplay of pull and push factors influencing the decision of SIEs to engage in overseas assignments, an issue whose importance has already been highlighted by Huang (2018) and Froese (2012). The identification and categorisation of these factors, as well as their differential impact across various TNE programme delivery modes, enrich our theoretical understanding of the complex motivations driving academics to pursue teaching roles in foreign countries. The exploration of host institutions' motivations, selection processes, and recruitment channels further enhances the AMO theoretical framework related to the internationalisation of higher education institutions, shedding light on the multifaceted objectives that drive the need for expatriate attraction and management (Froese, 2012; Ceric & Crawford, 2016; Huang, 2018). Additionally, the study contributes to the literature on the adjustment practices employed by SIEs, at the general, work-specific, and interactive adjustment levels. This provides a holistic understanding of how academics navigate the challenges of cross-cultural teaching environments (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). The insights into host institutions' practices for enhancing SIEs' abilities, motivation, and working conditions contribute valuable perspectives to the literature on expatriate management in higher education. The comparative analysis of these practices across different TNE modes adds depth to our theoretical understanding of the varied approaches adopted by institutions in supporting and facilitating the adjustment of international faculty.

5.2.2 Discussion and practical contributions

In the dynamic landscape of TNE, where institutions strive to deliver quality programmes and navigate complex challenges, the practical contributions of these studies emerge as guiding references for institutions, administrators, policymakers, and stakeholders involved in TNE programmes. These practical insights are grounded in a thorough examination of challenges, success factors, and best practices, providing actionable strategies for the effective implementation and management of TNE initiatives. The implication areas cover collaborative partnerships, internationalisation of curricula, staff development, and performance management.

Study 1: *Enhancing quality and sustainability of TNE development and operation*

The study 1 offers actionable insights for institutions and policymakers engaged in or overseeing TNE programmes. The detailed examination of challenges faced by different stakeholders, along with the identification of success factors, equips institutions with strategic guidance for effective TNE management. The emphasis on building collaborative partnerships (Bordogna, 2020a, 2020b; Clarke et al., 2016; Greek & Jonsmoen, 2020), internationalising curricula (Clarke et al., 2016; Khan et al., 2014), and developing transnational staff (Bovill et al., 2015) underscores practical steps to enhance the quality and sustainability of TNE programmes. Furthermore, the research highlights the importance of addressing specific challenges, such as language proficiency, cultural adaptation, and academic performance, in order to improve the overall TNE experience for students and staff (Boulton, 2019; Bhuian, 2016; Gottlieb & Beatson, 2018; Juknytė-Petreikienė et al., 2021). The emphasis on 'equitable partnership approaches' suggests a shift towards collaborative models that can enhance the development and delivery of TNE programmes (Clarke et al., 2016; Greek & Jonsmoen, 2020). Furthermore, the rising request for a blended delivery model emphasises the importance of flexibility and responsiveness to student demands in a competitive market (Guimón & Narula, 2020; Mok & Han, 2016). Institutions must also address the profitability of TNE operations, understanding that commercial objectives need to align with attracting local students and ensuring a sustainable scale of operation (Bordogna, 2020a; Healey, 2016, 2018a, 2018b). Finally, the emergence of "education hubs" as a trend in some regions signals the need for institutions to consider the broader regional and global context in their TNE strategies (Mok, 2011; Sidhu, 2015). By grounding theoretical insights in practical implications, the research contributes to the development of evidence-based strategies for the successful implementation and management of TNE initiatives.

Study 2: *Optimising efficiency and effectiveness across franchising programmes*

The study offers valuable insights for institutions operating franchising programmes, particularly within the context of a network. Specifically, this study provides actionable insights for administrators in the franchising network of the University X. The analysis of admission and teaching efficiency highlights specific programmes with potential for improvement, suggesting targeted interventions to enhance their performance. The recommended reallocation of academic support staff resources and the projected input reduction for less efficient units in teaching efficiency present practical strategies for optimising resource allocation and improving overall programme efficiency. Moreover, the emphasis on teaching effectiveness offers an approach to programme evaluation, guiding decision-makers in strategically aligning resources to maximise the number of high-achieving graduates. Overall, the study offers practical recommendations for enhancing the efficiency and effectiveness of franchising programmes, contributing to the advancement of educational practices in the TNE landscape. Institutions can use the best practices identified in each category as case studies, facilitating cross-training and consultation within the franchising network. This research thus serves as a valuable resource for educational administrators seeking evidence-based strategies to improve the performance of franchising programmes.

Study 3: *Navigating cross-cultural challenges in managing SIEs in TNE Programmes*

The study 3 offers actionable insights for both SIEs and host institutions engaged in TNE programmes. SIEs can benefit from the identified adjustment practices, gaining practical strategies for navigating the complexities of cross-cultural work environments (Kumar et al., 2008; Lamers & Admiraal, 2018). The study emphasises the importance of cultural preparation, building local connections, and tailoring teaching approaches to address both local and global needs (Black et al., 1991; Kumar et al., 2008). These insights can guide SIEs in proactively managing challenges related to cultural differences, social integration, and pedagogical adjustments. For host institutions, the practical contributions lie in the planning of effective recruitment and management strategies for SIEs (Fan et al., 2022; Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). The study underscores the significance of a structured selection process that goes beyond academic qualifications, considering factors such as cultural awareness, long-term commitment plans, and passion for teaching (Caligiuri, 2000; Chang et al., 2012). Moreover, the insights into motivation and condition enhancement practices provide tangible approaches for institutions to foster a supportive and motivating work environment for their international faculty (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). Implementing strategies such as comprehensive orientation programmes, professional development opportunities, and transparent communication channels can contribute to the success and satisfaction of SIEs, ultimately enhancing the overall effectiveness of TNE programmes.

5.3 Limitations and directions for future studies

In adopting a pragmatic research design, which combines quantitative and qualitative methods across the three studies in this thesis, there are inherent limitations that require acknowledgment. First and foremost is the challenge of integrating diverse research methods seamlessly (Creswell, 2009). This multifaceted approach, encompassing a systematic literature review, quantitative DEA, and qualitative interviews, introduces complexities in coordinating different data sources and analytical techniques. Hence, careful attention to maintain the coherence and reliability of the research outcomes are prioritised to avoid inconsistencies or disparities arising during the integration process.

Secondly, the potential for inconsistencies or disparities arising during the integration process requires careful attention to maintain the coherence and reliability of the research outcomes (Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, the resource-intensive nature of employing a mixed-methods research design poses another potential limitation (Creswell, 2009). The necessity for expertise in both quantitative and qualitative methodologies demands careful management of time, budget, and the availability of qualified personnel. Thankfully, with the guidance of the thesis supervisors, Professor Carla and Professor Sérgio, together with the continuous and professional feedback the researcher obtained from different Professors at the University of Algarve and collaborative research communities, challenges in data collection and analysis are navigated and planned to mitigate resource-related limitations.

Thirdly, pragmatic research designs may encounter challenges in generalising findings to broader populations (Creswell, 2009). While providing a rich understanding of complex phenomena, the emphasis on context-specific insights might limit the generalisability of the research outcomes (Creswell, 2009). To ensure the homogeneity when applying DEA across the reviewing units, the second paper focuses solely on measuring performance efficiency and effectiveness of franchising programmes within the same franchisor network. Consequently, the application of DEA is constrained to this specific context, limiting the broader applicability of the findings. The focus on a specific context, albeit providing valuable insights, calls for caution when extending the results to different modes of TNE delivery and engaging more TNE programmes operating in varied national settings. Future studies are encouraged to broaden the research scope, comparing relative performance efficiency and effectiveness across different modes of TNE delivery and involving TNE programmes in diverse national contexts. Similarly, the third study delves into the management practices of SIEs in Vietnam. Here, the influences of environmental and institutional contexts play a significant role and can impact the generalisability of the findings. The study of expatriate management practices is notably affected by national immigration regulations, attractions, and environmental factors. The general, work, and interactive adjustments of SIEs are intricately linked to these national-level factors. Recognising this, future studies should extend their scope to encompass cross-country analyses. Conducting studies across different countries will provide a more comprehensive understanding of how national-level factors impact the general adjustment and interactive adjustments of SIEs. This expansion will contribute to a more holistic and universally applicable body of knowledge in the field of SIE management practices.

Regarding **Study 1**, while important insights have been derived from the systematic review, more studies are required to improve the understanding on the perceptions that industrial employers have on the knowledge and skills acquired by the students via TNE programmes. Also, most papers seem to focus on measuring the achievement of outcomes and not on measuring the outputs of the programmes, which leads to the suggestion that more research is required to assess the efficiency of these programmes in order to complement the analysis of their effectiveness. In particular, it is important to analyse not only the efficiency of the different TNE programmes but also to contrast their efficiency against local programmes. Finally, as only two studies address the challenges of TNE from the point of view of the employers and only six studies were identified about expatriates’ challenges in adapting to the host teaching system as well as on the satisfaction of students towards expatriates’ teaching and support effectiveness, more studies should also be devoted to these issues. The findings of this study also serve as a crucial foundation for subsequent studies (paper 2 and paper 3). The second study, centered on academic franchising, utilises DEA to compare the efficiency and effectiveness of TNE programmes across different countries. By identifying operational inefficiencies and offering actionable insights, this research guides TNE franchisors and franchisees toward achieving high-quality teaching and learning in diverse franchisee networks. The third study, focusing on the motivations and challenges of SIEs within TNE institutions, contributes significantly to understanding human capital aspects. This research aids in fostering sustainable global talent in TNEs by exploring incentives and adjustment practices at both individual and institutional levels. Together, these studies build a comprehensive understanding of TNE, covering operational and human capital dimensions for the advancement and sustainability of TNE initiatives.

The **second study** has limitations worth acknowledging. Firstly, the choice of inputs and outputs may affect the study's validity (Worthington, 2001). Due to data unavailability, some important factors such as financial resources, and students' marks on entry were omitted. Qualitative measures like curriculum quality, student satisfaction, and post-graduation employability were also absent. The dataset, tracked in 2019, lacks longitudinal records to identify trends in franchising programme operations over time. Future research could improve the analysis by including additional indicators, such as the students' marks on entry. Qualitative factors like programme reputation, curriculum quality, student satisfaction, faculty diversity, and graduate employability should also be considered. External factors like regional demographics, market competition, and regulatory frameworks should be assessed, especially in diverse national contexts. Conducting longitudinal studies tracking franchising programme performance over time would be beneficial. Secondly, future studies could use network DEA (Färe and Grosskopf, 2000) to integrate the three-stage analysis. Furthermore, using DEA to identify efficient units has limitations (Giménez et al., 2007). It lacks a comprehensive analysis of the causes behind inefficiencies, neglecting operational characteristics, objectives, and practices. Future research could combine quantitative analysis with in-depth case studies of selected franchising programmes. This approach could reveal factors influencing performance, such as resource reallocation, process optimisation, or faculty development. Insights could identify strategies employed by efficient franchising programmes for potential application elsewhere. Thirdly, the evaluation is limited to 18 academic franchising programmes in Southeast Asia under a UK franchisor's network. Environmental factors influence the analysis. The generalisability of findings to business-related undergraduate franchising programmes in different host nations managed by non-UK franchisors is uncertain. Expanding the research's scope to encompass more programmes and diverse delivery modes would provide a comprehensive understanding of TNE models (Clermont et al., 2015; Giménez et al., 2007).

Regarding the **third study**, it is essential to note the limitations of this qualitative research, which involved a relatively small sample of 11 host institution managers and 11 SIEs in specific TNE programmes in Vietnam. The findings may have limited generalisability. Despite the limitations of qualitative research, particularly in terms of generalisability, its distinctive strength lies in its ability to conduct in-depth explorations, capturing insights and providing a comprehensive understanding of complex phenomena. Qualitative methods excel in uncovering the richness of human experiences, cultural influences, and individual perspectives, making them invaluable tools for researchers seeking a deeper understanding in the context of SIE management. Future research could expand on this qualitative foundation with larger, more diverse studies, complemented with quantitative methods to validate trends. Longitudinal research could explore the long-term impacts of international academic assignments. Additionally, investigating technology and virtual education's role in post-pandemic international assignments is a promising avenue. The study could also delve into issues of sexism and racism, particularly among non-Western and female SIEs through interviews.

It is essential to note that these recognised limitations not only guide our current analysis and interpretation of findings but also lay a solid foundation for future research directions. The constraints identified highlight areas for improvement and expansion in future studies. These limitations, rather than hindrances, serve as foundations for ongoing scholarly inquiry, pushing us to refine methodologies, broaden research scopes, and contribute to the evolving landscape of educational and management research.

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APPENDICES

Chapter TWO

Table A1. *Challenges perceived by host countries*

Challenges	Description	References
Failure to build capacity	Isolation from local faculty and differences in cultural context impede knowledge sharing	(Chiang, 2012; Ding, 2019; Hill et al., 2014)
	Students who choose TNE as an alternative path to HEIs, often are academically less capable than students from local programmes	(Ding, 2018)
	TNE might culminate in the offer of low-quality courses	(Hill et al., 2014; Hou et al., 2014)
	Lack of national quality assurance systems and intervention regimes (only the teaching staff and programmes coordinators at the host institutions are responsible for the quality assurance; oversupply of some programmes in some locations)	(Ashour, 2017; Chiang, 2012; Hill et al., 2014; Lane & Kinser, 2011; Wilkins, 2010)
Loss of cultural values	National cultural values may diminish among TNE students who favour other cultures	
Inequitable form of education	TNE is perceived as a "Trade-driven" form of education, designed for the rich people, located in urbanised areas	(Hou et al., 2014; Nhan & Nguyen, 2018)
	TNE is seen as a "Postcolonial form" of education which imposes Western knowledge without any intention for cultural exchange	(Chiang, 2012; Hill et al., 2014)
Social influences	The appearance of the off-shore campuses and transnational programmes leads to: local economic inflation, conflict of cultural differences, widening of the social gaps, pollution, brain drain, local unemployment, etc.	(Chen et al., 2019)

Table A2. *Challenges perceived by home institutions*

Challenges	Description	References
Sustainable development	Lack of scalability Lack of profitability Legitimacy issue at host countries (a centralised and over-regulated structure, high investment cost) Risks of regulatory changes (e.g. Brexit and its effects on TNE activities of the UK)	(Healey, 2016, 2018a; Kleibert, 2020; Ong & Chan, 2012; Valiulis & Buèinskas, 2016; Ziguras & Pham, 2014)
Quality assurance	Balancing expectation of internal and external stakeholders Harmonising differences in learning styles, characteristics, and expectation of local students and local staff	(Healey, 2016; Keay et al., 2014; Waterval et al., 2017)
Staff management	Resistance from staff to be involved in TNE Lack of fly-in faculty	(Healey, 2018a)

Table A3. *Challenges perceived by host institutions*

Challenges	Description	References
Sustainable development	Lack of profitability: High operation costs and fee paying for quality assurance and fly-in academic staff Lack of scalability	(Healey, 2013; Shams & Huisman, 2016; Valiulis & Buèinskas, 2016)
Quality assurance	Low foreign language proficiency among students	(Hu et al., 2019)
	Shortage of highly qualified teachers and expatriates	(Hu et al., 2019)
	Low quality of curriculum design and implementation (not prioritising local development needs, lack of practical training and internship placements)	(Farrugia & Lane, 2013; Hu et al., 2019; Reichel, 2012)
	Deficiencies in institutional regulations (lack of quality control of teachers and their teaching, student enrolment and registration, revenue management)	(Hu et al., 2019; Mok & Xu, 2011; Sia, 2014)
Collaboration with home institution	Differences in mission, time, culture, and perception (overprotection and adherence of home institution model versus local need for adaptation; different management and communication styles; different objectives)	(Bordogna, 2020b, 2020a; Kompanets & Väätänen, 2019; Mifsud, 2015)
Promotion of institutional legitimacy	"Legitimacy-borrowing paradox": to rely solely on the legitimacy of home institution Failure to offer relevant training and service quality to local stakeholders	(Beecher & Streitwieser, 2019; Farrugia & Lane, 2013; Juusola & Rensimer, 2018; Nguyen et al., 2016)

Table A4. *Challenges perceived by staff of home institutions*

Challenges	Description	References
Dissatisfaction with heavy workload and task insignificance	Increasing workload Perceived lack of autonomy in controlling the delivery of the courses Perceived lack of significance of the tasks to be performed since lecturers do not work directly with students at host countries Lack of organisational support (training to work with students from different cultural background)	(Hoare, 2013; Jais et al., 2015c; Keevers et al., 2014; Nawaz, 2018; Szkornik, 2017)
Difficulty to support students in the transition to a TNE academic culture & ensure programme quality	Students have different learning styles, are more dependent on teachers' guideline, resistance to change, not active in learning, lack of critical thinking skills Students do not always have the prerequisite knowledge that is needed for the studies, lack of English skills to comprehend the lessons & take the exams	(Bovill et al., 2015; Hoare, 2013; Keevers et al., 2014; Smith, 2014b; Szkornik, 2017; Trahar, 2015)

Lack of work-life balance (for flying staff)	Sense of isolation in working Family separation Excessive work-hours	(Jais et al., 2015c; Smith, 2014b)

Table A5. *Challenges perceived by staff of host institutions*

Challenges	**Description**	**References**
Stress of high demanding jobs/ underperformance	Not having language proficiency Not familiar with teaching standards of home institutions Exhaustion from workload (time differences with the home countries) Difficulty in ensuring the learning outcomes while students' ability is not high	(Kettula et al., 2013; Mifsud, 2015; Waterval et al., 2017)
Lack of organisational support	Lack of training Lack of organisational recognition and incentives	(Juusola & Räihä, 2018; Keevers et al., 2014; Lim et al., 2016; Smith, 2009)
Perceived inequality in power relation	Lack of involvement in curriculum and assessment design as the programmes are imposed by the home institutions	(Keevers et al., 2014; Leung & Waters, 2017; Lim et al., 2016; Smith, 2009; Wilkins, Butt, et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020)
Received higher risk of employment standards violations	Higher probability of observing monetary/wage-related employment standards violations by the franchisees	(Easton et al., 2021)

Table A6. *Challenges perceived by expatriates*

Challenges	**Description**	**References**
Difficulty in adjusting teaching	Lack of understanding of cultural differences in the host countries, students' needs and learning styles, different language proficiency levels of students.	(Bu & Kero, 2019; Cai & Hall, 2016; Chen & Zhu, 2020; a-Reeuwijk et al., 2020; Smith, 2014b)
Perceived career insecurity & isolation	Ambiguity about the career ladder Lack of involvement in curriculum development and discussion Lack of shared understanding and perceived loneliness	(Bu & Kero, 2019; Liu & Lin, 2017)

__Table A7.__ Challenges perceived by students

Challenges	Description	References
Unfamiliar teaching and assessment methods	Limited language ability Assessment modes, teaching strategies, and class and campus settings create cross-system learning contradictions for students (not aware of plagiarism) Not familiar with virtual learning environment offered by the home institutions When classes are delivered by flying lecturers, the schedule is designed with an unrealistic timeframe to discuss too much subject knowledge	(Arunasalam, 2016; Arunasalam & Burton, 2018; Bartram, 2007; Boulton, 2019; Dai, 2020; Dai, Lingard, et al., 2020; Dai, Matthews, & Renshaw, 2020; Dai, Matthews, & Reyes, 2020; Ding, 2018; Eaves, 2011; Heffernan et al., 2010; Holden, 2018; Hou & McDowell, 2014; Mifsud, 2015; Palmer et al., 2019; Rahman et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2018; Tawash et al., 2021; Troedson & Dashwood, 2018; Waterval et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2020)
Curriculum is not adaptive to local context	Lack of coverage of local business terminology, procedures and business law, real-life contexts, local practices, and problems	(Ahmad, 2015; Arunasalam, 2016; Arunasalam & Burton, 2018; Waters & Leung, 2013a, 2013b)
Teachers fail to deliver industrial knowledge and inspire learners' development	Lecturers lack of industrial experience and specialised knowledge Lack of patient in inspiring students and give frequent feedback to facilitate personal development.	(Arunasalam, 2016; Arunasalam & Burton, 2018; Goh, 2008; Rahman et al., 2021; Vu & Doyle, 2014; Zhang et al., 2020)
Mismatch between what is advertised and the actual service performance	Failure to provide good infrastructures, other tangible facilities (libraries, reading materials) as well as academic, administrative, slow or non-existent feedback of student work, and faculty service quality, lack of international mobility, lack of industrial network and employment opportunities, study only with local lecturers without chances to be with home teachers or expatriates.	(Ahmad, 2015; Bhuian, 2016; Datta & Vardhan, 2017; Goh, 2008; Goodall, 1996; Holden, 2018; Mifsud, 2015; Sin et al., 2019; Waters & Leung, 2012, 2013b; Yang et al., 2020; Zhao & Hu, 2020)
Feeling of isolation and powerlessness	Students' feedback regarding the curricula is not taken for granted Lack of connection with the home institution community, isolated with the home students Lack of information about the international transferring and mobility options, unclear about the studying routes Lack of chances for improving social capital	(Ding, 2018; Hou & McDowell, 2014; Maxwell-Stuart & Huisman, 2018; Sin et al., 2019; Waters & Leung, 2012, 2013a; Wilson-Mah & Thomlinson, 2018)
Lack of local recognition of the TNE degree	Not acquire "legal status" in the local higher education system. Unemployment challenges Degrees awarded by home institutions from less developed countries are not appreciated	(Mok & Xu, 2011; Waters & Leung, 2012)

Table A8. *Challenges perceived by Quality Assurance Agencies*

Challenges	Description	References
Lack of the external Quality Assurance mechanisms in host countries	The host institutions often adopt the international accreditation as a popular quality assurance approach which is considered as 'cultural imperialism Lack of national jurisdiction over TNE programmes Limited information of the TNE programmes activities collected at the host countries	(Bentley et al., 2017; Hou et al., 2016; Hou, 2020; Shroff & Kratochvil, 2018; Trifiro, 2018; Ziguras, 2003)
Strong dominance of the exporter countries in the practices of TNE programmes	Exporter-country control messages are reflected from the pursuit of "equivalent standards" in the objectives and warnings against localisation Absence of partner involvement in quality assurance process may lead to difficulty for the programmes to meet global and local needs	(Bentley et al., 2017; Smith, 2010)
Lack of reciprocal recognition of quality assurance among agencies	It is challenging for all agencies from home and host countries to reach agreements for the reciprocal recognition of quality assurance decisions due to lack of familiarity and understanding of other countries' and agencies' systems, differences in quality assurance, reference points and processes, different views of TNE, lack of track record, legislative policy and political barriers. Lack of recognition for international academic qualifications, especially for the joint programmes	(Hou et al., 2016; Trifiro, 2018; Hou et al., 2017a)
Lack of networks of agencies and joint review activities	Limited information sharing of TNE activities TNE providers have to undergo overlapping external quality assurance process required by both home and host country's agencies	(Trifiro, 2018)

Table A9. *Challenges perceived by Employers*

Challenges	Description	References
Lack of the employability skills	Students are not familiar with the local business culture Students lack of hard skills, subject-specific knowledge and/or computing skills to qualify for employment and to perform job-related tasks	(Belderbos, 2020; Cheong et al., 2016)

Table A10. *Success factors*

Practices	Success factors	Cited by
Performance of the operations		
Partnership collaboration	Support the decision to launch TNE programmes on multi-dimension factors (legitimacy, concerns of the host government, market forces, origin of partners, congruent management philosophies, the TNE experience of the both institutions, agreed objectives, the degree of specialisation in the qualifications offered, etc.)	(Fang, 2012; Feng, 2013; He, 2016; He & Wilkins, 2018b, 2018a; Healey, 2015; Hoxha et al., 2020; Kosmützky, 2018; Naidoo & Hollebeek, 2016; Pon & Ritchie, 2014; Prestwich, 2007; Russell, 2015; Sidhu & Christie, 2015; Tierney & Lanford, 2015; Zhu et al., 2011; Ziguras & Pham, 2014)
	Ensure TNE programmes meet the following criteria: Clarity: programmes should be communicated and agreed internally and with partners Support: programmes should be collaboration oriented and recognise time & cultural differences Resources: both tangible & intangible resources should be provided to the programmes Networks: programmes should sustain international partnerships through interpersonal relationships and connectivity between two institutions	(Aasmundtveit et al., 2018; Abdullah et al., 2008; Asgary & Robbert, 2010; Bencheva et al., 2017; Bordogna, 2019a, 2019b, 2020b; Chen, 2014; Deshpande & Tsai, 2021; Ding, 2019; Griffith et al., 2014; Heffernan & Poole, 2005; Kompanets & Väätänen, 2019; Lee, 2020; Mifsud, 2015; Nguyen et al., 2016; Pon & Ritchie, 2014; Sandhu & McQuarrie, 2016; Sewankambo et al., 2015; Sutrisno & Pillay, 2013, 2015; Tierney & Lanford, 2015; Waterval et al., 2015; Wilkins, Butt, et al., 2018)
	Build multi-engaged interpersonal human relationships based on shared interests and ethical qualities to reduce the risk of heavily dependent on one key person to sustain partnerships	(Ma & Montgomery, 2021)
Operation effectiveness	Ensure balance between service optimisation and operation cost effectiveness (considerable ratio of flying faculty, application of online system)	(Wilkins & Urbanovič, 2014)
Increase branding & legitimacy in the host country	Obtain international accreditation Increase brand recognition amongst local and international employers	(Balmer & Liao, 2007; Chee et al., 2016; Dowling-Hetherington, 2020; Fang & Wang, 2014; Franklin & Alzouebi, 2014; Heffernan et al., 2018; Juusola & Rensimer, 2018; Wilkins, 2010; Wilkins, He, et al., 2018; Wilkins & Huisman, 2013b; Wilkins & Urbanovič, 2014)
	Focusing on a specific target customer, offer training programmes which are not popular, or delivering programmes in languages other than English to a nice market	(Allahar & Sookram, 2018; Chankseliani, 2020; Chee et al., 2016; Wilkins & Huisman, 2021; Wilkins & Urbanovič, 2014)

Quality assurance	Develop internal quality assurance, annually collect data about enrolment, students' performance at all levels, staff profile, performance, and utilisation as well as collect feedback of students & review from TNE staff	(Ahmad & Buchanan, 2017; Bordogna, 2020b; Wilkins & Juusola, 2018)
Knowledge transfer/ Promote Transnational Community of Practice	Exchange teaching and learning practices formally through joint enterprise, mutual engagement, and share resources in curriculum mapping, co-design and contextualise teaching materials, joint lectures, joint research, regular meetings, using digital communication platforms, partnership with local enterprises	(Aasmundtveit et al., 2018; Bencheva et al., 2017; Campbell & Rolls, 2017; Dai, 2020; Dai & Garcia, 2019; Greek & Jonsmoen, 2021; Griffith et al., 2014; Harden, 2006; Hoxha et al., 2020; Keay et al., 2014; Keevers et al., 2014; Keevers et al., 2019; Lamers & Admiraal, 2018; Mackay et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2016; Russell, 2015; Tharapos & O'Connell, 2020)
	Promote informal learning and socialising practices (feedback, learning trips, social outing, extra-curricular activities)	(Hou & McDowell, 2014; Tharapos & O'Connell, 2020)
Develop stronger industrial network	To develop a useful mechanism for TNE programmes to gain insight and knowledge into local industrial practices & update employability skills and chances for students	(Aasmundtveit et al., 2018; Bellini et al., 2016; Bencheva et al., 2017; Bilsland & Nagy, 2015)
Internationalisation of the curricula		
Continuous internationalisation of the curriculum	Need for local adaptiveness yet maintain the equivalence of curriculum by contextualise some materials (e.g. case study, assessment methods, etc.) and add extra-curricular activities & career apprenticeship to promote intercultural competence and employability skills Move towards joint-responsibility to develop a curriculum and assessment methods which are culturally, socially, and professionally appropriate to learners	(Ahmad, 2015; Belderbos, 2020; Bellini et al., 2016; Bilsland et al., 2020; Busse et al., 2013; Caniglia et al., 2018; Cheng, 2018; Cuthbert et al., 2010; Feng, 2013; Griffith et al., 2014; Harden, 2006; Hayes et al., 2015; He & Liu, 2018; Healey, 2018b; Hoare, 2012; Jing et al., 2020; Juknytė-Petreikienė et al., 2021; Keevers et al., 2014; Keevers et al., 2019; Kettula et al., 2013; Lee, 2020; Li, 2017; Mackay et al., 2016; Miller-Idriss & Hanauer, 2011; Naidoo & Sibiya, 2019; Owusu-Kumih et al., 2019; Paterson, 2017; Sidhu, 2015; Sidhu & Christie, 2015; Starr-Glass & Ali, 2012; Tawash et al., 2021; Vora, 2015; Waterval et al., 2018; Wilkins & Juusola, 2018; Wilkins, 2010; Wilkins, He, et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2020; Yao & Tuliao, 2019; Yu, 2020)
	Apply "sustainable assessment" which takes assessment as a part of a progressively planned curriculum, enables	(Dai, 2020; Dai, Matthews, & Reyes, 2020; Dai & Garcia, 2019)

	planning from year to year and from partner university to partner university so that students can see the learning variation instead of comparing the differences between the local and TNE programmes	
Transnational experience of the students		
Student attraction and enrolment	Understand students' needs to design clear communication messages (country's attractiveness, reputation of the university, the possibility to gain quality education, the potential studying abroad routes, etc.) Build trust through the development of qualified partners, good branding, facilities, employment support, international transfer possibility, having students' representatives and frequent communication with students	(Ahmad & Buchanan, 2017; Balmer & Liao, 2007; Fang & Wang, 2014; Gottlieb & Beatson, 2018; Heffernan et al., 2018; Kharouf et al., 2015; Koda & Yuki, 2013; Li, 2020; Lien & Keithley, 2020; Lin et al., 2020; Naidoo & Hollebeek, 2016; Sim et al., 2021; Tsang, 2013; Wilkins, He, et al., 2018; Wilkins & He, 2020; Wilkins & Huisman, 2013b, 2013a)
Student transition & support	Provide orientation to inform students about the requirements of the TNE programme, virtual learning systems, clear progression routes within or beyond the institution	(Boulton, 2019; Palmer et al., 2019; Seddon, Vo, et al., 2020; Wilson-Mah & Thomlinson, 2018; Yang et al., 2020)
	Use student-centred teaching approach (e.g. the teachers' bilingual presentation of the course materials, using local contextual examples, flipped classroom, groupworks, weekend classes, work integrated learning, simulation and debate etc.)	(Bartram, 2008; Bilsland & Nagy, 2015; Eaves, 2011; Ergenc, 2020; Heffernan et al., 2010; Jing et al., 2020; Mishra, 2019; Seddon, Cobbold, et al., 2020; Troedson & Dashwood, 2018; Yao & Collins, 2019)
	Provide more international exposure opportunities for cultural exchange & fostering intercultural mindset	(Aasmundtveit et al., 2018; Belderbos, 2020; Bencheva et al., 2017; Berka & Island, 2013; Corno & Lal, 2015; Ergenc, 2020; Fredriksson, 2018; Gunter & Raghuram, 2018; Harden, 2006; Juknytė-Petreikienė et al., 2021; Mok et al., 2018; Mok & Han, 2016a; Nguyen et al., 2016; Yarosh et al., 2018)
	Use technology to support the learning process (Turn-it-in, online platform, e-library, communication tool) and engage students' participation and communication	(Boulton, 2019; Caniglia et al., 2018; Green, 2013; Hollister, 2020; Hou & McDowell, 2014; Naidoo & Sibiya, 2018; Palmer et al., 2019; Waigand, 2019)
	Provide additional intensive English training classes/ Foundation year, develop a full immersion English language learning experience to prepare the students for the later programmes	(Campbell & Rolls, 2017; He & Liu, 2018; Koda & Yuki, 2013; Sim et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2018; Tawash et al., 2021; Wallace, 2016; Waterval et al., 2018; Wilkins, 2010)

	Collect students' feedback and design students' activities to create social bonding and promote customers' citizenship which transform a customer into a consultant who give advice to other potential customers/ students	(Ahmad, 2015; Hayes et al., 2015; Holden, 2018; Maxwell-Stuart & Huisman, 2018; Tan et al., 2017; Tang et al., 2018)
	Invest in infrastructure, studying environment, lecturers, and resources to ensure comparable students' experience, including practical training chances	(Ahmad, 2015; Busse et al., 2013; Goh, 2008; Goodall, 1996; Seddon, Vo, et al., 2020; Sin et al., 2019; Wilkins, 2010, 2021)
Graduate alumni	Develop graduate alumni network	(Bhuian, 2016; Bilsland et al., 2020; Naidoo & Sibiya, 2018)
Transnational staff development		
Adequate resourcing	Ensure proper recruitment requirements for academic, non-academic staff (English proficiency, cultural sensitivity, preparedness to learn, ability to establish new social contacts, industrial and practical experience), and senior staff (having international management experience, transformational leadership skills, and commitment to corporate mission and management philosophy)	(Al-Mansoori & Koç, 2019; Franklin & Alzouebi, 2014; Greek & Jonsmoen, 2021; Lin et al., 2020; Liu & Lin, 2017; Naidoo & Sibiya, 2018; Neri & Wilkins, 2019; Stafford & Taylor, 2016; Swanson & Swanson, 2019; Wallace, 2016; Wilkins & Neri, 2019)
	Build transnational workplace, environment, and attractive remuneration package to attract and retain staff, flying faculty and expatriates	
Training and support for transition	Facilitate the development of faculty cross-cultural capabilities, including induction programme, cultural training, language skills training, joint research and short-time mobility to the host and home countries.	(Bovill et al., 2015; Busse et al., 2013; Cai & Hall, 2016; Gunter & Raghuram, 2018; Harden, 2006; Hoare, 2013; Jais et al., 2015a; Juusola & Räihä, 2018; Keevers et al., 2014; Lamers-Reeuwijk et al., 2020; Nawaz, 2018; Smith, 2009; Tharapos & O'Connell, 2020)
	Encourage staff to continuously reflect from teaching, industrial network and knowledge, and cultural exchange practices	(Bovill et al., 2015; Kettula et al., 2013)
	For senior staff, training and development should be given to develop leadership and management skills	(Deshpande & Tsai, 2021; Healey, 2016; Stafford & Taylor, 2016)
Staff involvement & retention	Recognise and provide clear incentives for the additional workload, including flexibility in the work schedule and reduction in other teaching and researching responsibilities	(Juusola & Räihä, 2018; Neri & Wilkins, 2019; Wilkins et al., 2017)
	Allow interaction between staff at home countries with students at host countries to increase the sense of task significance	(Liu & Lin, 2017; Wilkins, Butt, et al., 2018)
	Develop a community where expatriates feel a sense of belonging, identity and deferred mobility.	
Legal and regulatory framework in the host countries		

Proper regulations	Provide framework, guideline, and incentives for collaboration as well as apply decentralisation in management (mode of collaboration, prioritised majors, funding, etc.) to align foreign activities with regional development needs and regional identity, foster complementary links	(Ashour, 2017; Chankseliani, 2020; Chiang, 2012; Guimón & Narula, 2020; Hanada et al., 2021; Lien & Keithley, 2020; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2001; Miller-Idriss & Hanauer, 2011; Mok, 2011; Mok & Han, 2016b; Mok & Xu, 2011; Morshidi et al., 2011; Nhan & Nguyen, 2018; Ong & Chan, 2012; Sidhu, 2009; Xu & Sylwester, 2017)
	Develop an independent quality assurance body at the governmental level to monitor the quality of teaching and learning as well as provide accreditation of foreign degrees.	(Ashour, 2017; Guimón & Narula, 2020; Hou et al., 2014; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2001; Mok & Xu, 2011; Morshidi et al., 2011; Nhan & Nguyen, 2018; Ziguras, 2003)
	Issue student visas quickly, efficiently and at reasonable cost to attract international students & facilitate student mobility & employment visa opportunities after graduate	(Gunter & Raghuram, 2018; Varghese, 2015; Wilkins, 2010)
Quality assurance agencies adopt a global systematic and consistent data collection and quality assurance system		
Regular update about TNE activities	Update data in the respective national contexts (can be through the use of Data Analytics and Artificial Intelligence) including: students' data, benchmarking reference points and processes; observing other's review processes; exploring further cooperation in quality assurance activities, such as joint-review exercises.	(Mishra, 2019; Shroff & Kratochvil, 2018; Trifiro, 2018)
Engage with all stakeholders	Quality assurance agencies do not operate in isolation, but within broader regulatory systems involving a variety of other stakeholders, including host governments, higher education providers, students, sector bodies (qualification recognition agencies, data collection agencies, etc.)	(Bentley et al., 2017; Shroff & Kratochvil, 2018; Smith, 2010)
Develop international qualification recognition guideline and agreement	- An international network for qualification recognition between recognition bodies and quality assurance agencies across the region is expected	(Shroff & Kratochvil, 2018; Yung-Chi Hou et al., 2017b, 2017a)

Chapter THREE

Table B1. Overview of inputs and outputs used in assessing efficiency performance of HEIs

The used inputs and outputs at the institutional/ programme level						
Reference	***Years***	***Country of focus***	***Inputs***	***Outputs***	***Model orientation***	***Scale assumption***
PROVINCIAL HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEMS						
Sun et al.	2023	China	- Full-time teachers - Higher education expenditure - The number of newly enrolled students	- The number of graduates - The published papers - The patent applications	Not stated	CRS
INSTITUTIONAL LEVELS						
Agasisti & Johnes	2013	The United States	- Total amount of expenses	- Number of graduates	Not stated	Not stated
Chen et al.	2023	China	- Shared inputs (Total number of full-time teachers, total of fixed assets) - Non-shared inputs (Education funding, research funding)	- The number of graduates - The number of published papers - The number of research awards - The actual income of patent sales	Output-oriented	Not stated
Cossani et al.	2022	Chile	- Shared inputs: 1)academic staff (excluding Ph.D. professors), 2) operational expenses (excluding labour expenses), 3) infrastructure and square meters built, and 4) direct public grant funding - For teaching: the number of undergraduate degrees - For research: the number of doctoral-level students enrolled and the number of professors with a Ph.D.	- For teaching: the number of retained students - For research: (1) the number of indexed publications, (2) the Scientific Journal Ranking	Output-oriented	VRS
Witte & Hudrlikova	2013	Cross-countries analysis - Data from the World University ranking	The input values are a vector of ones	- Peer review index - Employer reputation - Staff/ student - Citations/ staff - International/ faculty - International students	Not stated	VRS

Johnes	2006a	England	- Total enrolled students - Expenditure (libraries, information and administration services) - Total full-time academic staff	- Number of graduates - Students' graduation degree classification - Research grant awarded	Output-oriented	VRS
McMillan & Chan	2006	Canada	- Total operating expenditure and sponsored research expenditure - Environmental Control (Total student enrolment in universities within 200 km, studying mode between part-time and full-time, class size)	- Total enrolled students - Total sponsored research expenditure - Total research grant - Enrol change over year - Fund change over year	Input-oriented	VRS
See et al.	2022	Cross-countries analysis - Data from the World University ranking	- Government expenditure on tertiary (per student, R&D as a percent of GDP; R&D per head of population) - Environment (Proportion of female students, female academic staff, quality index of environment) - Connectivity (Proportion of international students, articles with international collaborators and/ or with industry)	- Total number of publications - Average impact of articles - Tertiary enrolment rates - Unemployment rate of the tertiary educated compared with school leavers	Output-oriented	VRS
Tavares et al.	2021	Brazil	- Stage 1: Use of financial resources (personnel expenses, investments on infrastructure) - Stage 2: Outputs of stage 1 - Stage 3: (1) the number of doctoral theses, (2) master's dissertations to scientific production	- Stage 1: (1) total students enrolled in undergraduate courses, (2) the number of teaching and researching faculty, (3) technical and administrative staff, (4) physical infrastructure (classrooms, teaching and research laboratories), (5) total students enrolled in post-graduate courses - Stage 2: the number of graduates, the number of dissertations and theses defended - Stage 3: Patents, Publications in journals indexed to the Scopus database	Output-oriented	CRS
DEPARTMENT/ FACULTY LEVELS						
Agasisti et al.	2012	Italy	- Research faculty staff - Physical infrastructure	- Number of publications - Citation indexes - Grants from research bodies	Output-oriented	VRS

Mayston	2014	England	- Personnel (Teachers & research-active staff) - Number of students which each teacher teaches	- The teaching quality assessment survey conducted by students - The researching quality assessment survey conducted by students	Output-oriented	Both
Sarrico & Dyson	2000	The United Kingdom	- Entry requirement - Funding councils fund	- Teaching rating - Research rating - Library spending - Accommodation - Employment rate - Teaching output (the number of graduate students) - Research output (the number of academic research staff) - Financial health indicator	Output-oriented	Not stated
Tyagi et al.	2009	India	- The number of academic and non-academic staff - Departmental operating cost	- Total enrolled students - Number of students placed for different jobs; - Number of Ph.D. degree awarded - Research index	Output-oriented	Both
PROGRAMMES LEVEL						
Cherchye & Abeele	2005	The Netherlands	- Total enrolled PhD candidates - Other research input	- Doctoral dissertations - Students' publications	Not stated	Not stated
Kumar & Thakur	2019	India	- Number of applicants - Personnel (Teachers with PhD, teachers with more than 5 years of industry experience, support staff) - Frequency of change in curriculum - Physical resources (books and journals, software ,and database) - Development fund for students and faculty staff - Number of networks (with alumni, industry, and international linkage) - Number of executive training programmes - Number of training workshops for students - Expenditure - Average tenure of director and faculty	- Total enrolled students - Number of entrepreneurs - Number of graduates - Number of research publications in indexed journals - Number of trained executives through training programmes - Revenue generated through executive training - Number of students and faculty undergone international exchange (incoming and outgoing)	Input-oriented	Not stated

Miranda et al.	2012	England	- Human inputs (number of technical, administrative staff, faculty members, and professors) - Physical infrastructure (number of computers for academic & administrative purposes, number of books in the library) - Satisfaction data from students about the quality of physical facilities - Number of total course hours - The amount of funding granted - The amount of scholarships granted	- Total enrolled students	Output-oriented	CRS
STUDENT LEVELS						
Johnes	2006b	England	- Pre-university entry qualification - Personal characteristics of the students (gender, age, marital status, country of origin and socio-economic status) - Type of degree part-time or full-time - Nationality - Type of residence	- Students' graduation degree classification - Graduation scores	Output-oriented	VRS
Johnes	2006c	England	- Pre-university entry qualification - Personal characteristics of the students (gender) - School type (Attended an independent school or not)	- Numbers of graduates - Students' graduation degree classification	Output-oriented	VRS
Kong & Fu	2012	Taiwan	- Student's individual and family characteristics (gender, mother's education status, father's education status, and whether live in capital city) - Student's education background (student's education status and graduate point average (GPA) at college)	- Employability - Starting salary of graduates - Student satisfaction (questionnaires) asking students their learning outcomes from schools - Job market recruiters survey regarding the relative importance of each indicator.	Output-oriented	CRS
Zhao et al.	2023	China	- Student learning input (student learning process indicators collected from a survey)	- The learning efficiency (The final English exam scores)	Output-oriented	CRS

Appendix B2. *Stage 1 – Profile of the University X's franchising programmes - Admission inputs and outputs*

DMU	No of Marketing/ Admissions staff {I}	No. classrooms {I}	No. of teaching staff {I}	No. Academic Support staff {I}	Total number of students {O}
1	6	8	9	7	102
2	6	11	15	7	179
3	3	6	7	4	91
4	2	2	4	3	36
5	1	3	4	1	44
6	2	9	10	2	183
7	3	7	2	1	45
8	2	2	4	1	14
9	1	2	3	1	11
10	4	6	8	1	123
11	1	3	4	1	17
12	5	6	7	1	153
13	1	4	4	1	23
14	4	3	7	1	67
15	5	5	4	1	70
16	3	7	8	2	83
17	4	4	4	2	75
18	1	4	4	2	29

Appendix B3. *Stage 2 – Profile of the University X's franchising programmes - Teaching efficiency inputs and outputs*

DMU	No. Academic Support staff {I}	No. classrooms {I}	Number of teaching staff without PhD {I}	No of PhD staff {I}	Total number of students {I}	No. of class graduates {O}
1	7	8	7	2	102	97
2	7	11	12	3	179	175
3	4	6	6	1	91	88
4	3	2	3	1	36	36
5	1	3	2	2	44	44
6	2	9	3	7	183	173
7	1	7	2	0	45	42
8	1	2	3	1	14	10
9	1	2	2	1	11	10
10	1	6	6	2	123	117
11	1	3	4	0	17	16

12	1	6	6	1	153	116
13	1	4	3	1	23	21
14	1	3	7	0	67	66
15	1	5	6	2	70	66
16	2	7	8	0	83	77
17	2	4	8	5	75	74
18	2	4	8	5	29	29

Appendix B4. *Stage 3 – Profile of the University X's franchising programmes - Teaching effectiveness inputs and outputs*

DMU	Total number of registered students {I}	No. of first-class graduates {O}	No. of upper-second class graduates {O}	No. of lower-second class graduates {O}	No. of third-class graduates and Pass {O}
1	102	7	32	45	13
2	179	3	48	108	16
3	91	9	31	44	4
4	36	11	13	8	4
5	44	3	16	18	7
6	183	15	100	48	10
7	45	15	10	15	2
8	14	3	5	3	3
9	11	2	2	5	1
10	123	19	34	49	15
11	17	1	8	6	1
12	153	2	45	61	8
13	23	0	15	5	1
14	67	19	21	15	11
15	70	22	23	19	2
16	83	3	20	46	8
17	75	11	51	12	0
18	29	0	18	11	0

Chapter FOUR

Appendix C1. Interview questions for SIEs

1. What motivates you to work overseas?
2. What makes you believe that you would have a good career choice in the host institution?
3. Do you have previous international working experience?
4. Do you have relevant training relating to working overseas?
5. What have you done to help you better adapt to the new living environment?
6. What have you done to help you develop personal relationships and networks in a new living environment?
7. What have you done to help you better adapt to the new working position?
8. Have you encountered any challenges in the process of adjusting to the new living and working environment?
9. How do you evaluate your overall performance at work?
10. What are the conditions that you believe needed to be met for your performance at work to be better?

Appendix C2. *Interview questions for host institution managers*

1. What motivates you to recruit SIEs?
2. What is the selection mechanism used in the SIEs' resourcing process?
3. What are the selection criteria used in the SIEs' resourcing process?
4. What does your organisation do to help enhance the abilities and skills of SIEs?
5. What does your organisation do to help enhance the motivation and willingness to work with SIEs?
6. What are the available procedures and policies for enhancing the opportunities for SIEs to perform their roles and contribute to achieving organisational objectives?
7. Have you experienced any challenges in the process of hiring and managing SIEs?
8. What criteria does your institution use to evaluate the performance of SIEs?
9. Do the SIEs adjust well to the performance standards expected at work?
10. What will be the determinants leading to the successful performance of SIEs?

Table C3. *Ethic Approval _Parecer 20230913_FE UALG 013_signed*

UAlg
UNIVERSIDADE DO ALGARVE
COMISSÃO DE ÉTICA

Nº DO PROCESSO	CE-FEUAlg Pn° 013 /2023
DATA DO PEDIDO	31 de maio de 2023
TÍTULO/TEMA	Exploring Motivations, Challenges, and Performance of Self-Initiated Expatriate Management in Transnational Higher Education (TNEs) from the views of Self-Initiated
RESPONSÁVEL	Tran Nguyen Hai Ngan
FUNDAMENTO DO PEDIDO DE PARECER	Na qualidade de responsável pelo estudo, solicita à CEUAlg parecer favorável para a sua realização.
PARECER FINAL DA COMISSÃO DE ÉTICA DA UALG	**Positivo sem recomendações.**

O Presidente da Comissão de Ética da UAlg

Assinado por: **JOSÉ ANTÓNIO CARREIRA SARAIVA MONTEIRO**
Num. de Identificação: 03958463
Data: 2023.09.20 12:59:35+01'00'

CHAVE MÓVEL

Prof. Doutor José Monteiro

Table C4. *Codebook – extracted from NVivo 14 – 26 Oct 2023*

Name	Description	Files	References
Host _ Challenges in hiring and managing SIEs	Host institutions encounter various challenges in hiring and managing SIEs, such as recruiting qualified candidates, motivating and retaining SIEs, securing work permits, and conducting performance evaluations.	11	44
Motivating & retaining SIEs	They often demand significantly higher salaries compared to local staff, which can strain an institution's budget. SIEs also seek extensive administrative support, including free accommodation and flight tickets. Their preference for short-term contracts, driven by their mobility across countries, further complicates retention efforts. Frequent visits to their home countries, spanning several months each year, add another layer of complexity, limiting efforts to establish a sustainable working relationship.	7	11
Balancing Work and Family Needs for Expats	Expatriate staff often have family members residing in other countries, necessitating their return for visits. Managers face the challenge of accommodating these extended absences, which can span up to six months. This requires careful scheduling within the annual teaching timetable and the provision of online work options, such as research, to manage expats' workloads effectively.	2	2
High demand for personal assistance	SIEs are tasked with teaching students in English, but not all students are proficient in the language. Therefore, the need for teaching assistants arises. However, finding suitable local teaching assistants presents difficulties as they must possess proficiency in English, teaching skills and expertise in the subject. Moreover, teaching assistant salaries in higher education are typically low. Additionally, the high demand from expats for accommodation and flight tickets places added financial strain.	3	5
Short-term working contract	Working contracts with SIEs typically last from 6 months to 3 years. This short-term relationship arises from expectations of higher salary increases, a desire to work in various locations and countries, visa renewal difficulties, and a lower commitment to the program. Unfortunately, this can lead to issues such as mid-semester resignations, which disrupt class quality and continuity.	4	6
Obtaining the work permit for SIEs	The extended processing time for work permits can stretch from 6 to 8 months. This often poses difficulties because, by the time the visa and work permit are finally issued, the academic semester may have already commenced or the expats may have had to make the tough decision to leave the country. This waiting period is especially challenging since they are unable to work or receive a salary during this time, making it a demanding experience.	6	7
Complex documentation & unclear instruction	The intricate and demanding paperwork involved in the process requires expats to provide extensive documentation to substantiate their expertise and the necessity of their employment in Vietnam. The complexity is further compounded by unclear instructions and the continuous request for additional documents, which not only prolongs the process but also creates frustration and consumes a significant amount of time for those involved.	3	3

Name	Description	Files	References
Long application time	The process can take 6 to 8 months. Planning for a new staff member to start at a specific time can become problematic when their work permit processing takes longer than anticipated. As a manager, this necessitates the need for a well-thought-out backup plan and lateral preparation.	4	4
Performance evaluation	Host institutions face challenges in evaluating and managing SIEs' performance, primarily due to cultural differences and expectations. SIEs may struggle to adapt to local professional norms, punctuality, and communication styles. These differences can lead to misunderstandings and affect student interactions. Additionally, the institution's evaluation criteria may clash with SIEs' cultural backgrounds, making it challenging to assess their performance effectively and address issues like feedback acceptance	9	14
Navigating & resolving cultural differences	Cultural differences can pose significant challenges for expatriate educators in academic environments. Expats who are unaware of or unprepared for these differences may initially struggle to organise their work, support student learning, and manage classroom conflicts.	7	7
Openness to feedback	Assess the SIE's engagement in self and organisational evaluation, openness to feedback, and willingness to develop improvement plans.	2	2
Refuse to take part in social integration & extra academic support service	SIEs, often adjusting to new cultural norms, may initially struggle to integrate into the academic community. Some may be reluctant to engage in extracurricular activities or provide additional student support beyond the classroom, seeing their role as primarily instructional. This can create a disconnect between them and the university community, leading to difficulty for students in approaching them for academic assistance.	3	4
Struggling in adapting teaching materials & extracurricular activities	Expatriate educators often face difficulties in localising teaching materials and activities due to their unfamiliarity with the new teaching environment: limited knowledge of the local case studies & lack of industrial connections	2	2
Recruiting SIEs	These challenges include a shortage of lecturers with doctorate degrees, a lack of native English speakers, industrial experts with limited teaching skills, and difficulty in recruiting young lecturers. These challenges can affect the institution's reputation and its ability to meet the evolving needs and standards of education.	7	15
Lack of lecturers with doctorate degree	Finding individuals who possess both a PhD and a high level of cultural adaptability and relevant teaching and research experience can be challenging. As a result, institutions might face situations where potential lecturers excel in some aspects but lack a PhD, prior teaching experience, or a strong research background in their subject matter.	2	3
Lack of native-English speaker SIE	It’s hard to apply for their working permit in comparing with Asian ones.	2	2
Lack of young expats with teaching skills	The shortage of young professors with strong teaching skills is a notable challenge. It's not unusual for some expats to lack pedagogical expertise, particularly when their primary background is industry-related, rather than professional teaching. Their	2	2

Name	Description	Files	References
	excellence in their respective fields doesn't always translate to effective classroom instruction.		
Salary expectation disparities among SIEs	Balancing Global Perceptions and Local Realities SIEs often bring with them high salary expectations, influenced by the compensation standards in their more developed home countries. However, the challenge arises when they find themselves in host countries, which are often developing nations with limited financial capacity to offer the same high salary levels. Additionally, there's a notable disparity in salary structures that distinguishes between white and non-white expats	5	8
Host _ Determinants to successful performance of SIEs	The determinants of successful SIE performance stem from both host institutions and the SIEs themselves.	11	58
From the host	Key factors on the host institution's side include accommodation support, flexible work arrangements, a positive organisational culture, efforts to enhance institutional ranking, managerial support, performance-based salary revisions, strategic learner recruitment, appropriate SIE selection, and assistance with visa and work permit applications. Additionally, fostering a welcoming and cooperative atmosphere among faculty members is crucial.	9	44
Conditions for better work adjustments - Comprehensive Performance Enablers	Top-level management support is essential for recruiting and retaining experts due to the associated costs. Performance assessments often include 360-degree feedback and annual reviews. Flexibility in teaching methods and contractual arrangements is provided. Additionally, creating opportunities for industry exploration, fostering local relationships through teaching and research groups, and personal motivation all contribute to better SIE performance.	7	11
Managerial support & leadership	This entails forging industrial relationships, fostering research collaborations, providing guidance, recognising and rewarding excellence, promoting open dialogue, allowing teaching style flexibility within defined learning objectives, and setting clear performance objectives. Such support creates an environment where SIEs can excel, collaborate, and contribute significantly to the institution's achievements.	5	8
Performance-based salary revisions	In addition to offering a highly competitive salary package compared to other institutions, maintaining motivation among SIEs, particularly those who excel in teaching, research, or other areas, necessitates performance-based salary revisions and increases. These revisions can occur annually or biannually, depending on the host institution's policies.	4	5
Conditions to support interaction adjustment - ntegrated Professional Engagement Support	Establishing close relationships and networks with potential clients and partners helps SIEs integrate into the local professional community. Motivation and support for teachers, emphasising personal growth and community impact, foster lasting engagement. Encouraging cooperation and collaboration between foreign and local faculty members, allowing flexibility in teaching, and providing teaching assistants for language support promote better interactions. Additionally, a friendly and helpful faculty is need.	6	12

Name	Description	Files	References
Good organisational culture & school spirit	Some institutions emphasise a heroic culture, inspiring SIEs to contribute to education and the community, promoting a sense of purpose beyond financial incentives. Others prioritise a friendly and supportive environment, encouraging open communication and providing ample support for SIEs' concerns. Some institutions foster a dynamic and youthful spirit, where educators are encouraged to share innovative ideas, make a difference, and embrace a high tolerance for mistakes as part of the learning process.	3	6
The welcoming & cooperation of faculty members	Crucial to the success of SIEs is creating a welcoming faculty environment that fosters a sense of belonging and promoting cooperation among faculty members. With faculty support, SIEs can be welcomed to different faculty’s activities and research and professional networking rather than being seen as outsiders. Additionally, local staff's voluntary involvement as teaching assistants is pivotal for ensuring effective student learning, especially in light of language barriers and the unfamiliar environment.	5	6
Hiring qualified SIEs	Offering competitive compensation, accommodation, and travel support contributes to attraction and satisfaction. However, challenges such as varying salaries across countries and short-term contracts must be managed. Emphasising the program's quality, reputation, and alignment with SIEs' career goals aids recruitment. Effective interviewing helps select motivated candidates with language proficiency, fostering commitment.	9	23
Accommodation arrangement support	To attract SIEs to work at host institutions, despite potentially lower salaries than in other countries, offering arranged accommodation during their annual visits is essential. This provision not only ensures the comfort of their stay but also underscores the institution's commitment to their well-being, making the prospect of working there more appealing.	3	3
Flexible working arrangements	SIEs tend to have a transient work pattern, moving between countries every few years. This dynamic necessitates a flexible approach from host institutions. To attract and retain SIEs, institutions should offer various working contract types, including full-time, visiting lecturers, and visiting researchers, with adaptable schedules. This flexibility allows SIEs to work in Vietnam for a few months or a semester, accommodating their desire to periodically return to their home countries.	6	8
Increase institutional ranking to attract talents	Program quality and reputation, along with institutional standing, play crucial roles. A higher institutional ranking, especially on the international stage, is a key factor in drawing SIEs who value career opportunities at prestigious institutions.	2	2
Recruiting capable and committed learners	Successful international programs require students to learn in English, a non-native language, under foreign lecturers and an international curriculum. Ensuring students possess language proficiency, readiness, and a strong commitment to their studies is crucial. Inadequate language skills and low motivation not only hinder students' ability to complete their studies but also affect the motivation of SIEs.	3	4
Recruiting the right SIEs	Effective SIE recruitment hinges on aligning candidates' backgrounds with job requirements, fostering commitment and extended tenures. Interviews should	3	3

Name	Description	Files	References
	emphasise institutional culture and expectations, clarifying roles. The right fit is evident when SIEs' attributes align with job roles, organisational culture, expectations, and student needs, ensuring mutual success.		
Support SIEs in the visa and working permit application	Supporting SIEs in visa and work permit processes involves essential tasks: offering clear guidance on application procedures, aiding in document collection, managing administrative aspects with local authorities, providing timely application updates, ensuring compliance with immigration laws, and assisting with relocation for a smooth transition, collectively ensuring legal status and SIEs' comfort in their work environment.	3	3
From the SIEs	SIEs' successful performance hinges on their expertise and teaching capabilities, adaptability to the environment, long-term dedication, commitment, and their ability to embrace and adjust well to the host country.	10	29
Expertise & teaching capabilities of SIEs	SIEs' real-world industrial knowledge, international backgrounds, language proficiency, and adeptness at knowledge transfer enrich the learning experience. They enhance students' market and business acumen, language skills, and attitudes. Their positive impact in the classroom, along with their ability to bridge theory and practice, makes them valuable contributors to both student development and institutional success.	6	10
Flexibility & adjust well to the environmental context	The second determinant can be about how the expats understand the context in Vietnam, even for teaching or even for research. If you understand the context well, you can provide more example for the student as well as you can further construct different research. So, understand the context will be the next criteria.	6	7
Long term dedication and commitment	The successful collaboration with SIEs hinges on their dedication to adjust the teaching methods to local students, their commitment to continuous development, professionalism, collaborating with local lecturers for teaching and group research strengthens the academic community, readiness to support the institution during changing circumstances, and the effective balancing between work and family visit.	6	11
Love & adjust well to the host country	Several SIEs choose to stay in Vietnam for extended periods due to their genuine affection for the country. These professors, hailing from diverse backgrounds like France and the United States, are drawn to Vietnam for a unique blend of work, research, and travel experiences. The country's allure lies in its scenic beauty, tasty cuisine, pleasant climate, and the cost-effective living that enables them to save. This fusion of professional engagement and personal exploration forms a distinctive attraction	3	4
Host _ Evaluation towards SIEs' adaptation	Host institutions evaluate whether SIEs adapt well to the role, considers factors such as nationality, comparing the performance of different nationalities. It also examines whether newcomers or SIEs with longer tenure in Vietnam adapt better to institutional expectations, policies, students' learning styles, and the local culture.	11	15
Adjust well	SIEs who have been working at the host institution several years demonstrate a remarkable ability to align seamlessly with organisational expectations. They cultivate positive and collaborative relationships with both colleagues and students.	11	11

Name	Description	Files	References
	They adapt well to national and corporate cultures. Furthermore, they excel in projecting a professional image and consistently deliver exceptional performance in teaching, research, and all other academic-related responsibilities		
Asian people	SIEs often exhibit a natural advantage in adapting to organisational expectations due to their deep familiarity with the cultural context. Hailing from the same continent, they possess an understanding of the intricacies of the local culture, enabling them to seamlessly integrate into their surroundings. This cultural familiarity also empowers them to cater to the unique characteristics of learners, facilitating a harmonious alignment with local teaching styles.	5	5
Western people		6	7
Not adjust well	SIEs face unique challenges when adapting to new environments. Asian SIEs may struggle due to their traditional mindset, prioritising familiar habits over adapting to new perspectives. Conversely, Western SIEs often encounter difficulties stemming from their adherence to international practices that may not align with local expectations. Additionally, SIEs of all backgrounds typically experience initial culture shock characterised by unfamiliar procedures and paperwork in the first year.	5	5
Asian people	Asian SIEs share similar cultural backgrounds and appearances with the host country in Vietnam. However, their distinct challenge lies in their traditional mindset, which tends to prioritise established habits and familiarity over adapting to new ways of thinking. In contrast, native Europeans and Americans tend to align more readily with corporate policies and adaptability.	1	2
Western people	Western SIEs may struggle to adapt due to their inclination to adhere to international practices, which may not align well with local expectations. Their difficulty often stems from a lack of understanding regarding the nuances of Asian learning styles, varying institutional expectations, and distinct social and collaborative norms with local staff.	2	2
Host _ Motivations to hire SIEs	Host institutions have diverse motivations for hiring SIEs, ranging from enriching the international training environment, fostering localisation and transnational perspectives, enhancing institutional rankings, boosting students' language skills and global perspectives, strengthening local research and teaching capabilities, reducing operational costs, and enhancing institutional appeal to students and parents	11	43
Advertisement purposes	Hiring SIE teachers helps host institutions stand out among competitors, building trust with parents and students. They recognise that local students prefer studying with expatriate educators when enrolling in international programs. This motivates host institutions to establish an international learning environment that fulfils students' preferences, contributing to effective marketing efforts.	6	11
Develop global workforce	Hiring SIEs offers a distinct advantage over organisational expats by providing a more transnational perspective and flexible curriculum delivery, avoiding the imposition of solely Western curricula and assessments on local students. This approach aligns with the school's strategy and meets the specific demand voiced by students for a more localised education. The selection of SIE serves as both a	1	1

Name	Description	Files	References
	strategic initiative and a response to student needs for greater localisation.		
Increase institutional ranking	The presence of SIEs complements the commitment to becoming a world-class university. It supports the goal of improving the university's reputation and international rankings. The carefully selection of professors from reputable institutions ensures the infusion of quality expertise into our programs, essential for competing with other collaborative and fully international campus models that prioritise recruiting international staff to elevate their rankings.	6	8
Internationalise training curriculum	Hiring SIEs is not only a curriculum requirement but also a crucial factor in ensuring the quality of international training programs. SIEs bring specialised knowledge to offer valuable case studies, enriching global and local perspectives for students. Their presence diversifies teaching methods, aligns with the international nature of the program, and fosters a multicultural environment, matching the program's origin.	9	14
Lower operational cost	Hiring SIEs is a cost-effective strategy as it significantly reduces expenses linked to flights and accommodations, which previously represented 30-35% of overall costs. To remain competitive in the market, institutions actively seek experts and expats residing in Vietnam and nearby regions. Furthermore, cost-saving tactics involve having foreign teachers instruct at 60% capacity, with local teachers co-teaching the remaining 40%, ensuring efficient resource utilisation	2	2
Research & teaching capacity building	The recruitment of SIEs serves a dual purpose in enhancing the teaching and research capabilities of local faculty. Firstly, it facilitates the creation of robust research teams by harnessing the expertise of expatriates who can compare and enrich research within the context of Vietnam. Secondly, it fosters academic cooperation between Vietnamese lecturers and SIEs, leading to improved teaching skills and a focus on publications and teaching experience	4	5
Students' language skills & global perspectives development	Hiring SIEs as teachers serves a dual purpose: firstly, it enhances students' English language skills, fostering competitiveness, cultural exchange, and academic excellence in a globalised world. Secondly, it enables students to broaden their international networks, gain valuable experience, and access working knowledge, preparing them for global careers and enriching their perspectives with diverse opinions from expatriates.	7	8
Enhance students' English skills	Local institutions primarily invite self-initiated expatriates as teachers to enhance their students' English language skills, recognising the language's global importance. This strategic decision aims to provide graduates with a competitive advantage in the job market, foster cultural exchange, prepare students for international opportunities, and elevate academic excellence by offering English-taught courses and access to educators from English-speaking countries.	5	5
Increase international adaptability	The presence of international lecturers offers students the opportunity to expand their international networks, gain valuable international experience, and access firsthand working knowledge, preparing them for international career opportunities. Students benefit from a broader perspective and exposure to diverse opinions from expatriates, enhancing their global outlook and readiness for international roles.	3	3

Name	Description	Files	References
Host _ Procedures & policies to facilitate SIEs' performance	The host institution facilitates SIEs' performance through a range of policies and procedures, encompassing class operations and quality assurance, periodical school and department meetings, SIEs’ support and benefits, hiring and employee referral rewards policies, performance management and reward, and the hiring process.	11	78
Class operation quality	Some institutions have implemented different class operation policies. These policies encompass annual quality audits, regular class observations, feedback mechanisms for SIEs and students, pre-and post-class guidelines for teaching, and maintaining small class sizes, typically capped at 30 students.	9	19
Annual quality audit	TNE programs often are required to undergo an annual program quality audit conducted by the parent institution due to the collaboration arrangement. This audit serves as an opportunity for local experts and representatives to meet with the home institutions' representatives. The interviews are conducted neutrally and confidentially, allowing for constructive feedback on program management and addressing any special requests from experts.	1	1
Annual standard guideline revision	An annual policy of revising teacher and class operation guidelines is applied to ensure they remain current and effective. These standard guidelines undergo a thorough review each year, allowing for adjustments whenever inconsistencies or inefficiencies are identified, ensures that guidelines align with evolving educational needs and best practices, fostering continuous improvement in our teaching and class operation procedures.	1	1
Class observation	Besides random observations every semester, some opt for informed class observation, where lecturers pair up and take turns observing each other's classes for 30 minutes to an hour. This collaborative approach encourages valuable feedback exchange between faculty members, enabling them to refine their teaching methods. While not all teachers may initially embrace feedback, it serves as a necessary tool for self-improvement and adjustment in teaching methodologies, benefiting both faculty and students.	3	4
Feedback collection mechanism	Some institutions foster a culture of open feedback exchange, applying it to SIEs, students, & alumni. SIEs are encouraged to provide direct feedback to the managers. The emphasis is on creating a supportive community where values are shared, and continuous improvement is pursued. Feedback from alumni students and market needs is also collected, providing industry insights to teachers which benefits both the individual's teaching or business endeavours, contributing to the program’s overall quality.	5	10
Pre-and-post class guideline	Some institutions have implemented a comprehensive pre-and-post class guideline policy. The pre-class guideline covers various aspects such as lesson preparation, teaching outline design, and maintaining class diaries. The post-class guideline outlines procedures for marking, handling mark appeals, and payment processing. They enforce marking and deadline policies, supported by reward and discipline systems to motivate compliance and ensure efficient reporting	4	5
Small class size	Some institutions maintain the small class size with maximum 30 students per class	1	1

Name	Description	Files	References
	to ensure more interaction between lecturers and students and facilitate the practical chances for learners.		
Department, school, and program meeting	The host institution mandates periodic meetings at institutional, program, and team levels to align objectives between the program, school, and department. These compulsory meetings ensure staff's alignment with institutional goals. Aside from formal one, monthly team meetings facilitate information exchange on teaching and research within the faculty. Faculty members and foreign professors collaboratively discuss and enhance ongoing research papers during these sessions.	3	3
Not very good procedure for SIEs	Due to our program's smaller size and structure, there may be limitations in terms of training and cross-training opportunities for experts.	1	1
Performance management & reward	They offer bonuses for high-impact publications and collect student feedback for performance improvement. Workshops, seminars, and professional development opportunities enhance teaching skills and cultural understanding. Regular evaluations and salary reviews motivate staff, and awards recognise excellence in teaching and research. Staff goal-setting aligns with institutional objectives, fostering a sense of purpose and contribution	8	22
Continuous training & development	Aiming to enhance the skills of SIEs, continuous training is provided which can be orientation sessions to keep all teachers updated on program principles & curriculum changes. Workshops are organised to improve teaching skills, covering areas such as new teaching methodology and psychology to help teachers navigate cultural differences and better engage with students. Training may be conducted by home institution representatives, industrial experts, or experienced academic colleagues.	6	9
Personal performance goal setting	At the start of each year, some institutions employ a personal performance goal-setting where individual staff discuss with line managers about their yearly performance target, aligning their goals with the program and university objectives. This process guides their contributions and career development. During personal career planning meetings, high-performing staff members may be offered leadership opportunities, such as leading subjects, as a reward for their commitment and exceptional performance	2	2
Salary increment based on performance	The salary increment based on performance aims at providing intrinsic motivation for staff. At the end of the year, SIEs who demonstrate exceptional performance and contribute significantly to the institution receive salary increases as recognition for their dedication and contributions.	5	7
Teaching & researching awards	Teaching and research awards open to all expat staff are given to recognise excellence in teaching and research practices. Some institutions offer bonuses for high-ranking publications in journals with impact factors above two. Additionally, rewards are extended to teachers with innovative ideas and exceed performance expectations. Foreign professors who surpass requirements in teaching and publications also receive extra incentives based on the quality of their work.	4	4
SIEs' support & benefits		7	14

Name	Description	Files	References
Collaborative & teaching support	Another policy relates to assigning teaching assistants, often local lecturers, or implementing a co-teaching policy. This collaborative effort involves SIEs handling approximately 60% of the class while Vietnamese lecturers manage the remaining 40%. These approaches aim to enhance teaching skills, improve communication, and provide support for SIEs in both teaching and navigating the local environment.	3	6
Job relocation among institutional campuses	Institutions offer job-relocation opportunities among their campuses in different cities. Teachers have the option to exchange campuses between semesters, allowing for flexibility in their teaching assignments.	1	1
Networking & team-building	One benefit is the commitment of the host institution to facilitate connections and networking events among institutional & academic members, between professors and student clubs. It encourages knowledge exchange, and relationship building, keeps faculty updated on industry trends, and benefits alumni and current students. Fostering these relationships contributes to the growth and development of all parties involved, enhancing the overall educational experience.	5	7
The hiring procedure and policies	All institutions follow a hiring procedure, starting with CV screening and concluding with interviews, either with the human resource department, academic managers, or interview panels. Some institutions incorporate demonstration teaching to assess teaching style, methodology, knowledge, and experience. Legal checks for academic qualifications, visas, and work permits are also conducted before extending teaching invitations.	10	24
Host _ Recruitment channels	Host institutions utilise different channels for SIEs recruitment, including employee referrals, their institutional HRM departments, international conferences, online sources, and recommendations from their home institutions.	11	31
Employee referral	The primary and most effective source of SIE candidates is through word of mouth and recommendations from local staff, especially those who have studied or worked overseas. Additionally, personal and professional networks, as well as internal referrals from professors and teachers within the program, play a crucial role in recruiting SIEs. These channels help ensure a quick adaptation to the program, reduce the risk of mismatches, and save on recruitment costs.	8	13
Institutional HRM department	From the human resource department of the institution	1	1
International conference	This recruitment source involves reaching out to potential SIE candidates who have attended international conferences hosted by the institution. Contact information collected during these conferences, such as email addresses and phone numbers, is used to approach candidates with event-related information and recruitment opportunities.	1	1
Online sources	Online recruitment sources can be the institution's official website, international forums, or dedicated recruitment platforms.	8	13
Professional collaborations	Another source of SIE candidate is institutional professional networking, including collaborations with corporations, English centres, other universities, or from	4	4

Name	Description	Files	References
	associations and partnerships with restaurants and hotels.		
Suggested by the home institutions	This recruitment source involves contacting potential SIE candidates through their home universities. The institution collaborates with universities that offer relevant programs and reaches out to individual lecturers who may be interested in participating as SIEs.	1	1
Host _ SIE's performance evaluation criteria	SIEs' performance evaluations vary among institutions, covering areas like meeting annual objectives, assessing behavior and attitude, gauging engagement and contribution, evaluating research and publication efforts, ensuring policy compliance, and assessing teaching fulfillment	11	29
Achievement of individual yearly objectives	SIEs' performance evaluation involves a collaborative process where key performance targets are established through discussions between the university and the employees, aligning with their contributions to the program, teaching loads, and student support activities. This evaluation draws from both university-set standards and objectives proposed by the employees themselves. It utilises performance review forms that encompass various areas.	4	7
Behaviour and attitude	The performance of SIEs is evaluated based on their behaviour and attitude, which encompass factors like continuous professional development, cultural adaptability, openness to sharing and learning, problem-solving skills, and teamwork and supportiveness.	4	11
Engagement & contribution	SIEs' evaluation considers their engagement and contribution. For full-time teachers, clear KPIs are set, while part-time teachers have implicit KPIs based on fulfilling basic requirements. Engagement is measured through readiness, availability for weekend classes, social integration, and involvement in department and university activities. Contribution is assessed via teaching commitments and willingness to accept additional classes, reflecting their commitment to the institution's needs.	4	6
Researching & publication	This criterion assesses SIEs based on their research productivity and the quality of their publications. Institutions typically set expectations for the number of publications SIEs should produce within a specific timeframe, often on an annual basis. Moreover, they may specify that these publications should appear in journals of a certain ranking or quality, such as journals indexed in prestigious databases like Web of Science or Scopus.	4	4
School's policy compliance	This criterion assesses SIEs based on their adherence to various institutional rules and teaching policies. This includes their ability to fulfill fundamental teaching responsibilities such as punctuality, ensuring they arrive in class on time, and following the established teaching schedule. Additionally, SIEs are expected to conform to institutional guidelines, which might encompass academic integrity, code of conduct, and any other specific rules or regulations set by the host institution.	2	2
Teaching fulfilment	Another criterion is the teaching fulfilment which reflected from students' success factors and satisfaction. It relies on diverse sources, including student feedback gathered through surveys, interviews, and meetings. Peer evaluations involve academic staff occasionally attending classes to assess teaching methods.	10	15

Name	Description	Files	References
Host _ SIEs' selection criteria	These criteria encompass factors like schedule alignment, cultural adaptability, language proficiency, teaching passion, academic qualifications, industry expertise, networking skills, long-term commitment, research and publication qualifications, teaching experience, and valid visa and work permit compliance.	11	57
Cultural awareness & adaptation intention	Another crucial selection criterion is adaptability and cultural awareness, not just related to Vietnamese culture but also emphasising the importance of understanding the culture of cooperation within the institution. Candidates are expected to follow institutional rules, regulations, and procedures effectively.	3	4
Corporate culture adaptability	Candidates are expected to follow institutional rules, regulations, and procedures effectively.	1	2
National cultural awareness & adaptability	Another selection criterion is evaluating candidates' life experiences abroad to assess their cultural adaptability, interpersonal skills, and willingness to embrace new work methods. Given that they teach Vietnamese students, an understanding of Vietnamese culture is considered beneficial.	2	2
Language proficiency for non-native English users	Language proficiency is a crucial selection criterion, especially for non-native English speakers. Candidates' ability to effectively communicate in English is assessed during interviews to ensure their English skills are sufficient for students to understand. While non-native teachers are considered, a certain level of English proficiency is required to enhance the students' language abilities.	2	2
Long-term commitment plan	Another selection criterion for SIEs is their commitment to working in the host country, especially at the university. It's essential for candidates to have a clear and compelling reason for wanting to work in the country and, more specifically, at the institution. This helps ensure that they are willing to work in the long term and align with the program's goals and mission, reducing the likelihood of mid-term changes.	4	5
Personalities & passion for teaching	Behaviour and attitude, including attributes such as honesty, integrity, patience, and a passion for teaching, are key selection criteria for SIEs. Host institutions value candidates who exhibit characteristics aligned with their institution's culture, such as openness to experience and a strong commitment to students' success. Additionally, candidates' reputations and cultural fit within the institution's community are considered during the selection process.	7	16
Professional academic degree	Selection criteria for academic qualifications of SIEs typically involve a preference for candidates holding a doctorate (PhD) degree, although master's degree holders are also considered. The candidate's qualifications must align with the program's requirements and meet the Ministry of Education and Training's standards for university-level teaching, which often necessitate at least a master's degree. Institutions prioritise candidates with solid industry backgrounds.	8	9
Professional expertise, experience, & network	SIEs are expected to have relevant working experience, particularly in fields that align with the subjects they will be teaching. This experience ensures that they can provide valuable insights and practical knowledge to students. Typically, institutions look for candidates with several years of managerial experience in their respective industries, ranging from three to five years or more. International experience can be a	10	16

Name	Description	Files	References
	plus, especially when teaching subjects related to cross-cultural.		
Researching & publication qualification	Some host institutions select SIE based on their research capabilities, including their ability to conduct research in the Vietnamese context. Additionally, their publication history is a crucial criterion, typically requiring a certain number of publications in reputable journals or ISI papers. This emphasises their role in mentoring and collaborating with local staff to publish high-quality papers in respected journals, contributing to the institution's academic excellence.	4	6
Teaching experience	This criterion focuses on candidates having relevant teaching experiences, which are assessed based on student satisfaction during demo teaching and the number of years of teaching experience. This is crucial to ensure that lecturers can effectively plan and conduct teaching activities that lead to positive learning outcomes for students.	7	9
The alignment of teaching schedule of SIEs with the school	Candidate selection for employment depends on factors like the university's academic calendar and the candidate's preferred start date, aligning recruitment timelines with the institution's scheduling and candidate preferences.	1	1
The valid visa and work permit	This criterion involves considering the candidate's ability to obtain a work permit in accordance with Vietnamese law. The process of securing a work permit can take time, and candidates need to meet the necessary requirements and possess qualifications for this purpose.	2	2
Host _ SIEs' selection processes	The selection process for SIEs varies among institutions but generally involves CV scanning, interviews with HR or academic managers (or a panel), and document checks to meet work permit requirements and program suitability. Some institutions also include demo teaching sessions to assess teaching styles, subject mastery, and instructional methods, sometimes with representatives and students present.	11	40
CV scanning	The initial screening process involves a thorough review of applicants' CVs to assess their suitability for teaching in our program. Their background, knowledge, and expertise to ensure alignment with the teaching area will be reviewed. This step is critical in identifying potential candidates for further steps.	9	10
Demo teaching	In the demo teaching step, candidates demonstrate their ability to leverage international expertise to enrich student learning experiences. This phase entails inviting candidates to conduct teaching demonstrations, offering valuable insights into their teaching styles, subject mastery, and instructional methods. These demonstrations may involve student and department head participation for observation and assessment towards the candidate's suitability for the position.	7	8
Document checks	In the document check phase, the candidate's qualifications and documents are thoroughly reviewed to ensure compliance with administrative requirements. This step involves submitting all necessary paperwork to the office of Human Resource Management in the host institution and the program managers at the home institutions, which assesses and approves the candidate's documentation for suitability in meeting the necessary permit and Ministry of Education and Training requirements and programs' requirements.	7	8

Name	Description	Files	References
Interview candidate	the final step in the selection is an interview where candidates are typically interviewed by either the program manager, the HR department, or a panel of interviewers. The primary goal of the interview is to gain a deeper understanding of the candidate's expectations, knowledge, qualifications, career plan, attitude, and suitability for the role. It is an opportunity to engage in a conversation with the candidate, ask relevant questions, and assess their overall fit for the position.	11	17
Interview with HR	HR will go with the screening process where they are talking with the candidate about their motivation, about what subject they want to teach and things like that.	3	3
Panel interview	panel interview where we do interview the candidate for different aspects, including teaching, including research, including their engagement, including their experience of teaching. That panel will make decision whether to recruit a candidate or not recruiting the candidate so that's the recruitment process happened in the university.	6	6
With program director		4	5
Host _ Ways for improving abilities and skills of SIEs	Institutions employ various methods for the development of SIEs' skills and abilities, encompassing Compliance & Orientation Onboarding Programs to ensure familiarity with corporate culture and procedures, Cultural & Student Communication Training to bridge cultural gaps, Faculty Networking & Knowledge Sharing to facilitate collaboration, Ongoing Professional Development to nurture ongoing growth, and Research Collaboration Hubs to encourage research projects and partnerships.	11	30
Academic support service & teaching assistant	Academic support for SIEs can vary among institutions. It may include Program Managers who offer guidance and support, the assignment of assistants, often local lecturers, to aid in communication and adaptation, or the use of mentors or class monitors to gather student feedback and enhance teaching effectiveness. These approaches adapt to the unique needs and resources of each institution.	5	7
Chances for receiving feedback	Institutions employ a multifaceted approach to gather feedback and provide support to continuous improvement of SIEs in teaching. This includes communication between candidates and line managers to clarify expectations, enabling a smoother transition into the university's teaching context. Feedback mechanisms involve student evaluations at the end of courses, program coordinators and level heads offering guidance and advice, regular meetings to discuss teaching and research, and class observations.	6	8
Orientation, training, & development		10	19
Compliance & orientation onboarding program	Compliance training in SIE programs encompasses various aspects of university life, such as teaching styles, student relationships, and classroom management. This training includes local seminars and meetings before the semester begins, as well as professional development opportunities and workshops on college-level teaching. Expert trainers, sometimes from overseas, contribute to this training, ensuring that SIEs are well-prepared for their roles within the organisation.	6	8

Name	Description	Files	References
Cultural & student communication training	New staff undergo training to facilitate effective communication with students while respecting cultural differences and understanding student characteristics. This training encompasses learning and teaching environments, managing relationships within the university, handling cultural conflicts, and adapting teaching approaches to Vietnamese students. Additionally, staff receive guidance on Vietnamese culture, student psychology, and teaching practices to ensure a smooth transition into the teaching role.	5	7
Faculty networking & knowledge sharing	Monthly faculty meetings encourage informal discussions among lecturers, facilitating the exchange of cultural and teaching experiences. These interactions help new staff feel welcomed and provide opportunities to learn from colleagues. While not formal training, this coaching and integration within disciplinary teams benefit both new experts and existing faculty members, promoting networking and collaborative engagement on academic projects, including research and industry-related initiatives.	4	5
Ongoing professional development	Institutions provide continuous professional development for SIEs through a variety of means. This includes online modules, seminars, and workshops covering topics like research, teaching methodologies, language skills, and platform usage. Individual coaching and mentoring are offered to help SIEs transition into their roles effectively. This multifaceted approach ensures SIEs have the necessary skills and knowledge to excel in their teaching assignments and adapt to the institution's standards.	4	5
Research collaboration hub	Monthly research group meetings promote knowledge exchange among faculty and foreign professors. Participants present their ongoing research, inviting discussions for improvement. Foreign professors may adapt their work for the Vietnamese context or propose collaborative projects. They also engage in internal and national research projects, co-authoring papers and pursuing national and international funding opportunities.	1	2
Host _ Ways to enhance motivations and willingness for SIEs	Various strategies to boost motivation among SIEs are used, including careful student selection to ensure they work with motivated learners, administrative support for a seamless transition, competitive salaries, personal and intrinsic motivation driven by a passion for teaching and cultural experiences, opportunities for personal learning and professional development, and regular salary reviews to retain skilled educators.	11	39
A well-selected pool of students	Host institutions invest in selecting high-caliber students, a factor that motivates SIEs and cultivates a positive teaching atmosphere, ultimately leading to elevated job satisfaction among educators.	2	5
Administrative support	Institutions offer various support mechanisms to enhance SIEs' motivation and commitment, including Work Permit Assistance, Pathways to Full-Time Teaching, Flexible Work Arrangements, and Travel and Accommodation Support.	5	10
Accommodation & travel support	Host institutions provide accommodation for SIEs during their stay in Vietnam, offering dormitory facilities and private offices, even more than what is typically available for local lecturers. Additionally, SIEs receive one return ticket to their host	2	2

Name	Description	Files	References
	country annually. This support ensures a comfortable transition for foreign educators to the institution.		
Flexible work arrangement	Host institutions provide SIEs with a flexible work arrangement, allowing for up to six months in Vietnam, and the option to return home while continuing research and online work. This approach accommodates diverse preferences, with many educators choosing Vietnam for its culture and dynamic environment. It underscores the flexibility of SIE contracts and working schedules, making it an attractive choice for those seeking a balance between work and cultural exploration.	3	3
Pathway to full-time teaching roles	Some institutions offer motivated SIEs the opportunity to become full-time lecturers. They may even provide sponsorship for necessary documentation. This arrangement allows SIEs to transition into permanent teaching roles, recognising their dedication and commitment to the institution's goals. It serves as an incentive for those who wish to pursue a long-term teaching career, fostering a sense of belonging and stability within the academic community.	1	1
Work permit & documentation support	The approach related to work permits and salary policies involves assisting SIEs in obtaining the necessary work permits and preparing the required documents for their employment in Vietnam.	4	4
Empowering SIEs	SIEs are motivated when they are empowered to voice their opinion and suggestions to higher-level managers. Some institutions also give SIEs opportunities to broaden their subject expertise and assume leadership roles, all driven by their intrinsic motivation to excel and build a meaningful professional network within the organisation. please make it better	4	5
Limited incentives beyond salary	The interviews suggest that, apart from their salary, institutions admit having limited incentives to offer to SIEs. While some connections and minimal paperwork support exist, there is a recognition that more comprehensive benefits or motivation strategies specifically tailored to SIEs are lacking.	4	7
Personal learning & professional development	This includes community integration activities, sponsored events, and networking opportunities with potential clients. They offer training workshops for departmental and institutional growth, along with education discounts. Collaborations with foreign universities and initiatives like welcome parties and team-building outings enhance relationships, encouraging SIEs' engagement and development.	7	13
Networking opportunities	These include team-building activities that encourage interaction between staff from different departments, fostering a sense of community and career exploration within the university. Knowledge sharing and best practices are promoted among staff. Some institutions organise welcome parties and outings to picturesque locations, creating a welcoming environment. SIEs are integrated into the university community, connected with students, alumni, potential, fostering valuable networks and business opportunities	5	6
Professional development supports	Host institutions provide a diverse range of training opportunities for SIEs to continuously enhance their skills and knowledge. These offerings include workshops covering research skills, online teaching, and professionalism, among others. SIEs	3	7

Name	Description	Files	References
	have the flexibility to choose from various training modules, aligning their development with career goals. They can participate in goal-setting sessions to boost motivation. The institutions also facilitate higher education pursuits with discounts on program fees		
Research & publication support	SIEs are encouraged to apply for research funding to pursue projects aligned with their individual interests and needs. Additionally, there is a collaborative teaching approach, where SIEs share classes with local instructors, fostering an environment for joint research and publication efforts, enhancing their motivation to remain engaged.	2	2
Salary increase	Host institutions offer competitive salaries to attract and retain skilled SIEs. Many provide salary increments based on performance and conduct regular reviews. The prospect of higher earnings, especially for native teachers, serves as an appealing incentive for foreign educators, making it a key motivator in their decision to teach abroad	5	5
SIE _ Challenges to adapt in a new environment	SIEs face multifaceted challenges. Adapting to new environments involves overcoming loneliness, navigating cultural disparities related to food, religion, and communication, and coping with transportation issues. Additionally, SIEs encounter workplace challenges like administrative disruptions, cultural integration complexities, nationality-based discrimination, and the struggle to balance qualifications and performance.	11	54
Yes	SIEs encounter distinct challenges in adjusting to their new environments. Firstly, they face personal hurdles such as loneliness and cultural differences when adapting to daily life. Secondly, they grapple with professional issues like inadequate resources and competitive work settings. Lastly, communication barriers, self-evaluation pressures, and potential discrimination impede their ability to interact effectively, encompassing their needs for interaction.	11	54
In general adjustment	SIEs encounter a range of challenges when adapting to a new living environment. Loneliness and homesickness are common, along with cultural differences affecting food, religion, and communication. Building social connections can be challenging due to local customs, and transportation difficulties add to their adaptation struggles.	8	18
Cultural differences	These encompass a "Communication and 'Saving Face' Cultural Barrier," where politeness may mask misunderstandings, alongside language barriers. The additional challenge of maintaining religious identity, particularly for Muslim expatriates, further complicates cultural adaptation. Food concerns, reflecting dietary restrictions, contribute to these hurdles.	6	7
Food concerns	The challenge here revolves around dietary restrictions and cultural food preferences for a Muslim family living in Vietnam, particularly in a non-Muslim-majority city. Finding halal or Muslim-friendly food options is difficult, and this concerns the family. While they appreciate Vietnamese cuisine, limited access to suitable food due to dormitory living arrangements poses a significant challenge to their dietary and cultural needs.	2	2

Name	Description	Files	References
Language barrier	Different regional accents within the country, such as northern and southern accents, make communication challenging. While some expats, like the interviewee, can speak Vietnamese, they may still encounter difficulties in understanding various accents. English programs at universities and learning basic Vietnamese phrases are helpful but often insufficient for fluent communication. Learning a new language can be a persistent challenge for expats.	3	3
Religious identity abroad	Muslim SIEs often face cultural challenges in countries with limited Muslim communities. The scarcity of mosques and the absence of familiar cultural norms, such as wearing a scarf or conservative clothing, can create discomfort, especially for Muslim women. These cultural differences impact their ability to freely integrate into the local culture and can make it challenging for them to feel at ease in public spaces.	1	1
Saving face cultural barrier	The "saving face" aspect, where people may outwardly agree and smile while not fully understanding, can lead to miscommunications. This cultural trait can extend to avoiding admitting mistakes, which can be frustrating for expats seeking clarity and honesty in social interactions. It's a challenge that combines language barriers with cultural norms of politeness and avoidance of confrontation.	1	1
Loneliness & homesickness	The challenge of working abroad, as reported by expatriates, revolves around feelings of loneliness and homesickness. Being far from family and missing significant cultural celebrations, like Christmas, compounds these emotions. Living alone in dormitories and having limited social interactions can intensify the sense of isolation. This overarching challenge highlights the emotional toll of expatriate life, especially when separated from loved ones and familiar traditions.	2	5
No challenges relating to living adaptation	SIEs generally feel fortunate in their ability to adapt to new living environments, citing support from locals and proactive research into local customs and cultures. Some have decades of experience in foreign settings, minimising the impact of challenges. These experiences vary, with some finding it more traumatic than others, but overall, they manage to navigate the adjustments effectively.	3	3
Social connection difficulties	SIEs often find it hard in forming meaningful connections with local residents. While they seek to engage and understand the local culture, locals may maintain some distance, leading to a sense of superficiality in interactions, primarily revolving around work-related topics. Language barriers further complicate efforts to deepen relationships, and expats may find themselves in a social bubble, experiencing moments of isolation.	2	6
Transportation difficulties	The lack of an efficient public transportation system necessitates reliance on taxis, causing inconvenience and financial strain. Contrasting this with China's advanced transportation infrastructure and convenient online services highlights the gap. Language barriers further compound the issue, as many apps in Vietnam lack translation options, hindering expats' ability to navigate daily life.	2	2
In interactive adjustment	SIEs discussed challenges in maintaining continuous interaction at work, including issues with management quality, competition among colleagues, language barriers, and administrative problems. They expressed frustration with the need to constantly	7	17

Name	Description	Files	References
	self-evaluate and discuss their performance, which they saw as a superficial aspect of corporate culture. Additionally, some experienced hierarchy and potential racism among expat colleagues.		
Administrative disruptions in SIEs' support	A high turnover rate among administrative staff can disrupt academic operations by causing inconsistencies in support for SIEs. Additionally, SIEs may face difficulties obtaining visas and work permits due to insufficient host institution support, while inadequate administrative assistance in classroom scheduling can hinder their academic experience. The "Delayed University Payment Challenge" involves extended waiting periods for salary disbursement.	4	10
High admin staff turnover	This challenge lies in the inefficient turnover of administrative staff, resulting in continuity problems. High demand and low compensation for English-speaking admin staff make it challenging to retain them. This frequent turnover affects not only the understanding of how schools operate but also the quality of interaction between lecturers, academics, and students. It can be difficult for SIEs to find consistent points of contact due to these staff changes.	1	1
In applying for visa & working permit	One of the significant challenge's expats face in Vietnam is the lengthy and complex bureaucratic process, including obtaining work permits and visa extensions. This process can take up to eight months and is compounded by language barriers, as most documents are in Vietnamese. The lack of clear support from host institutions can create confusion in managing paperwork, as HR departments and program coordinators may not have a streamlined procedure for expat lecturers.	3	3
Lack of administrative support	SIEs face challenges with administrative support, including classroom changes and confusion due to multiple campuses. This affects the quality of their interactions with schools. Technical issues, such as compatibility between gadgets and limited access to personal laptops, can hinder electronic support. Communication with administrative teams mainly occurs through email, which can lead to delays in addressing questions or concerns about content, exams, and processes.	2	3
Language barriers & limited administrative support	Language barriers hinder effective communication between SIEs and administrative staff, affecting daily operations such as class preparations and technical support. Additionally, administrative departments may lack senior decision-makers for resource allocation, leading to SIEs often purchasing their own supplies and adapters for teaching.	2	3
Cross-Cultural Workplace Adaptation	SIEs often struggle with cultural adaptation and social integration as they navigate unfamiliar environments and customs. Dealing with political complexities within academic institutions can become a nightmare, leading to frustration and disengagement. Language barriers and limited administrative support can impede their daily work. There also exist challenges in understanding cultural differences in work habits.	4	5
Cultural adaptation & social integration	SIEs experience challenges related to cultural differences and limited social interaction within the workplace. The absence of regular social gatherings and the differences in systems and policies compared to their previous institutions create	3	4

Name	Description	Files	References
	difficulties in adjusting to the new environment. Newcomers from various countries face similar challenges, highlighting the need for improved support and integration platforms within the organisation.		
Dealing with politic nightmare	SIEs often encounter workplace politics, creating a draining and competitive environment. These politics can persist for extended periods, impacting job satisfaction and collaboration among colleagues. The presence of individuals with MBAs is seen as a contributing factor to a profit-driven atmosphere, further exacerbating political tensions and making it challenging for SIEs to avoid involvement.	2	2
Nationality-based racism among SIEs	Navigating diverse expat environments can be challenging, with unspoken hierarchies and biases often prevalent. Different nationalities within expat teams may create a sense of hierarchy, impacting collaboration. Management's awareness and response to these dynamics are crucial, as unchecked biases can lead to toxic work environments. Issues such as sexism and racism may also emerge, making it difficult for expat instructors to address and resolve these sensitive problems.	1	1
In work adjustment	The challenges highlighted in the transcripts relate to adapting to work environments. Issues include inadequate resources and support for lecturers, limited communication and induction for newcomers, disparities in student abilities and motivations, and the impact of profit-driven models on academic quality and integrity. These challenges can hinder effective teaching and learning, creating pressure for educators to adapt and find innovative solutions.	9	28
Cross-Cultural Pedagogical Challenges	SIEs face various challenges in their teaching and research roles, including collaborating with local teachers, communication and feedback gaps, diverse student backgrounds, pressure to pass students, and resource limitations.	8	26
Collaborate with local teachers	Collaborating with local lecturers in Vietnam presents challenges for expat teachers, primarily due to differences in teaching styles and the heavy teaching load carried by local professors which result in local teaching staff having limited time for research, which can impact collaborative research efforts.	2	3
Communication & feedback gap	Many newcomers find themselves navigating the university environment independently, with limited guidance or introductory programs. This communication gap can lead to uncertainties and difficulties in understanding university procedures and expectations. Additionally, the feedback system for lecturers in Vietnam may be limited, requiring educators to actively seek feedback rather than receiving automatic evaluations. This can hinder their professional development and adjustment to the teaching environment.	4	8
Students' different learning styles & backgrounds	Many Vietnamese students lack self-learning skills. Students often rely on group discussions for reinforcement due to high uncertainty avoidance. Another challenge arises from a shift in student demographics, with increased technology proficiency and early work experiences requiring tailored teaching approaches. Some students may struggle to understand English instruction, highlighting the need for effective communication strategies.	4	9

Name	Description	Files	References
The pressure to pass students & lower quality	SIEs often face pressure to pass students due to financial motivations within institutions, potentially compromising academic standards. Some programs prioritise revenue generation over educational quality, leading to high tolerance in plagiarism policies. The profit-driven corporate model in higher education increases SIEs' concerns about maintaining educational standards while navigating a challenging teaching environment.	3	5
University lacks of learning resources	Limited access to updated academic resources and online libraries in Vietnamese universities hinders students' self-learning abilities. The learning resource limitations necessitate SIEs to self-prepare additional reading materials and extra tutorials. Additionally, outdated textbooks fail to align with current industry practices, posing a significant challenge for instructors.	3	5
Ineffective management roles	SIEs are reported to face ineffective management practices, especially when managers lack proper training for their roles. In some cases, managers prioritise self-promotion and competition over collaboration, contributing to a challenging work environment. Additionally, a culture of constantly highlighting one's achievements and goals can create a superficial corporate atmosphere. Discrimination in hiring practices based on identity politics, such as gender or sexual orientation, can also be a concern.	2	6
Low payment process	The university's payment process for teaching sessions is notably slow, with a typical one to one-and-a-half-month-long class taking even longer for salary disbursement. In practice, payments often arrive approximately one month after the course ends, causing delays and financial strain for instructors.	1	1
Performance expectation disparity dilemma	This challenge stems from a clash between academic qualifications and performance expectations. While other sectors prioritise results, education requires ongoing academic validation. Balancing this disparity strains SIEs' dedication and organisational recognition. They seek acknowledgment, transparent performance evaluations, and fair KPIs. Despite claims of equity, skepticism exists regarding policy implementation. Consequently, SIEs often rely on on self-worth & student progress as their main motivators.	2	7
SIE _ Conditions lead to better performance	Improving SIEs' performance requires actions from three key stakeholders. (1) Governments can simplify visa and work permit applications. (2) Host institutions should enhance practicality in curricula, offer visa application aid, flexible schedules, and manageable workloads, foster inclusivity, and acknowledge individual variances. (3) SIEs should invest time and effort in cultural preparation, recognising the typical 8-month adjustment period when relocating to a new place.	11	33
Actions taken by SIEs - cultural preparedness	Successful adaptation relies on openness, cultural sensitivity, and respect. SIEs should be aware of potential corporate politics and hierarchies. Issues like sexism and racism, despite being addressed on paper, often persist. SIEs benefit from recognising these dynamics and fostering positive relationships. Typically, it takes six to eight months to adapt by observing, learning local behaviour, and enhancing communication.	3	6

Name	Description	Files	References
Aware of cultural & corporate cultures	Successful adaptation as a SIE relies on attitude, openness, and cultural sensitivity. Disrespectful comments or arrogance toward the host culture can hinder integration. Understanding local politics, hierarchies, and addressing issues like sexism and racism on paper but not in practice can create challenges. SIEs often find it beneficial to acknowledge and navigate these dynamics to foster positive relationships and effectively teach in diverse environments.	1	3
Time & effort adjusting to the new place	The process of adapting to a new environment typically takes around six to eight months. SIEs should focus on observing and learning from their surroundings, understanding local behaviour, and adapting to work dynamics. Effective communication and relationship-building with colleagues and students also play a role, gradually easing the transition. This adjustment period is seen as a natural part of the expatriate experience.	2	4
Actions taken by the government - Easier visa & work permit application	SIEs propose that the government simplify the visa and work permit application process in Vietnam. They believe that the current documentation requirements are excessively burdensome, time-consuming, and energy-draining. A more efficient and less bureaucratic approach would facilitate the entry and employment of expatriates, fostering a more welcoming environment for foreign workers in the country.	1	1
Actions taken by the host institutions	Host institutions can enhance SIEs' performance by refining curricula for practicality, offering visa application support, implementing flexible work hours, manageable workloads, and promoting an inclusive culture. Recognising individual differences, providing proper training, and maintaining timely communication are also vital aspects of creating an environment conducive to SIE success.	10	29
For interaction adjustment - The promotion of inclusive culture	SIEs emphasise that host institutions can optimise their performance by fostering an inclusive culture through cultural exchange initiatives. A supportive environment empowers them to engage in collaborative research and invites visiting lecturers for personal and professional growth. Additionally, institutions should provide diverse motivation strategies tailored to individual needs, ensuring a conducive atmosphere for effective contributions.	5	17
Cultural exchange initiatives	Organising cultural events that bring together foreign teaching staff and Vietnamese colleagues can facilitate cultural exchange. Additionally, providing workshops and induction programs for foreign staff to acclimate to Vietnam's working culture is vital. Creating team-building events, both formal and informal, can strengthen trust, communication, and personal relationships among all staff members, promoting a harmonious work environment.	1	2
Develop a supportive culture	Host institutions should actively encourage questions and address concerns, creating a welcoming environment for staff. Regular meetings to discuss student performance and school improvements further enhance the teaching experience. This proactive approach fosters growth and problem-solving, a valuable quality often lacking in other institutions.	1	2
Empower collaborative research	The researcher aims to collaborate with Vietnamese colleagues for a research project but faces challenges in securing funding. Despite previous rejections, they hope for	1	4

Name	Description	Files	References
	success in the latest funding application. They emphasise the importance of obtaining research funding to facilitate meaningful research collaborations, while noting that Vietnamese colleagues often have heavy teaching loads, which can be a hindrance.		
Engage visiting lecturers for growth	Fostering a supportive and inclusive working culture is crucial. This should extend beyond full-time staff to involve visiting lecturers, encouraging their deeper engagement with the program and university, transforming them from mere teachers into collaborative contributors to the institution's growth.	1	1
Recognise individual needs in benefits offering	Recognising diverse motivations is vital within institutions. Education equips them with knowledge of motivation's complexities. Tailoring approaches rather than imposing one-size-fits-all solutions is essential. For instance, offering travel opportunities can be flexible to accommodate individual preferences, ensuring motivation resonates personally with each staff member.	1	1
For work adjustment & performance		9	16
Curriculum Optimisation & Quality Assurance	To enhance education, key suggestions include involving industry experts in curriculum design, balancing program objectives and English proficiency requirements, using plagiarism check software for academic integrity, aligning courses with local curriculum, and ensuring fair moderation processes to prevent bias and maintain standards.	3	7
Balancing learning objectives & English proficiency requirement	In the context of MBA programs, the pressure to ensure all students pass may lead to concerns about English proficiency. SIEs advocate for a stronger focus on the program's intended learning outcomes. They suggest that students' ability to understand concepts and knowledge in their field should take precedence over English proficiency. This approach considers the diverse backgrounds and objectives of MBA students, some of whom are experienced professionals management theory rather than language fluency.	1	5
Bridging academia & industry	Programs in Vietnam should bridge the gap between academia and industry by inviting non-PhD experts to share real-world insights. Schools need to shift from rigid PhD requirements and embrace diverse expertise, especially in emerging fields like AI and Blockchain. This collaborative approach can enrich programs, making them more relevant and dynamic for students.	1	4
Enhance academic integrity through Plagiarism check software	The host institution should invest in basic plagiarism check software to deter students from engaging in cheating behaviour. This preventive measure can contribute to academic integrity and create a fair learning environment. Further investment in such software would be beneficial for maintaining educational standards.	1	2
Enhance course alignment	SIEs emphasise the importance of aligning their courses with the local curriculum and program structure. They request detailed outlines of Vietnamese programs to better integrate their teaching. This information would enable them to ensure that their courses complement the overall program, maintain consistency with other subjects, and cater to students' needs in terms of content and context. Such alignment enhances the quality and relevance of education for Vietnamese students.	1	3

Name	Description	Files	References
Ensure fair assessment in the moderation process	SIEs highlight issues related to moderation and the need for fair assessment practices. They describe situations where they were unmoderated, indicating trust from institutions, or where moderation led to unexplained grade reductions by overseas moderators. They express concerns that moderation can be influenced by racial biases, with some moderators perceived as less qualified than the educators they assess.	1	1
Effective leadership	Leaders and managers, who have managerial knowledge and experience and know how to motivate people, how to recognise and reward individual performance.	1	1
Flexible working hours & manageable workload	SIEs emphasise the importance of manageable workloads and reduced pressure from educational institutions. They find it challenging when overwhelmed with multiple tasks and excessive information, leading to stress and difficulty prioritising assignments. Expatriates suggest that smaller, well-paced tasks would allow them to perform more effectively and prevent undue stress. This approach helps maintain work-life balance and ensures a productive academic environment.	1	4
Proper academic communication & orientation	SIEs stress the importance of effective communication channels within educational institutions, advocating for transparent mechanisms for teacher-administrator meetings. SIEs face with declining student engagement and disruptive behaviour. Orientations should incorporate insights on students' learning attitudes, support material requirements, and behaviour management strategies for SIEs	5	6
Clearer & timely communication	Expatriate teachers emphasise the need for improved communication channels within educational institutions. They suggest establishing clear mechanisms for meetings and discussions among teachers and program administrators. Many expats face issues with program-related problems that go unresolved due to a lack of communication. More transparent communication would enhance teacher satisfaction and contribute to student happiness.	2	2
Culture & students' characteristics orientation	SIEs face a decline in student engagement and disruptive behaviour, which can hinder the learning effectiveness. While foreign lecturers have an advantage with language and cultural understanding, they sometimes need to address discipline issues directly. To improve the situation, orientations for foreign lecturers should include information about students' learning attitudes, the need for support materials, and strategies to manage student behaviour effectively.	3	7
Visa security & administrative support	Expatriates' peace of mind, especially regarding visa security, greatly influences their work performance. The constant worry about visa issues can disrupt their mood and affect their behaviour at work. Administrative challenges further compound the problem, with staff sometimes passing problems onto lecturers rather than solving them. Effective academic management, particularly in HR, is crucial for creating a supportive and problem-solving environment for expat lecturers.	2	2
SIE _ Diverse International Experiences	SIEs' responses to prior international working experiences vary. Some mentioned international studying experiences, while others had international working experience. A few had no prior international exposure, with Vietnam being their first overseas destination, representing their first plane ride and international experience.	11	19

Name	Description	Files	References
Had international studying experiences	SIEs confirm their prior international work experience. This includes being employed by the same university where they obtained the PhD, as well as participating in an international exchange program that exposed them to international interactions with students from around the world.	3	3
Had international working experience	Many SIEs have substantial international working experience from various places. Some worked in China and UK, while others have experience in countries like New Zealand, Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand, Hong Kong, Macau, Dubai, Turkey, Ukraine, Hungary, Germany, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Maldives, and more. These experiences span across industries, including higher education and corporate training, contributing to their diverse backgrounds.	10	15
None at all	One SIE has no prior international working experience. Vietnam was their first overseas destination, marking their first plane ride and international experience.	1	1
SIE _ Motivations to work overseas	SIEs are motivated to work abroad in Vietnam by a blend of extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Extrinsic motivators include financial benefits, job security, and favourable living conditions. In contrast, intrinsic motivations arise from a desire to impact education, reunite with family, personal traits like adaptability to loneliness, and a preference for international work settings.	11	34
Pull factors	Pull factors stem from personal aspirations for academic and career growth, international experience, working at a high-ranking university, and attraction to the host country's culture	9	15
Family reunion	SIEs with Vietnamese backgrounds express their strong desire to reconnect with their roots and experience living in Vietnam. Some have family ties in Southeast Asia, motivating them to stay in the region. They choose to teach in Vietnam to maintain a connection with their homeland while imparting knowledge to the younger generation. These personal connections and a sense of purpose drive their decision to work in Vietnam.	3	3
Financial incentives	Financial compensation and salary packages often serve as a primary motivator for many international educators. Competitive pay, coupled with other benefits, like offered accommodation and flights tickets, can significantly influence their decision to work in foreign academic institutions.	3	3
High institutional ranking	The host institutions offer the advantage of potential mobility to other reputable universities after a few years of experience. This flexibility is a valuable consideration for academics, as it allows for career growth and the opportunity to explore different academic environments within the same institution's network of campuses.	1	2
International exposure	In these interviews, professionals share their motivations for transitioning to work abroad in education. For some, it's a desire to travel and explore new cultures, while for others, it's a way to combine their academic qualifications with their experience. International settings offer opportunities to interact with people from diverse backgrounds and gain insights into different learning dynamics, contributing to personal and professional growth.	8	10

Name	Description	Files	References
Job significance	SIEs are motivated to work in education by their passion for enhancing students' learning experiences and personal development. This drive transcends financial considerations, with a strong belief in their ability to make a meaningful impact. Some discover their teaching ability, eager to unlock their educational potential, while others, seize opportunities to apply their teaching licenses and experience in Vietnam, reinforcing their commitment to making an educational impact.	3	5
National attraction	Teaching in Vietnam attracts international educators for various reasons. The country offers a favourable climate, diverse and delicious food, and a lower cost of living that allows for substantial savings compared to many Western nations. Additionally, the opportunity to experience Vietnam's culture and history and work in an international academic environment are compelling incentives for educators seeking to work in Vietnam.	5	10
Push factors	Push factors are driven by economic difficulties, job instability, and the desire to reunite with family members, pushing professionals to seek better career opportunities elsewhere.	1	2
Limited job opportunities & high living costs	Individuals often choose to work abroad due to limited job opportunities and soaring living costs in their home countries. The intense competition among young professionals further prompts this decision. The prospect of better employment options and a comparatively lower cost of living overseas becomes a driving force, compelling individuals to seek opportunities beyond their home borders.	1	2
SIE _ Relevant training relating to working overseas	SIEs' training experiences when working abroad in Vietnam are diverse. While some receive formal training in corporate culture, cultural sensitivity, and pedagogy methods, others rely on self-observation and adaptation.	11	15
Not really _ Mostly from the on-the-job training	SIEs working abroad in Vietnam often receive minimal formal training for their roles. Some institutions arrange cultural and university culture training, along with online courses related to Vietnam. However, full-time and visiting lecturers may have different training experiences. While on-the-job training and self-study can help adapt to local culture and teaching dynamics, formal training programs appear limited.	9	12
Yes	SIEs' training experiences vary. Some may undergo corporate culture training, while others focus on cultural sensitivity and understanding students' unique needs. Additionally, pedagogy methods tailored for teaching in international settings are provided selectively. This diversity in training equips SIEs with a range of skills to succeed in their roles and foster inclusive, culturally sensitive learning environments.	3	7
Corporate culture	The training on corporate culture involves preparing SIEs to navigate and adapt to the organisational culture of their host institutions in Vietnam. It covers aspects like communication norms, teamwork, hierarchy, and values unique to the institution.	1	1
Cultural sensitivity & students' uniqueness	SIEs receive training aimed at cultural adaptation. They learn about the university and city culture, addressing the nuances of living in the new environment. Some teachers attend multicultural workshops to enhance their understanding of different cultures. Such training promotes open-mindedness and sensitivity, facilitating	2	5

Name	Description	Files	References
	smoother integration into the host culture.		
Suitable pedagogy methods	SIEs attend meetings and training sessions to enhance their teaching skills. These sessions cover topics such as starting lectures and classroom management. Some teachers have received additional training abroad, including cultural immersion and teaching seminars in countries like Korea, Japan, and China. This diverse training background equips them with the skills needed for effective teaching in Vietnam.	3	3
SIE _ Self-evaluation	SIEs' self-evaluations vary, with some discontent or recognising the need for improvement, while others find satisfaction in their roles. Many have established local connections and are proud of their research and publications. They also value positive teaching outcomes, receiving praise from local learners. Their emphasis remains on practical, localised training methods, contributing to overall job satisfaction.	11	18
Not really good	In the first semester, challenges at home and work initially led to doubts about staying. However, adaptation to institutional policies and work methods occurred over time, instilling confidence. Improvement in teaching methods, especially video preparation, was recognised as necessary.	3	6
Perceived to be able to do better	Some SIEs believes they could achieve more with the qualifications sought by the university. Reflecting on their performance in Vietnam over years, they feel they missed opportunities by playing it safe. In their work evaluation, they rate themselves an eight, acknowledging the complexity of teaching individual students with unique needs. They stress the importance of asking questions for clarity and understanding.	2	3
Satisfied	Several SIEs express satisfaction with their roles. Some have successfully built local relationships, while others take pride in research and publications. Many are content with positive teaching outcomes, receiving favourable feedback from local learners. Their focus is on practical, localised training methods, contributing to job satisfaction.	9	10
In developing relationship with local people	Over the past year, SIEs' work performance at the university has been positively received. They believe they have met university objectives and fostered strong relationships with colleagues and students. They also mention their commitment to learning the language in Vietnam, taking lessons and actively engaging with locals, although their language journey faced interruptions due to COVID-19.	2	2
In publication	Some SIEs take pride in having a paper published in a reputable journal, indicating positive outcomes in research.	2	2
In teaching outcomes	SIEs evaluates their work performance based on personal satisfaction rather than external validation. They emphasise the importance of self-imposed standards and not relying on others' recognition. They mention receiving positive feedback from students as a measure of their performance and note that their teaching is well-received. Their teaching approach includes using Vietnamese case studies, and they value engaging students in practical applications of business concepts.	7	11

Name	Description	Files	References
SIE _ Ways to adapt better to a new working environment	SIEs offer varied insights on adapting to new work environments. Strategies include staying updated with industry knowledge, striking a balance between local and global teaching styles, seeking support from colleagues and mentors, and acknowledging challenges in workforce adaptation. These diverse approaches reflect their experiences and efforts to thrive in different educational settings.	11	29
Keep update & apply new knowledge to the job	SIEs use diverse strategies to adapt to new work environments. They undergo university training to grasp local regulations. Tailoring teaching to local students involves self-study and group discussions. Recognising cultural communication nuances is essential. Staying current with industry trends and employing technology aids adaptation. Integrating industry insights into teaching connects academia with practical experience.	4	8
Participate trainings offered by the university	SIEs enrol in a course about living in Vietnam. The reading material covers the country's policies, rules, and regulations. It offers valuable information for adjusting to life in Vietnam, helping individuals understand what is permitted and what is not.	1	1
Research & recognise national policies & cultural differences	In Vietnam, communication requires simpler language and less focus on impressing with vocabulary. Email etiquette varies, impacting responses and understanding. People may use vague language to convey refusal, contrasting with more direct communication in Europe. Clear instructions are essential. Some institutions have minimal face-to-face interaction, relying heavily on email. Cultural nuances affect teacher-student relationships, with Vietnam's informality potentially surprising foreign educators.	5	11
Update industrial knowledge & technological changes	To adapt to the evolving educational landscape, SIEs emphasise staying informed about industry trends, utilising technology for interactive learning experiences, and designing assessments that challenge students to apply their knowledge rather than rely on tools like Chat GPT. They also stress the importance of blending industry insights into their teaching approach to bridge the gap between academia and real-world practice.	2	4
Localise vs. globallise teaching needs	The interviewee, lacking formal teaching experience, didn't fully conform to local teaching norms but instead adapted their approach based on their business background. They prioritised understanding students' unique needs, encouraged discussion, and avoided PowerPoint. While maintaining their style, they made slight adjustments to suit learners. Their approach, initially met with resistance, ultimately aligned with a more international teaching style, emphasising critical thinking.	5	10
Adapt teaching strategies for varied student profiles	In Vietnam, SIEs recognise local students' high uncertainty avoidance, limited self-learning, and preference for authority. They promote self-study, group discussions, and task ambiguity to help students adapt to less structured learning. SIEs consider demographics, scarcity of resources, and evolving student characteristics, simplifying concepts and using local case studies to enhance learning.	4	14
Seek support from colleagues & mentors	Some SIEs find support from colleagues and mentors. They seek assistance from peers, especially those from their home country or institute, to navigate challenges. When facing significant issues, they turn to their managers for guidance. Building	7	8

Name	Description	Files	References
	trust, communication, and relationships with colleagues are vital aspects of their adjustment process, ensuring they have a network to rely on when needed.		
Still struggling with workforce adaptation	Some SIEs acknowledge the challenges of adapting to a new teaching environment, especially as they age and may be less inclined to change. They found certain teaching assignments unenjoyable and sought to avoid them. In some cases, the management within universities may not adequately support collaboration among staff, leading to a competitive atmosphere. Additionally, identity politics can influence hiring practices, affecting the dynamics in Western university environments.	3	4
SIE _ Ways to adapt to a new living environment	SIEs in Vietnam employ diverse strategies for adaptation. Some prioritise a cultural adaptation mindset and open-mindedness, while others seek support from their home country's community. Researching local culture and language, and avoiding fellow expat connections are also common. Building local connections and exploring regions are crucial for their varied approaches to successful adaptation.	11	32
Develop cultural adaptation mindset	This involves acknowledging the normality of culture shock, embracing it as part of the adventure, and avoiding anger or lashing out. This mindset priorities cultural intelligence, respecting cultural differences, and seeking clarification when in doubt. Being patient, humble, and open to learning are also essential aspects of this approach to adapting to a new culture.	5	12
Being humble & patient with changes	entails humility, patience, respect for differences, and seeking clarity when in doubt. Additionally, fostering an open-minded attitude involves embracing new experiences, avoiding ethnocentrism, and being receptive to unfamiliar cultures, fostering curiosity, patience, and humility, facilitating successful adaptation among expats while respecting cultural diversity.	3	6
Having open-minded to new experiences	Maintaining an "Open-Minded Adaptation Attitude" is crucial for thriving as an expat in Vietnam. This mindset involves embracing new experiences, avoiding a homegrown mentality, and being receptive to unfamiliar cultures. Open-mindedness fosters curiosity, patience, and humility while seeking information and understanding. It helps expats navigate cultural differences respectfully and adapt successfully.	4	8
Integrate in expat community	Expats in Vietnam often find support and a sense of belonging through their home country's community, helping them adapt. Some initially struggle with the adjustment but connecting with fellow countrymen over meals and gatherings eases the transition.	2	3
Integrate in local community	SIEs adapting to Vietnam should research local work culture and corporate norms, learn the language, and gain on-ground experience. They often avoid connecting with fellow expats to foster genuine understanding of Vietnamese culture and prevent financial strains. Building connections with locals, attending events, and exploring various regions contribute to successful adaptation.	9	25

Name	Description	Files	References
Avoid connecting with expats & people from the same community	Many SIEs in Vietnam share contrasting experiences with fellow countrymen. Some avoid forming friendships with fellow expats, citing potential negativity and conflicts within these circles. They prefer connecting with locals to build mutual capabilities and avoid imposing foreign views on Vietnamese culture. Others express concerns about the financial aspects of friendships with fellow expats, as lending money can strain relationships.	3	6
Build local connection	SIEs in Vietnam often make friends with locals who share their interests to enhance their understanding of the culture. Some attend networking events or engage with local communities through hobbies. Building relationships with local colleagues and mentors helps them adapt and navigate the new environment. Immersing themselves in different regions of Vietnam also contributes to a deeper appreciation of local customs and culture. These experiences are considered valuable for personal growth and adaptation.	9	18
Research new environment	Adapting to a new work environment in Vietnam involves thorough research. SIEs recommend studying websites, videos, and conversations about Vietnamese work culture and teaching styles. Learning the local language can be advantageous. However, some acknowledge that true understanding only comes with on-ground experience. Additionally, researching the specific corporate culture of the institution through websites, forums, and employee interactions is crucial for successful adaptation.	4	4
SIE _ Ways to develop personal relationship & network	SIEs employ diverse approaches to build personal networks in new countries. Authenticity and sincerity are valued for meaningful professional connections. Some invest time and effort, while others prioritise small family and friend circles, trusting that needed connections will emerge naturally.	11	25
Being authentic, being sincere	Being authentic and sincere is vital for building meaningful connections in a professional setting. For instance, an expat teaching in Vietnam demonstrates sincerity by organising lunches for colleagues despite cultural differences. This authenticity fosters strong bonds, enriches relationships, and enhances working connections, transcending language and cultural barriers.	2	2
Invest time & effort to establish meaningful relationships	SIEs recognise the importance of investing time and effort to establish meaningful relationships in a new country. They engage in activities like going out for coffee, meals, and social gatherings, building rapport with colleagues and locals. Developing personal bonds, understanding students' needs, and connecting with professionals in various fields contribute to their successful network building efforts.	8	23
Through family connection	Some SIEs expand their network in Vietnam through family connections. Having relatives and a spouse with local ties provided an existing network, allowing them to connect with people through their extended family, creating valuable relationships in the country.	3	3