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RE-IMAGINING THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION:

a case study of a UK University

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Declaration

I confirm that this is my own work, and that the use of all material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged.

Signed: Date:

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Abstract

This thesis seeks to explore how international postgraduate students and university staff dealing with internationalisation take advantage of the opportunities and/or tackle the challenges that globalisation and international education have brought to the landscape of Higher Education (HE) in the UK. As the majority of studies are neither supported by stories from the field, nor informed by accounts of the experience of practitioners dealing with students in various multicultural landscapes, the study bridges this gap by investigating postgraduate international students' and staff experiences on four different campuses of the university. Drawing on Appadurai's notion of 'Imagined Worlds' (1990) and Bhabha's 'Third Space' (1994), complemented by Edward and Usher's 'Pedagogy of (Dis)location' (2000) and Wenger's 'Communities of Practice' (1998), the study captures the complexities of studying and working in an international education setting.

The methodology of the study was broadly constructionist and interpretive. A critical ethnography methodology was adapted to analyse and present qualitative primary data gathered from narratives through documents, questionnaires, focus groups and semi-structured interviews on my participants' perceptions, experiences and attitudes in relation to the new diaspora in the international education setting. Thematic analysis was adopted to interpret the raw data. Accounts of students and staff experience and perceptions were jointly constructed by the participants and the researcher. Issues of reflexivity were addressed throughout the study to enhance the rigour of the research. Emerging themes were explored to understand how the intercultural experiences of students and staff in an international education setting, impact academic debate, policy development and practice within HE institutions more broadly.

Three main themes were identified from participants' comments, perceptions, and narratives: addressing the changing landscape of HE from

the top, dealing with internationalisation on the ground, and adapting pedagogy and curriculum. The findings suggest that enhancing international student experience can be a ready asset, triggering a reconsideration of contemporary realities and practices at the university, but first, the university needs to address the changing landscape of HE by developing stronger connections with the international students themselves. The thesis includes a number of recommendations and practical implications to consider a more sustainable approach to internationalisation.

Acronyms

BIS – Department for Business, Innovation and Skills

DPVC – Deputy Pro Vice Chancellor

EAP – English for Academic Purposes

EU – European Union

GDAD – Graduate Diploma for Art and Design

HE – Higher Education

HESA – Higher Education Statistics Agency

IaH – Internationalisation at Home

IBM – International Business Machines

IELTS – International English Language Testing System

IFADM – International Foundation for Art, Design and Media

IoC – Internationalisation of Curriculum

IPP – International Pathway Programmes

ISB – International Student I-Barometer (student survey)

ISS - The Internal Students Survey

MBA – Master of Business Administration

MOOCSA - Massive Open Online Courses

NSS - The National Student Survey

OECD – Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

PG – Postgraduate

REF – Research Excellence Framework

SU – Student Union

TEF – Teaching Excellence Framework

TESOL – Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

UK – The United Kingdom

UKCISA – The UK Council for International Student Affairs

UKIP – United Kingdom Independent Party

UNESCO – The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

USA – The United States of America

VLE – Virtual Learning Environment

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.2 The development of this study

This thesis seeks to explore how international postgraduate students and university staff dealing with international students take advantage of the opportunities and/or tackle the challenges that globalisation and internationalisation have brought to the landscape of HE in the UK. The research is driven by my own intercultural experience of studying, living and working in the UK, Poland and China and was triggered by my background in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) and Sociolinguistics. In October 2011, I registered as a full-time PhD student, and then, transferred to a part-time mode, due to work opportunities offering me insights into my key research questions. My role as an International Pathway Programmes English for Academic Purposes Co-ordinator at a UK university has given me plenty of opportunities to gain a deeper understanding of international postgraduate students' experience in the UK and has provided a valuable platform to collect and analyse data.

The research aims and questions set out below were not apparent at the start of this journey, but evolved over a considerable period of time, emanating from the extensive review of the relevant literature in the first year of my PhD study, and more importantly, from the reflection on my own experiences as a professional dealing with internationalisation as well as being an 'international' student in the UK myself. Since my initial registration, I have developed an extensive understanding of the research topic under investigation. Based on my reading of the relevant literature and my involvement in the field of internationalisation, my interest began to drift towards the impact of globalisation on the changing landscape of HE through an investigation of intercultural experiences of people caught up in this process – both, students and staff.

My literature review suggests that the internationalisation of HE tends to be theorised at the organisational, strategic level and focuses on the growing numbers of 'international students'. There have been very few in-depth investigations regarding the impact of globalisation on the internationalisation of HE and its implications for interactions between international students, home students, and academics; especially in the UK. Most research carried out in this area pays attention to the experiences of students dealing with adjustment to the new sociocultural setting (for example: Kwon, 2009; Galloway and Jenkins, 2005; Russel, Rosenthal and Thomson, 2010).

Although universities enthusiastically espouse internationalisation in terms of, for instance, student recruitment, there is little discussion of the implications for pedagogy and curriculum. As the majority of studies are not supported by stories from the field considering the perspectives of either staff or students, I decided to address this gap in my own research, especially in view of my relatively easy access to international students and their teachers. This study, then, will attempt to address a number of gaps in the existing literature by focussing on international postgraduate students as well as staff involved in international education. The relationship between these two groups has received limited attention to date.

1.2 Research aims and questions

This thesis, then, explores the transformative intercultural experiences of postgraduate international students and staff dealing with international education in a UK university. Its ultimate aim is to help inform the university's unwritten internationalisation strategy and improve the quality of teaching and learning as well as international student support areas. It addresses the following questions:

- How has the university addressed the changing landscape of HE in regards to internationalisation?

- What are the views/attitudes of international students and staff on the university's approach to internationalisation?
- To what extent do current pedagogy and curriculum accommodate international student needs?

1.3 Structure of thesis

This thesis is composed of eight chapters. The first chapter has offered a justification for undertaking this study, its research aims and questions.

Chapter two provides the context for this study, and pays attention in particular, to the rhetoric surrounding the internationalisation of HE, and the international student experience in relation to intercultural communication as well as pedagogy and curriculum.

Chapter three examines key concepts such as globalisation and internationalisation as well as the intertwined theories of Appadurai's 'Indigenisation', Bhabha's 'Third Space', Edward and Usher's 'Pedagogy of (Dis)location' and Wenger's 'Communities of Practice'.

Chapter four offers a detailed discussion of the research methodology adopted, including an outline of the philosophy that underpins the approach, research paradigm, research methodology, methods, data analysis procedure, transcription, issues of rigour and ethical considerations.

Chapters five to seven present the findings of this study. Chapter five discusses issues related to the changing landscape of HE brought about by globalisation and internationalisation and how it is dealt from the top. Chapter six offers insights into challenges of dealing with internationalisation on the ground – it offers challenges and strategies for a more effective use of intercultural communication among all stakeholders: international students, home students and staff dealing with international education while chapter

seven explores the impact of international education on pedagogy and curriculum.

Finally, chapter eight summarises the findings that answer the research questions, considers the contribution of the study and its limitations, and offers recommendations for policy makers and practitioners.

Chapter Two

International Education and Globalisation

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on issues of globalisation and policy in
international education as well as more student-facing issues around culture
and curriculum. It begins with a discussion of what is currently understood
by international education before moving to a consideration of the impact of
globalisation and the accompanying discourse of marketisation. Then, an
overview of studies of culture in HE and its implications for the international
student experience will prepare the ground for a close examination of
current understandings of an internationalised curriculum and associated
teaching and learning issues as well as some insights to how language and
identity impact students' learning.

2.2 International Education

Existing studies of international education and globalisation, their dynamic
relationship, meanings and rationale are numerous and form the context for
this study. The discussion of international education, which follows, will
include the multiple meanings of the term, the income it generates and the
associated celebration it brings. It will then examine the current situation in
terms of international student recruitment in the UK and shed light on to the
attractions of international education.

2.2.1 What is international education?

The term 'international education' has multiple meanings. One of the most
common associations is with the recruitment of international students
(Bennell & Pearce, 1998). Another relates to transnational education, the
wide range of educational activities that go beyond national borders (Clyne
et al., 2001: 111; Zigueas, 2007; Dolby & Rahman, 2008). A common
perception is that international education provides opportunities for a global

business consisting of multiple networks of institutions including academics and students. Usually, a university's 'worldwide' status is achieved by its ability to generate income from international sources, such as international students' fees, franchises, overseas branch campuses and aid and donations from overseas alumni (Chowdhury & Phan Le Ha, 2014: 2). As such, marketing staff identify potential hotspots around the world in order to engage with prospective students, in the politically neutral language of the 'market' (2014, 2). Chowdhury and Phan Le Ha argue that although universities claim to recognise students as rational, intelligent and choice-exercising individuals, they tend to give them an illusion of choice at the same time as creating and sustaining the desire to participate in international education (2014, 2).

2.2.2 Economic imperatives

The income stream that international education generates is a recurrent theme in the literature (Altbach, 2004; Dolby & Rahna, 2011; Frolich, 2006; Harman, 2005, Phan Le Ha, 2013). For instance, in the case of the UK today, media releases, policy documents and institutional reports tend to celebrate international education in all its forms as an opportunity, as summarised in the policy document (BIS, 2013) *International education strategy: global growth and prosperity* in which typical statements include:

> BIS (Department for Business, Innovation and Skills) estimates that in 2011 education exports were worth £17.5bn to the UK economy. This strategy analyses the economic opportunities resulting from this growth, and sets out a targeted plan for the UK to grasp them, building on our education strengths both at home and abroad. Britain is already in a powerful position. Our schools, colleges and universities have a long history of excellence and innovation, and a global reputation for quality and rigour. Our reforms at all levels of education have excited interest from across the world, with the OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-

operation and Development) concluding recently that Britain is the first country in Europe to have achieved a sustainable system for financing HE.

This report acknowledges that, at present, 75% of educational export income comes from international students studying in the UK. It also emphasises the value of being taught by native speakers and other aspects of the UK educational brand, while recognising the importance of providing a warm welcome and support for international students and keeping in touch after they go home. There is also an awareness of the need to protect the international education market by making changes to immigration policy:

> We have reformed the student visa system to ensure that students who are not genuine cannot abuse the system. There remain some misunderstandings about visa rules and post study opportunities to work. We must signal clearly that there is no cap on the number of students who can come to study in the UK and no intention to introduce one. Nor is there any cap on the number of former students who can stay on to work as long as they have a graduate job. (BIS, 2013)

Additionally, the document (BIS, 2013) highlights the automatic right of PhD graduates to stay for up to a year to work after completing their doctorate and there is a new scheme for up to 1,000 MBA (Master of Business Administration) students to stay here for a year on a Tier 1 visa. The economic benefits offered by international education are summarised in Figure 2.1:

HM Government

International Education

9% — Educational Products & Services

7% — Further Education

8% — Transnational Education

11% — English Language Teaching

4% — Schools

61% — Higher Education
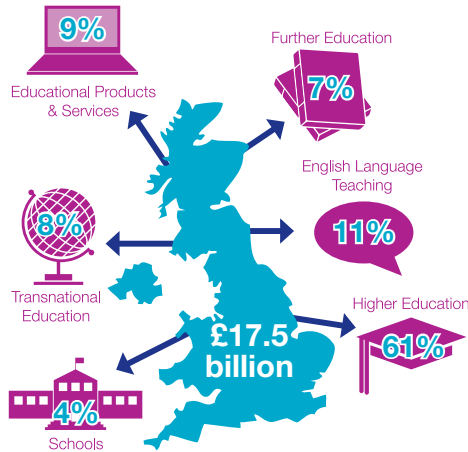
£17.5 billion

UK Education exports were worth an estimated **£17.5 billion in 2011**.

United States 16.5%

United Kingdom 13%

Germany 6.3%

France 6.2%

Australia 6.1%

Canada 4.7%
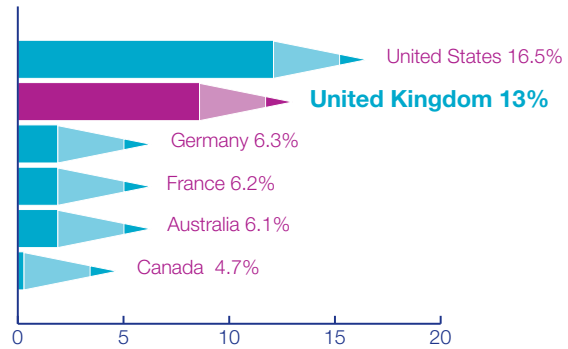
The UK was the second most popular destination for international HE students, with **13% of the global total in 2011**.

7%
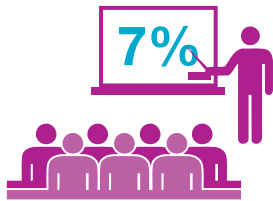
The global growth potential is **7% each year** from 2012 to 2017 on all forms of education (baseline of $4.45 trillion in 2012).

23%

The global e-learning market is forecast to grow by an average of **23% each year** from 2012 to 2017 (baseline of $91 billion in 2012).

50%
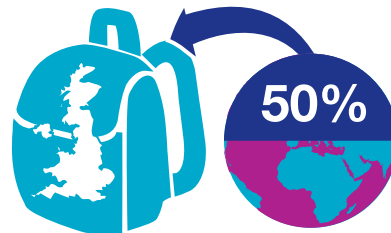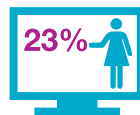
In 2011, the **UK had the largest share of English language students** studying outside their home country with almost 50% of students by volume and 35% of the global market by value.

#indstrategy

Figure 2.1: International education infographics: why the sector is important to the UK economy (HM Government, 2013)

2.2.3 International Student numbers in the UK

The First Statistical Release from HESA (HE Statistics Agency, 2013-14) shows that the number of students from outside the UK coming to study in the UK increased slightly by 3% to 435,500 (UKCISA, 2015):

> The number of Chinese students far exceeds any other nationality at 87,895. Indian students are the next largest cohort with 19,750 although this represents a drop of 2,635 on the previous year. University College London hosted the largest number of international (EU and non-EU) students in the UK with a total of 11,850.

2.2.4 Desire for International Education

So, why is international education so desired? As Sidhu (2005: 23) claims, a number of both 'push' and 'pull' factors are implicated. While the reduced capacity of local universities in the 'sending countries' works as a 'push' factor, the marketing and promotional activities of the universities in producer countries work as 'pull' factors, creating the desire in an affluent middle class to consume a 'Western' commodity (Davies, 1992, in Sidhu, 2003: 23; Phan Le Ha, 2013). Chowdhury & Phan Le Ha (2014, 3) explain that in the politically neutral language of the market, agency is perceived to reside firmly in the 'sending' countries and the autonomous decisions of consumers. No distinction is drawn between 'push' and 'pull' factors within consumption sites, where they are simply constituted as 'demand'. The growth of international education can be attributed to other factors influencing student choice of study destinations, such as 'capacities of the HE system of receiving countries' and the flexibility of admission policies and immigration regulations (Cummings, 1991).

In this view, international students are given fixed identities, such as student, customer, consumer which are then exploited to consolidate and normalise the commercial interest of institutions (Chowdhury & Phan Le Ha, 2014, 4). In the process of the universities' marketing, international students are not only institutionally and discursively patronised, but they also paradoxically

play a part in the consolidation of a vicious circle. The bait of an internationally recognised degree is "the anticipated product of a vast network of advertisement in academia, both in the media and English language teaching discourses" (2014, 4). At the same time, it is a side effect of the power relations projected by the recipients of this education system. On the one hand, English is utilised as a product in the market where demand is constantly on the rise, and on the other, consumers – here, students, acting as secondary agents – further legitimise and regularise this demand through the unconscious and impulsive adoption of its discursive maxims (2014, 4).

2.3 Exploring globalisation

The current debate on the globalisation-internationalisation relationship focuses on the complexity of globalisation and contributes to a deeper understanding of the internationalisation of HE introduced above.

2.3.1 Globalisation and Higher Education: the economic dimension

The literature confirms that economic globalisation is affecting education in many different ways (Apple, 2000; Bartell 2003; Beerkens, 2003; Bond & Lemasson, 1999; Burbules & Torres, 2000; Cambridge, 2002; Edwards & Usher, 2000; Hayrinen-Alestalo & Peltola, 2006; Henry, Linguard, Rizvi & Taylor, 1999; Levin, 2003; Rizvi & Linguard, 2000). The research on school educational policy-making, for instance, indicates that institutions are encouraged to operate in business-oriented managerial styles, where measurable student outcomes are aligned with employment-related skills and competencies, and there are efforts to control and introduce national curricula (Apple, 2000; Burbules & Torres, 2000; Edwards & Usher, 2000). Apple (2000) argues that there is considerable influence of conservative beliefs on educational policy and practice, where students are viewed as "human capital" (p. 60), schools forced to compete in the market and analysis of education is driven by economic goals.

Edwards and Usher (1998) claim that education has always had a specific role in nation building and national culture, but that this role has increased in the global era. New systems of production and markets have emerged and started competing with each other, leading to the promotion of the specific competencies and skills needed to favourably locate a nation regionally and globally. Education, consequently, aids and supplies globalisation, resulting in, for example, the growth of MOOCs (massive open online courses), educational technology, educational markets, including demand-driven programmes and courses, the building of international campuses overseas, the recruitment of international students and the promotion of English as an international language (p. 164).

HE is, correspondingly, linked to the labour market in both the public and private sectors, in national contexts. The growth of the transnational production characteristic of globalisation, and the weakening of the welfare state have further intensified the relationships between the purposes of economic globalisation (and the market) and HE (Magnussen, 2000; Marginson, 1997).

Globalisation has triggered a tension in how universities reply. Becks (2008, 72) summarizes that, on the one hand, they are 'local' institutions, expected to cater for the needs of local communities, including access to marginalized people. This is the 'inward-looking' orientation. "On the other hand, competition, national pressures and the opportunity created by globalisation forces universities to look outwards to both enhance networks and widen the scope of the institution; these are the global/local tensions of the times" (Becks, 2008, 72). Scott (1998, 109) depicts this as the tension between the "massification" of HE and internationalisation.

Public universities are connected with state power. They are reliant on the government for their budget, and, in turn, governments progressively expect universities to accomplish a national purpose.

Although international economic competitiveness is not the sole reason for the funding of HE, there is increased pressure for education to play a role in aligning with national policy in the 'training' of graduates in specific competencies in order to maintain national competitiveness and national identity. While facing increased pressure, government funding and resources to post-secondary institutions are declining, thus encouraging these institutions to develop a more entrepreneurial approach towards survival with strategies such as the marketing of educational products and services (Becks, 2008, 73).

As Beck (2008) notes, a number of universities are recognising the urgent need to re-position their institutions in a far more globally competitive context, and are seeking ways to judge their performance in the light of global standards of innovation and excellence. Hayrinen-Alastalo & Peltola (2006) report how these forces are operating and how the university's role in Europe has shifted from a traditional societal role to a market one.

This emphasis on performativity has altered the meaning and purposes of research, teaching and learning – the building blocks of knowledge production. Research, in particular, is becoming more system efficiency and performance-oriented rather than 'free' inquiry. As knowledge is seen to be the most important resource, certainly in industrialized and developed countries, there is increased emphasis on investment in "scientific" rather than other kinds of research (Scott, 1998; Edwards & Usher, 2000; Ghosh, 2004). HE, in general, is viewed as an investment that will maintain economic advantage.

What is more, Edwards and Usher (2000) claim that performativity has led to a greater connection between research and policy, and that it has caused a separation of pedagogy from research. Currently, the status of a university is measured partially on the amount of research funding it attracts. This has led to the formation of elite groups of researchers, usually affiliated to an elite group of institutions. In this respect, research is considered a higher priority

than the pedagogical function of the institution.

As Leach (2015) reports, the planned HE reforms in the UK following the introduction of the Research Excellence Framework (REF) and Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF) could force universities to choose between teaching or research:

> The government is challenging universities to focus on research, teaching, or both. This could play out in one of two ways: it could be an opportunity for a fresh dialogue between academics, students and managers about the sort of university they want to create and the things they need to do to get there. It could force an honest appraisal of institutional positions in the market and improve the ability of governing bodies to make big decisions that are sustainable and deliverable.

2.3.2 National vs International

Universities, it would seem, are trying to establish themselves in the global marketplace by projecting a national identity at the same time as creating an internationalisation strategy that promotes an international identity. This raises some interesting questions: are universities supposed to project a British identity to their international students, and how is this achieved? Or, how do universities promote their international identity to students: do they bring an intercultural dimension to its learning, teaching, research and service departments?

Scott (1998) proposes that staff and student mobility tends to be associated with international contacts and agreements negotiated in a geopolitical context. Because of the reliance of internationalisation on the nation state, universities replicate existing hegemonic and uneven international relations. This places them in a national field of influence rather than as the independent bodies that they aspire to be. In addition, it reinforces and perpetuates the superficially 'unbiased' and autonomous recruitment of international students.

It can be argued that universities are engaged in endorsing a national agenda for HE, through preparing students to function in the current global village. These tendencies reproduce the shifting purposes of HE, and a greater affiliation to economic considerations.

2.4 The impact of globalisation on international education

I turn next to a discussion of the influence of globalisation on international education and the attendant discourse of 'marketisation' in HE.

2.4.1 International education going global

The internationalisation of HE is not a new phenomenon and can be tracked back several centuries to the 'wandering scholars' of the Middle Ages who moved from place to place to broaden their horizons (de Witt, 2002; Fok, 2007). Currently, however, it can be seen as part of a wider set of global forces, all of which have fast-tracked the growth in international student numbers (Montgomery, 2010, 4). The 'global change' has been initiated by developments in technology and new political orders whereby national and social borders have undergone reassessment (Belcher, 1995, 5). These developments have triggered a new worldwide competitiveness and struggle for global economic power between giant trading blocs such as North America, Europe and South East Asia (Belcher, 1995, 5; Scott, 1998, 127). It is generally between these rich trading powers that travel for the purposes of HE has been more common. Brandenburg & De Wit (2011, 241) summarise the beginnings of this trend as follows:

> Over the last two decades, the concept of the internationalisation
> of HE is moved from the fringe of institutional interest to the
> very core. In the late 1970s up to the mid-1980s, activities that
> can be described as internationalisation were usually neither
> named that way nor carried high prestige and were rather
> isolated and unrelated. (...) In the late 1980s changes occurred:
> Internationalisation was invented and carried on, ever
> increasing its importance. New components were added to its

multidimensional body in the past two decades, moving from

simple exchange of students to the big business of recruitment,

and from activities impacting on an incredibly small elite group

to a mass phenomenon.

As De Wit (2011) points out, the international dimension and the position of HE worldwide are now given greater stress in international, national and institutional documents and mission statements than ever before. Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2009, 7) note in their report to the UNESCO World Conference on HE universities have always been affected by international trends and to a certain degree operated within a broader international community of academic institutions, scholars, and research. Yet, 21st century realities have magnified the importance of the global context:

The rise of English as the dominant language of scientific

communication is unprecedented since Latin dominated the

academy in medieval Europe. Information and communications

technologies have created a universal means of instantaneous

contact and simplified scientific communication. At the same

time, these changes have helped to concentrate ownership of

publishers, databases, and other key resources in the hands of

the strongest universities and some multinational companies,

located almost exclusively in the developed world. (Altbach,

Reisberg and Rumbley, 2009, 7)

Internationalisation throughout the years has shifted from a reactive to a proactive strategy and also "has seen its focus, scope and content evolve substantially" (De Wit, 2011, 242). Rising rivalry in HE and the commercialisation and cross-border delivery of HE have challenged the value traditionally attached to collaboration, such as exchanges and partnerships. Concurrently, the internationalisation of the curriculum and pedagogy as well as 'internationalisation at home' (IaH), which focuses on all students reaping the benefits of international HE, not just those who are mobile, have

shifted attention from the conventional focus on mobility. As identified by Beelen and Jones (2015), IaH relates to both the formal and informal curriculum and aims to develop international and intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes for all students, regardless of whether they take part in mobility opportunities.

However, it cannot be assumed that this changing landscape can be explained simply in terms of the change from a cooperative to a more competitive model. As Trouillot (2003) argues, internationalisation has had implications for theorising within academic disciplines as well as the structure and content of courses in HE.

2.4.2   Meanings of and Rationale for Internationalisation and Globalisation

The changing nature of the internationalisation of HE is reflected both in the meanings of internationalisation and globalisation, and their rationale (De Wit, 2011; Knight, 2008, 19-22).

There is a considerable variation in the meanings attributed to internationalisation (Sovic and Blythman, 2009; Hudzik, 2015; Ryan, 2013; Knight, 1998; Gunn, 2005; Fok, 2007). Stone (2006, 334) states that internationalisation seems to "invite seduction into a quagmire of potentially unsatisfying responses" as the concept remains mysterious. (Callan, 1998, 44) adds that even though "resources, programmes and institutions are mobilized around the notion of internationalisation, a clear and comprehensive definition of the core idea is still conceptually elusive"

In the literature and in practice, it is still common to use terms that only address a small part of, or emphasize a particular motivation for, internationalisation. Most of the terms used are either curriculum related (international studies, global studies, multicultural education, intercultural education, peace education, etc.) or mobility related: study abroad, education

abroad, academic mobility, etc.

Another common perception of internationalisation in HE is its connection to a combination of the international and intercultural dimensions of teaching and research in an institution (Deardorff, 2006; Wachter, 1999; Knight, 1995) with the potential to increase the quality of the institution and the education it provides.

De Wit (2011) argues that it has been possible to observe the development of a whole new group of terms related to the internationalisation of HE in the last decade. These are much more associated with the cross-border delivery of education and are a result of the impact of globalisation: borderless education, education across borders, global education, offshore education and international trade in educational services.

At the beginning of the twenty first century, De Wit (2002, 14) noted that, "as the international dimension of HE gained more attention and recognition, people tended to use it in the way that best suited their purpose." This is even more the case today in view of this further explosion of activities and terminology. "Internationalisation is changing the world of HE, and globalisation is changing the world of internationalisation," comments Knight (2008, 1). The discussion of globalisation and internationalisation and the latest, hasty advance of cross-border activities in HE has tended to focus on a specific rationale or purpose. Scott (2006, 14) notes that both:

> internationalisation and globalisation are multifaceted phenomena
> with many components, and concludes that "the distinction
> between internationalisation and globalisation, although
> suggestive, cannot be regarded as categorical. They overlap, and
> are intertwined, in all kinds of ways.

While Teichler (2004: 22-23) broadly agrees, he also points out that, in recent years, 'globalisation' has been substituted by 'internationalisation' in

the public debate on HE, resulting in a modification of meanings: "the term tends to be used for any supra-regional phenomenon related to HE (...) and/or anything on a global scale related to HE characterised by market and competition."

Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2009, 7) provide further support for this stance:

> Globalisation, a key reality in the 21st century, has already profoundly influenced higher education. (...) We define globalisation as the reality shaped by an increasingly integrated world economy, new information and communications technology, the emergence of an international knowledge network, the role of the English language, and other forces beyond the control of academic institutions (...). Internationalisation is defined as the variety of policies and programs that universities and governments implement to respond to globalisation.

Frans van Vught et al. (2002, 17) reviews the latest studies on the complicated relationship between globalisation and internationalisation in HE. He notes that internationalisation is closer to the deep-rooted tradition of international cooperation and mobility and to the core values of quality and excellence, whereas globalisation refers more to rivalry, pushing the concept of HE as a tradable product and challenging the concept of HE as a public good.

Brandenburg and De Wit (2011) expands on the Van Vught's observation and further proposes that internationalisation is often too effortlessly viewed as 'good' and globalisation as 'bad':

> Internationalisation is claimed to be the last stand for humanistic ideas against the world of pure economic benefits allegedly represented by the term globalisation. Alas, this constructed

antagonism between internationalisation and globalisation ignores the fact that activities that are more related to the concept of globalisation (higher education as a tradable commodity) are increasingly executed under the flag of internationalisation.

It was the Bologna Declaration of 1999 (Bologna, 1999), in which the two arenas in discussions of internationalisation met officially: cooperation and competition (De Wit, 2011). On the one hand, there was emphasis on more cooperation in order to promote HE and research in 'A Europe of Knowledge'. On the other hand, it was argued that this cooperation was required in order to compete with the United States, Japan and, increasingly, China, as well as other emerging economies.

Knight (2008) draws attention to various issues related to globalisation with implications for HE including the rise of the knowledge economy, regionalisation, information and communication technologies, new providers, alternate funding sources, borderless issues, lifelong learning and the growth in the numbers and diversity of actors. She recognizes the various levels and the need to address the relationship and integration between them: "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (p.21). Knight (2008, 22-24) also points to the evolution of two separate phenomena: IaH (Internationalisation at Home) and IA (Internationalisation Abroad). IaH comprises activities that assist students in developing an international awareness and intercultural skills; it is more curriculum-oriented and designed to make students more proactive in a much more globalised world. Activities include: curriculum and programmes, teaching and learning processes, extra-curricular activities, liaison with local cultural/ethnic groups, and research and scholarly activities. In contrast, IA embraces all forms of education across borders: mobility of students and staff, and mobility of projects, programmes and providers. These dimensions should not be seen as mutually exclusive, but rather entwined within policies and programmes.

For some commentators, internationalisation is shaped by stakeholders, with the goals, rationale, resources and individual institution determining the way in which it is pursued (Kishun, 1998, 64). Stone (2006, 334), for instance, notes that, instead of asking what internationalisation means, universities should be asking 'why internationalise' and 'what should internationalisation mean'.

De Wit (2002: 83-102) identifies four very different grounds for internationalisation: political, economic, social and cultural, and academic. These grounds are not mutually exclusive, may differ in rank by country and region, and may change in importance over time. Currently, the economic rationale predominates although academic motives such as strategic coalitions, status and profile are becoming more dominant. In a similar vein, Knight (2008: 25) speaks of motivation for internationalisation at the national level (e.g., human resource development, strategic alliances, income generation/ commercial trade, nation building, social/cultural development and mutual understanding) and at the institutional level (e.g., international branding and profile, quality enhancement/international standards, income generation, student and staff development, strategic alliances and knowledge production).

Therefore, it appears that commitment to internationalisation is not equal across all areas of HE institutions (Callan, 1998, 45). For instance, some institutions may have developed successful recruitment policies and support systems but are not focusing on the intercultural dimensions of teaching, support and research. Therefore, the experience of students, both international and home, may be unaffected by the possible benefits of internationalisation.

2.4.3 The discourse of 'marketisation' in Higher Education

The shifting landscape of international HE is evident in numerous ways: increasing competition for international students and academics, the growth of cross-border delivery of programmes, the emergence of international for-profit providers and the growing importance of countries like India and China both in the world economy and in the context of HE, are all implicated in the multifaceted relationship between globalisation and internationalisation.

Knight (2011: 14) and De Wit (2011:16) write about misconceptions related to an instrumental approach to internationalisation, arguing that the increased number of international students and global partnerships do not automatically internationalise the culture of an institution.

Dixon (2006, 320) observes that universities are being 'forced into the market place in ways that are reshaping them in their purposes and in the knowledge they create and disseminate'. International students are playing a major role in the 'reshaping' process. As already indicated, institutions currently depend on the income from their fees and have developed complex marketing strategies in response. The strong global rivalry to attract international students has also encouraged universities to seek effective solutions to hold on to students through their robust support networks.

Because of the marketisation of HE, the opinions and the needs of students have never been seen as more important. Students are now considered as 'customers' with all the legal rights of a 'customer' because they pay for their own education in a much more direct manner than before (Montgomery, 2010, 6). The introduction of fees for home students in the UK has had a similar effect. As competition between universities becomes stronger than ever, the importance of student 'satisfaction' surveys becomes more central and addressing students' needs is now seen as key. Many universities have become more receptive to the requests and opinions of their students,

especially international students.

The view of HE as a commercial business that functions with a 'customer service' focus arguably changes society's perception of the meaning and purpose of HE, with implications for the motivations of students and their experience of education (Mann, 2001; Dixon, 2006). The fact that international students are considered as part of the commercial operation of universities risks overshadowing debates on their personal, social and individual purposes pursuing study at university abroad.

So far, most of the research on international students has been motivated directly or indirectly by the need to further improve recruitment (Pelletier, 2003); little attention has been paid to the student experience. Teichler (2004, 23) states that:

> It is surprising how much the debate on global phenomena in HE suddenly focuses on marketisation, competition and management of HE. Other terms such as knowledge society, global village, global understanding or global learning are hardly taken into consideration.

It would appear that the impact of marketisation discourse is now also driving the internationalisation of the curriculum in conflicting directions (Caruna and Spurling, 2007). In spite of this, there is a growing consensus that universities need to focus their efforts on enabling graduates to develop skills that may help them to operate successfully on a global scale.

As illustrated, the economic dimensions of globalisation have impacted HE in important ways. However, in order to appreciate the complexity and ambiguity of globalisation, I will also examine its sociological and cultural dimensions. This will offer a stronger awareness of the ways in which globalisation functions, including opportunities for confrontation and

transformative action in the internationalisation of HE.

2.5 Globalisation and Culture in Higher Education

The discussion which follows will focus on literature related to intercultural studies, nationality stereotypes and myths surrounding international students in the context of HE.

2.5.1 Research on intercultural studies in Higher Education

There has been little research on the meaning of cultural difference in HE in the UK. Clegg, Parr & Wan (2003) point out that one of the reasons for this gap is that universities have only recently experienced greater ethnic variety. In the past, it was students from the predominantly Anglo-Celtic countries of the Commonwealth where English is spoken as a first language that prevailed among international students in the UK. However, growing numbers of students now originate from Africa and the Middle and Far East (McNamara & Harris, 1997; Biggs, 2003) where English is spoken as a second or foreign language.

The OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) (1999) proposes that internationalisation involves the integration of an intercultural dimension in all of the activities of a university, including the teaching, research and service functions. In the UK, however, this dimension still tends to be overshadowed by a focus on the increasing numbers of international (British Council, 2003). Hence "the opportunities offered by a diverse educational context are not self-evident and self-fulfilling in terms of … intercultural competence" (Otten, 2003, 13). This leads Trahar (2007, 8) to point to a third dimension of internationalisation and globalisation, that of IaH, explained in chapter 2.4.2 (Teekens, 2006) encompassing 'cosmopolitanism' (Caglar, 2006, 39), which, in turn, includes the 'perspective of the local' (Caglar, 2006, 40).

The practice of intercultural study, and training in intercultural competence are, now established within the areas of language learning, cultural studies

and business studies. Crawshaw (2005) summarises some of the work of those working in the fields of intercultural competence (Byram 1997), intercultural awareness (Phipps & Gonzales 2004), intercultural pragmatics (Crawshaw, 2007), translation studies (Hervey & Higgins 2002), intercultural communication studies (Talkington & Lengel 2004) and cultural studies (Hofstede 1994). This burgeoning literature has considerable relevance for internationalisation and is making a valuable potential contribution to the development of pedagogic strategies and intercultural skills for both staff and students. However, examples of university teachers researching their own practice seem to be rare. It is even rarer to find professionals reflecting critically on the impact of diversity on their practice and indeed on themselves (Brunner, 2006).

2.5.2 Culture and international students

An understanding of the notion of culture is central to a discussion of internationalisation. According to Laungani (1999: 35), "everyone seems to know what [culture] means in a vague sort of way, but no one is quite sure as to its precise meaning." Williams (1983) notes that culture is one of the most complex words of the English Language. It is often misinterpreted, misleading and unhelpful when it comes to understanding international students. Similarly, Smith (2000, p.4) observes that, while culture may be an ambiguous concept, and signify very little when used as a synonym of 'social', it is a matter of great importance when coherently defined.

Putting to one side the definitions of so-called 'high culture' surrounding Art, Music and Literature (Smith, 2000, 4), culture is also evident in the observable behaviour of an individual or group, for instance through what members of the group wear or eat. Additionally, leisure tendencies, social traditions and holiday celebrations are seen to be symbolic of a community's culture. However, it is possible to confuse local patterns with individual personal characteristics, and this is when cultural stereotypes can emerge (Montgomery, 2010, 8).

Certain observable elements, such as language, food and clothing, provide profound insights into the culture of the individual and the group (Montgomery, 2010, 8). Our understanding of culture, however, is based on a system of symbols and meanings governed by rules, meanings and beliefs, which are not always obvious or observable (Oxford and Anderson, 1995). The metaphor of 'cultural iceberg' often used in the literature on internationalisation suggests that many aspects of culture are invisible and hidden below the waterline. Culture is structured and learned, and changes and develops as groups interact with each other (Kroeber and Kluckhorn, 1952). It has also been defined as 'situated cognition', which connects it with particular context. As such, it cannot be detached from learning and indeed culture and context become part of a learning process (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Consequently, the activities and influences of culture cannot be separated from what is learned or known (Oxford and Anderson, 1995). As Duranti (1997) summarizes, culture might be also seen as a cognitive model used to perceive and interpret the world around us.

2.5.3 West vs East

The idea of 'the West' and 'the East' is deeply rooted in perceptions of the differences between cultures. Trouillot (2003, 1, cited in Montgomery, 2010, 9) notes that the 'West' is not a geographical place but a 'fiction, an exercise in global legitimation' which both includes and excludes certain nations. It is usually associated with North America and/or Central Europe and may or may not include Eastern Europe or Latin America. Montgomery (2010, 9) notes that Japan has recently been included as a 'Western' nation, not because of any shared value system but perhaps for socio-economic reasons even though it is geographically located in the East.

'West' can be used as a means of excluding certain nations or people from an artificially created system. As Trouillot (2003) observes, the idea of the West works only when it is considered in opposition to an 'East' and there is an implication of superiority versus inferiority in these terms. He continues: "The word culture today is irretrievably tainted both by the politics of

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identity and the politics of blame – including the racialisation of behaviour it was meant to avoid" (2003, 97).

In this sense, the notion of culture can be used in such a way as to dismiss the deeply-rooted diversity in communities; it is also contaminated by a history of cultural imperialism, which has divided communities into classes that imply inferiority for some and superiority for others. As Duranti (1997) argues, the idea of culture has recently been viewed as reducing social and historical complexities to characterisations that hide the social contradictions inherent across communities.

Because of the links with the colonial, intellectual and military power and supremacy of the Western world, the notion of culture cannot be used 'without assuming a series of naïve and misleading dichotomies such as "as" and "them", "civilised" and "primitive", "rational" and "irrational", "literate and illiterate" and so on' (Duranti, 2007, 23). Culture can be used to 'explain behaviour away' and serves in some contexts as 'an impressionistic explanation for understanding differences and difficulties in multi-ethnic societies' (Roberts and Sarangi, 1993, 97).

As Duranti (1997, 23) points out, culture may be also used as an explanation for why minority or marginalised groups do not 'merge into the mainstream of society'. Similarly, international students are often regarded as a marginalised group, and misunderstandings with members of the host institution are attributed to cultural difference. However, there are other, more supportive ways of viewing the idea of culture, which are likely to minimise some of the negative assumptions around culture outlined above.

2.5.4 Nationality vs culture

Multiple labels, which relate to nationality, suggest an unintentional link between particular behaviours and certain nationalities. The resulting stereotypes suggest that nationality can somehow impact behaviour. As Baumann (1996: 1) notes: "The dominant discourse [culture] relies on

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equating community, culture and ethnic identity, and its protagonists can easily reduce anybody's behaviour to a symptom of this equation". He continues that, even in the academic literature, this 'ethnic reductionism' is prevalent, where, for example, the behaviour of 'Asian' students is interpreted as a consequence of their 'Asianness'.

In this respect, it is important to mention the influential work of the Dutch sociologist, Geert Hofstede. In his large-scale study of the attitudes of 100,000 IBM employees across 40 countries to personal goals, such as earnings, freedom and cooperation, each nation was given a 'cultural score' on six dimensions: power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation and indulgence (Hofstede, 1984). For example, Hong Kong scored high on power distance, suggesting a strong correlation with hierarchical relationships in that society. At the same time, it scored low on individualism, suggesting a collective culture, and low on uncertainty avoidance, which points to a high tolerance for situation with random outcomes. Hong Kong was also considered as attaching low values to the 'masculine values' associated with lack of strength or desire for competition. At first, Hofstede was critically acclaimed as one of the most widely quoted writers in the Social Sciences (Bond et al., 2000). However, more recently, there has been a considerable shift and Hofstede's work has been criticised for encouraging stereotyping and labelling. Holliday (2007, 3), for example, argues that Hofstede has reduced national culture to an 'essentialist category which is the major determinant of cultural difference, and the major, rational means for organising, explaining, predicting and testing social phenomena', implying that finding information that confirms these reductionist categories is too easy.

There are strong arguments, then, that the relationship between nation and culture is misleading (Montgomery, 2010, 13). Because nations encompass a wide range of cultural beliefs and linguistic variation, equating nation with culture is deceptive and can promote prejudice and inequality. Bond et al. (2000) suggest that it would be more appropriate to construct communities'

behaviours using other parameters, such as language, to indicate variation in culture both within and across nations. Culture remains difficult to capture, and conclusions drawn from research are prone to criticisms of stereotyping and essentialism (Holliday, 2007). Therefore, methods of teaching international students should be linked to an awareness of the attendant dangers. The socially constructed link between nationality and culture is potentially harmful in the domain of HE and should be challenged in the pursuit of a positive experience of internationalised education (Montgomery, 2010, 14).

2.5.5 The myth of international students

Concepts such as 'international students', 'EU students', and 'home students' not only inform about fee status, but are also often used to differentiate groups in a negative way. It is paramount to be aware of what is hidden behind the labels. International students are usually considered those students who have moved to another country to study full-time (Biggs, 2003); it is almost impossible for them to study part-time due to visa regulations. In the UK, students from other European Union (EU) countries are treated as home students for fee purposes (Trahar, 2007). International students are therefore those domiciled outside of the EU. However, confusion arises from the fact that students from EU countries, who rarely have English as their first language, are often also regarded as international students. Language ability thus appears to be a means of making a distinction among groups of students.

Chowdhury and Phan Le Ha (2014, 3) characterise the literature on international students in terms of: the 'deficit' model, the 'surplus', the 'cosmopolitan, global', and the 'self-determined'. Over the last 30 years, international students have most often been researched from either the deficit or surplus model (Phan Le Ha and Li, 2012; Ryan, 2010). The 'deficit' model tends to stereotype and classify students, particularly those from non-Western countries, as the Other, and their images are largely associated with negative and pejorative features – for instance, passive learners reluctant to

speak in classrooms, reticence, obedience, lack of critical thinking, plagiarism, and the use of epithets such as deficient, unable, handicapped, uncritical, illogical, non-participating, irrational and lacking motivation to mix with the Self (here referring to English speakers) (e.g. Ballard, 1984, 1987, Ballard and Clanchy, 1984, 1988, 1991, 1997; Hu 2002, Liu, 2002, Samuelowicz, 1987). Major (2005, cited in Campbell and Li, 2008, 377) claims that these characteristics are considered to be the antithesis of the Socratic dialogical practices which emphasise 'questioning, criticising, refuting, arguing, debating and persuading', values that are meant to be embedded in the education of the English-speaking West. International students, then, are victims of homogenisation in which variation across generations of learners and the changes both inside and outside non-Western settings over time have been ignored (Chowdhury and Phan Le Ha, 2014).

Chowdhury and Phan Le Ha (2014) also point to the other subjectivities about international students which have emerged in recent decades: a passive 'other' made to believe that they need to adapt to the ways of the West, an elite 'other' whose commitments are to be cultivated, and a competitive 'economic subject' with a pragmatic orientation to education. In an examination of the discursive practices of global English-medium universities, they argue that academic welfare and teaching and learning processes show little awareness of the fluidity of race, culture and language or hybridity of international students, whose diversity is ignored. As a result, they note that these students are subjected to "constricting, divisive and exclusionary discursive practices that fail to properly acknowledge their complex histories, subjectivities and professional aspirations" (2014: 4).

In contrast, the 'surplus' model tends to applaud international students for their attributes, perceiving them as valuable resources for Western academia to learn from (e.g. Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Liu & Littlewood, 1997; Watkins & Biggs, 1996, 2001; Wen & Clement, 2003; Zhou et al., 2005). For instance, some writers point to evidence that 'independent thinking, originality and skill in reasoning and expression' (Kracke, 1953, 62) have long been

recognised and supported in Chinese academic traditions (for example, Moloughney, 2002; Kirkpatrick, 2005, cited in Gu and Brooks, 2008, 343). An alternative explanation of the perceived silence and non-participation among Chinese learners is that they are engaged in a process of active thinking and a form of participation (Chowdhury and Phan Le Ha, 2014). Hence, the 'surplus' model, while recognising the complexities surrounding 'international students' rarely ventures below the surface. Phan Le Ha & Li (2012) argue that the shift from all 'minuses' to all 'pluses' nonetheless remains a form of stereotyping.

Recent research on international students tends to celebrate cosmopolitanism and worldliness. In particular, self-determination is argued to play a decisive role in making sense of international students' experiences and their sense of self (see, for example Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Pham, 2013). It would appear that the power has been shifted in favour of the students themselves rather than being determined by convenient homogenising discourses (Chowdhury and Phan Le Ha, 2014). However, such a paradigm shift, "could still well lead to patronising distancing unintentionally, while at the same time presenting the surplus model in disguise" (p. 10), as seen, for example, in the repetition, ubiquity and persistent representation of the continuing struggles, apologies, misery, isolation, insecurity, failure and discontent expressed by international students in recent studies (Marginson & Sawir, 2011). In other words, recent articles tend to present international students as victimised by their own choice, self-determination and desire to be international students. Chowdhury and Phan Le Ha (2014) warn that the borderlines among these three approaches to the representation of international students are not necessarily clear-cut, but rather interconnected.

2.6 International Student Experience

The review, which follows, focuses on studies of the friendship patterns of university students and their perceptions of discrimination and other social experiences. Much of the research conducted in this field in the 1990s and

early 2000s is characterised by large-scale quantitative surveys of substantial numbers of students (Montgomery, 2010, 19). Few studies have investigated any aspect of that experience in detail; there is a similar dearth of research on the social and cultural contexts for this experience. More recently, there has been a burgeoning of publications in this area. The scope of this review here is thus by no means comprehensive,; the aim rather to present a snapshot of relevant studies in different national contexts, such as the UK, the USA, Australia and Nez Zealand, in order to provide a context for the present study.

2.6.1   Friendship patterns

Bochner et al.'s (1977) early research into the friendship patterns of international students highlights one specific aspect of their experience. Many of the previous investigations had been questionnaire-based (Montgomery, 2010). Bochner's study examines the friendships of 30 international students from Japan, Korea, the Philippines, Taiwan and Thailand studying at the University of Hawaii as well as including a 'comparison' or 'control group' of six American students. The subjects were asked to identify their five 'best friends' and the five people with whom they spent most of their time.

The research aimed to 'predict the intra-cultural and inter-cultural friendship patterns of overseas students and to develop a social psychological model of the academic sojourn (1977, 279). It was hypothesised that students would belong to three separate social networks: first, a co-national network whose function was to 'affirm and express the culture of origin'; secondly, a network with 'host nationals' whose function was the 'instrumental facilitation of academic and professional aspirations'; and finally, a multinational network whose main function was 'recreational' (1977, 277).

The results confirm that the students' strongest network was with co-nationals and that, consequently, the most frequent and closest friendships were monocultural. The second most important friendship group was with

home students leading to a 'substantial number of bi-cultural friendships' (1977, 286). Multi-cultural contact was 'a less frequent occurrence': relationships amongst different nationalities without Americans were the least important.

The finding of Bochner et al.'s (1977) study appear to contrast with those reported by Montgomery (2010) in a study in the British HE context, where the bi-national group does not form a strong social network. Rather, the relationships formed between international students and their UK home student counterparts are of a more superficial nature than those with the international network.

2.6.2 Perception of discrimination

A more recent study carried out by Lee and Rice (2007) also refers to the social relationships on international students and their 'host' nation, in this case the USA. The authors highlight the underlying benefits of having a more diverse body of students on the campus in terms of the new viewpoints, which can be drawn on in classroom practice and the increased appreciation of other cultures. In addition, they consider that international students bring new knowledge and skills, especially in science and technology, and if they remain in the country after their study, they contribute their 'intellectual capital' to the host country. Those who return home are potential leaders and influential figures, allowing the USA and other host countries to improve relations between countries (p. 381).

Lee and Rice's research, which followed decreasing enrolments, especially of postgraduate students, in the wake of the 11 September 2001 terrorist attack on New York, highlights international students' perceptions of experiences of unfairness and discrimination. They speculate that, in addition to the tightening of visa restrictions and increased competition from other countries, the decrease in numbers may relate to an increase in neo-racism and rejection by the home student population and the wider community. More specifically, they relate falling numbers to difficulties with social

interaction on campus, problems with interaction with faculty or administration, lack of opportunities for part-time work and difficulties with housing or shopping to negative attitudes towards them on the part of university staff, other students and people in the wider community.

In the same study, Lee and Rice (2007) make a distinction between the experiences of white English-speaking nationals (Europeans, New Zealand, Canadian students) and black or non-white (Middle Eastern, Asian, Indian, Latin American) students. While white international students rarely reported perceptions of discrimination in their social environment, non-white international students reported experiences of discomfort, verbal insults and also direct confrontation. Some students reported degrees of disrespect towards them within the university and outside in the community mainly based on cultural traits and language. The authors see international students as part of complex social context that extends beyond the university into the community. That study is crucial, as it appears to be one of the first ones to consider the response of the host institution to be responsible for social difficulties to individuals or groups of international students and their inability or unwillingness to adapt to their new context.

Montgomery (2010) notes that Lee and Rice's study (2007) raises further issues related to the stereotyping to international students and attitudes to international students' approaches to learning. She identifies what might be regarded as harmless stereotyping in comments such as 'they like to remain in their own groups' or 'they never contribute in class' as a form of neo-racism (2010, 24). Lee and Rice's research makes a bold statement and stimulates an uncomfortable debate about the need to change perceptions of the role international students in HE.

2.6.3 The social experiences

UKCISA (2004) conducted a large-scale quantitative study of the experiences and perceptions of study and life in the UK involving almost 5% of all international students in Higher and Further Education. The respondents

consisted of students on a range of courses and subjects, both undergraduate and postgraduate, from 150 different countries.

The main findings were that international students were much more closely 'integrated' with students of their own nationality and with 59% stating that most of their friendships were in these categories. Just 32% of the students note that their friends were a mixture of the UK and international students, and a small minority – only 7% said that they were friends with mainly UK students as opposed to international students. Shockingly, 70% of international students said that they had no UK friends, with the report suggesting that this could be attributed to the high proportion of international students on postgraduate courses. However, the report considered that this was consistent with the supposition that it is easier for international students to mix with the UK students group if the ratios are smaller (Merrick, 2007, 67). Furthermore, one of the most important worries for international students in the UK (41%) that emerged was a concern about being able to integrate with home students; this was ranked more highly for example, than coping with the course content. A crucial element of the research evidenced that the power of experience of intercultural interaction changes students' perceptions of working in an international context. The UKCISA report also notes that the relationship between staff and students was vital in influencing students' views of their experience at university.

In terms of disclosing academic problems, the survey revealed that 67% students would prefer to talk to friends or fellow students or family about their difficulties before opening up about their problems to a course leader. The report suggests this underscores the significance of the international students' social network for the learning experience. It would appear that friendship, kinship and academic issues are tightly connected.

Language also emerged as one of the main factors influencing the perception of relationships of international students. The questionnaire findings implied a correlation between language proficiency, 'integration' and levels of

satisfaction with students' experience. Those who had more advanced language competence, were usually better equipped with strategies to integrate and appeared to be more satisfied with their time at university (Merrick, 2004, 48). The research also supported a strong connection between 'inter-group contact' between international students and UK students and a positive attitude to the experience as a whole (Montgomery, 2010, 27).

One contrast between the UKCISA (2004) report and Montgomery's study (2010) was that the latter found that international student networks provide strong academic and personal support that adds to the quality of the international student experience as opposed to the UKCISA study which indicated that these networks may be less useful in terms of the quality of support they can give.

Having considered issues around culture and international students in HE, I will now move to a discussion of how internationalisation is understood on the ground.

2.7 Internationalisation on the ground

In view of the research reviewed above, the question arises as to which curricular and pedagogical methods are most suitable in an age of globalisation? In a study investigating the experiences of postgraduate international students, students' narratives will inevitably include reflections on learning experiences: their views on what they learned, how they learned, and whether they considered themselves successful. The discussion, which follows will therefore focus on existing studies of the internationalisation of curriculum and pedagogy, and what it means to learn and teach in an internationalized classroom.

2.7.1 Internationalisation of curriculum

There has been a growing interest in the significance of an international curriculum and the struggle to define its purpose, meanings and practices.

The majority of curricula typically guide university practitioners with long lists of dos and don'ts. However, what seems to be missing are the insights which transcend the arguably overused, business-oriented terms, such as 'intercultural competence', 'global skills', 'international dimension' 'cross-border education' or 'addressing cultural diversity' in order to provide a deeper understanding.

There is a call for a broader perspective on the curriculum – one not limited to international students but concerned with offering an international learning experience to all participants caught up in the landscape of internationalisation.

Although there is an acknowledgment of the requirement for a comprehensive approach, the precise nature of the international curriculum in international HE is unclear. There are numerous general definitions (Knight, 1997). For instance, the OECD (1994 cited in Rizvi and Walsh, 1998, 2) states that the international curriculum has "an international orientation in the content, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally/socially) in an international and multicultural context and designed for domestic as well as foreign students."

It seems that the importance here is on the preparing students to develop effective strategies in an inclusive culture encompassing both home and international students and suggests a holistic growth of students through improving not only social aspects but also employment prospects.

Bates (2005, 107-108) proposes an even more comprehensive curriculum:

> only by crossing boundaries into cultures and subjectivities
> beyond our experience; only by committing ourselves to the
> defence of society and personality; only by the redress of exclusion
> and disadvantage on a global scale can we truly imagine a global
> curriculum.

He argues that there are three key elements that an international curriculum

should take into consideration. First, he notes that such curricula are distinctively hegemonic and consequently, need to ensure social justice to those on the borders of society. In other words, those living in the advantaged parts of the world should take care of those outside this circle.

Next, international curricula ought to encompass crossing borders within and across societies and cultures. Bates advises that the curricula should include intercultural communication topics and intercultural understanding to enable the "Other" to contribute to an autonomous social structure. By the same token, Bates (2005) recognizes the human factor rather than market-oriented morality and if that is the case, internationalisation of curriculum should entail a commitment to freedom and inclusion, and "our recognition of the need to both secure society and personality from the ravages of the global market" (Bates, 2005, 107-108).

Furthermore, internationalisation of curriculum is often associated with critical pedagogy. This approach stresses a student-centred education with students vigorously contributing to the construction of knowledge and tutors moving to being a guide for student learning and developing their critical thinking, analysis and skills of reflection (Brookfield, 2005). Such an approach is believed to build students' interpersonal skills and sense of ethics.

Ethics related to equity, justice and sustainability have always been key to the internationalisation of curriculum (Giroux, 1992; Whalley, 1997; Nilsson, 2003), articulated by Edwards *et al.* (2003) as the need for students to cultivate a sense of responsibility towards themselves, others and future generations combined with a feeling of empowerment and self-efficacy. The fresh emphasis on global citizenship is further conceptualised by Clifford and Montgomery (2011). Raising the awareness of global citizenship among students involves knowledge of the world as well as apprehension and a preparedness to be active.

Although curricular issues have been identified as high priorities in British internationalisation, the majority of writers on this issue appear to agree that

HE institutions need to reassess the totality of their students' tertiary education experience and to rebuild their formal and informal curricula for a new future that foregrounds personal integrity and ethics (for example Clifford & Montgomery, 2011; Barnett, 2010; Turner & Robson, 2008).

Support for internationalized curricula, usually described as a process of infusion and bringing an intercultural and international dimension into the extant curriculum, is widespread (for example, Harari, 1981; Francis, 1993; Knight, 1994; Mestenhauser, 1998; Scott, 1993; Clifford and Montgomery, 2011; Ryan, 2013). Such internationalized curricula are reported most often in area studies, comparative and international studies, international development studies, foreign language studies, international business and management, and communications (for example, Ryan, 2013; Clifford & Montgomery, 2011; Sovic & Blythman, 2013; Carroll and Ryan, 2005). In recent years, there has been an increase in the number of field school opportunities for domestic students, and in placements for research, exchange programs for staff, faculty and students and these strategies, too, are presented as evidence of internationalising curriculum. In other words, the internationalized curriculum is often classified as a program or course offering.

A number of universities have developed manuals and resources for developing international literacy and intercultural competencies (Ryan, 2013; Clifford & Montgomery, 2011; Sovic & Blythman, 2013; Carroll and Ryan, 2005). Recent research focuses on professional development for practitioners related to the internationalisation of the curriculum, with some writers critical of current approaches, and others focusing on learning experiences (for example, Ryan, 2013; Clifford & Montgomery, 2011; Sovic & Blythman, 2013; Carroll and Ryan, 2005). These initiatives signify a healthy rising concern with how universities engage with the task of teaching in an internationalized setting. Some of them, however, promote a view of internationalisation of curriculum as a product rather than a process that requires a rethinking of learning processes (Beck, 2008).

Mestenhauser (1998) offers a valuable critique of the infusion approach to internationalising the curriculum, claiming that it leaves the main content of the curriculum untouched. In other words, academics interpret this infusion as adding on pieces of international content, without an understanding of the viewpoint approach that he argues would be more effective. Bringing in international students as a resource to mainstream classes is one strategy he identifies as potentially valuable in a range of disciplines and subjects (Mestenhauser, 2002). However, it is arguable whether the presence of international students itself is enough to achieve the full potential of an internationalized curriculum.

On the other hand, Bond (2006) highlights the limitations of the infusion approach. She prefers to address internationalised learning rather than internationalised curriculum (for example, Bond & Thayer Scott, 1999, Bond, 2006). In her view, internationalized learning involves applying knowledge about the socio-cultural context of other societies, developing skills in responding to cultural difference, how one behaves in intercultural circumstances and how one maintains one's own cultural integrity while understanding and working with others (Bond, 2006, 2-3). Consequently, internationalised learning requires an interdisciplinary approach to exploring a field of study, an emphasis on experiential and active learning, integration with other international activities, promoting comparative thinking, broadening knowledge of at least one other country of culture and encouraging self-reflection on one's own culture and ways of cognition (Bond & Thayer Scott, 1999, 65).

Giroux (1992, 15) has a similar vision of academics assuming new roles as 'transformative intellectuals' who challenge both themselves and their students to cross self-imposed barriers on the borders of disciplines and cultures. He argues that universities need to invite, and support academics and students to become 'border crossers', to engage in an exploration of their own history and to reach an understanding of self and their own culture in relation to others in the global environment. For some, these border crossings will happen locally where indigenous knowledges should be

celebrated rather than marginalized and inferiorised (for example, Clifford and Montgomery, 2011; Reagan, 2005; Okolie, 2003; Boufoy-Bastick, 2003; Teasdale & Ma Rhea, 2000; Dei, 2000). In addition, Gough (1999) envisions these borders as transnational spaces where the criss-crossing of new and increasingly complex patterns of interconnectedness destabilize relationships and our own sense of identity. To fuel creative explorations across these ideological borders by students and staff, we need to create safe spaces for this high-risk work, and support for experimentation with new curricula, new pedagogical relationships, and the re-examination of our own taken for granted acceptance of the world (Clifford & Montgomery, 2011).

As suggested above, the notion of the internationalisation of curriculum remains under-theorised. What might be needed are more specific examples that could help to view the internationalized curriculum as a process rather than a product (Beck, 2008). In what ways will this conversation influence the cultural space of curriculum, and in turn, how can the spaces of internationalisation be transformed and re-imagined?

2.7.2 Teaching and learning

While a growing body of scholarship focuses on diversity and teaching in HE (for example, Ryan, 2013; Clifford & Montgomery, 2011; Sovic & Blythman, 2013; Carroll and Ryan, 2005), the connections with internationalisation are seldom made explicit.

One of the notable exceptions is a report produced for New Zealand Ministry of Education by Ho, Holmes and Cooper (2004) which reviews literature on the internationalisation of pedagogy as well as issues around 'managing cultural diversity' and underlines the cultural influences on educational traditions and on teaching, learning and educational practices. The report highlights the necessity to challenge the deficit approach to international students and the importance of valuing and celebrating cultural difference in education. It presents one of its goals as the development of 'culturally responsive' spaces that question and challenge the assumptions and attitudes of both educators and students towards culture and knowledge. What is

more, it argues for the importance of spaces which accommodate multiple perspectives and voices as well as questioning prior assumptions about teaching and learning in creating an inclusive environment, and examining the behaviours of teachers and teacher language (Ho, Holmes and Cooper, 2004).

A substantial body of research concentrates on how international students approach learning (for example, Biggs, 1999; Cortazzi and Jin, 2006; De Vita, 2001, Sovic and Blythman, 2013; Ryan, 2013). There is striking tendency to address 'problems' and students' 'need for help' when adapting to HE teaching and learning methods and an imbedded assumption that students cannot adjust to the new learning context because of overdependence on approaches borrowed from their cultures. Spurling (2006), in particular, notes the popularity of the 'deficit' model, but also the failure to offer solutions, especially in the context of HE. Montgomery (2010, 31-36) provides an overview of relevant issues including deep and surface learning, memorisation and critical thinking, and criticality and plagiarism.

Deep and surface learning
In the 1970s, a new notion of 'surface' and 'deep' approaches to learning was developed by Ference Morton, using a naturalistic approach and qualitative interviews with students. Morton distinguishes three approaches to learning based on the reading academic articles (Marton, Hounsell and Entwistle, 1997: 19): a deep, transformative approach, a surface, reproductive approach, and a strategic, organised approach aimed at achieving the highest marks. The study recognizes that the relationship between the learning process and outcomes is a complex one, as controlling learning contexts to produce deep approaches does not always produce the intended outcomes. Haggis (2003), too, considers that learning is indeed a multifaceted interaction of wide-ranging factors, many of which are grounded in students' previous learning contexts and concludes that the notion that the way students learn can be easily changed is an oversimplification

Memorisation and critical thinking

Confucius Heritage Cultures (CHC) strongly emphasize the role of memorisation in learning, a notion often associated witha 'surface' approach. However, as Montgomery (2010, 34) points out, "CHC may play a part in some students' approaches to learning, but this does not mean that students will uniformly approach their learning in HE according to this influence alone". In addition, in Marton and Trigwell's (2000) study, high achieving Chinese students were reported using memorisation as a 'deep' approach'. Tang (1994) also observes that there is a potential link between memory and a more critical understanding of 'deep' learning. These findings confirm that the theories of deep and surface learning should not be seen as polar concepts but rather a part of a bigger, more complex picture of how international students learn.

Criticality and plagiarism

Spurling (2006) challenges the assumption that international students are somehow unable to apply critical thinking because of their educational background. Other research carried out by Vandermensbrugghe (2004) concludes that the definition of criticality is not evenly understood by staff, let alone international students. By the same token, Turner (2006) reports Chinese students' claims that they were unfairly accused of having limited learning capacity because of their 'inability to be critical'. Turner (2006, 3) argues that definitions of critical thinking stem from cultural traditions, not from "universal measures of higher education" and that assumptions about difficulties on the part of students are often due to a lack clarity in the assessment criteria.

Plagiarism is another common theme in the literature. Some studies seem to imply that the international students' prior learning experience make them somehow more prone to being accused of plagiarising. McLean and Ransom (2005) argue that plagiarism or 'cheating' should be also recognised as a 'culturally determined concept'. The 'guidelines' are context-dependent and not always made precise and, in HE, the 'rules' of writing and assessment are

not automatically understood by home students, let alone international learners.

A wide range of literature considers international students' challenges with plagiarism (Leask, 2004). As Montgomery (2010, 35) observes, this appears to be "reinforced by recent educational press coverage of the issue of plagiarism and cheating, spreading an almost endemic panic about the issue of plagiarism across the Higher Education sector." Again, there seems to be no evidence that it is more typical for international students to plagiarise than home students. The research carried out by Barrett and Malcolm (2006) indicates quite the opposite – it was home students who were more likely to 'commit the sin' of plagiarism. Caruna (2006, 63) also provides support for the work of Barrett and Malcolm by contradicting popular "cultural expectations of plagiarism",

2.7.3 Language, identity and their influence on learning

A crucial factor in the experience of international students, language is at the centre and the basis of their interaction with others. There are strong associations between language, culture and identity. On the one hand, language shapes our identity (Bakhtin, date; Lacan, date); on the other hand, without a symbolic identity, we cannot develop language (Lechte, 1994, 68). Language is thus a medium through which others understand us, inseparably connected with who we are perceived to be.

Sysoyev (2002) claims that use of language is likely to influence the way others perceive us. Since language is a form of social and cultural capital, a resource that gives access to understanding and being understood, limited proficiency could hypothetically be mistaken for an inability to understand. Significantly, the assumed lack of knowledge or lower academic potential of international students is often associated with limited language proficiency.

For international students, learning of language and learning of subject knowledge may be inseparable. By the same token Byram and Fleming

(1998, 44) suggest that learning a language means learning about its culture: "We would argue that linguistic and cultural learning are integrated". Arguably, learning the content of a specific academic discipline also includes learning about the related cultural assumptions.

Another question relevant to the present discussion is whether language learning has an automatic effect on the learning about culture, given the difficulty in distinguishing the boundaries between language and culture

> If it is true, then when a person learns about the language, they also learn about the culture, therefore it might be that people proficient in more than one language are more aware of the differences and diversity that exists around them.
> (Montgomery, 2010, 38)

International students may already have developed a cultural awareness through their language learning which differentiates them from largely monolingual home students who had limited contact with people from other countries.

If we are to interact successfully with others on a global scale, such differences clearly need to be resolved. Indeed, to accomplish the idea of global acceptance, it is necessary to "identify with otherness" (Byram and Fleming, 1998, 5). Once this skill has been developed, understanding and accepting difference in ourselves and others and "seeing the common humanity beneath it" will help with becoming true "intercultural speakers" (Byram and Fleming, 1998, 8).

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literature relating to how globalisation has helped to transform international education and thus provides a valuable context for the present study. The notion of culture within the landscape of internationalisation offers possibilities for a deeper understanding of issues

related to international students' experience, including, most importantly, the ways in which social relationships shape successes or challenges on the campus and beyond. The attempts to internationalise curriculum and pedagogy provide a valuable starting point for further discussion of the issues, as does the possible influence of language and identity on approaches to learning.

Chapter 3
Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

Various developments in post-modernist theory in relatively recent decades have implications for the interpretation of my findings, the most important of which are the notions of global cultural flows (Appadurai, 1996, 2001) and 'Eduscape' (Beck, 2008, 2012). In addition, Wenger's (1998) 'Communities of Practice' model will be used to support the Bhabha's (1994) concept of 'Third Space' and Edward and Usher's (2000) 'Pedagogy of (Dislocation) in order to create a framework for understanding the uneven landscape of the internationalisation of HE.

3.2 Globalisation: sociological and cultural dimensions

The theorising of globalisation and the internationalisation of HE is most usefully discussed within an interdisciplinary framework.

I will now discuss sociological interpretations of how globalisation functions based on the local-global relationship. Then, notions of space and place, as theorized (primarily) by Edwards and Usher (1998; 2000) will be explained. Next, a theory of indigenisation proposed by Appadurai will be introduced. Finally, I will refer to Beck's new 'scape', called an 'Eduscape', which I will argue explains the flow of educational practices and activities associated with internationalisation.

3.2.1 Global and local

The contrasting terms 'local' and 'global' are frequently proposed to explain globalisation. Many accounts show how the local is surpassed by the global or the global seen as the standardising force that immerses the local. In fact, the phenomenon is more complex. Globalisation has been attributed to singular causes. However, Giddens (1990, 64) views it as a "dialectical process because it does not bring about a generalized set of changes acting in

a uniform direction, but consists in mutually opposed tendencies" (Giddens, 1990, 64). Robertson, on the other hand (1992), envisages these forces not so much as 'mutually opposed' but as opposing interaction between the particular and the universal. This multifaceted interaction and synthesis of globalising and localising interplay is called "glocalisation" (for example, Appadurai, 1990; Scott, 1997; Spybey, 1996). Here, the boundaries of local and global as separate units have become imprecise, and one cannot exist without the other. As Edwards and Usher (2000) claim, each must be understood as an integral part of the other.

Some of the consequences that flow from the overlapping of the global and local include time-space distantiation (Giddens, 1990), time-space compression (Robertson, 1990), the disembedding of social relations (Giddens, 1990), and disconnection and dislocation (Edwards & Usher, 2000). It can be argued that increased mobility strengthens the experience of disconnection and the disembeddedness from place and social context, which provides the backdrop for the mobility of international students. It is to a more detailed discussion of space and place in globalisation theory that I now move.

3.2.2 Space and Place

As previously clarified, globalisation is about the movement of people and ideas across borders; it is unavoidable that this movement will interrupt notions of place, home, space and time. By the same token, globalisation has been portrayed as 're-imagining geography' (Edwards & Usher, 2000, 14; Said, in Hall 1992, 301). As the restrictions of geography overlap with space and time, they influence the understanding of 'home'. Once 'home' was considered a close-knit community, within a geographically small area. With the increase of human movement, this is no longer the case. The aforementioned notions not only provide a context for the alarming and dramatic increase of refugees displaced by conflict, natural disasters and climate change, or people who move to high density urban agglomerations in search for work opportunities and better lives, but also for students and staff

in search of international experience in academia.

As Beck (2008, 64) observes, Waters (1995, 3) uses the phenomenon of fragmentation of place to underpin globalisation as "a social process in which the constraints of geography on social and cultural arrangements recede, and in which people become increasingly aware that they are receding." By the same token, Appadurai (1990) claims that geography of residence no longer entirely defines identity.

To illustrate the coexistence of contradictory phenomena, a feature of globalisation, Edwards and Usher's (2000, 15) work is predominantly concerned with globalisation as a 'conceptualisation of space' and its impact on both the physical and imagined. They claim that the local is not in contrast to globalisation, but instead, must be seen as an integral part of it.

Edwards and Usher (1998; 2000), tracing the appearance of metaphors of location and space, suggest a theory of pedagogy for contemporary times. They argue that positioning, and being positioned "entail forms of dislocation - of misidentifying and being positioned as other, and where *positioning is itself mobile,* always on the move" (1998, 160, emphasis added). They refer to Brah's (1996) view of globalisation as a "diaspora space", unbounded, not closed, and marking "an intersectionality of contemporary conditions of transmigrancy of people, capital, commodities and culture" (p. 160). They also subscribe to Laclau's (1990, cited on p. 160) concept of (dis)location as a decentred condition where new and compound identities and situations emerge from a diversity of locations. The use of brackets in (dis)location underlines the coexistence location and dislocation. Drawing on Derrida (1981), they argue that while (dis)location is a decentring of privileged locating forces, a refusal to privilege a certain position or voice, that decentring is never complete as "locating processes will always be present" (p. 161).

3.2.3 Appadurai's Theory of Indigenisation

Anthropologist and cultural studies academic Appadurai (1990) offers a framework that explains the multifaceted landscape of globalisation. Appadurai focuses on the cultural aspect of globalisation, in particular, the movement of people, and media. He sees global cultural movements as consisting of compound, interrelating and disconnected forces that are not fixed. This theory contests the twofold centre-periphery vision of world systems, in which orders of western innovation infiltrate and engross peripheral cultures (Appadurai, 1990). Appadurai rejects homogenisation and one-dimensional descriptions of cultural flows hypothesising a process of indigenisation, which acclimatizes, and transforms, or, indigenizes, a global idea, *activity* or object when integrated into a local community. He proposes a framework of *five* "scapes": ethnoscape (the distribution of mobile individuals as tourists, refugees, migrants, etc.), technoscape (the distribution of technology); finanscape (the distribution of capital), mediascape (the distribution of information through a *variety* of media), and ideoscape (the distribution of political ideas and values) (p. 296- 297). Drifts occur among these "scapes" in "increasingly non-isomorphic paths" (p. 301); namely, through paths that are varied and usually unpredictable in their directions.

3.2.4 Beck's 'Eduscape'

Kumari Beck attempts to theorize the internationalisation of education, HE in this case, in terms of an additional scape, called an 'Eduscape' which can be conceptualized as "the flow of educational theories, ideas, programs, activities and research in and across national boundaries" (2008, 82). As "each [scape] is subject to its own constraints and incentives ... at the same time as each acts as a constraint and a parameter for movements in the others" (Appadurai, 1996, 35), it is impossible to understand one in isolation without taking into account the effects that other scapes have on each other. Therefore, the flow of an 'Eduscape' will be affected or interconnected with ethnoscape (the movement of people – recruitment of international students), mediascape (how ideas about international education are

portrayed in the media), finanscape (the flow of money in personal lives, as well as nationally and internationally) and ideoscape (the business of 'ideas' about education).

This notion thus goes well beyond definitions, which risk limiting internationalisation to a blend of intercultural and international influences on universities. If globalisation is considered as fluid, complex, and contradictory—the internationalisation of HE is better understood in terms of an 'Eduscape' which 'reflects a multi-flow, more nuanced, diverse interaction with various elements of the cultural, social, political, and economic dimensions relating to internationalisation" (Becks, 2008, 83).

3.2.5 Summary

The examples of theories of globalisation discussed above present a multifaceted, and intertwined set of forces and processes, often contradictory, involving local activities and interaction across distances, some overlapping with one another, some dialectical and contrary, concurrently standardising as well as disintegrating. The tension between global and local as well as space and place is ever present. Globalisation theory, then, helps to situate issues relating to internationalisation and to contextualise the inspirations, motivations and social circumstances that influence it. As one of the aims of the internationalisation of HE is the enhancement and improvement of the learning experience itself, I will now turn to a discussion of how the curriculum and pedagogy for a global university might be conceptualised.

3.3 Cross-cultural interaction and identity construction

Bhabha's concept of 'Third Space' and related theories (1994) complement both Beck's notion of 'Eduscape' as well as Edward and Usher's (2000) Pedagogy of (Dis)location to provide a more comprehensive framework for analysis of the findings. The section will also overview Wenger's 'community of practice' in order to provide a useful model for analysis of the findings.

3.3.1 Perspectives of the Self in Different Social Contexts

Debates on language, culture, and identity have various starting points but have progressively merged in response to interdisciplinary approaches. Identity philosophies in sociology and considerations of power relations in cultural studies, for instance, have informed research on linguistics and the teaching of languages, providing a framework for the discussion of identity construction in contexts where people from diverse cultures meet and network. The following is a selection of the main frameworks and studies that inform the cross-cultural and identity dimension including Goffman's performative 'self' (1959) and stigmatized self (1963) in society, Bhabha's (1994) concept of 'third space' in a culturally shifting world. In the field of language studies, Kramsch's (1993) conception of interculturality and Norton's (2000) account of interaction control are influential in the exploration of culture and identity in cross-cultural contexts. These studies provide a theoretical platform for making sense of international students' perceptions of integration with home students and functioning in the international landscape.

3.3.2 Bhabha's 'Third Space'

In a post-colonial setting, Bhabha (1994) analyses how various cultures cohabit, bearing in mind the modes of space they use to express differences while they engage in negotiations. He envisages a third space, a cultural space that occurs as a consequence of the non-synchronous temporality of global and national cultures, a place "where the negotiation of incommensurable differences creates a tension peculiar to borderline existences" (p. 218). He proposes that one should not homogenize cultures; instead, difference needs to be respected.

Bhabha's (1994) concept of 'Third Space' is key to any attempt to analyse the new social reality formed by the meeting and mingling of two different cultures. It can be used as a means of explaining the process by which individuals from a particular context move to a new cultural and linguistic

setting and, through interaction, develop a third culture or space. Bhabha's idea of a transforming culture rejects the idea of cultural essentialism with its associated stereotypes (Holliday, 2004). 'Third space', then, is a theory that seeks to explain the personal and cultural development of an individual and assumes that 'cultures are dynamic systems which are constantly renegotiated and cultural meaning is created through interactions with speakers (Finkbeiner, 2005). This weight on the individual places personal identity at the centre of culture and suggests that learners' prior knowledge, beliefs and values are key to the process of attaining intercultural competence (Byram, 1998). Transformation takes place through a form of 'reflexivity', a process through which learners first consider themselves and their own 'culture', and are then able to see the cultures and social identities of others in a new and interesting light.

3.3.3 'Third Space' and language

Various writers in the field of language teaching are in agreement with Bhabha's 'third space' and contribute to further theorising of the potential of the intercultural spheres. In the context of research on English as a second language for Canadian immigrants, Norton (2000), for instance, proposes that language teaching is a highly political practice. She agrees with Simon (1987, 1992) that power relations play an inescapable role in social exchanges. In theorising the relationship between power, identity, and language learning, she suggests, that "identity references desire, the desire for recognition, the desire for affiliation and the desire for security and safety" (Norton, 2000, 8). For Norton, issues such as the decision to participate, the topics and amount of interaction are in control of the advantaged group – the native speakers of the target language.

The work of Kramsch (1993) also sits comfortably with the notion of third space who focuses on the multifaceted feelings of "betwixt and between" of culturally displaced individuals who migrate to a new culture (p. 234) who points out the falseness of the on-the-fence perspective, which highlights the contradiction of cultures with a clear-cut boundary. She argues that

experiencing the boundary means uncovering that each of these cultures is not as solid as originally understood; each includes a countless number of potential changes. Therefore, one has to see the boundaries not as an actual occurrence but, rather, as a state of mind, as a positioning of the student at the junction of multiple social roles and individual choices. Kramsch calls this junction the space "between and beyond the social order of their native culture and that of the target culture" (p. 238), it is a culture "of a third kind" (p. 235). Language students access this place via dialectical manner, rather than an additive method.

Kramsch's concept of interculturality is recognized by Li and Girvan (2004), who further demonstrate the existence, formation, and variability of the "sphere of interculturality" (Kramsch, 1993) in the ESL classroom. They state that learning an additional language requires not only learning culture, but also creating culture: a much more pro-active process. Such a pedagogical modification has implications for students, educators, and the target community in general. The whole notion of target community could be re-imagined as the third place– the sphere of interculturality—rather than in terms of the alleged superiority of native speakers. In the language-teaching and learning context, this would not only remove the unreasonable and inappropriate stigma of becoming "native", but would recognise the language learner as a multicomponent (Cook, 1992) individual who is more than just a hybrid of two cultures (Li & Girvan, 2004).

The aforementioned theories in the field of language teaching are in agreement with Bhabha's (1994) concept of the cultural third space. However, this third space may not always be easy to find. Said (1991) cautions that the university is not a sanctuary from "the political intercourse of a given society and culture" (p. 15). In addition, Harris (1996) claims that attending university can create "a major form of secondary socialisation" that may deny the previous ones (p. 193).

This experience of secondary socialisation is intensified even further for language students, who sometimes enter areas of social life with limited linguistic capability, where they experience dramatic transformation. These changes have both positive and negative effects. On the one hand, students have the exciting opportunity to develop new identities; on the other hand, they may be disturbed by the feeling of a lost identity as their original culture fades away (Harris, 1996). However, Holland, Lachicotte Jr., Skinner and Cain (1998, 23) advise they can always "reconcile the universal and culturally specific aspects of self".

As explained, entering into a new culture might be even more complex because of the intricacies of learning in a different language. Students are challenged with fixed conventions and requirements dissimilar to what they have known in the past. University staff may have different expectations for them and may not share a keen interest in finding out about their students' diverse cultures. Consequently, trying to develop an appropriate identity in a discipline with an alien academic culture can be a challenging process.

Said (1991) envisages a "model of academic freedom" that enables international students to effectively function in the academy.

> The world we live in is made up of numerous identities interacting, sometimes harmoniously, sometimes antithetically. ... We cannot make our claim as seekers after justice that we advocate knowledge only of and about ourselves. Our model for academic freedom should therefore be the migrant or traveller; ... inside the academy we should be able to discover and travel among other selves, other identities, other varieties of the human adventure. (p. 17)

3.3.4 Pedagogy of (Dis)location

The brief discussion of Internationalisation of Curriculum in chapter 2 does not provide, of course, a comprehensive review of pedagogical approaches

appropriate for the internationalized classroom, but rather a selection of contemporary debates around "what might constitute an appropriate response to globalisation, in the midst of its complexity" (Smith, 2006, 24). In what follows, I discuss in greater detail such pedagogical responses, drawing, in particular, on Edwards and Usher (2000) and Smith (2006).

Edwards and Usher (2000) consider that teaching in the university in the complex conditions of globalisation needs to take into account the implications of (dis)location on both learning and teaching. Arguing that identity is "secured through location and locating practices" (p. 119), they propose that pedagogy itself must be spatialised in order to both recognize and facilitate the identities of learners. They hypothesize a 'Pedagogy of (Dis)location.

Imagining a 'Pedagogy of (Dis)location' makes it possible to inhabit different spaces and to highlight the positioning of both learners and educators. It is also marked by ambiguity and randomness, which, the authors propose is feature of intensified globalisation. For Edwards and Usher (2000) a 'Pedagogy of (Dis)location' would demand 'mapping' different locations and translating them into, for example, suitable teaching and learning methods.

Smith (2000) also offers a response to delocalisation, the inescapable logic of the market and its discourse of competitiveness, and so-called frozen futurism, all of which result from the economic dimensions of globalisation. Recommending that teaching should encompass "living in the Now" – meaning, embracing present issues – he outlines three potential conditions: teaching must contribute to the recovery of personal truth; shared truth; and finding truth as finding home (p. 29). The retrieval of *personal truth* refers to the disembedding forces and "personal diminishment" (p. 30) resulting from globalisation. Smith sees this as "a way of living in the world that is attuned to the way of the world's actual unfolding" (p. 30). Rather than 'a consumption of the other', this entails a pedagogy of care and respect for the other. *Truth as shared* responds to a relational orientation which recognizes the multiple interpretations of truth. The third condition, *truth as home*, is

defined as "finding oneself at home in the world" (p.32), which can be compared to the locating practices proposed by Edwards and Usher.

Smith (2006) conceives of this teaching strategy as acts of confrontation that are essential to counter globalisation. He also talks in terms of a 'new hermeneutical approach' to teaching, to be creatively engendered in the spaces to be found between the economic dimensions and the attempts to confront to them (1999). Supported by the traditions of hermeneutics, educators are asked to be "interpreters of culture, rather than merely transmitters or managers" (p. 5), and to embed dialogue to facilitate the participation of all learners.

3.3.5 Wenger's 'Communities of Practice'
It is vital to capture the diversity of relationships that international students form at university. One of them could be learning identity: what are the habits students develop at the university, what are the factors that enhance and influence this in positive ways, and what are the obstacles? The notion of Wenger's (1998) 'Community of Practice' will be used to explore the students' experiences in the context of internationalisation.

Communities of practice are dependent on novices being guided into the practices of that community through the expert direction of long-time members. In this process, novices also learn from each other, and the existing members can learn from novices. Learning is not perceived as gaining knowledge but as interaction, a process of social participation. Lave and Wenger (1991) also determine how "learning and a sense of identity are inseparable" (p. 3). For learning,

> [v]iewing learning as legitimate peripheral participation means
> that learning is not merely a condition to membership, but is
> itself an evolving form of membership ... thus identity, knowing
> and social membership entail one another. [Lave and Wenger,
> 1991, p. 53]

Partaking is central to learning, and a learner moves from the outside to full

engagement by participating in a community of practice, which can help learner progress, or hinder learning through barricades that avert full participation. Therefore, for the existing members, the focus is not on passing on knowledge, but to identify the level of participation of the learner through what they know already from the past, and facilitating the transition to full participation:

> [F]or to shift as we have from the notion of an individual learner to the concept of legitimate peripheral participation in communities of practice is precisely to decentre analysis of learning. To take a decentred view of master-apprentice relations leads to an understanding that mastery resides not in the master but in the organisation of the community of practice of which the master is a part. [Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 9]

The emphasis here is on allowing access to practice rather than on instruction as a resource for learning. "For newcomers then the purpose is not to learn *from* talk as a substitute for legitimate peripheral participation; it is to learn *to talk* as a key to legitimate peripheral participation" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 109). As Wenger (2000) clarifies, this view of learning is grounded in the notion that "knowing is an act of participation in complex social learning systems" (p. 226), where learning is understood to take place as an "interplay" between personal experience of the world and socially defined competence (p. 226).

Beck (2008) summarises Wenger's (1998) account of the three elements of communities in the following terms: members of a community of practice are bound together by a collectively-developed idea of what they are (a joint enterprise); the relationships are characterized by mutuality; and the community produces a shared range of capitals such as language, routines, styles, tools and artefacts. As collective practice itself creates limitations, a community of practice by definition has limitations, but these are flexible. Limitations can be a source of disintegration. However, they can also be sites of opportunity, transformation of competence and experience: In the former,

a boundary experience is usually an experience of being

exposed to a foreign competence ... Learning at boundaries is

likely to be maximized for individuals and for communities

when experience and competence are in close tension

(Wenger, 2000, 233).

Holiday adds that (1999, 237), the notion of 'Community of Practice' offers an alternative way of conceptualising culture inasmuch as they avoid a focus on nationality and thus steer clear of "culturist ethnic, national and international stereotypes".

The theories discussed above have shed light onto my understanding of identity as multiple, constructed, and affected by diverse cultural and institutional factors. This theorisation will provide me with a framework for understanding cross-cultural identity negotiation among international students and staff dealing with internationalisation at a British university.

3.4 Summary

The discussion in this chapter of globalisation and associated postmodern approaches forms the interdisciplinary theoretical framework for the analysis of the findings reported in chapters 5 to 7. The notion of global cultural flows (Appadurai, 1996, 2001), the formation of an 'Eduscape' (Becks, 2008) and the 'Pedagogy of (Dis)location' (Edward and Usher, 2000) complement Wenger's (1998) 'Communities or Practice' and Bhabha's (1994) 'Third Space'.

Chapter 4
Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses research methodology and design. It starts by addressing philosophical considerations concerning ontology and epistemology in relation to my inquiry. I will then move to a discussion of the choices behind the research design, the methods of data collection and the approach to data analysis. Finally, I will argue consider my stance as a researcher, as well as issues of rigour and ethics.

4.2 Philosophical considerations

Ontology is considered as the philosophical study of reality, being or existence whereas epistemology is the subdivision of philosophy dealing with the nature of knowledge. The researcher's epistemological and ontological personal choices regulate which research paradigm is to be used, *i.e.* quantitative or qualitative research.

This study embraces the constructionist view that multiple realities are socially constructed by individuals. By choosing this interpretive epistemological stance, it is assumed that knowledge can be gathered through understanding lived experiences (Carr and Kemmis, 1986) and predisposes me to research within a qualitative framework. As suggested by Henwood (1996, p.26), "researchers who adopt a more open, interpretative, constructionist stance have a clear affinity for qualitative research. " In a similar vein, Merriam (2002, p.3) suggests: "The key to understanding qualitative research lies with the idea that meaning is socially constructed by individuals in interaction with their world."

4.2.1 A social constructionist ontology

As previously discussed in Chapter two, the discourse on the social construction of reality has been considerably influenced by Berger and Luckmann (1966). Social constructionism is a philosophy, which contends that reality/knowledge/truth is (are) constructed through the social interaction of individuals with their surroundings by means of language, discourse and other semiotic forms. This is a continuing, interactive and culturally bound social process. Berger and Luckmann (1966) point out that ordinary experience is built by language. Their perspective focuses on the vital role that language plays in the process of reality/knowledge's social construction.

Social constructionism contests the conventional taken-for-granted knowledge by taking a more critical view. With a focus on the process and dynamic of social interaction, as Burr claims (1995), social constructionists consider numerous truths and different ways of being and understandings, achieved through social interaction.

As a researcher, I agree that individuals such as the participants of my study – the postgraduate international students and the university staff dealing with international students – make sense of their lived experience and their multiple identities through daily social interactions by means of language: "Our identities inhere in our voices, spoken, written or signed" (Joseph, 2004, p.21). Learning and using English has enabled the postgraduate international students to re-construct their identity in a new context of the international HE landscape.

4.2.2 An interpretive epistemology

Epistemology interprets the nature of knowledge and what one can learn. For the purpose of this study, I took an interpretive epistemological stance, endeavouring to comprehend the lived experiences of individuals through the meanings that those individuals assign to them, through language and narratives. In line with the interpretive/qualitative research paradigm,

knowledge is connected to interpretation, meaning and illumination rather than generalisation, prediction and control; this requires researchers to understand how participants construct meanings in their social world (Usher, 1996), *i.e.* "the researcher is providing an interpretation of others' interpretations" (Bryman, 2001, p.15). Also "the researcher's interpretations have to be further interpreted in terms of the concepts, theories and literature of a discipline" (p.15). Given the link between identity construction and biographical experiences as reflexively understood by the individual, an interpretive epistemology is seen as the most suitable route for developing this line of enquiry.

4.3 Qualitative Research Paradigm

The following research paradigm guides my methodological choices and describes the methods of data collection.

A 'paradigm' is a way of looking at the world. A 'research paradigm' is a 'school of thought' or 'a framework for thinking' about how research ought to be conducted to ascertain truth. Different researchers tend use different terminologies when discussing research paradigms, because of the various perspectives from which they analyse. For practical purposes, though, the different research paradigms can normally be reduced to just two: the 'traditional' research paradigm, essentially quantitative, and the 'interpretivist' research paradigm, principally qualitative (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 536).

There are, then, two main paradigms: quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative research is concerned, as the term suggests, with the collection and analysis of data in numeric form. It tends to emphasize relatively large-scale and representative sets of data, and is often falsely, presented or perceived as being about the gathering of `'facts'. Qualitative research, on the other hand, is concerned with collecting and analysing information in as many forms, chiefly non-numeric, as possible (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 1996: 61). Because I am interested in 'depth' rather than 'breadth', I have

decided to adopt the qualitative paradigm, which will allow me to embrace all aspects of phenomena as they emerge from data collected.

4.4 Research Design

There is no single prescription for planning research. Research design is overseen by the notion of 'fitness for purpose'. Of the various approaches within the qualitative paradigm, I will describe why I have chosen Critical Ethnography and Case Study as the most suitable approaches in my study. This discussion will be followed by a consideration of data collection tools, the research sites, sampling strategy and data analysis procedures. Finally, issues of rigour, ethical consideration will be discussed.

4.4.1 Ethnography and Critical Ethnography

Traditional ethnography was originally developed within the field of cultural and social anthropology where portraying the culture or way of life of a social group in their natural settings as closely as possible foregrounded the meanings the group attached to it (McNeil and Chapman, 2005). As a methodology, ethnography has been adapted and used in a number of disciplines. Usually, the ethnographer plans to investigate in depth the circumstances of fewer participants rather than look at a small set of variables and a large number of subjects. The advantage of applying ethnography is that even though the research will have been designed prior to its start, the design is flexible enough to take into consideration unforeseen and unpredictable outcomes. As a result, ethnographic accounts are descriptive, detailed and interpretive, as the ethnographer needs to consider the implications of what is observed.

4.4.2 Critical Ethnography

Critical ethnography uses the same data collection methods as traditional ethnography. However, two features distinguish it from traditional approaches: reflexivity and catalytic validity.

Reflexivity involves a constant dialogue between the researcher, the research process and the research outcomes. "Self-critical sympathetic introspection and the self-conscious analytical scrutiny of the self as a researcher" (England, 1994: 82) helps reflection on how researcher and participants' 'positionality' (gender, age, class, ethnicity, personality, previous experience, power, etc.) affect researcher-researched relations. Critical research also aims for counter-hegemonic research practices. The researcher needs to rigorously evaluate the ways in which his or her involvement with participants affects the data collection, analysis and the publishing of the data to an audience. The most significant value of this approach is that researchers analyse how their involvement has impacted the process and in the final stage of the study, reflect on their role as active constructors rather than passive recorders of narratives or events.

Another distinctive feature of critical ethnography is catalytic validity, which ensures that research leads to action. Lather (1991) and Kincheole and McLAren (1994) propose that the agenda for catalytic validity is to help participants to understand the worlds they live in order to change them. What is more, Lincoln and Guba (1986) suggest that the criterion of fairness should not only augment and improve the participants' experience of the world but also empower them. One of the many reasons why I have adopted critical ethnography approach in my study is because I wanted to make participants and the wider community they belong to aware of the broad implications of internationalisation in HE, allowing them to develop a deeper understanding of their roles with an emphasis for improvement. As Cousin (2009, 151) advocates, the important idea for researchers is to research *with* subjects, not only *on* them:

> Non-dialogic, non-participative forms of research are seen to
> run the risk of otherising research subjects, often reducing
> them to stereotypical versions of themselves. In contrast,
> research *with* subjects is held to create a climate of enquiry that

> is generative of more disclosed, informed, subtle, appreciative, negotiated and intelligent understandings.

Apart from critical ethnography, the case study approach was chosen to complement the research methodology.

4.4.2 Case study

As a complement to critical ethnography, the case study method was used to harness a wide range of variables, such as attitudes to internationalisation, participants' understanding and opinions to try to make sense of a place and a case in relation to the entire setting of international education. As the data was collected from four different campuses of one university, the case study approach allowed me to contextualise the variables and patterns in wider contexts to explore narrower fields – a critical feature of ethnographic case study approach. The main purpose of this method was to use preliminary observations and notes from the various campuses to identify the attitudes, which, in turn, helped, generate discussion and conclusions.

Yin (1989) proposes that case studies are associated with 'how' and 'why' questions where the researcher has little control over the situation. The emphasis on using the term 'case study' is to draw attention to the importance of learning from that single specific case (Stake 2000). Yin (1989) draws attention to the problem of generalising a specific case to other cases which he refers to as a 'trap'. However, he offers a solution to that problem when he suggests that the researcher should apply his case study results to 'theory' rather than other cases.

I believe the case study approach well suits my inquiry into "processes and relationships" (Denscombe, 2007, 38) and my research questions. Case study researchers notice the complexity and 'embeddedness' of social truths (Adelman et al., 1980, 59) and the inappropriateness of capturing these through controlled experiments or statistics. The relevance of the case study

approach lies in its holistic take on the exploration of real life situations. It includes gathering of data from a variety of sources and methods within a specific setting. According to Cousin (2009, 132): "the research always takes place where the case naturally arises; it is research of an "instance in action." The people in the case study are best described as "actors" to capture this".

Finally, case study research was chosen as a suitable approach as it had the potential to generate rich understandings of a case. It offered flexible and creative ways of researching live settings as well as allowed evocative pieces that I hope will persuade the reader of this thesis.

4.4.3 Issues of subjectivity, truth claim and representation

Although critical ethnography and case study approaches play an essential role in understanding experience and identity, it is subject to issues of subjectivity, truth claim and representation (Alvermann, 2000), which are contestable notions in the current study. Informed by post-structuralist /postmodernist approach to the debate of identity, the contemporary selves are regarded as "a distinctive version of subjectivity" (Holstein and Gubrium, 1997, 12). As there is no such thing as absolute truth; here the argument is recognized that:

> Life history and narrative approaches are personal centred, unapologetically subjective. Far from a weakness, the voice of the person, the subject's own account represents a singular strength (Ayers, cited in Hatch and Wisniewski, 1995, 118).

The issue of truth, however, brings into question the rightfulness of personal narratives: are personal self-articulated stories absolute truth or reality? Whose truths are globalised? The ones on the top who control the internationalisation or the individuals' taking part in the globalisation process? Are some truths more mobile than others'? In this respect, as an interpretive researcher, I believe that knowledge is connected to

interpretation, meaning and illumination rather than generalisation and prediction, requiring researchers to comprehend and make sense of participants' self-interpretation of their life experience, contextualised by time and sociocultural space. As a critical ethnographer, I aimed to not only collect facts or "truths" about participants, but also actively constructed interpretations of their experiences in the field, and then question how those interpretations came about (Hertz, 1997). I treated personal stories articulated by individuals as knowledge *per se*, which constituted "the social reality of the narrator" (Etherington, 2004, 81). Researchers in this tradition believe that:

> When talking about their lives, people lie sometimes, forget a lot, exaggerate, become confused, and get things wrong. Yet they are revealing truths. These truths don't reveal the past "as it actually was," aspiring to a standard of objectivity. They give us instead the truths of our experiences… (Personal Narrative Group, 1989, 261)

As communicated by Spence (1982), the "truths" sought by narrative researchers are "narrative truths," not "historical truths", which are co-constructed in a dialogue by both researchers and narrators based on self-interpreted personal life events. "The storied descriptions people give about the meaning they attribute to life events is, I believe, the best evidence available to researchers about the realm of people's experience" (Polkinghorne, 2007, 9).

If the issue of truth claim centres on the reliability of stories told by narrators, the crisis of representation concerns the validity of analysing, interpreting and representing the narratives. In critical ethnography, the inconsistencies between the actual meanings of personal experience and their explanations may be caused by the limits of language in exemplifying lived experience (Alvermann, 2000; Polkinghorne, 2007), because "language, in both its written and spoken forms, is always inherently unstable, in flux, and made up of the traces of other signs and symbolic statements" and there "can never be

a clear, unambiguous statement of anything, including an intention or a meaning" (Denzin, 1997, 14). This complexity is key in multicultural and multilingual contexts, as is the case in international education and international programmes. To maximise the reliability of the narratives, the different 'truths' or perspectives were collected from the various 'participants' in international education, those of students', those of educators' and those 'managing' the diaspora of international education.

In the above, various concerns about critical ethnography research have been reviewed. In this study, the participants' accounts are personal as they have a temporal dimension and are located in specific place or 'Eduscape' (Appadurai, 1990; Edwards and Usher, 2000). What I seek from this investigation is the personal and contextual details of accounts, the linking of stories with the broader social context where these accounts happened and the "resonance" (Conle, 1996) or dissonance readers may have with the stories so that they can augment their understanding of experience unknown to them and join the dialogue around the meanings students and staff make in relation to their cross-cultural experience. As a critical ethnographer, bearing in mind the "co-creating" nature and the "intersubjectivity" of the research, I attempt to present the authentic voices or stories of the participants rather than letting my own views to overshadow the representation.

4.5 Sample and sampling

4.5.1 Participant recruitment
Originally, I was planning to employ a multiple case study approach drawing on two universities. The choice of universities was based on convenience, accessibility and the potential rich data related to the large number of international students studying there. I had already established a good working relationship at University A and I was employed and responsible for implementing internationalisation into the curriculum at University B. However, comparative study of data from two universities proved difficult to

achieve, mainly because of time constraints. Therefore, I decided to carry on with the critical ethnographic case study at University B only.

The choice of a university offering subject specialist degrees in art, design and media was conscious as the context provided a range of flexible and creative approaches to teaching, learning and curriculum development. In addition, at the time of data collection, the institution lacked a comprehensive Teaching and Learning Policy and there was an increasing demand for a more comprehensive Creative Pedagogy strategy. It was hoped that the debate and findings from this study would resonate with the policy makers with the power to embed a contemporary and more inclusive teaching, learning and curriculum approaches in the creative arts context. Hence, in line with the interpretive/qualitative research paradigm, event though knowledge is connected to interpretation, meaning and illumination rather than generalisation, prediction and control (Usher, 1996), it could be argued that the debate and conclusion emerging from this case study could be applied to some extent in another creative arts context.

The focus group participants – 27 MA international students (5 focus groups), 12 lecturers (3 focus groups) and 2 student union members – were recruited from a university in South East England. This was followed by 6 semi-structured interviews with the university leadership team directly dealing with various aspects of internationalisation. Finally, the data was supplemented by 270 responses from the institutional international student i-barometer (ISB) from 2012, 2013 and 2014 with an active contribution of international postgraduate students commenting on arriving, living and studying in the UK. A summary of participants' details is presented in tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 below.

4.5.2 Participant sampling

In line with qualitative research design, this study made use of purposive sampling (Descombe, 1998), concentrating on the strategic nature of data sources rather than using them as statistical representations of a population. A purposive sample is a non-representative subset of some larger population, and is constructed to serve a very specific need or purpose, in this case, international students studying for a Master's degree.

A subset of a purposive sample is a snowball sample, so named because one picks up the sample along the way, analogous to a snowball accumulating snow. A snowball sample is achieved by asking a participant to suggest someone else who might be willing or appropriate for the study. I deployed the 'snowball' technique to recruit various social networks of participants for the focus group discussions and interviews (see tables 4.1 – 4.4).

After recognising relevant gatekeepers – both, students and staff, such as course student representatives, former students or staff that I have collaborated with – I asked them to recommend other people who would be pertinent to my study as well as ready to participate in it. According to Milroy and Gordon (2003, 32), among the advantages, this technique serves to reduce the rate at which potential participants refuse to take part in research, because of the way they are contacted. While contacting participants, I mentioned the name of a person who recommended them as good candidates for my study. Therefore, I was not viewed as a complete outsider but more as a 'friend of a friend' (Milroy and Gordon, 2003, 75), entitling me to some of the rights as well as the obligations of an insider. The technique was used throughout my research and proved to be effective. I also reached participants through social media, flyers, posters and university websites, though these techniques proved less successful that snowballing.

In recruiting staff for the study I used a convenience sample of those available at the time and willing to take part. An invitation to take part in focus groups was emailed to all staff across the institution allowing me to locate participants directly concerned with internationalisation for four focus

groups and six interviews. A further invitation to complete a questionnaire was sent to all staff across the institution. As a result, I received extensive responses from six additional colleagues.

The snowballing and convenience samples located in this way included students with both positive and negative attitude towards their experiences of international students and staff directly concerned with international students as well as those with less experience of internationalisation.

4.6 Research methods

I will look next specifically at the main techniques used in the collection of data – focus groups, interviews, open-response comments from questionnaires and document analysis.

The data was mainly collected using focus group discussions and one-to-one semi-structured interviews. It was then complemented by 6 extensive responses from a survey with university staff as well as comments from students who took part in the institutional i-barometer international students' survey over three consecutive years. In the discussion that follows, the different types of data collection methods will be presented to rationalize the selection of focus groups, individual semi-structured interviews, questionnaires and document analysis.

4.6.1 Focus groups

I carried out five focus groups with international students and four focus groups with university staff including lecturers and student union staff – see Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 and Appendices D and E for topic guide questions.

Table 4.1 Focus groups

Focus Groups	Number of Focus Groups	Number of participants
PGR International students	1 x 7 1 x 7 1 x 3 1 x 6 1 x 4	27 students
PGR home students	0	0 students
Lecturers	1 x 3 1 x 3 1 x 6	12 lecturers
Student Union Representatives	1 x 2	2 SU Representatives
TOTAL		**41**

Table 4.2 Focus Groups participants in this project - students

Number	FG	Pseudonym	Country	Course subject
1	1a	Jin	Taiwan	Animation
2		Abus	China	Animation
3		Lima	China	Product Design
4		Mari	Bulgaria	Animation
5		Ha	China	Photography
6		Yukasu	Japan	Ceramics
7		Jam	Taiwan	Product Design
8	2a	Aya	Japan	Creative Arts Management
9		Wei	Taiwan	Innovation, Brand
10		Gela	Iran	Creative Arts Management
11		Samson	Iran	Creative Arts Management
12		Elvin	Taiwan	Graphic Design
13		Ton	Thailand	Graphic Design
14		Yun	Taiwan	Graphic Design
15	3a	Innar	Russia	Creative Arts Management
16		Ansan	Taiwan	Creative Arts Management
17		Kei	Japan	Creative Arts Management
18	4a	Lele	Taiwan	Fine Art
19		Masa	Japan	Fine Art
20		Gina	Hong Kong	Graphic Design
21		Annabelle	Russia	Graphic Design
22		Toshia	Japan	Architecture
23		Ke	Taiwan	Architecture
24	5a	Hui	Malaysia	Innovation, Brand
25		Sho	Japan	Architecture
26		So	China	Fine Art
27		Beanie	China	Glass

Table 4.3 Focus groups participants in this project - staff

Number	FG	Pseudonym	Subject/area taught
1	1b	Helen	Learning Development Tutor
2		Niki	Learning Development Tutor
3		Lisa	Learning Development Tutor
4	2b	Stefan	Learning Development Tutor
5		Trisha	Learning Development Tutor
6		Lucinda	Learning Development Tutor
7	3b	Gareth	Head of Pathway Programmes
8		Heather	Design Senior Lecturer
9		Mary	Fine Art, Senior Lecturer
10		Sabrina	Fine Art, Lecturer
11		Sandra	Creative Writing, EAP Lecturer
12		Annie	EAP Tutor
13	4b	Salvador	Student Union Co-ordinator
14		Janet	Student Union President

As Macnaghten and Myers (2007, 67) point out that "often focus group research takes place in a context of several layers of argument, where people have conflicting beliefs, and where social researchers present different framings of those beliefs". Thus, for the purposes of this project, staff, international students and home students were positioned in separate focus groups, to encourage open expression of views and to avoid conflicts. In all focus groups, I laid out clear guidelines about the rules during the focus group and made sure that no one dominated taking away opportunity for others to contribute to the discussion.

Focus groups supported me in selecting 'real' profiles of international students to investigate their experience further. Table 4.2 includes additional information on the countries of origin of the students and the names of the courses they were doing at the time of data collection. The research aimed to consider the social context of HE through the perception of the international students themselves, and thus follow-up interviews were originally planned as a method to collect the views and interpretations of the students after the

focus groups. However, the focus groups narratives turned out to be rich enough.

In keeping with the developing approach to the research, the first focus group aimed to refine the methodology of the study itself and informed the further data collection phase. According to Laws et al. (2003: 298), a focus group is a group interview, where 6 to 12 people are brought together for a discussion and the interaction between group members is part of the process, and should be encouraged. The method has been used increasingly in educational research and shown to be a useful tool to generate data in the form of facts, opinions, experiences and feelings (Chioncel, Van Der Veen, Wildemeersch & Jarvis, 2003). This technique can be a crucial tool in exploring the collective understanding of an issue, as well as the range of views among a particular category of people.

> The rapid spread of focus groups corresponds to a new interest, in many social science fields, in shared and tacit beliefs, and in the way these beliefs emerge in interaction with others in a local setting" (Macnaghten and Myers (date) in Seale et al., 2007: 65).

Because I had not been entirely sure what categories, links and perspectives were relevant for internationalisation in my target groups, focus groups with international students enabled me as a researcher to gain in-depth information on what people thought, in their own words as part of the process of developing a larger scale piece of research. The narratives of international students collected from the focus groups guided me in pursuing further data collection with staff, including more focus groups and other techniques, such as interviews, elite interviews and questionnaires. The focus group turned out to be a useful technique as a starting point in my research as they enabled participants to engage in discussion in which prompts, and responses to others stimulated memories and debates (Wilkinson, 2003).

There are many advantages of focus groups: they are relatively easy to assemble, inexpensive and flexible in terms of format, types of questions and desired outcomes; they provide rich data through direct interaction between researcher and participants; they are spontaneous as participants not required to answer every question and able to build on one another's responses; and finally, they help people build new connections. However, there are also possible limitations: findings may not represent the views of larger segments of the population; they require good facilitation skills, including ability to handle the various roles people may play; they produce thick data which may be difficult to analyse because it is unstructured; and in the worse-case scenario, there might be possible conformity, censoring, conflict avoidance, or other unintended outcomes which need to be addressed as part of the data analysis (Carey, 1995).

The focus groups were advertised on various university network groups, Virtual Learning Environment (VLE), emails and, as already explained, using the 'friend of a friend' technique, with the aim of exploring viewpoints on internationalisation in HE and ideas of enhancing the PG student experience from student and staff perspectives. Participants were invited to attend the focus group most relevant to them dependent on whether they regarded themselves as an international student, home student or member of staff. No payments were offered, however, each event included snacks and free hot and cold beverages.

My main role as the facilitator was to explain that the aim of focus groups was to encourage participants to talk to each other rather than to address themselves to me as a researcher. I took a back seat at first, allowing for a type of "structured eavesdropping." Later on in the sessions, however, I adapted a more interventionist style – if disagreements occurred, I used the opportunity to encourage participants to elucidate their point of view and to clarify their opinions. Additionally, I used vignettes, which explained the more challenging terms and provided students with short case examples of what internationalisation might mean.

The focus group discussions were recorded digitally and then transcribed. I used recording equipment and made notes of the non-verbal behaviour of participants as well as writing down the more interesting points of the debate.

4.6.2 Interviews

I carried out six semi-structured interviews with university staff with interests and responsibilities particularly relevant to my research, such as staff associated with cross-university internationalisation projects and specialist knowledge and experience. Some of the interviews could be considered elite interviews (Phillips, 1998) - gaining access to the Deputy Pro Vice Chancellor (DPVC) and the Executive Dean was not easy and I had to wait for several months before being given an appointment.

Lichtman (2006) and Bernard (2000) recognise three types of interviews. The first type is the informal or unplanned interview, which often occurs during field research and is characterised by lack of structure and control. It requires experienced interviewing skills, as the researcher has to make more effort to build rapport with the participants to explore their views. Ethnographers frequently use unstructured interviews during their field study.

Another common type of interview is the structured interview (Lichtman, 2006; Bernard, 2000). This type has exactly the same questions and format for each participant and is more suitable for survey research. It is sometimes called a verbal questionnaire since it follows the structure of a questionnaire (Ribbins 2007). The weaknesses of structured interviews are the limited flexibility in relating the interview to particular individuals and circumstances; the fact that the standardized wording of questions may constrain and limit naturalness; and the relevance of questions and answers. Furthermore, respondents have to fit their experiences and feelings into categories determined by the researcher, which may be perceived as

impersonal, irrelevant, and mechanistic. This perception can also distort what participants really mean or experience and limit their responses (Cohen et al, 2007, 353).

The third type, semi-structured interview method was chosen as a means of exploring the understanding and perceptions of participants within particular social situations (Mason, 2002). While a structured interview has a formalised and limited set of questions, a semi-structured interview allowed me to be flexible and introduce new questions as a result of what the interviewee said. Even though the parameters of the interview were fixed, this offered the possibility of extending the interview into new areas related to the topic (Denscombe, 1998). The stress was placed on letting the interviewees freely express their thoughts, describing features of the internationalisation policies in ways that were pertinent to them. In an interview, both sides were able to seek clarification, thus constructing knowledge through social interaction.

Another type of interviews is the elite interview, more prevalent within journalism than within academic research, although certain disciplines such as sociology or political science rely heavily on this method (Phillips, 1998). In the academy, the elite interview is a specific type of focused interview and differs from other interview protocols in several ways. Merton, Fiske, & Kendal (1990) characterise interviews as having the following qualities: (1) The interviewee is known to have participated in a certain situation; (2) the researcher reviews necessary information to arrive at a provisional analysis; (3) the production of the interview guide is based on this analysis; and (4) the result of the interview is the interviewee's definition of the situation.

Because the interview format stresses the interviewee's definition of a situation, the interviewee is encouraged to structure the account of the situation and is able to introduce his or her notions of what is most relevant instead of relying on the investigator's notions of relevance (Odendahl & Shaw, 2002). The interview aims to elicit subjective perceptions, and

retrospection is used to encourage the interviewees to recall immediate reactions rather than to reconsider the situation (Odendahl & Shaw, 2002). Elite interviews focus on the specialized knowledge of the interviewee and tend to be more open-ended (Odendahl & Shaw, 2002). In my study, I conducted two elite interviews.

While interviewing, qualitative researchers need to bear in mind the issue of power relations. Even though Mason (2002) claims that it is usually the researcher that has power over the interviewee, she also adds that these powers are sometimes multifaceted and nuanced. With the elite interviews, the interviewees certainly had more power over the discussion content.

In terms of advantages, interviews were flexible and gave me the ability to record feelings, gestures and the tone of the answers. This type of information could not have been obtained through written questionnaires and would have been more difficult to detect in a focus group. However, interviews took time and effort as the majority of them were with busy staff with limited availability.

Table 4.4 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews	Participants
Deputy PVC	1
Executive Dean (Learning, Teaching & Research)	1
Learning Enhancement and Support Manager – Language and Learning Development	1
Director of Library and Student Servcices	1
Mobility Co-ordinator	1
International Student Support Manager	1
TOTAL	**6**

4.6.3 Questionnaires

The questionnaire is considered as one of the most popular research tools (Bryman 2012, 715) and in this study, it was used to access views of the participants who could not join one of the focus groups because of limited time availability or distance.

According to Bryman (2004), the self-competition questionnaire is more cost effective compared to the structured interviews and faster in getting response. The researcher does not need to be available during the questionnaire completion, which provides fair treatment for all respondents and offers respondents more flexibility to answer the questionnaire when they want and at a convenient pace (Oppenheim, 1992). However, this method also had some limitations that might have affected the results I desired. The main concern was the poor response rate from academics since the questionnaire was voluntary – I received six responses only. However, in spite of the low response rate, I managed to collect 6 richer open-response comments in this way (see Appendix E for survey topic guide questions). The

questions used were similar to the ones used in the focus groups with academics and promoted detailed and insightful replies.

Furthermore, I was able to gain access to the results of the institutional international student i-barometer survey, which allowed me to analyse data from postgraduate international students from three consecutive years 2012-2014. The survey is available to HE institutions worldwide and is considered an instant and easy recognition of an institution's dedication to the student experience. The core questionnaire covers arrival, learning, living, support, recommendation, application and choice of institution. The questionnaire has a semi-standardised online format and is adapted and customised for each partner institution. All international students are invited to offer feedback from October to December each year. The institution-specific results are set against comparator groups, national and international benchmarks. The reporting of the results conducted by the external party is confidential and customised to each institution. I had the opportunity to attend the data results presentations in each year and gained access to it for the purposes of my study (see Table 4.3. for more details). The results from the 270 international postgraduate students contained rich numeric and open-response comments data in regards to the areas central to my investigation, namely student experience, arriving, living and studying in the UK, which will be interwoven in the findings and discussion chapter

Table 4.5 Questionnaire respondents – staff and international postgraduate students

Staff Questionnaire	Participants
Lecturers	6
TOTAL	6

International Student i-barometer Survey	PGR international participants
2012	76 (21% of all international students who took part)
2013	56 (22% of all international students who took part)
2014	138 (26% of all students who took part)
TOTAL	270

4.6.4 Document analysis

As documents are considered meaningful elements in the social world and can provide useful data not only from their content, but also from the circumstances surrounding their creation, understanding and use, I have included some in my discussion of the enhancement of the international postgraduate student experience. According to Mason (2002), documents are constructed in particular contexts, by specific people with precise purposes and with intended and unintended outcomes. They form part of sense

making activities through which we construct, sustain, contest and change our notions of socially constructed reality (Miller and Dingwall, 1997). Here, it is assumed that various documents will reflect certain perceptions of the group of people who produced them.

A number of documents were consulted throughout the period of data collection. They comprise the international element in the strategic plans 2013-2018 of the university as well as other documents and policies related to enhancement of the international postgraduate student experience, curriculum adaptation and learning and teaching approaches. Also included are documents produced by staff members at various points during the development of the research, such as records of evaluation of curriculum activities, guides and international student handbooks. The documents aided my personal reflection and added value to the research.

According to Hammersley and Atkinson (1983), qualitative study challenges the idea of statements being seen as either true or false by asking various questions about the text. In my document analysis, I also looked at how the texts were written, how they were read, who wrote them, for whom, with what outcomes, what was recorded and what was avoided, what was taken for granted, what readers needed to know in order to make sense of the document and how was this a reflection of reading and writing in a given social setting. Rather than treating such texts at face value, these questions allowed me as a researcher to study them within the everyday social life of which they were a part. Miller and Dingwall (1997), too, argue against treating texts as authoritative representations of stable, objective realities when no heed is paid to contextual factors associated with their production, interpretation and use. They suggest that, though institutional settings may provide the resources for constructing meanings, they do not determine them. Therefore, documents produced by the university were not taken as objective sources but as resources from which I constructed meaning and interpreted aspects of the social world, within the interpretive domain in which the research was set. That is, the perceptions of individuals or groups

were reflected in their social interactions, which included the production of text. This activity is social in that it may be undertaken with others, either directly or in consultation, and usually with the audience in mind.

Understanding of the perceptions relating to the programme was therefore constructed as I interacted with the documents, bringing the above questions to bear upon subsequent interpretations. In short, I sought to bring the same interpretive insights to textual, as to interview or focus group data (Silverman, 2011).

Table 4.6 Documents

No.	Document
1	University Strategic Vision – Internationalisation (public – adapted version)
2	University Strategic Vision – Internationalisation (detailed aims and objectives)
3	University website in regards to internationalisation
4	University brochures and materials in regards to internationalisation

4.7 Transcription

I am fully conscious of the present debate about transcription for qualitative studies (see Davidson, 2009) and understand that "transcription decisions and processes employed during data collection and analysis need to be explained clearly and thoroughly in the write-up" (Lapadat, 2000, 217). Based on an interpretive view on transcription "whereby researchers make choices about what to record, and how, in transcripts" (Davidson, 2009, 39), it is recognised that they should be fit for purpose, adequate, and accurate (Richards, 2003, 199). I took a denaturalised approach to transcription (Oliver et al., 2005) where "idiosyncratic elements of speech (*e.g.* stutters, pauses, nonverbal, involuntary vocalisations) are removed" (p.1273-1274, cited in Davidson, 2009) and the focus was on content. The interviewee's verbatim quotations, edited for idiosyncratic elements, were used to support argument whenever necessary.

4.8 Data analysis

As explained, the data was collected using focus groups, semi-structured interviews, questionnaires and document analysis. Verbatim transcripts were produced from the recordings of the focus groups and interviews. As data saturation was reached in four focus groups with students, three focus groups with staff, and questionnaires, I mainly used thematic analysis to develop categories and themes that were linked with the aims of the study.

4.8.1 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis - a categorising strategy for qualitative data was conducted to gain an in-depth understanding of issues under investigation. Data was imported into NVIVO, qualitative data analysis software that allowed more systematic analysis of the very rich text-based and/or multimedia information, where deep levels of analysis of large volumes of data are required and coded according to emerging themes. The analysis was also shared for verification with some participants and other researchers.

Thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006) was implemented to enable targeting the identification and investigation of the common themes across the whole dataset. During this phase, I was guided by the research questions, the theoretical underpinnings and the themes emerging within the data themselves. While NVivo eased the logistical problems associated with large amount of material, I also carried out the analysis manually to develop a greater degree of familiarity with the dataset.

There were three separate steps involved in the analytical process in NVivo. Firstly, all data was placed in Internals/Sources where separate files for different focus groups, interviews and questionnaires were created, amalgamating all data. This was followed by "repeated reading" of the data "actively" to familiarise with the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The second step involved generating initial codes, and then matching them up with data extracts that validate the code, and finally collating data extracts within each code. This entailed creating colour nodes (themes) on the transcripts,

copying extracts of data from individual transcripts, and collating each code together in separate computer files as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). The unit of coding was an "extended account" (Riessman, 2000, 7), which consisted of block quotes that reflected participants' comments on one topic or one question. The reason for this was to ensure that specific meanings of responses would not be lost at later analytic stages and to ensure that the responses would be analysed within the context they were made. The list of the initial themes can be found in Appendix A. The third step involved generating the main themes. At this stage, the initial themes were revisited with a view to re-organising the data in order to relate back to the research questions, as well as the background literature. Some of the themes were reorganised under one larger category, either personal views/journey or strategies. For example, the codes "perception of learning in the UK", "perception of group work in the UK", "perceptions of Chinese educational system/learning style", and "perceptions of British educational system/learning style" were grouped under the category of "The Rhetoric of Internationalisation of Pedagogy and Curriculum". Meanwhile, the connections between themes on different levels were also considered. Finally, the long list of themes and categories were grouped under three main headings: Dealing with internationalisation from the top, Dealing with internationalisation on the ground and Adapting pedagogy and curriculum.

4.9 Ensuring rigour - Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are considered as vital tools to assess the excellence of research. There is a debate concerning the appropriateness of adapting these two criteria in qualitative research. As Bryman (2012) argues, there criticism of the absence of a standard means of assuring validity and reliability in qualitative research compared to the quantitative research associated with an experimental approach which aims to produce explicit and precise results. Maxwell (1992) and Bryman (2012) propose two approaches to reliability and validity in evaluating qualitative research. The first approach addresses the degree of researcher's judgment, which might be influenced by his or her different background and mentality. In the second approach, two alternative

criteria are proposed for evaluating qualitative research: trustworthiness (categorized in terms of credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability) and authenticity (categorized as fairness, ontological authenticity, educative authenticity, catalytic authenticity and tactical authenticity).

The recognition that the researchers' subjective views are an integral part of the study process is often regarded as a drawback of qualitative research methods. It is suggested that not relying on a single method of data collection is unreliable and invalid. However, Denzin and Lincoln (1994) claim that validity and reliability might be achieved through a mixture of strategies when carried out rigorously.

In addition, the dominant scientific perception of evidence might be viewed as problematic for qualitative research due to the fact that the criteria for evaluating evidence have been traditionally derived from positivistic, realist and modernist philosophical approaches (Mason, 2002).

As Mason (2002) points out, validity in qualitative research requires clarity about the ideas, which create focus for the research and enable data to reflect these ideas. Likewise, while reliability and generalisation are not based on the standardized tools or instruments, it is nonetheless important to consider appropriateness of various modes of accessing information and the extent to which generalisation of the research can be achieved. My research does not claim that the small sample used is representative of all international and staff involved in dealing with internationalisation, but that in similar contexts such comparison is feasible.

While discussing validity, it is essential to consider trustworthiness. Lincoln & Guba (1985: 290) claim that in any qualitative research project, four issues of trustworthiness demand attention: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability and my research, trustworthiness was integrated within the four strategies.

4.9.1 Trustworthiness - Credibility

Credibility is an assessment as to whether study outcomes signify a trustworthy conceptual interpretation of the data drawn from the participants' original data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, 296). To address credibility, I took the following steps:

Firstly, in order to achieve the importance of incorporating correct operational measures for the concepts being studied, I adopted well-established research methods: the specific procedures employed, such as the line of questioning pursued in the data gathering sessions and the methods of data analysis derived from those that had been effectively exploited in previous similar projects.

Secondly, I familiarised myself with the culture of the participating organisation before the first data collection took place. This was achieved via consultation of appropriate documents and preliminary visit to the organisation itself. The advantage here was that I was an insider within the institution.

Thirdly, as discussed in 4.5.2 above, I selected a combination of two sampling approaches: snowballing (opportunity) sampling and opportunity sampling.

What is more, examination of previous research findings to assess the degree to which the project's results are congruent with those of past studies was one of my main priorities. Silverman (2011) considers that the ability of the researcher to relate his or her findings to an existing body of knowledge is a key criterion for evaluating works of qualitative inquiry. In this respect, works of previous studies in similar organisations and addressing comparable issues had been explored and the literature on the internationalisation in HE topic was reviewed.

Furthermore, in my research I made use of triangulation through different methods, such as focus groups, individual interviews and document analysis.

Even though focus groups and individual interviews suffer from some common methodological shortcomings, since both are interviews of a kind, their distinct characteristics also result in individual strengths (Shenton, 2004). According to Guba (1981) and Brewer and Hunter (1989) the use of different methods compensates for their individual restrictions and exploits their respective profit. Where possible, I obtained supporting data may from documents to offer a wider background and verify the data that participants had supplied.

To take advantage of another form of triangulation, I used of a wide range of informants. Their individual experiences and opinions were verified against others and, eventually, a rich picture of the attitudes of those under scrutiny was constructed, based on the contributions of a wide range of people: students, lecturers, support staff and senior managers (Shenton, 2004).

Moreover, in my inquiry, site triangulation was achieved by the participation of informants to reduce the effect on the study of particular local factors peculiar to one institution. Even though I collected my data from one institution, the focus groups, interviews and questionnaires were carried out at four separate campuses. Where comparable results emerged at different sites, it is hoped, therefore, that the results might have greater credibility in the eyes of the reader (Shenton, 2004).

As for encouraging honesty, each participant was given opportunities to refuse to participate in the project to ensure that the data collection sessions involved only those who were genuinely willing to take part and prepared to offer data freely. Information sheets offered to participants at the start of the project (see Appendix B) stressed this condition prior to their decision to take part in the project. In focus group discussions, I also indicated that there were no right answers to the questions that would be asked as well as emphasising my independent status and impartiality. My impression is that participants, therefore, and particularly staff, openly contributed when talking about their experiences without the fear of losing credibility in the

eyes of managers of the organisation. It was made clear to participants that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any point.

As Shenton (2004) argues, iterative questioning might be used to uncover deliberate falsehoods. I did not need to use probes to elicit detailed data and iterative questioning often. Occasionally, I returned to issues previously raised by other participants and pulled out related data through rephrased questions. If contradictions appeared, they were discarded from the data. I also paid attention to the discrepancies and offer possible explanations in the discussion chapter.

In addition, to check how congruent the findings were, I regularly held debriefing sessions with my supervisor. Through discussions, my view was widened as others brought their experiences and different perceptions. In particular, my supervisor was supportive when one of the participants of one focus group did not agree with the transcription I provided for verification and requested further changes to how and what she said.

In addition, throughout the process of working on my thesis I have had many opportunities for scrutiny of my project by my fellow student researchers from the institute, colleagues, peers and other academics. Their fresh perspectives have challenged my assumptions, raising the possibility that my closeness to my project inhibited my ability to perceive it in an objective way, enabling me to refine my methods accordingly and develop a greater ability to explain the research design and defend my decisions.

Once I start collecting data, I evaluated my project as it developed through reflection, part of which was devoted to the effectiveness of the techniques that were employed. The reflective commentary was used to record my initial impressions of each data collection session, patterns appearing to emerge in the data collected and theories generated. As Guba and Lincoln (1989) suggest, "progressive subjectivity", or the monitoring of the

researcher's own developing constructions, is critical in establishing credibility.

According to Patton (2002), the credibility of the researcher is especially important in qualitative research as it is the researcher who is the major instrument of data collection and analysis. Alkin, Daillak and White (1979) suggest that a scrutineer's trust in the researcher is of equal importance to the adequacy of the procedures themselves. I followed Maykut and Morehouse' (1994) recommendation and included personal and professional information relevant to the phenomenon under study as well as providing information on how I was funded. Any approvals given to the project by those offering access to the organisation and individual participants were also made explicit.

Finally, considered to be the single most important element in boosting a study's credibility, member checking was implemented into my inquiry (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Shenton (2004) suggests that checks relating to the accuracy of the data may take place "on the spot" in the course, and at the end of the data collection period. As a result, I provided informants with transcripts of dialogues in which they participated. Here the emphasis was on whether the informants considered that their words matched what they actually intended to say, since, if a digital recorder was used, the articulations themselves should at least have been accurately captured (Shenton, 2004). The meetings with supervisors drew my attention to being more accurate when transcribing, therefore, flaws in the proposed course of action were identified instantly (Shenton, 2004). The meetings gave me opportunities to test my developing ideas and interpretations as well as confirming and rejecting my own biases and preferences.

Another element of member checking involved verification of my emerging theories and inferences formed during the dialogues. This strategy is recommended by Brewer and Hunter (1989) and Miles and Huberman (1994). The participants, particularly my team at work and other researchers,

offered insights into my theoretical framework. The importance of developing such a formative understanding is recognised by Van Maanen (1983):

> Analysis and verification . . . is something one brings forth with them from the field, not something which can be attended to later, after the data are collected. When making sense of field data, one cannot simply accumulate information without regard to what each bit of information represents in terms of its possible contextual meanings.

4.9.2 Transferability

Transferability is the extent to which the findings of the research can apply or transfer outside the limits of the project. In research, there is an on-going worry that it will be very difficult for the results of the work to be applied to a wider population. Since the findings of a qualitative project are specific to a small number of particular environments and individuals, it might be impossible to demonstrate that the conclusions are applicable to other situations. Erlandson et al. (1993) claim that many naturalistic inquirers believe that even conventional generalizability is barely possible as all observations are defined by the specific contexts in which they happen. However, an opposing view is presented by Stake (1994) and Denscombe (1998), who suggest that, although each case may be distinctive, it is also an example within a broader group and, as a result, the prospect of transferability should not be immediately excluded.

To make a case for the transferability of my research, I have included the following information: a) the number of organisations taking part in the study and where they are based; b) any restrictions in the type of people who contributed data; c) the number of participants involved in the fieldwork; d) the data collection methods that were employed; e) the number and length of the data collection sessions; and f) the time period over which the data was collected.

4.9.3 Dependability

Dependability is an evaluation of the quality of the integrated processes of data collection, data analysis, and theory generation. In order to achieve dependability, the processes of the study should be described in detail, thereby enabling a potential future researcher to replicate the work, if not necessarily to gain the same results. Therefore, the research design may be considered as a prototype model (Shenton, 2004). Such in-depth coverage also allows the reader to assess the extent to which proper research practices have been followed. In order to facilitate understanding of the methods and their effectiveness (Shenton, 2004), I have included discussion of:
a) the research design and its implementation, describing what was planned and executed on a strategic level; b) the operational detail of data gathering, addressing the minutiae of what was done in the field; and c) reflective commentary evaluating the effectiveness of the process of inquiry undertaken.

4.9.4 Confirmability

Confirmability is a measure of how well the inquiry's findings are supported by the data collected (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Patton (2002) connects objectivity with the use of instruments that are not dependent on human skill and perception. He recognises, however, the complexity of ensuring real objectivity, since, as even tests and questionnaires are designed by humans, the intrusion of researcher bias is unavoidable. The notion of confirmability is the qualitative investigator's comparable concern to objectivity (Shenton, 2004). Therefore, in my research, I took steps to help ensure as far as possible that the work's findings are the actual result of the experiences and ideas of the participants, rather than my personal views. I also promoted the role of triangulation, particularly to reduce the effect of investigator bias. Miles and Huberman (1994) consider that a key criterion for confirmability is the extent to which the researcher admits his or her own predispositions. Thus, my beliefs underpinning decisions made and methods adopted are acknowledged, the reasons for preferring one method when other

approaches could have been taken are explained, and disadvantages of the techniques actually employed admitted.

4.10 Ethical considerations

The need to carry out ethical research was another key point to consider. The participants needed to be aware of the requirements before agreeing to take part. According to Mason (2002), research projects are likely to involve a range of interests, some of which may be contradictory, and, while it may be hard to achieve equality among participants, it is vital to show respect for all of their views. Participants also needed to know that they were free to withdraw their involvement at any stage. Prior to beginning of research, permission had been sought and granted from the Ethics Committee at University of Reading. As all participants were adults, no obstacles were anticipated. All participants' names have been replaced with pseudonyms. Additionally, I did not involve the students I taught at that time into the circle of the participants as it might have influenced the answers they gave and they might not have been entirely honest with me. Instead, I recruited some of my former students. This allowed me to accomplish an outside construction of the participants' reality, in which I attempted to understand their interpretations about their own reality (see documents submitted for Ethics Committee in Appendix B and C).

4.11 Summary

This chapter provides the reasoning behind the philosophical assumptions and methodological approach taken in a study conducted within the qualitative paradigm. Using a critical ethnography and case study approach allowed me to gather rich data from a variety of sources. Focus groups and semi-structured interviews were the main data gathering methods in the project, supplemented by data from secondary data – questionnaires and documents. Thematic analysis was used for data processing. Triangulation of the research and member checking were performed in order to ensure rigour in this study. Reflexivity was scrutinised to maximise the validity of this

study. Finally, relevant ethical issues were clarified, participants' right to privacy was respected and informed consent obtained.

Chapter 5: Addressing the changing landscape of Higher Education from the top

This chapter attempts to answer Research Question 1: How has the university addressed the changing landscape of HE in regards to internationalisation? It is based on an analysis of with senior members of the university and the university's internationalisation mission statement. I will start with insights from those responsible for making sense of internationalisation at policy level before moving to the perceptions of staff responsible for implementation.

5.1 The challenges

As discussed in chapter 2, Internationalisation has transformed the HE landscape on a global scale. The question remains as to whether this change is for better or worse, given unintended consequences such as commercialisation, the emergence of diploma and accreditation mills, international rankings and the great brain race (Knight, 2013).

In the first instance, responses to the changing landscape of HE came from university senior managers and policy makers, raising a range of issues associated with top-down decision-making. In the present study, I was able to draw on interviews with the Deputy Vice Chancellor (DVC) responsible for internationalisation and enhancing the student experience, as well as with several key figures with more direct involvement in the implementation of policy, including the international Student Support Manager, a manager from Library and Student Services, the Mobility Co-ordinator, representatives of the Students' Union and a senior member of staff responsible for the enhancement of learning, language development and support.

5.1.1 Issues at policy level

The challenges around the implementation of internationalisation – and the strategies developed for this purpose – were a serious preoccupation for senior management, and clearly articulated by the Deputy Vice Chancellor (DVC), who emphasised both the fundamental importance of

internationalisation for the financial stability of the university and also the attendant responsibilities: for the university leadership team, this meant not only increasing the number of international students as a way of enabling KPIs (key performance indicators) but also implementing internationalisation in other departments and academic schools: "In very simplistic terms, it's not about going out and getting students, but there's more to do when they're here."

As a major strategy designed to address this challenge, the university established an International Department in 2012 not only to focus on international student recruitment, marketing and admissions but also to facilitate a process, which would impact on all aspects of the university's activities:

> In most universities, international departments are not separate, they're always part of other departments. However, we felt our international department needed some focused attention and a sense of understanding at the beginning. [Deputy VC]

In this strategic vision, the institution aimed to "be recognised internationally for nurturing world-class talent and advancing the role of the creative arts in society through local connections and global aspirations". The 'international' mission reads as follows:

> Our commitment to internationalisation will create an international community of staff and students and inform all aspects of University life. Our students will be required to develop international perspectives, understanding and ambitions, and so have the potential to work across the world. Our courses will encourage students to participate in exchange programmes, international projects and study visits. We are committed to equality and widening participation, and believe

diversity is essential as a foundation of creativity.

The following were proposed for consideration as key aims for the internationalisation strategy 2012-2017:

1. Maintain Highly Trusted Sponsor status through compliance with UKBA (now UKVI) guidelines.
2. Increase the total population of international (non EU) students at the university to 600 students – including 150 International Pathway Programmes students by 2017 – approximately 15% of the HE total population[1].
3. Increase mobility opportunities for outgoing students and staff through building new and developing existing international partnerships and collaborations.
4. Enhance staff engagements with internationalisation across the whole university.
5. Increase the number of international staff at the university.

Apart from these core aims, the strategy also highlighted the learning, research and service aims:

1. Successfully deliver in-house international pathway courses to 150 students and a further 100 students on the pre-sessional courses annually by 2017.
2. Offer courses that develop a global and multi-cultural perspective through curricula development.
3. Maintain and enhance international research activities.
4. Deliver teaching and learning practices, including on-course EAP, that meet the diverse needs of international students to enhance cross-cultural communication amongst all students at UCA.

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[1] The International Pathway Programmes aimed to facilitate a safe transition with the high level of support offered by a 15:1 staff ratio to prepare international students for main university courses.

5. Provide high levels of service and pastoral support for all international students to meet their personal, social and future career needs before, during and after their study in the UK.

In 2014, the department was merged with the new Marketing and Student Recruitment and the International Pathway Programmes found a place in one of the academic schools. In spite of these efforts, the DVC admitted the numbers of international students had been lower than planned, commenting:

> There is a room for development within the institution - we take students from many countries, but sometimes in small numbers, but they are from wide diasporic and geographic areas.

However, his concern with diversity was not limited to the target for student recruitment. He also recognised the importance for the institution as a whole of reflecting the changing composition of the student body: "I think we still have work to do on the staffing base, it's not as diverse as it needs to be", possibly referring to the fact that staff were pre-dominantly white and British in origin.

By the same token, he acknowledged that it is challenging to create the right conditions to support internationalisation: "You have to be very careful. All the reviews that I've done, I've never seen, in reality, an international curriculum written per se to support internationalisation." For those involved at the policy level, there was a feeling of learning on the job, or learning through doing; this was new territory with no clear route plan to follow:

> I think, it's the ingredients that you put together, which is students and staff, and interpretation of the contexts through the curriculum that will give you the flavour of what

internationalisation might mean. So, it's one of those things that's quite hard to get hold of, you know, but if you create the right conditions in the curriculum, and that might be through a number of different things, such as exchange, swapping student between institutions, all that kind of stuff.

5.1.2 Issues at implementation level

The reflections of the DVC were, of course, those of a leader attempting to steer a course at the level of policy. Frontline staff, in contrast, were better placed to shed light on the 'mechanisms' of internationalisation at the level of implementation. The battles fought here centred on the inability of departments to respond to the changing composition of students; staff not being trained to cater for international students' needs; tensions between pursuing separate visions and working in isolation; the lack of the resources required to implement issues identified in various surveys; and, finally, the lack of understanding of the sociolinguistic implications of internationalisation.

In particular, the International Student Support Manager highlighted the real complexity of implementing internationalisation. This role was relatively new and entailed a strategic overview of opportunities that internationalisation brought to the university. In her view, university services have struggled to adapt and have not been sufficiently resilient to changes, including the increased number of international students:

> The student body has changed the university dramatically in the last 10 years. There has been a greater sense of the awareness and demand from the students in terms of what they want. This has been especially seen when students started being charged more for their courses as they became much aware of what they should be receiving: high academic standards of teaching and learning, accommodation standards and student experience on

the campus. I don't think staff have been trained or prepared for that drastic change of the institutional focus.

A manager from the Library and Student Services department made a similar observation:

> What's eminent is that student body has changed considerably and so have expectations as students pay more for their education, so the service has to reflect that. These issues have to be addressed immediately.

Perhaps inevitably in the early stages of change, there have been few collaborative initiatives between departments and services, leading to feelings of isolation. The same senior member of staff reflecting on attempts to offer support to international students commented:

> When trying to collaborate with Library and Student Services or Student Union, academics or the learning enhancement team, their vision was very separate to our vision – my department's vision – so it's quite difficult to reach mutual points, so that we could collaborate to have mutual goals. One of the key things to do for the next couple of years is actually to make stronger links between different services in the entire university to address the challenges of the changing landscape of HE.

The representative of the Student Union (SU) also reported working in isolation, and emphasized the importance of a university-wide internationalisation strategy unifying all departments - both academic and professional:

> We don't have it – the internationalisation could be further enhanced. It's in the university strategy, but it doesn't go into details as much as one would hope. How do we make it reality,

but who is going to develop it and take it out there. We have to define our roles and enable the internationalisation immediately! We can't work in isolation any more!

Concerns were also raised that the SU has not been consulted on creating or even implementing the university strategic aims (including internationalisation):

In terms of the university strategic plans, we are actually not incredibly familiar with these documents. We have our own aims and objectives for our organisation, which also include international students, particularly communication with them. We know the university aims to further increase the number of international students, but this is something we haven't been spoken too much about.

In reflecting on the involvement of the International Student Support Manager in internationalisation, she identified factors affecting student retention as a key issue:

My role is to get to the core of these problems, uncover the hidden reasons for students withdrawing, mainly statistically, and let's say, qualitatively through research. How can we find out the courses [that] might not be achieving or attract international students? Because of those success rates, we have to be able to back up our insights with evidence.

One of the ways to collect evidence from international students has been the institution-wide International Student i-Barometer Survey (ISB) that had been running for three consecutive years prior to the fieldwork for this study. However, its influence on enhancing internationalisation within the institution would appear to be limited. As the International Student Support Manager, commented: "I don't think we had enough resources to be able to

address all of the areas that were highlighted 'at risk' through the survey. We didn't really change them into an action plan, but it gave us a sense of direction." For this reason, it was important that survey data for the case study university should not simply be used in isolation but rather alongside other university surveys, such as NSS (The National Student Survey), ISS (The Internal Students Survey) and The Voice (the Student Union's Student experience Survey) in order to build a clear picture of internationalisation: The same manager elaborated that there were areas that could only be assessed positively through research, but mapping them to form a clear picture of the situation was going to be fairly challenging.

The need for policy as well as further guidelines was a recurrent theme and could be seen as a good starting point for encouraging more active engagement on the part of staff and home students in addressing the needs of international students. Within this broader framework, support for language learning emerged as a key issue. As a senior member of staff responsible for enhancement of learning, language development and support reflected:

> The university very explicitly wants to internationalise, but I don't think the university really understands that there are language implications around that. What I worry about is, it's not always the right people with the right expertise, particularly around language who should be responsible for creation of implementation these policies. I think the underpinning of education, teaching curricula, pedagogy is something that this university, signally, fails to explore and I fear that once again, there will be a learning and teaching committee set up and there won't be anyone on it who looks at things from the linguistic point of view.

In a similar vein, the SU members also criticized the difficult, non-student-centred language in the university documents, such as policies and course handbooks: "They are incredibly difficult to understand if you are not

familiar with the technical language – instead they should be simplified into welcome guides, which is what Marketing and Student Recruitment department are doing now."

As a solution to the problem, the Learning Enhancement and Language Development manager highlighted the importance of involving people with applied linguistics and teacher education backgrounds when developing the strategy:

> I think we as a group of people who came through the route of language teaching and linguistics have particular insights into pedagogy, particularly with international students, that could really be useful to be drawn on. I think, I worry this will be missed yet again. It's about realising there's a field of expertise and I'm thinking of part applied linguistics, part new literacies, part the sort of language teacher education side of things. The university has a blind spot about that!

In short, those interviewed identified a number of challenges in adapting to the changing landscape of HE. For the DVC the important issues included both the need to increase international student recruitment and the promotion of internationalisation within the institution. For the key figures charged with implementation, concern focused on lack of resilience in adapting to the changes associated with internationalisation, including the capacity of staff to address international students' needs, the lack of a shared vision which would allow departments to make sense of internationalisation; the lack of resources to explore the areas identified in the International Student i-barometer questionnaire; the failure of the university leadership team to recognise the sociolinguistic consequences of internationalisation.

However, the participants also pointed to various strategies that were likely to be productive in meeting these challenges, such as assigning staff with a background in teacher education and applied linguistics to pilot

internationalisation initiatives, employing more ethnically diverse lecturers and promoting out-going and in-coming student and staff mobility. The tactics identified also included allocating more resources to tackle issues identified in all surveys to create a more detailed internationalisation strategy, thus moving away from the exclusive emphasis on recruitment.

5.2 Conclusion

This chapter presented an analysis of the effects of internationalisation on the campus community from the leadership and senior staff point of view, and the opportunities and challenges associated with the changing landscape of HE. The findings suggest that, while the importance of internationalisation is recognised by all participants, it is uncertain whether its benefits, risks and processes have been fully understood. At the policy level, the leadership team struggled with international student recruitment and the failure to achieve key performance indicators (KPIs) as well as other core aims in its strategic vision, such as reflecting the diverse student body in the staff employed by the university. Staff expressed their observations of the struggles in implementing the 'international' strategy. Having discussed the perspectives of senior managers on internationalisation, the next chapter will consider the experiences of those on the ground.

Chapter 6: Dealing with internationalisation on the ground

This chapter addresses Research Question 2: What are the views/attitudes of international students and staff on the university's approach to internationalisation? It starts by considering student insights on the internationalisation process and follows with staff perspectives. Finally it examines issues of particular interest to both staff and students, especially in relation to the beginning of the journey to become an international student in the UK. Throughout the chapter, attention will be paid to issues on which opinion is divided and to possible solutions to make that journey more valuable for the whole university community.

6.1 Students' attitudes towards internationalisation

As explained in chapter 4, the attempt to recruit home students to share their views on internationalisation on the ground was unsuccessful, and so the study provides only the insights of international students'. The data was collected both from focus groups and from the International Student Barometer surveys (2012-2014) discussed in chapter 4. In the discussion that follows, students disclose not only their struggles with interacting with home students, but also how they attempted to reduce tension.

6.1.1 Intercultural clash

The majority of international students spoke about their experiences of group work in a positive light. They explained how occasionally they selected their own groups and how sometimes the lecturer decided on the group division. When groups were arranged for them, students considered that opportunities for socialisation, as well as their own intercultural competencies, were enhanced. More than one student reported how challenging the process was at first, but how, eventually, they were successful.

Some students considered that cultural or personal clashes are unfortunately unavoidable when working with people from other cultures:

> As much as useful experience it is to be exposed to other cultures, during group exercises, sometimes there is a mismatch of understanding the way we express and communicate. [Gina, Hong Kong student who has lived in various different countries all her life]

6.1.1 Not 'fitting in'

Some of the student comments from the International Student i-Barometer surveys highlighted a feeling of "not fitting in", such as: "Even though I am very satisfied with the university, it's just that I believe that British students don't really want to meet international students as they don't talk to me, but I am a very social person!" [ISB, 2013] or "Sometimes I feel a bit strange with the way that they (home students) treat me" [ISB, 2012].

Perhaps the following quote from focus group 2 best summarises the perceptions of international students' on home students:

> I think home students are scared of us (international students); they sometimes feel uncomfortable because they are not sure how to communicate with us. It's awkward. And we are the same; we don't want to embarrass anyone. So we all end up avoiding each other rather than collaborating or having friendships [Sam, Iranian student, Focus Group 2a].

6.1.2 Fear of misunderstanding

Another student admitted that her lack of proficiency in English did not make it easier for her to communicate with home students.

> The language is the main barrier. Sometimes I can't express myself, my feelings. It's frustrating at times; I have so many ideas

but cannot express them in English! It's embarrassing sometimes. I am really confused, I don't even understand myself. Unfortunately, in student accommodation, most of us are international students, so we can't practise English with a native – we often speak Chinese. [Lima, Chinese student, Focus Group 1a]

A third student reflected on how difficult it was to join in a conversation with home students and the relief when she discovered a common topic to discuss with them:

I know some students get shy when interacting with home students. I sometimes joined Rosie and other home students. At first, I didn't understand what they were talking about, I tried to find familiar words but I couldn't! It was hard! New words were driving me crazy, especially at the beginning. Previously, I studied at a different British university and I thought home students did not like Asian people. Previously, I didn't feel I could share anything about my culture, however, here, it's different. I remember how shocked I was when some British students said they enjoyed Asian food. It was very nice. The love for food brought our cultures together. [Hui, Malaysian student, Focus Group 5a]

The majority of international students thought home students did not put enough effort into understanding them. The following comment from Elvin, a Taiwanese student, was typical: "They have never had any experience in collaborating with international student, especially on a MA degree, and when then they talk to us, they get confused in understanding us."

6.1.3 Lack of opportunities to interact with home students

In three of the focus groups, it became very clear that there were very few opportunities to meet with home students and that this was detrimental to their language development: "I feel that my English is not improving a lot, sorry! UK people are polite but we don't meet quite often as they have their personal lives and travel as they are usually part-time students." [Mari, Bulgarian Student, Focus Group 1a]

In focus group 2a, Samson, an Iranian postgraduate student reflected on the challenges of initiating interactions with home students due to intercultural differences. What is interesting about his response, is the fact that he seems to attribute the challenges arising from intercultural misunderstandings to international students' and even to himself:

> At first I had many difficulties in working with home students.
> We had completely different experiences, perspectives, but now,
> we're good friends. They always help me. We work together, but
> we're still kind of separated between eastern and western
> cultures. In terms of group work, I feel they (home students) are
> sometimes fed up with working with international students due
> to different background and culture. I think in terms of language,
> they (home students) have to put more effort towards
> understanding us (international students) and try very hard to
> explain things to us. We know, we see that. Sometimes, they
> never had any experience in collaborating with people from other
> cultures, especially at MA degree, and then they see us, get
> confused in understanding us.

In another focus group, the participants confessed experiencing similar challenges in regards to interaction with home students. Gina, a student from Hong Kong (Focus Group 4a) admitted:

We don't have any British friends. I mean they are nice, friendly and lovely, but there is still a barrier. I don't know, maybe it's the British culture. However, our British friend's girlfriend is Chinese, so he's a good example of integration being possible! It is difficult to find the same topic with British if you have little in common, it's different cultures. They don't watch the same movies, they don't listen to the same music, and we know different celebrities.

In several focus group discussions, students had noticed that postgraduate courses were more popular among international students:

Postgraduate home students are mainly part-time students and they commute. They tend to be more mature, so most of them have their own families and have no time for socialising with us. [Abus, Chinese student, Focus Group 1a]

Another student expressed frustration about the limited chances to interact with British students, or practise English, one of the consequences of the composition of teaching groups:

All the MA programmes, we are about 70% international. The BA courses are already good enough for home students so they do not need MA. But for us, Asian people like degrees. It's really disappointing; I prefer to work with home students. This is the main reason I came here. [Jam, Taiwanese student, Focus Group 1a]

6.1.4 Strategies

The students not only critically reflected on their interactions with home students, but also suggested several strategies to help address associated tensions.

Acknowledging diversity

One of the main approaches to address the concerns raised above was a cry for acceptance among the university community:

> I think the university, especially lecturers could try harder to enable home students to better understand us, but there were no sessions on how to work in a group with people from other cultures. They just hope we would get along. [Aya, Japanese student, Focus Group 2a]

The same student also thought that an introduction to intercultural communication would be helpful to discuss differences and similarities between international and home students. Aya continued:

> Besides, we need more support from the university to acknowledge and celebrate diversity, such as parties or events. It would be helpful, because international students are home sick and they only stay in their rooms or walk around and they don't have too many friends. Maybe this kind of problem is smaller for undergraduates, but in my case, as an MA student, I don't like clubbing that much, maybe once a month, but I think other kind of activities, which would allow professional cultural exchange, volunteering, would strengthen communication. I think it would help integration between home students and us a lot.

Providing opportunities to interact with home students

Other students from the same focus group argued that more opportunities to interact with home students would be to everyone's benefit:

> The university could give us more chances to talk to BA students to discuss with them (home students). It would be good for us, as we cannot find many British students to talk to. I feel that my

English is not improving a lot, sorry! It doesn't matter if they are Asian or international, but it's like that, really. And the other thing is that UK people are polite, but we don't meet quite often as they have their personal lives, they commute to university. Most of international people are based here at the university accommodation, so we can interact with each other, but UK people, they travel so we can't see them quite often. [Mari, Bulgarian student, Focus Group 1a]

Another student from the same focus group agreed, suggesting ideas for the kind of events she thought would best facilitate effective interaction:

A little bit more effort from university to allow both home and international students meet outside of the classroom would be great, but you cannot just go and say: "I want to be your friend". We definitely don't want a party! Something more, like you could actually interact with people. Like at the beginning we had the international event, it had games, but we were only international people again. That kind of event would help us to be more familiar with British students. [Jam, Taiwanese student, Focus Group 1a]

Other students from the same focus group enumerated a number of possible initiatives involving all students from both BA and MA courses, such as open art, design projects for both cohorts and welcome events for all students. The students reported that when they had made suggestions to their tutors, the response tended to be that organisning these events would be too time-consuming:

It was more like – it's up to you to go and find somebody and if you don't have any support from the university, but this BA

student might not want to collaborate with you. [Jin, Taiwanese student, Focus Group 1a]

Even though the main focus in discussions was on interaction with home students, in just one focus group 3a, Innar, a Russian student commented on her experiences of intercultural communication with other cultures, particularly students from Asia:

As much as it's beautiful to experience other cultures during group exercises, sometimes there is a mismatch of understanding in the way we express and communicate, so my background is very straight-forward and direct and sometimes even a bit emotional when there is a discussion and Asians are kind of reserved and sometimes there is a misunderstanding – that is probably… definitely the most challenging thing in the course for me.

However, when asked if the student thought the university could provide opportunities for more effective communication among students, Innar argued that it was just one of those things that has to happen naturally without intervention:

I think we all learn how to get along because our course tutor is British so I don't think he can tell us how we have to interact with each other; we just have to interact with each other and learn for ourselves.

Buddy scheme
One student described events she had organised or experienced that she claimed would enable more effective socialising between home and international students:

In Hong Kong and Berlin, where I studied, they had a buddy scheme system; each student gets a buddy who then is responsible for introducing the student to university life and place. It was really helpful. However, here, there are not enough groups for socialising – only few societies and activities going on! Here, I tried my best, for example, I hired the badminton pitch for half the price and I always tried to invite students to play with me. I also invited home students but they never showed up. There was one night with music, it was great! So many people, both British and international students started getting along, we really enjoyed it. It was in November – at the beginning. Everyone was welcome to participate. A lot of people showed up. After that there was a survey and people wanted more events like that.
[Gina, Hong Kong student, Focus Group 4a]

Belonging to a community of practice

In focus groups 1a, 2a and 4a, students acknowledged that the communities of practice they belonged to tended to be aimed exclusively at international students, such as the EAP workshops organised by the Library and Student Services or networking on groups on social media for students of a particular nationality, for example, Taiwanese or Thai student societies. While supportive and helpful in many ways, the students admitted that belonging to these groups neither allowed them to interact with home students, nor practise English, as students usually communicated in their mother tongue.

The International Student Barometer survey also provides a platform for students to share advice with each other. One comment, in particular, neatly summarises possible responses to many of the concerns discussed above:

Get involved with the provided activities, make friends, but don't forget it's time to study. For many people it's the first time they leave parents' homes, and the freedom ruins their studies, so be careful. Appreciate and respect this country, don't try to criticize

the rules, people and culture all the time, this will not benefit in any way. In order to be happy you must smile and understand that all people are equal and they all have same rights. There is no space for any kind of discrimination, so respect others – respect yourself. Do not be afraid of different cultures and languages. Be open for new approaches to education and enjoy your time at the university. [ISB, 2014]

6.1.5 Summary of students' views

There were considerable similarities in students' perceptions of interaction with home students across five focus groups from different campuses as well as the International Student i-Barometer surveys from, 2012, 2013 and 2014, namely: limited opportunities to communicate with home students, perceived low proficiency in English and fear of causing embarrassment. Furthermore, the overwhelming majority of students had a clear idea of what needed to be changed to enhance internationalisation opportunities at the university. They eagerly offered strategies aimed at more effective communication between the two groups, such as events acknowledging cultural diversity, introduction of a buddy system and belonging to a shared community of practice.

6.2 Staff attitudes to internationalisation

Most academics treated internationalisation as a personal journey challenging their 'academic selves'. They often expressed their answers in terms of "challenges staff deal with in general" rather than the more private "challenges I deal with". Some strongly agreed that there was a need for staff and student training in cultural awareness in order to provide opportunities to nurture intercultural communication between and among the stakeholders.

6.2.1 Internationalisation broadens horizons

It is noteworthy that tutors often emphasised how working in an international landscape broadened their horizons and opened up new possibilities. One senior member of staff, for instance, underlined the importance of this exposure for his creativity:

> My own educational experience in three different language areas and my working practice in various countries (Europe as well as US) taught me to accept a wide range of approaches and not to work from a single perspective. Of course, our environment is marked by Anglo-American political and economic hegemonies, so resistance to these is key for the survival of original ideas in creative practice (as well in teaching and learning). [Senior Lecturer, Staff Survey]

Another senior member of staff highlighted that internationalisation should be seen to champion multicultural awareness through multidisciplinary approaches: "Internationalisation should not be seen as 'pasteurisation' of international students as challenges appear only when you translate the overarching internationalisation aims into practice, because it is not as straightforward".

The main thrust in the literature on the impact of internationalisation on academics is that this is seen as an 'add-on' to their responsibilities and a time-consuming challenge they have not been trained for (Ryan, 2012, 62). However, here, in contrast, internationalisation was largely seen as a positive aspect of the university environment enabling staff to be flexible and creative and in their practice. Heather, an experienced lecturer, effectively captured the nature of internationalisation in her daily responsibilities in Focus Group 3b:

> I think with me, it's having to do with finding different ways of approaching different things. Having more flexibility and

creativity in the way we do things or even deal with students.
Some things are very challenging but you couldn't apply the
same techniques and processes as with home students, because
you are trying to understand what's going on with that student
on a personal level, being in a new country, all the challenges
they face and all that, past learning experience, finding out what
the barriers are and finding the best way to apply. Not just in
teaching but day-to-day dealing with them.

6.2.2 Developing intercultural communication

Staff often raised the issue of multicultural group work, (see also 6.4 and
chapter seven). The ability to work successfully as a team member is a highly
valued skill in the global marketplace. Integrated within the curriculum and
taught as a professional skill, teamwork can also be an effective vehicle for
inclusive learning. From a culture-learning angle, collaborative groups, when
set up to include multiple cultural backgrounds, can foster greater
understanding and respect for different cultures, breaking down stereotypes
and ethnocentric views. Irrespective of discipline, the use of group work as
an effective strategy to support learning has long been recognised in
pedagogical literature (Race, 2003) while being able to work effectively as a
member of a multicultural team is a generic skill that is highly valued by
employers. For those reasons, as well as being a mechanism for coping with
increasing student numbers, elements of group work are included in the
majority of degree programmes at UK HE institutions (Learnhigher, 2011).

Many lecturers reported that they used group work activities in the
classroom and for assignments but that this remains a challenging area in HE
teaching. Opinions on collaboration between home and international
students, and, particularly, teamwork, were mixed.

International students were mostly reported as friendly towards home
students, whereas home students were sometimes described as ignorant or

even rude. Lisa, a Learning Development Tutor (focus group 1b) described this behaviour in the following terms:

> As they (international students) do not speak perfect grammar or are a bit slow, they are considered as thick, and home students think they have nothing to learn from them and then the curriculum backs that up, by remaining very Eurocentric.

Annie, an EAP Tutor in focus group 3b summarised the dynamics between home and international students thus:

> I am a staff member now, but I did a degree here and sometimes the home students' attitude towards foreigners on the course was awful, e.g. they wouldn't like to sit with them or collaborate with them, home students and international students always worked separately and collaboration between the respective groups was just not encouraged enough. Language and communication was a huge barrier!

Another concern shared amongst staff in two focus groups 2b and 3b was the danger that internationalisation might support the stereotyping of international students, especially in assumptions of how they communicate. One of the experienced lecturers described the problem:

> Staff might not know how to provide for international students as the barrier of othering is clearly stopping them from treating all students equally. So, it's a really difficult balancing act in my experience of providing, understanding yes, but I'm not falling into that trap of something that is 'other' and those preconceptions about international students. There's a lot more of it, I'm struggling to summarise it. [Mary, Senior Fine Art, Lecturer, Focus Group 3b]

6.2.3 Mobility as one of the main indicators of internationalisation

Several members of staff were enthusiastic about the study abroad option as an important way to enhance intercultural competence. In general those with more international experience were keener about supporting mobility initiatives. The following observation was typical:

> I think home students do not make enough effort to get to know international students, it's so hard to get them to go abroad through the Erasmus and exchange programmes; I strongly believe all students should experience studying abroad, go away, and learn to know what it's like to study in another culture! [Annie, EAP Tutor, Focus Group 3b]

Some thought home students did not make enough effort to get to know international students. The lack of internationalisation at 'home' initiatives at the university as described in section 6.1 and relatively low interest in student exchange programmes, such as Erasmus, among home students were blamed for their limited experience in interacting with people from other cultures. Some staff testified that the situation was not limited to HE but also reflected the current political climate in the UK, with the popularity of United Kingdom Independent Party (UKIP) on the rise (Gill and Wakefield, 2015):

Some members of staff pointed to the potential of the exchange visits organised as part of certain programmes, which allow students to work on various projects with international students. In addition, a number of courses now allow students to go abroad for a period of time and experience other cultures increasing their cultural awareness on their return to the UK. However, the choice of countries was limited to English-speaking countries or programmes offered in English as home students rarely spoke foreign languages. Another member of staff expressed reservations about study abroad opportunities, empathising with students not being able to speak other languages or worrying they might "miss out":

Apart from the fact we do not speak foreign languages as we think we can get by with English everywhere, I think it's mainly down to confidence. When I was at university and was offered Erasmus, I wish I'd done but I was too scared. It's also the fear what you might miss while being away. A lot of students feel they're missing out on the projects as the programmes are not exactly the same, even though validated. Once they start uni, forming friendships is very important. If you go away, you think you're losing this opportunity. You have to be very independent and confident to do Erasmus. [Heather, Design Senior Lecturer, Focus Group 3b]

In an interview with the study abroad co-ordinator, it emerged that while interest was steady, the university was not meeting its targets for the number of outgoing students. Students' main concerns were indeed the feeling of missing out and the language barrier – as none of the British students were fluent in a foreign language, as well as financial considerations. It was in fact other non-British, European students who were more interested in studying abroad.

For the 16 outgoing students who had participated in the study abroad option at the university in 2015, post-Erasmus questionnaire results suggest that this had proved a valuable experience. The students indicated the following skills as the highest (over 80%):

- learnt how to develop an idea and put it into practice
- learnt how to plan and carry out my learning independently
- learnt how to see the value of different cultures
- more able to adapt to and act in new situations
- more open-minded and curious about new challenges
- more tolerant towards other persons' values and behaviour
- know better my strengths and weaknesses.

Finally, the mobility co-ordinator drew attention to the limited interest of academics in taking part in mobility programmes.

> I would say that 90% of why study abroad option is not popular, is the lack of interest to engage from academics – they seem to be too busy; they consider dealing with this as add-on, extra responsibility. Another problem might be that they are not able to promote this option, as they don't know any international university partners. It's also rigid inflexible course structures or irrelevant curriculum – not all course leaders are happy to revalidate their courses to allow the study abroad option, they fear the students are beyond their control. However, we do have some academic champions. They on the contrary think, the paper work is not too demanding and we support them, it's a matter to take time to go through the list of existing partners.

6.2.4 Strategies for a more comprehensive internationalisation

Next, I look at a number of practical approaches suggested by staff with the aim of enabling a more genuine internationalisation on the campus. These include organising and facilitating meaningful intercultural communication in the group work; developing a mentoring system; and the study abroad option.

Organising multicultural group work

The advantages of multicultural group work have already been discussed above (see 6.2.2); here the focus is on practical issues around implementation. Attention centered on whether it was better for staff to organize groups in order to ensure a balance of ability and culture, rather than leaving this to students. Many were, of course, doing this already, with some success. However, one area, which made organisation even more problematic, was assessing intercultural competence in group work. In the words of one lecturer: "You can sense a certain conflict to accepting international students by home students, because they (home students) think

they will drag them down" and, as justified by another member of staff: "If there's an individualist outcome then students will obviously not want to work with students that they think will weaken their performance". A couple of participants spoke of occasionally having to intervene in groups to re-allocate work or to talk to dominant members to boost group cohesion.

On the other hand, three academics strongly thought that there were very few clashes between home and international students. A senior lecturer, for instance, observed in the Staff Survey: "I have rarely seen conflicts between students due to geographical or cultural origin; occasionally groups of native speakers are formed organically in classrooms and halls of residence so that some mild form of intervention and call for inclusivity has to be made during the first term."

It is important to remember of course that such challenges also apply to group work involving more homogeneous populations. The same Senior Lecturer commented:

> I think it's like anything to do with group work. We work in a team, everyone is very different, and we have different opinions and approaches. It's normal. I think students find it challenging, as some don't do as much work as they should or they have higher expectations from certain students

Trisha, a Learning Development Tutor (focus group 2b) also echoed this point of view:

> Group work doesn't only concern international students, it's a general problem, it depends a lot on the personality, style of working, turning up and participation; but in my experience it is not a cultural thing, it's more to do with personality. [Learning Development Tutor]

There was consensus among both staff and students that mixing students from different cultures, or putting them into culturally mixed work groups, while leading to inter-cultural interaction and understanding, may also result in disappointment if not facilitated carefully (Clifford, 2010; Dunne, 2009; Leask, 2009; Turner, 2009).

As we saw in the earlier discussion of the concerns of international students, some clearly struggled with effective communication. Consequently, most staff agreed that facilitating group work and allowing students to practise communication skills early in the programme would help to promote a successful exchange of ideas with mutual respect and understanding, an essential skill for life in a globalised world. As summed up by one of the Learning Development Tutors, "It's all about facilitating interaction - a lot of group discussion early on, there have to be things that are about group discussion constantly built in."

There was, however, some disagreement as to whether or not it was best to separate speakers of the same language to minimise the use of L1 in group work. Helen, one of the Learning Development Tutors in focus group 1b expressed some ambivalence:

> Instinctively yes, I would, perhaps it would depend on the nature of the project, but maybe not, first language is very important, especially if the main aim of the task is communication rather than practising English.

Some members of staff, in contrast, strongly disagreed with that approach. They thought using English only in teamwork was an essential part of the UK experience allowing international students take advantage of the opportunities to practise English. As another Learning Development Tutor, Lisa commented:

It will be required when they look for jobs after they come
back home, any practice is good practice, it is reinforcement,
and it's ok if when they go back to halls, they switch to their
L1, I understand that.

Using English in a group work was also considered to reinforce
comprehension in reading and writing. Niki, a third Learning Development
Tutor in the same focus group reflected:

There's a research about the power of lexicon and how we
store vocabulary, so understanding concepts might be quicker
if you do it in students' L1, but if you want them to express
them in English, let them use English."

Learning Development Tutors offered a number of approaches that could be
easily applied by main subject tutors while encouraging interaction among
home and international students. Lisa from focus group 1b noted:

My main methodology relates to TEFL basics, e.g. moving
groups/pairs around to encourage interaction. Staff should
do it regardless of students' background, whether they are
Japanese, Korean or Chinese who cannot stand [each other
for] political reasons, Polish students who cannot understand
each others' accents, British students who do not always
share their thoughts. You do it all the time, you just need to
explain the rationale behind the teamwork.

Mentoring system

Some staff though that another solution for collaborative project novices
could be a mentoring system for further discussion of the logistics of a
potential institute-wide scheme). The so-called 'buddy' would introduce the
new student into the nature of group work and other learning coping
strategies commonly used at university.

> You've got a student from the same discipline that is international
> who is actually now a second year that had similar experience,
> traits, and ups and downs. A buddying system would be great as
> international students would have someone who they can lean on
> with first hand experience. I can think of so many examples of
> international students taught over the years; they would have been
> perfect to buddy other international students and explain all their
> wobbles, and how to tackle some of the challenges, especially in the
> classroom and when working in groups. [Lucinda, Learning
> Development Tutor, Focus Group 2b]

At the time of fieldwork, there were just a few casual initiatives organised by academic staff as a part of the induction programme.

Go abroad!

When asked about increasing the number of students willing to experience study abroad, the mobility coordinator enumerated the following strategies:

> In my role, I have been actively promoting the mobility options
> among both staff and students. There is no doubt we need to raise
> the awareness of this valuable opportunity. However, I feel there
> are not enough resources to provide support to everyone. There
> are few things we should do or do better to promote mobility at
> this university, such as actively use social media, using former
> study abroad students as mobility ambassadors, which we're
> currently implementing. Last, but not least, the leadership team
> and more academics need to be on board to have their full support.

6.2.5 Summary

As was the case for students, staff enthusiastically shared their experiences not only of facing the challenges of international education, but also of the opportunities it provides. Many of the strategies to enhance internationalisation further were not dissimilar to those suggested by

international students themselves, such as more structured facilitation of intercultural communication with home students, the development of a mentoring system and more active promotion of the study abroad options. However, there were also differences, for instance, whether to allow international students to use their L1 while working together, or whether it is truly beneficial to study abroad.

6.3 The start of the journey: slippery beginnings

International students raised a number of issues they considered problematic around the start of their student 'lifecycle', including the appropriateness of pre-arrival communication with the international admissions team, the airport pick-up service and the integrity of the UKVI compliance system and. Other issues around induction and accommodation and visas, however, attracted critical comment from both staff and students and, in some cases, had clear implications for IaH (Internationalisation at Home) - see chapter 2.3.1.

6.3.1 Pre-course communication and arrivals

Understandably, pre-course communication and arrivals emerged as a preoccupation for international students; they attracted no comment from home staff and students. One international student, for instance, reported that they found communication with the admissions team puzzling:

> The number of emails I got from admissions made the process all the more confusing. A simple email with all the information would be a lot simpler to refer to when I need it. Bullet points on what to do rather than paragraphs would provide a clear list of what to do next. An explanation of these bullet points could be at the bottom of the page. Some kind of barometer as to where one is in the process would be helpful also so prospective students could see the end in sight. [ISB 2014]

In the multiple emails from the admissions team, another student missed the fact she had to bring the original copies of her qualifications:

> Let international students know that they need to bring the original copies of their diploma and transcripts. This was not clear in the enrolment description and I had to send for my documents. Luckily they showed up on time, but this could have been disastrous for me as my enrolment, bank account, and phone plan all depended on having these documents. [ISB 2014]

6.3.2 Induction

In contrast, induction was an issue that attracted a more widespread comment. The SU members and the International Student Support Manager were particularly critical of the way the university dealt this process.

> The institution handles the induction process quite incompetently as there are no consistent strategic views on how to orientate new students. There are still separate inductions for international students and home students. There really should be an overarching internationalisation strategy on how to approach this - strategic in the sense that when a new student arrives, the approach should propose how they are welcomed, how they are put in their accommodation, what's their first day experience on the campus, how they integrate with all the services, home students and the academic stuff, when international students need to register with police, doctors, set up their bank accounts, etc.

SU members also provided examples of how *not* organise events supporting induction of students to the university environment:

> I've seen really bad examples of inductions where the whole university experience starts with an enrolment session in which

students queue for hours to enrol. The queue spills out of the building and students get wet in rain – very British, both, queuing and the weather – it is very discouraging – we can be so much more dynamic and creative than this, otherwise that will damage the customer experience. We have to think about students' journey, how do we stop that stress, homesickness and transition from the enrolment/orientation.

The International Student Support Manager shared similar thoughts in terms of fostering the sense of belonging and internationalisation at home among all students in the university induction:

You have to inspire the student community by allowing them opportunities to mix - why not do that from day one of the induction programme. We are missing out on such a great opportunity here! How can a bunch of white middle-class 18-year olds from relative short proximity to the university, integrate with international students if they are separated from day one? If you don't allow them the opportunity to be with people of different nationalities, how can you blame them for not understanding international students?! The integration, here at the university isn't particularly easy.

The main reflections on induction offered by international students related to late arrival. It is common for international students to experience delays due to strict visa regulations and their implications for booking flights. Many miss the very beginning of the course, which includes essential inductions to the course and university services. Some of them find there are limited possibilities for induction at later stage:

I arrived a week after orientation and the missed information was not clearly communicated despite International Admissions

assuring me it would be. Had I not been living in the UK prior to studying I would have been very frustrated. [ISB 2014]

Another student joined the university an entire month later and had to pay for her vacant room:

> My international enrolment was delayed and being sat on without being followed up. In the end, I was only allowed to admit to the university one month later — and I have missed my school orientation week and the chance to mingle with my fellow international classmates. It was not even my fault. It was the delay due to the staff. And I was forced to pay one-month accommodation rental fee without any refund when my room is left vacant one month because I couldn't fly to my campus on time. [ISB 2014]

The comments flag a number of logistical misunderstandings, leaving international students unnecessarily distressed at the beginning of their academic journey and pointing to the potential difference that the presence of a university student ambassador at arrival would make:

> Nobody was really there when I arrived to check on me. It would be nice to have someone at any time to greet the person. I had to find my way to the halls alone; thanks to another student I managed to find the security office where I got my keys. I don't know what I would have done otherwise. Not the nicest experience for me. [ISB 2013]

In a similar vein, a student in the present study recalled the experience of her friend whose name was not on the list of the new arrivals: "They swapped her first name with the second name, the warden didn't let her in, so she had to stay one night at a hotel which she paid from her own pocket. That is ridiculous!"

In terms of addressing challenges of this kind, the International Student Support Manager and SU representatives thought the institution should be more strategic and have a continuous cycle of reviewing and improving the induction process in order to make it much more inclusive and holistic. For example, a representative of the Students' Union commented: "In the UK, when you come to HE, you are an adult; you've got to learn. Whereas other models around the globe are more pastoral – maybe we should try them instead?"

6.3.3 Accommodation

Issues around student accommodation also provoked a great deal of critical comment. The International Student Support Manager, for instance, highlighted the potential role of university accommodation in strengthening internationalisation at home:

> If you are starting university and if you're not allowing the student the opportunities to mix in the accommodation, then how can we talk about integration of both home students and international students on the campus or in the classrooms. In the accommodation, international and home students are kept separately - that was a decision made a number of years ago because of the complaints that were made by both groups of students who simply had different expectations of living and didn't or weren't trained how to 'live' together.

The SU representatives were of a similar opinion and added that separating groups of students in university accommodation is inconsistent with the inclusive policy of internationalisation at home:

> How can we make the university campus more inclusive to break down cultural and language barriers, break down social stereotypes, stop being prejudiced and enable cultural

development if we segregate the students in case the cultural clash happened! The role of HE should be to enable young people and give them the international experience they would not normally have outside the university campus. The experience could be so enriching that all students could graduate as global citizens!

International students, for their part, offered a few positive comments with regards to living in student halls, such as "It was great to have students guide me to my rooms and chat about the campus a little, it helped me settle in faster and feel more at home" (ISB 2014). The majority of students' comments, however, focussed on the potential missed opportunity for integration with home students:

> In terms of arranging International houses - even if it is a good idea to put all the international students in one house, it is not for the international students themselves! We come here to get to know English culture and people! Not other internationals with the same English-speaking problems. It seems like you want to open a community for International students. That is not very helpful. Why would university want to separate us from home students? Even the welcome events are separate! [ISB 2013]

In a similar vein, the International Student Support Manager Staff provided an example of an initiative aiming a fostering sense of belonging among both international and home students at Leeds University (Ellerslie Global Residence, 2015) where international and home students are each allocated 50 per cent of the accommodation. When asked if similar initiative could be created at the institution, the manager replied:

> It is a hugely successful project that brings together all students. It's slightly more expensive as it's being facilitated by professionals to ensure integration between all, home,

international and EU students. Students live, learn and play together – it's the whole package deal, fascinating! They have social areas where they live where they can mix, so they don't just have a kitchen, they can do things together, they are encouraged to learn from each other through celebrating the different cultures in a non-threatening environment. It's very popular regardless of the high rent, everyone wants to live there, and the ratio of home and international/EU students is 50/50. The enrichment programme is really attractive. I wish we could do something similar here at our institution. This opportunity cannot be overlooked!

6.3.4 Compliance with the UKVI monitoring system

In 2012, The Home Office has introduced a new, tougher UKVI compliance monitoring system to tackle visa abuse by "bogus colleges" (Topping, 2014). International students were asked to regularly 'confirm' their attendance with the university. As a result, a number of students disclosed that the tougher visa regulation rules made them feel unwelcome. The i-barometer survey, for instance highlights the strong student opposition to the UKVI system of checking:

> While I understand their purpose, I do not like doing visa checks in the faculty office. I think that twice per month is excessive. I dislike having to report to the office like a naughty school child or a petty criminal. It makes me feel that I am not trusted. Surely there is another way to check attendance perhaps by reporting work not regularly handed in or progression not made. Or at the very least fewer checks [ISB 2013].

Students in the present study, too, were upset by visa restrictions which meant that they were not able to graduate with some of their peers and that that, they would need to go back home, re-apply for visa and then came back

for the graduation, a process which was problematic and expensive for most of the students.

According to Rhoden-Paul (2015), unlike their British and EU-national peers, non-EU students have only four months after the end of their course to find a job, or they face deportation. Most non-EU graduates go home after their studies, but of those who want to stay for their graduation or work in the UK, need to apply for a Tier 2 visa. To be eligible for a Tier 2 visa:

- Student must have been offered a job at a particular skills level by an employer with a Tier 2 visa sponsor licence

- Student's job must pay a minimum of £20,800 (though this can depend on the job), it will increase further in 2016

- Student must have £945 in savings, unless her/his sponsor is fully approved (A-rated)

In 2014, only 5,639 students were granted leave to stay in the UK under a Tier 2 visa, according to the UK Council for International Student Affairs (UKCISA). It's difficult enough for students and recent graduates to stay in the UK to graduate or find employment at the moment, but with a four-month time limit it can seem like an impossible feat. [Rhoden-Paul, 2015]

Annie, the EAP Tutor (focus group 3b), concerned at this growing atmosphere of mistrust, summed up the implications of this policy from a staff perspective:

> We struggle at university but also as a society to embrace 'the cultural other'. I feel very international, as I've had an opportunity to study and work in different cultures. Unfortunately, the current political climate, UKIP, Theresa May, UKVI monitoring system and right-wing extremism, etc. are quite scary and I don't think they help.

6.3.5 Summary

If unplanned and facilitated inappropriately, the start of the journey as a global student may result in unpleasant experiences for both students and staff. 'No-stress' and clear pre-arrival communication, smooth settling down on the campus, exciting orientation programmes and quick and effective ways of dealing with visa requirements all have the potential to contribute to an enhanced international student experience and to make the beginning of the journey less slippery.

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter has underlined the importance of dealing effectively with internationalisation on the university campus. Both students and staff shed light on their encounters with international education and proposed tactics to sustain a more genuine internationalisation. Participants also shared their suggestions on how to nurture the university community during the entire student journey – particularly at the very beginning. It would appear that the efforts to integrate international students and home students are minimal and there is a strong need to find ways of bypassing these obstacles. Having discussed how bottom-up internationalisation is dealt with on the ground, the next chapter will move on to unpick what happens when pedagogy and curriculum are 'dropped onto the battle ground'.

Chapter 7

Adapting pedagogy and curriculum

This chapter examines the impact of internationalisation on HE pedagogy and curriculum in an attempt to answer Research Question 3: How do the current teaching, learning and assessment methods accommodate the international PG students' needs? Discussion is divided into two parts: firstly, the personal journeys and challenges of staff – both positive and negative; and secondly, the strategies participants use to address the issues. I will first present the views of the teaching staff before considering the students' perspectives on the same topic.

7.1 Internationalisation of Pedagogy

Given the relative paucity of discussion on understanding of how the current teaching and learning practices work best in an international context, the views of staff and students are a matter of considerable interest. I look first at the experiences of the staff.

7.1.2 Staff views

The personal journeys of the staff related to learning and teaching were characterised by both challenges and opportunities, drawing, attention in particular, to the dangers of Eurocenticism, responsibilities of staff to make suitable adjustments and the need for a discussion forum for the exchange of views. Some of the views could be clearly mapped out to the pedagogy of (dis)location and Smith's (2006) response to delocalisation explained in chapter 3.4.2. Staff reflections confirmed that they attempted to interpret culture and embed dialogue in their teaching in order to facilitate the effective participation of all learners.

In my focus groups, interviews and questionnaires, the staff members were mostly white British, except for one senior lecturer who reported that his experience of working in different contexts outside of the UK had helped him

to understand the international students' learning needs better: "English is my third language so there is personally a lot of empathy built into delivery of teaching and learning contents and methods".

There was a recognition among some members of staff of the particularly negative impact of Eurocentrism on understanding international students' learning needs. In the view of Niki, a Learning Development Tutor, for instance:

> [The] model of cultural pluralism has to be integrated, you don't want segregation or normalisation or even in some courses integration, where the British or western dominate, you want everybody to be equal contributor. Multiculturalism, cultural pluralism and diversity need to be celebrated a lot more, so e.g. having different languages on the display, referring to students' prior learning preferences, having various cultures being represented in the curriculum – I do not see a lot of that, it's meant to be a visual culture but the cultural diversity is not sometimes that's visible, it was more visible where I came from; here, it tends to be very "western", it doesn't chunk my view of cultural pluralism.

This particular staff view is consistent with Bhabha's (1994) concept of 'Third Space', which proposes that one should not homogenize cultures; instead, difference needs to be respected (see chapter 3.5.2). Niki clearly recognises that the university sees diversity as a problem rather than an opportunity for all students not only to learn about, but also to create culture – a more pro-active process as described in chapter 3.5.3.

There was also an awareness of the part that staff needed to play in this process. Sabrina, a recently arrived lecturer reported, for instance, that the experience of teaching international students had improved her communication skills. The majority of staff in focus group 3b agreed with her:

I have realized that I have become much more aware of the way
I talk in front of students, and much more how negative I am, so
now I'm trying to put everything on a positive.

However, not everything was as straightforward. When recalling encounters with international students in the classroom, the majority of staff openly shared challenges they faced while teaching or observing others teach. It was often emphasised that international students found it extremely difficult to understand and cope with the language, especially at the beginning of the course. A senior lecturer reflected in the Staff Survey: "It is challenging as the international students arrive without any experience of critical analysis and without the skill or material understanding expected at PG level."

All tutors agreed that to address this challenge, there should be an opportunity for staff to exchange ideas on integrating internationalisation into pedagogy:

There should be some kind of forum for all academics to discuss
dealing with international students. In terms of our university
staff, the majority of us are white and English, it's very
mono/mainly one culture and if we could get people from
different cultures and share our opinions, and also invite
students, that would be great, I think it's very important to
celebrate diversity [Lucinda, Learning Development Tutor, Focus
Group 2b]

7.1.3 Staff strategies

Apart from sharing personal journeys, staff suggested a wide range of solutions to the challenges they faced in teaching and learning in international classrooms, including peer supported review, investing effort in getting to know students as individuals, adopting teaching methods aimed to

meet the needs of international students more effectively and addressing organisational issues.

The university promotes Peer Supported Review (PSR) as a means of enabling staff to reflect and evaluate their practice in facilitating learning, teaching as well as materials and curriculum design. According to the majority of staff interviewed, peer review can be a powerful enabler in implementing internationalisation in the classroom. The constructive and dialogic approach of the review was reported as a great catalyst for a more scholarly self-evaluation, as captured by Heather, an experienced lecturer:

> I think observing teaching a mixed ability class is always useful, e.g. the Peer Support Review we implemented this year - something that really helped me when I first started teaching. In terms of basic teaching and learning knowledge, watching someone who is really experienced in teaching international students helped massively, but having to do the review of that and thinking of that made a huge difference. [Focus Group 3b]

All participants enthusiastically shared their experience of various ways of engaging with international students to maximise learning opportunities. Some emphasised getting to know individual students as a useful way of finding out how best to offer support:

> It's a bit of a cliché but what always works for me is to try to understand the new students, their prior knowledge and learning experiences, just to identify and make sense of what they already know and celebrate that, using various methodologies to fill in the gaps to make sure they progress. [Gareth, Senior Lecturer, Focus Group 3b]

Some admitted it was not until they started teaching international students that they realised it is only too easy to make assumptions about them and how they learn. Gareth continued to shed light on this issue:

> I realised how important it is to check learning. We cannot assume students are learning. With international students, we've found new approaches to confirm learning, ensuring we're picking up on instances where we think learning isn't taking place.

Unsurprisingly, the main contributors to the discussion of teaching methods were Learning Development tutors and EAP tutors, who introduced a range of strategies, including concept checking, the use of dictionaries, support for reading and the use of Virtual Learning Environments (VLEs).

In the early stages of the programmes, the use of concept checking in inductive language teaching, where learners arrive at an understanding of rules through looking at explicit examples of use, was perceived as crucial. This approach was considered by the majority of staff as one of the most effective tools for learning for international students. By the same token, it was noted that in other modes of teaching, such as lectures or workshops, tutors tended to misjudge the power of silence. Lisa, one of the Learning Development tutors recalled a situation where she observed a seminar with a subject tutor teaching international students.

> The tutor was really accommodating and friendly, but did not ask students direct questions; there was no concept checking and very little interaction. He did not establish objectives, expectations and the purpose of the session. Students did not know how to interrupt, nor were they given a chance to answer questions as the time between question and answer was very brief. As a result, the tutor thought the students were not

prepared for the seminar whereas in fact, he did not give them a chance to participate. [Focus Group 1b]

The same tutor argued that some of these challenges could have been easily tackled if the purpose of the session and objectives had been established, especially at the very beginning in the induction phase: "Rules, expectations, assessment, black and white, cast in stone things, but also things like checking emails, VLEs".

In a similar vein, other Learning Development Tutors disclosed that they found students are very often told to use dictionaries but very rarely shown explicitly how to use them effectively: "I'm afraid one thing that scares me about it is the fact how concepts translate really badly". Lisa, in particular, flagged up the importance of training students how to use dictionaries effectively:

> Students do not know how to use the dictionary, they look up one version of a word, translate it into their languages and it might be something absolutely different that they expected. I'm really sorry, but I sound a bit like an 'English Hitler', but I really think it's worth spending time making sure your students know how to choose the appropriate meaning of a word.

In two focus groups, staff identified the fact that little or no time was devoted to reading in the classroom as a contributory factor in international student underachievement. In the words of Lisa: "It's about reading and becoming familiar with the canon of work you're expected to know and it's very often underrated how little attention is given to literature review part. It's difficult for speaker of English as a first language, not to mention second".

Helen, another Learning Development Tutor argued that this could be easily addressed if reading were introduced into the course step-by-step and integrated into actual class time:

It's something that everyone takes for granted. I think I'm almost fluent in my first language, I've done my degrees, I read quite a lot, but I think that some of the books on first year BA reading list are extremely difficult and genuinely dense. Especially in art and design, it's so abstract! [Focus Group 1b]

In one focus group, it was also reported that main subject tutors do not always pay explicit attention to items on the reading lists as it is assumed students will read them in their free time. Lisa commented: "The reason why international students don't know how to write it because they haven't managed to start reading. How can you write if you haven't collected enough ideas and thoughts"? The same tutor continued: "Students are not quite clear what they're supposed to do, they're supposed to have an opinion but they can't say 'I'.

The majority of staff agreed that international students have great difficulty with critical thinking and reading. According to Borland and Pearce, (1999, 60), critical thinking underpins Western academic culture and the 'reading of written text is, in a sense, the basis of tertiary study'. In one focus group, the Learning Development tutors compared this challenge to an invisible activity, not generally taught, let alone assessed; yet this knowledge was key to success in HE.

Some main subject lecturers, for their part, considered that making traditional and non-interactive modes of teaching, such as lectures, more dynamic could be extremely effective, though with a caveat. Sandra, an EAP Lecturer, provided support for this position:

The discursive method of presentation (even in lectures), which invites feedback, requires a certain timeframe of introduction to allow students to gain confidence in their

linguistic abilities and prepare them to debate and challenge

material that is presented. [Focus Group 3b]

The majority of staff participating in focus groups and responding to the survey not only mentioned various methods of supporting international PG students with their academic work, but also with adjustment at the beginning of the course. In addition to the International Pathway Programmes described in chapter 5, initiatives included MUNCH described by Lucinda, a Learning Development Tutor as:

very loose sessions open to all students who are feeling less at ease with the academic discourse. It is a place where we can have loose conversations on issues that come up; the idea is to encourage international students to have a safe place without worrying. The aim is also to talk about how people talk about art and design. [Focus Group 2b]

Lucinda also stressed the advantages associated with a non-threatening environment for all students: "MUNCH is an open discussion forum in which international students chat freely without being assessed. It is also for home students who lack confidence to speak or don't have the opportunity to speak."

Another strategy reported across all focus groups with staff was the university Virtual Learning Environment (VLE). The online resources were perceived as a potential platform for allowing internationalisation of learning and teaching to take place and to further strengthen students' linguistic competence as a preparation for seminars and workshops:

Using VLE to support internationalisation should be mandatory for all academic staff including course documentation, notices, lecture and seminar notes, pre and post seminar tasks. These would enable international students

to navigate it more easily and help them to become

comfortable using the documents. [Trisha, Learning

Development Tutor, Focus Group 2b]

While virtual learning may have considerable potential, there should
also be some caveats. For instance, a case study undertaken by the
university Learning Technologist (Reeves, 2014) suggests that,
when designing a learning environment around an online tool such
as a blog, there is a need for educators to be mindful of "hidden
dimensions in their pedagogical activity" (Bélisle, 2008, 1) if they
wish to offer .a fully intercultural learning experience. While
students found the blog to be beneficial to their learning, there was a
.failure to identify and address intercultural issues.

There was no shortage of evidence, then, of awareness of alternative
approaches and an emergent understanding of the need to adapt teaching
and learning strategies in the institution as a whole. In this respect, a senior
lecturer made an interesting prediction about the future of HE in his
response to the survey in support of the idea of deeper understanding of
international students' learning contexts:

Post-graduate studies are highly internationalised and the

future will see undoubtedly a shift from Anglophone or

European perspectives within HE to ones that are influenced by

local models abroad. So we have to be mindful of not simply

exporting working practices, methods and teaching

philosophies but actively incorporating those from countries

where our cohorts originate.

While there are differences and similarities towards knowledge and
scholarship between these HE systems, the models the lecturer referred to,
reflect the changing landscape of contemporary teaching and learning

conditions and imperatives become more closely tied to discourses of internationalisation and globalisation. This demonstrates recognition of the changes occurring in HE. The lecturer clearly identified the need for an "understanding of the need for genuine intercultural dialogue so that international education is not just based on the legitimisation of Western knowledge but becomes an enterprise of mutual learning" (Ryan, 2012, 55).

7.1.4 Organisational issues

Three matters related to the organisation of teaching and learning within the institution were raised: closer liaison with the main subject lecturers, embedding of the EAP model in subject teaching and the accessibility of course documents and welcome guides.

When asked about liaison with the main subject tutors, the Learning Development Tutors enumerated several ways of supporting the main subject tutors in relation to international postgraduate student needs. Stephan commented: "I'm provided with the texts in advance, we work through them each week, the student express difficulties with this kind of work, namely understanding the sometimes very abstract, Western concepts but also taking part in seminar discussions" (focus group 2b).

There was also a widespread consensus that the EAP consultancy with the library and student services was becoming more and more popular and that many subject tutors were using their services more often:

> It makes the teaching difficult trying to cater for the broad
> difference in levels and understanding. Some students find
> some of the teaching too basic and some find even the simple
> tasks hard. The Learning Development Tutors have very well
> supported particular sessions with their assistance, I closely

worked with them on the programme. [Senior Lecturer, Staff Survey]

Learning Development Tutors also reported that the main subject tutors were starting to ask for advice. The following observation was typical:

Now staff are coming to us in terms of supporting their international students; finally our teaching background is recognised, we would be good people to discuss the actual staging of the curriculum, setting up inductions tasks, which would clarify things for both – students and staff. [Niki, Focus Group 1b]

On the basis of the responses of the majority of both main subject lecturers and Learning Development Tutors' responses, it could be argued that liaison enhances the international student experience, especially in the area of learning and teaching. The current model used on the International Pathway Programmes (IPP), where the main subject lecturers and EAP lecturers work closely together, demonstrates a wide range of approaches to boost students' linguistic effectiveness in relation to their main course work. The IPP (International Pathway Programmes) were designed specifically to support international students' progression onto the main, graduate and postgraduate courses. This support covers art and design portfolio development alongside integrated EAP, increasing students' IELTS level so as to allow them to join the main subject courses. The IPP provision offers three courses targeting different groups of students: International Foundation for Art, Design and Media (IFADM), Graduate Diploma: Art and Design (GDAD) and Pre-sessional English for Art and Design (PSEAD) courses. The IPP students receive regular help with communicating ideas in critiques, presentations and seminars, using different techniques to support writing, e.g. peer review, proof-reading, editing and reviewing

written work, such as blog entries, reflective writing and more formal essay writing. The receptive skills, namely reading and listening, are also supported by a large number of built-in sessions to support the main programmes of study.

According to participants in one focus group with the IPP lecturers, the subject integrated study skills workshops, open to both home and international students, allowed students to develop as learners much more quickly. However, it was reported that international students' language acquisition tended to accelerate later in the course and most staff participants agreed that international students' level of English had an impact on how much could be achieved in the classroom. As commented by Sabrina, one of the lecturers:

> My personal feeling and my own experience is that the level of language international students have is always the thing that makes the biggest difference, [more] than the cultural background they're from. For me the struggle is always a student who is weaker on language.

Similarly, few other staff members considered that the low levels of English were depressing linguistic and cognitive aspects of delivery, affecting home students' experience to the point where some of them decided to leave the course. As Niki, one Learning Development tutor commented: "It's a shame the academics did not recognise this as an opportunity and let this happen; I think there is a huge need for staff development to internationalise course curricula" (focus group 2b).

To combat these challenges, Niki proposed an alternative approach currently adopted by the university Learning Development service:

> You always have to position yourself as co-learner and have a respectful dialogue with international students! I'd like to think

I do that with whatever language background the students I'm dealing with has, but also international students, because they have different experiences, culture, language and it is to be celebrated and that enriches everything; I don't see it as a challenge, the challenge is that international students are kept apart in the current model Learning Development model; ideologically it is the right one, but it needs a careful working approach with the help from staff, integration, not just teaching staff, they are already isolating international students, for some bits it might be ok but not always, it's not a homogenous group.

In one focus group, the team working on International Pathway Programmes with international students reflected on the approach of delivering joint main subject programmes with tailored EAP sessions and how different it was from the university embedded model. Sabrina explained:

At university, EAP staff's role is a consultancy role rather than necessarily a teaching role where they employ the TEFL methodology that they would use to teach EAP to teach that subject. So every aspect of the course in a way is using vocabulary and language, so that you don't ever have a separate EAP task, or an EAP session. [Focus Group 3b]

It needs to be noted that, when collecting data, student services and the library were undergoing a restructure, which had temporarily caused a certain level of concern among international students who feared they would be left without support during the summer while finishing their dissertation. The EAP-based system with generic workshops was replaced by a one-to-one tutorial system with Learning Development Tutors. This partially addressed the need for a more subject specific approach for individuals; however, it also introduced new resourcing challenges, limiting access to already heavily committed Learning Development Tutors now responsible for providing both

study skills support to home students and consultancy to the main subject tutors.

In the same focus group, there seemed to be confusion about the diversity and effectiveness of support models. However, Annie, an EAP tutor, reminded other participants about the primary goal of education:

> You know, we're picking up on words so much: embedded, integrated, combined, challenge etc. I was just thinking, we're here to support these students since the university made a decision to admit them. I suppose different approaches work differently with different students. There's no harm in trying different methods. [Focus Group 3b]

Another area often debated in discussions of organising learning and teaching was the accessibility of course documents supporting students' learning. The majority of staff identified an urgent need for improvements in student handbooks, and closer liaison between the Quality Assurance department and academics on revalidation of student-centred course documentation. As stressed by Lisa, one of the Learning Development Tutors:

> A large number of handbooks desperately need redrafting in more reader-friendly language and format and they need to be reduced down to what the students most need to know, and then the background information or the information for lecturers should be elsewhere.

To some extent, this process was under way. The university's marketing department had started producing short versions of the handbooks – so called Welcome Guides – which were reported to be much more accessible, especially by international students. The lecturers also noted that the university's Inclusivity Working Group and the newly re-established

Learning and Teaching Committee were already actively working on implementation of some of the ideas mentioned above.

7.1.5 Summary

Apart from enthusiastically sharing their personal journeys, staff enumerated examples of good practice using 'international' pedagogy, which was perceived as allowing all students to build on existing knowledge and develop the skills and attitudes necessary to function in global settings. However, this approach requires openness to new ways of thinking, skills, attitudes and willingness to create spaces for all students with full rights of involvement and success. In relation to designing a curriculum for global times, Ryan (2005, 100) points out: "Such a broad worldview can underpin teaching and learning philosophies but may only require minor adjustments to teaching and learning practices as the teacher becomes a more active facilitator of learning rather than the bastion of conventional wisdom".

7.1.6 Student views

While staff reflections were divided into personal journeys and strategies, students' responses focus on including their feelings about the new approaches to learning they were experiencing, their responses to the available support for learning and the value they attached to learning.

Focus group data demonstrated that approaches to study in the UK are new to many, coming as they may do, from cultures where teacher-student relationships and learning are often very dissimilar (Kingston & Forland, 2008). Yet, this experience of a new culture of learning seems to be one to which students mostly respond in a positive way once they have had time to acculturate and reflect on the differences. This is evidenced, for instance, by the very eloquent way in which numerous participants discussed aspects of learning in the UK, including becoming an autonomous learner, applying theory and research findings to their own context, writing essays, time management, proofreading, critical analysis, and avoiding plagiarism. Occasionally, strategies to deal with these difficulties were mentioned.

Overall, students expressed positive views about teaching and learning in the UK. As was the case for staff, the majority acknowledged that they chose to study at the university as part of their aspiration to broaden their horizons and believed British education system would allow them to do so. While more than half of the students confessed there was a huge gap between the education system they were familiar with and the one they encountered in the UK, they nonetheless often found the new learning and teaching challenge exciting, enjoyable and empowering. The following response was typical:

> When I studied in Japan, we didn't have long essays or had to read a lot of books, so, I really enjoy now, as I need to read lots of books, discuss and then write essays. That's a very positive thing! The reason why I really enjoy the course is that here I feel like I'm really studying! I have to be more independent, it's more beneficial for me in general, and I do it for myself, even if my marks are not too good. [Masa, Japanese student, Focus Group 4a]

Relatively strong evaluations of learning and teaching experience in the year-on-year International Student Barometer (ISB 2012, 2013 and 2014) provide confirmation that this view is widely held. Here one student commented: "On behalf of my course I believe I can say that this university is very well prepared to receive and give the best of help to international students either European or overseas in terms of learning skills".

Even though the majority of students on all four campuses and in all International Student Barometer surveys considered the learning and teaching environment as relatively strong, though there were some standalone instances in the (2013) ISB Survey where students thought that, as postgraduate students, they had "too few hours per week with lecturers" and they "learnt only 'surface' of things, not thorough enough".

One example was given by a student who struggled with writing his or her dissertation in the summer period while the majority of staff were on leave: "I was trying to get help for my dissertation this year as English grammar is still hard for me. I was a bit disappointed as that there wasn't a lot of help for international students in this area in the summer" (ISB, 2013).

In contrast, in focus groups some students commented on how much they enjoyed tutorials, something that majority of them had not been familiar with prior to starting their educational journey in the UK. A few reported that they did not feel they were one of many and were rather considered as individuals. An Iranian student, for instance, commented:

> We have nice tutors. Last term I told them I didn't understand them at all and they helped me to catch up with things in tutorials: write essays, proposals, how to do things, how to explore things through provide solutions – I really felt supported as an individual. [Gela, Focus Group 3a]

In general, the tutorials and the relatively low number of postgraduate students in the class allowed for a closer relationship with the tutors. Mari, a Bulgarian student, commented:

> I have a lot attention from the tutors, that's another advantage. At big unis there's no personal relationship with your tutor. They treat you like nobody, they just check your work. Here because the numbers are low, I get more attention from tutors. [Focus Group 1a]

In general, this student-centred approach compared very favourably with the more distant student-staff relationship the majority had experienced back home. All of the participants reported that academic status and authority matter more in their countries of origin where staff were perceived to be less

interested in answering questions from individual students and insist on more formality in communication. In contrast, academics in the UK were seen as helpful and supportive. According to Hui, one Malaysian student "Everyone is so nice. I can share anything with staff, they are very helpful. I love the connection between staff and students".

In addition, some students noted that western education valued the learning process as much as the actual outcome. In the words of Jam, a Taiwanese student:

> I had to get used to western education system because in my country we only focus on the outcome but here, it's 50/50, it's a little bit more difficult. I mean I have to record everything during my study, my journey, so I have to prepare more. [Focus Group 1a]

This view was echoed by Hui, the same Malaysian student:

> The education system in the UK is different. In Malaysia it's completely different. There, we focus on the outcome, but here, it's all about the journey, it's more important. At first, I wasn't used to it, I cared about the outcome too much. Sometimes I would have very little idea development and research and process, but now I know it matters as much.

Another interesting observation concerned a newly discovered passion for reading books. Ha, a Chinese student, considered that reading a book with a purpose made her feel more autonomous:

> When I studied in China, students just joined lectures without joy, but here is different. I do everything independent, I consider many things, and I have more books to read. In China

we don't have to read any books even though the library is
much bigger than the one here. [Focus Group 1a]

A final point relates to the relevance of the skills learnt in the new context to the employability market, raised, for instance, by a student in ISB (2014): "I have received a fair and nurturing environment that gave me all the tools and learning experience I need to make it in the real world",

7.1.7 Summary

Overall, the discussions with both staff and students acted as a catalyst for reflection on teaching and learning practices. In many instances, students shared similar opinions to those of staff, especially the perceived advantages of studying in a multicultural environment. Similarly to staff, students spoke about opinions openly. Some said they found their coursework fairly easy while other parts of their learning harder.

While students mainly shared their insights on their learning experiences, they were less vocal than staff in terms of solutions to the obstacles. Students in four out of five groups were convinced their learning support needs were addressed appropriately, but a number of areas for development were suggested in the (2013) International Student Barometer Survey.

7.2 Internationalisation of Curriculum

Both staff and students spoke about their understandings of an internationalised curriculum. In the discussion, which follows, the focus is on using global perspectives to enhance course curricula to raise intercultural awareness among both students and staff.

7.2.1 Staff views

For some academics, designing an internationalised curriculum meant 'adding' an international case study to the curriculum as a first step; others were reported to be more adventurous, actively using international students' background knowledge to boost intercultural competencies. In general, staff were comfortable in 'adjusting' their course content and classroom pedagogy.

However, one area, often unaddressed and sometimes even rejected, was responsible citizenship (Clifford, 2009; Haigh & Clifford, 2010). Incorporating topics such as human rights and freedom of expression was reported as rare. For many academics, the main challenge was to question not only pedagogy, but also the epistemology and ontology of their disciplines, a shift 'from the comfortable spaces of knowing to the uncomfortable places of learning' (Phillips et al., 2009: 1455).

7.2.2 Staff Strategies

In all three focus groups with academics and also in responses to the survey, debates were fierce around solutions to accommodating postgraduate international students' learning needs. Staff provided various examples of how they addressed curriculum design.

Some participants believed the nature of some of the curricula was already global; however, it had to be carefully nurtured. As explained by a senior lecturer in the Staff Survey:

> Fashion, like many parts of the creative industries, likes to see itself as global – but this is actually a matter of consumption and industrial production rather than a creative design issue. On the fashion course, with its emphasis on original, often conceptual design, meaningful internationalisation implies, for instance, global references (political, economic, social, cultural, etc.), combinations or syntheses of working methods or the integration of local markets. When these issues are properly debated, researched and applied to design processes, value is added to fashion.

In the Staff Survey, the same senior lecturer shared another example of good practice from the internationalised curriculum.

The projects in the first term of PG study are designed to connect geographical and cultural areas and to synthesise methods and approaches, e.g. we have been running a design module on 'cultural exchange' with an integrated lecture/seminar series; furthermore we build group projects with HE-partners from outside the UK into the curriculum to foreground international exchange and its application to the creative industries; also guest speakers and invited workshop contributions are drawn from an international pool of professionals – so the internationalisation of the research, development of design and professional field is promoted at all levels of the PG study.

Interestingly some participants argued that an internationalised curriculum would support integration between home and international students. As explained by Stephan, a Learning Development Tutor:

There are so many possible changes that can be made in the curriculum to strengthen internationalisation. We need to investigate how to feed in things into practice – if the tasks were worded in a different way, it would enable students to play to their strengths, and staff could enrich the course. If the courses were done like that, that would also help with the integration between international and home students. [Focus Group 2b]

On an organisational level, while participants offering Learning Development support reported opportunities to liaise with colleagues, they highlighted that there was very little interest from the subject tutors in working in this way. One commented: "I personally never had an academic asking me for my expertise on curriculum development or learning materials. However, I have developed relationships with some staff – when they do a workshop, they

intentionally sit in, because they know I've got a teaching background, so they ask me questions about how I set things up."

The curriculum-building consultancy was relatively new and some academics feared colleagues in the wider university did not know about its existence: "There is this huge influx of international students, but we are asked for help very rarely. I think staff are not sure how to cope with it and acknowledge they do not know how to do their job. There is a bit of a hole in there."

It was also reported that academic staff were in a difficult position, as they did not want to assume international students were cognitively less advanced and therefore felt unable to ask for guidance on developing an inclusive curriculum.

7.2.3 Students' views

In contrast with the staff, the majority of students, when asked about the content of the curriculum, felt it was already relatively 'internationalised' and appreciated how tutors tailored the programmes to different students' needs:

> Even though our main tutor is British, he will always show
> examples from different countries, because I have classmates
> from Colombia, China, India and America. So I think it is a good
> thing for us, because I believe that I learn a lot. Each time we
> talk it is a new experience for me. I can guess inspiration from
> the different examples. [Ha, Chinese student, Focus Group 1a]

Students seemed to genuinely feel that exposure to different cultural perspectives prepared them to be successful global citizens:

> It's enjoyable that we are so diverse and the curriculum
> reflects it. It's nice to learn about other cultures and really in
> the learning process you deal with different walks of life
> throughout your life so it's kind of practical to being able to

experience that in your studies, kind of be ready for the rest of

the duration of your life. [Mari, Bulgarian student, Focus Group

1a]

Some students also recognised the value of exposure to international staff

and professionals from various industries, too. A Taiwanese student, for

instance, observed that "in general the tutors give different examples from

different countries; they do not only focus on examples for western culture,

now I feel I can develop my knowledge [from] different teachers and

practitioners from different countries".

7.2.4 Summary

While some staff considered their course curricula as 'organically'

international due to the content of the syllabus, others thought the design of

an international curriculum required more active involvement on the part of

main subject tutors as a tool for the integration of home and international

students. On the other hand, international students themselves seemed

satisfied with course content.

Although staff and students commented on how curricula celebrated

diversity through adding 'international' case studies to the syllabus, it is

possible to argue that there was considerable potential for international and

home students to work together more on real-world issues such as

sustainability, equality and justice, so moving into the realm of values and

ethics (Haigh and Clifford, 2010). None of the participants shed light onto

what happens if there is a cultural clash in the classroom due to exposure to

complex social or political issues, arguably missing important opportunities

for learning.

7.3 Assessment and feedback

As discussed in chapter 2.7, assessment criteria and learning requirements

need to be transparent and explicit to remove barriers that disadvantage

international students. Below, staff and students report on how challenging this aspect of pedagogy is.

7.3.1 Staff views

In general, assessment was considered as one of the most difficult areas, in large part because the diagnostic and formative approaches commonly used in the UK were often very different from those international postgraduate students were familiar with. The majority of tutors agreed that international students and, in particular, postgraduate students accustomed to final, summative assessment with little emphasis on the process and huge weight on the final outcome, were struggling with the new assessment procedures.

7.3.2 Staff strategies

The strategies proposed by staff focused on the importance of feedback offered to students. As explained by one of the senior lecturers in the Staff Survey: "My teaching and curriculum are by necessity focussed to international students' needs. Some students find the PG level 7 feedback language difficult so I always clarify in personal feedback comments."

Most staff agreed that the best way forward is to allow flexible opportunities for students to understand the assessment feedback, whether written or spoken, or ideally both. Several lecturers suggested formative feedback should cover Doran's (1981) SMART (specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time-bound) action points, and, wherever possible, more common words should be used to avoid unnecessary misunderstandings.

Some staff admitted the assessment criteria and learning outcomes were ambiguous and difficult to distinguish and it was not clear how to transform them into practice. However, emphasis was placed on transferable skills to address this issue. A senior lecturer observed: "We tend to relate to students' subjects/disciplines to personalize the project briefs and their outcomes; we would allow an appropriate interpretation of the project."

In contrast, there was widespread agreement that allowing students who do not speak English as a first language to see feedback in an advance of the actual one-to-one feedback tutorials would help them to understand it better. One Learning Development Tutor suggested: "It doesn't require the whole day, – I think one hour for skimming and scanning through the feedback would be useful". The same tutor commented:

> When you give feedback in a tutorial setting, some international students want to go straight to what grade they got. They are not interested in what's written as probably, they can't understand the language that's being used in reference to unit/stage/course objectives. So one solution would be to send it to them in advance. They might read it at home, with a dictionary. Some students, because traditionally they pay more attention and consider written feedback as more valuable/more important, they will definitely read it. So, we really need to be careful with terminology, the assessment jargon as a lot of it is questionable whether it's understood fully.

On the majority of courses, students were provided with project briefs: typical creative arts education documents summarising the issue and inviting students to provide creative solutions; assessment procedures are explained in course induction. A senior lecturer commented on the usefulness of this approach:

> International students cope well with assessment methods, and receive detailed written and spoken feedback. We have designed a programme of research methods, which promotes confidence, encourages dialogue including deep understanding of assessment feedback, it has been very successful!

7.3.3 Students' views

Similarly, students identified assessment as particularly problematic, referring to the ways in which it differed from the forms of assessment they had experienced in other educational settings. The most common difference for the majority of the students was that here, in the UK, the process of learning was as important as the final outcome.

The majority confessed they were confused by the sometimes very different feedback offered in tutorials and the actual assignment. In the words of a Hong Kong Student:

> During tutorials, tutors will always say a positive thing, and then you have to face the reality when you receive a written feedback, it's totally different! It's a disaster! I was really frightened as I wasn't sure if I could trust that person, if they actually mean what they say in tutorials.

When asked about assessment, another/the same Hong Kong student highlighted the cultural difference in how tutors and international students interpret learning situations when receiving feedback:

> We have to decode, it's something we have to learn as well, because it's a different culture. In Hong Kong we tend to generalize and criticize right away, we jump into conclusions, we're really straightforward, we don't go round like Brits, and so when talking about projects, sometimes I wish I could get a simple answer.

In short, the evaluation and grading of student work tended to be a contentious issue for international students who appeared to have difficulty in decoding lecturers' expectations. On the other hand, lecturers admitted they needed to recognise cultural prejudice in assessment criteria as many of them included expressions

recognisable only by students familiar with academic discourse. In 2008/09, international students formed 68 percent of the full-time population on taught postgraduate courses in the UK (UKCISA, 2011, based on the data from the HE Statistics Agency). Given such a global context, assessment practices designed primarily with home students need to be re-examined accordingly.

7.4 Coping with Learning Support and Language

The assumption that international students cannot adjust to the new learning context because of their cultural background (see 2.7 and 2.8), seemed prevalent within the institution, as reported by staff below. Students revealed difficulties with accessing appropriate learning support and confessed their struggles with the English language.

7.4.1 Staff views

As already mentioned, international students' linguistic competence was generally seen as an obstacle to learning.

In relation to the current university Learning Development support service, some concern was voiced that no fixed workshops on EAP or study skills were provided and the there were limited resources for one-to-one tutorials with international students as the tutors were also dealing with the home population which outnumbered international students on all four campuses. Outside the International Pathway Programmes, international students were sometimes advised to seek EAP support even if their level of English was sufficient. Lisa, the Learning Development Tutor confessed: "Sometimes staff do not know who they admit on their courses, they send all international students to see us. I hope they do not mean it vaguely but supportively."

Some members of staff felt that care needed to be taken to ensure that the support available was not seen as remedial, something which risked adversely affecting uptake. In the words of Niki, another Learning Development Tutor:

The impression I get is that international students feel much less supported while at university. It is shocking that students cannot claim any support, because you need to come up with reasons for it, such as low level of English; it should not matter where they come from, especially if they pay so much more for the courses. [Focus Group 1b]

This frustration might have been caused by the large proportion of international students with dissimilar educational backgrounds. As reported by one of the Learning Development Tutors: "I've seen postgraduate degree students and I wondered how they managed to pass their first degrees. That's probably where they did their degree, quality of teaching, but also what they brought with them to this degree."

In addition, the perceived low level of English of some international students was considered an important factor in the lack integration with home students, especially when working collaboratively: "The lack of the linguistic or cognitive abilities would affect group work, or how students perform in seminar situation. The stronger students then sense resentment and do not want to work with students with less advanced levels of English" [Sandra, EAP Lecturer, Focus Group 3b].

On the one hand, co-ordinating home and international students when the language ability is extremely mixed was perceived as a challenge; on the other hand, it was also regarded as an opportunity to internationalise the curriculum. "It is extremely helpful to have actors from emergent economies on hand to contribute to debate. We get plenty of enrichment from the mix; International students sometimes struggle with language, but their ideas and approaches are just as relevant and indeed surprising and inspiring" [Trisha, Learning Development Tutor, Focus Group 2b].

7.4.2 Students' views

Students talked about the learning and English language support that was available; many were currently using learning support or had done so in the past. The support provided by the university was widely perceived as inadequate, partially as students felt uncomfortable asking for help as they felt – or had even been told – that the support was limited because of the heavy reliance on part time or sessional lecturers:

> I work mainly by myself so it is more about you being motivated, so I found that a little bit disturbing. I expected more from group work, tutorials, and lectures. At first I felt a little bit frustrated that you should study on your own, I would like to be guided more effectively, especially at the beginning of the course. [Mari, Bulgarian student, Focus Group 1a]

Nonetheless, the students felt the university had a duty to provide more learning support. As commented by a Taiwanese student:

> We only have one teacher, so we have only one tutorial every week, 20 minutes per week for meeting the tutor, that's all we get. And international students, we spent three times more money than EU students so we spend a lot of money but we only get twenty minutes a week for meeting my tutor. [Jam, Focus Group 1a]

Moreover, the Learning Development support service was not only considered limited but sometimes even irrelevant to the wide range of areas covered. In the view of Lima, a Chinese student (focus group 1a), "We just received really general learning support from the university, they just corrected grammar, I think it should be more like classes or group meetings - specific subject during the course". In a similar vein, some students reported that they felt that the learning support available was not always helpful, because tutors were not specialists in students' subject areas. "EAP class is

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only once a week, but there is very little time to go regularly, we do not take it seriously as it is not compulsory, the class is too generic" [Lima, Chinese Student, Focus Group 1a]].

In two focus groups, students reported instances when they sometimes felt they were a burden both for busy main subject tutors and also the Learning Development Tutors; in their view, the university did not manage resources well, which meant that there was not enough times for tutors to review students' work. A Japanese student reflected: "Many times I asked and they were busy, but they did do me a favour and they helped me after their working hours" [Focus Group 1a].

What needs to be mentioned is the fact that some of the students had attended a pre-sessional EAP course prior to their main course of study and then used the in-sessional EAP support offered via student services. Most of them agreed that if they had not attended the pre-sessional, the start of their MA would have been more challenging. According to Aya, a Japanese student (focus group 2a), "The course helped me with writing, I didn't realise how important writing is, once I started the final dissertation, the writing part, it all came back!"

The majority of students found the Learning Development seminars helpful in terms of language development and thought it would have been harder to 'survive' the first semester without attending the course.

> We had a tutor who we discussed difficult texts with, styles, and topics. She helped us to understand texts, discuss them, and we learnt how to read the longer texts. It was helpful. The paper was more than 10 pages. It was hard to finish. So I learnt how to speed up my reading and skim through text. We also learnt to proofread each others' work, very helpful! [Ansan, Taiwanese student, Focus Group 3a]

7.4.3 The impact of IELTS

In all focus groups with staff, IELTS (International English Language Testing System) received considerable criticism in terms of their reliability in predicting the student linguistic capabilities when they join courses. In the words of one of the main subject lecturers: "It's like any test, isn't it? They cram all that information into one exam. Surely, it's not going to be representative of all the skills students should have when they enter university!" (focus group 3b).

As Edwards and Ran (2006) suggest, teachers need to understand that IELTS scores are an imperfect measure of a student's ability to cope with the demands of university level courses. It can be further argued that, while not neglecting academic literacies or students' IELTS overall result when admitting them into university, institutions need to move beyond the focus on assimilation to provide additional diagnostic approaches to identify students' learning needs. Following Benesh (1993), Scollon (1994), Pennycock (1994) and Kachru (1999), educators should adopt a more open and self-critical approach to 'foreign' rhetorical conventions.

Sandra, one of the lecturers in EAP, in particular, had strong views on the inadequacy of the system:

> It is a formulaic exam with very specific fixed components in it. They do not really reflect the things students are asked at universities, particularly in arts. The writing component, one task is to make sense of data presented on a graph – it's purely descriptive and the other task is asking the students to use their personal experience. It's not in any sense academic, there's no concept of research built in. [Focus Group 3b]

There was a very broad consensus, then, that while IELTS courses provide students with techniques to meet the university entrance requirements, they do not accurately reflect the student's linguistic ability and thus can be unhelpful:

Students do struggle with reading complex texts within a relatively short amount of time. They require skimming and scanning techniques to comprehend them, but actually the intensive IELTS preparation course teaches these skills quite effectively. By the end of the course, students would have gone through so many of these tests that actually getting a high score in a reading component is not as tricky as students develop those skimming and scanning methods without truly grasping the content of the texts as there's no time for it really. [Sandra, Lecturer in EAP, Focus Group 3b]

These findings therefore provide support for the literature, which suggests that institutions should not rely too heavily on IELTS, or any other equivalent form of assessment. The drive to recruit students should not remove the need for rigour in the use of diagnostic tests of language ability, and should be informed by a better understanding of what they do, and do not, measure. What was apparent from the analysis was that allowing students unable to achieve the standard of language ability required for admission to UK courses, was increasing the burden on staff, especially if adequate additional language support was not in place. It could be argued that closer collaboration between recruitment officers and lecturing staff would be mutually beneficial, increasing understanding of each others' aims and needs, and allowing a consideration of the student journey after recruitment.

Mauranen and Ranta (2008) argue that the presence of a large number of international students studying in Anglophone universities "calls for a better understanding of the way English is used in the new circumstances where the native speaker may not be present, and where Standard [i.e. native] English may not be the most relevant norm" (p. 199). It would appear from the comments above that the university has not considered the implications of its linguistically diverse student population.

7.5 Conclusion

This chapter has explored the impact of internationalisation on pedagogy and curriculum. Issues in regards to teaching and learning, the internationalisation of curriculum, assessment and feedback, coping with English language and the implications of IELTS were raised. The strategies that staff, particularly Learning Development Tutors and the EAP Lecturers, enumerated demonstrate they have a solid knowledge of how to improve pedagogy and curriculum in response to international students' learning needs. Their approaches enhance the experience of both, staff and international students, and, ultimately provide positive learning environments for all students in the HE system. However, these examples of good practice are not reported as a norm across the whole university. By addressing each if the areas outlined above, progress should be made towards 'normalisation' of internationalisation of pedagogy and curriculum, "turning the ad hoc and uneven efforts of a few enthusiasts into the normal expectations and requirements of the organisation" (Webb, 2005, 117). The 'culture-change' in regards to internationalisation of pedagogy and curriculum has to be creatively utilised by the imagination and agency of those who comprise the university. Internationalisation of pedagogy and curriculum should be then perceived as a dynamic process which, much like the process of internationalisation itself, affords staff and students the opportunity to own the process of their own learning and knowledge production (Webb, 2005, 117).

Chapter 8
Discussion and Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This thesis explored the complexities of international education with the aim to raise the awareness of its benefit for all students and staff. The participants' personal journeys, involving both challenges and coping strategies, illustrate how they negotiate the new intercultural field and shape their future development. The present chapter draws the thesis to a close by providing a summary of the findings organised in terms of the research questions raised in the introductory chapter; it also considers matters such as the limitations of the research, potential areas for future inquiry and recommendations for policy makers.

8.2 Research questions

This thesis, then, explored a case study of the transformative intercultural experiences of postgraduate international students and staff dealing with international education at one UK university (University B, see page 77). It attempted to address the following questions:

- How has the university addressed the changing landscape of HE in regards to internationalisation?
- What are the views/attitudes of international students and staff on the university's approach to internationalisation?
- To what extent do current pedagogy and curriculum accommodate international student needs?

8.2.1 How has the university addressed the changing landscape of HE in regards to internationalisation?

The findings reported in chapter five indicate that even though the university has adopted an internationalisation strategy implicitly embedded in the

current university vision, the international strategy constitutes new territory, without a clear route to follow.

The model of internationalisation which emerges is reactive to internal and external factors affecting the policy direction of HEIs. Senior staff point to a desire for a more collaborative, mutually beneficial approach to internationalisation in order to enhance intercultural experience for all students and staff. However, the tension between the economic and educational rationale for internationalisation is apparent in the data. Even though there are examples of good practice in creating an inclusive academic and social environment, such as the International Pathway Programmes provision, the work of Learning Development tutors or the mobility initiatives, there seems to be division within the university on this matter, with economic reasoning most apparent at the level of senior management, concerned, for instance, with recruitment and income generation.

The university's strategic mission, however, provides no more than superficial information on the development that is needed to internationalise the curriculum, a key component of any internationalisation strategy. Since the 'raison d'être' of universities is education, failure to address this imperative might potentially lead to a further decrease in international students' applications.

It could be argued that the university approach to internationalisation is stronger in rhetoric than in reality. If internationalisation is to be embedded in inclusive, mutually satisfying practices, connections with international students need to be greatly strengthened.

8.2.2 What are the views/attitudes of international students and staff on the university's approach to internationalisation?

The analysis presented in chapter six suggests that students were very eloquent in their views of internationalisation, and were of the opinion that this could only be achieved through effective communication. This was, in

their view, not always happening at the university. There was a lack of the understanding and interchange required to make the university and the relationships within it international.

A fairly common theme that arose across the stories was the lack of regular interaction with home students. Without data from home students' perceptions of international students and their contribution to the university, it is difficult to draw firm conclusions. The fact, however, that my attempts to engage home students in the study were unsuccessful suggested a reluctance to expose their views on international students and underlines the complex dynamics of the relationship between the two groups. Certainly, from the perspectives of international students, there were few opportunities to make their opinions heard: not in the classroom, not in regular interactions with fellow students, not with faculty members or other staff. In fact, the culture of the campus with its separate 'welcome' events encouraged international student to create a 'ghetto', consequently replicating the stereotyping of international students as being exclusive, not mixing with home students and drawing boundaries between different national groups.

There were recurrent references in both policy documents and promotional material about the benefits of having international students at the university, for example, that their presence enriches the campus, and encourages cross-cultural exchange of knowledge and ideas. However, students did not explicitly comment on this diversity. In the final analysis, the celebration of diversity was isolated and was confined to learning experiences outside classrooms or of social life more generally.

After arrival, international students became invisible. The message that they received through their classroom and social interactions was that "no one was interested." The data strongly suggest that diversity was not encouraged and that, in order to be successful, students had to conform to dominant cultural, linguistic and social practices. The unfriendliness of social spaces discouraged newcomers from participating. International students were rarely treated as a resource, as bringing anything of value, or contributing to

the learning and social spaces.

The narratives of participants offer copious evidence that international students are seen as 'Cultural Others', labelled and described as a group with certain characteristics. This view leads to a divide in the university community of which they are an important part. It also hints at a superficial engagement with international students based on their nationality and the 'benefit' they bring to the university.

In spite of this general exclusion, it is the international students themselves who were becoming internationalised. They were learning to navigate different contexts, in a different language, and also developing international perspectives on their lives. They were developing networks outside their home and connections that were moving them towards a cosmopolitan identity.

The influences on the international student experience, then, are many and complex. The social networks the students joined formed their own multifunctional communities of practice, in which culture and language influenced students' sense of self. They can be seen as crucial to an understanding of the lived experience of the international students in HE.

In terms of staff attitudes to internationalisation, there have been some efforts to re-imagine a more genuine internationalisation, which have impacted on virtually all aspects of the university's activities. In particular, the educational rationale has been clearly stressed at the level of individuals with teaching responsibilities who are in more direct contact with students. Those individuals enthusiastically enumerated examples of good practice when integrating internationalisation in their practice. The discussions also made the staff aware that this approach requires openness to new ways of thinking, skills, attitudes and willingness to create spaces for all students to succeed.

8.2.3 To what extent do current pedagogy and curriculum accommodate international student needs?

The participants' accounts confirmed that the presence of international students on university campuses did not automatically bring about the internationalisation of pedagogy and curriculum and that broader initiatives were required, such us using international students' prior knowledge to diversify the curriculum, enhancing staff engagement levels with internationalisation across university and cross-cultural communication training for lecturers. Staff shared their ups and downs in meeting international students' needs and identified a number of 'gaps' in practices, which aimed to deliver effective learning for all. Likewise, students opened up and shared their insights into their journeys to become autonomous learners in a less structured learning environment.

There have been instances of cultural clashes between students and practitioners. The values that formed students' perceptions of the purpose of university education, the role of the teacher and the responsibilities of a student were often divergent. However, the majority of staff, particularly the EAP staff, the International Pathway Programmes staff and Learning Development Tutors had a deeper understanding of the complexity of the situation. For example, they suggested moving away from concepts of fixed identity towards a deeper exploration of students' individual selves and offered courses that developed global and multi-cultural perspectives through curriculum development.

The growing numbers of international students have had a visible impact on teaching practices. The majority of staff acknowledged that they had made small changes in both their teaching and learning practices and in their values, thus recognising cultural influences on pedagogy. This readiness to adjust indicates the potential of individuals in the UK HE system to lead the way to a more nuanced approach to internationalisation.

Globalisation has generated a new set of circumstances, which learning and teaching at the university need to address, if learners are to be taught

effectively. The data from this study indicates that some aspects of current pedagogy and curriculum imply that western education is intrinsically superior. To address this issue, Learning Development Tutors suggested introducing new ways of thinking about international education aimed at encouraging diverse perspectives on learning.

The student experiences presented here suggested that the social context of learning could serve as a catalyst for improving the quality of learning experiences. International students talked about actively constructing their social contexts, and, through 'communities of practice', such as the 'EAP' club, the Taiwanese and Thai Student Society or international student Facebook groups.

8.3 Contribution and implications

This thesis contributes to the understanding of the intercultural experiences of students and staff in an international education setting, and has implications for academic debate, policy development and practice within HE institutions more broadly.

8.3.1 Contribution to knowledge

This project has adopted a theoretical framework distinct from most other researchers in the field. Appadurai's notion 'Imagined Worlds' (1990) and Bhabha's 'Third Space' (1994), complemented by Edward and Usher's 'Pedagogy of (Dis)location' (2000) and Wenger's 'Communities of Practice' (1998) make it possible to capture the complexities of studying and working in an international education setting and provide valuable support for the idea that the university where the research was undertaken is failing to fully exploit the potential benefits.

The findings demonstrate the usefulness of the concept of 'Eduscape' (as discussed in chapter 3) in identifying dimensions of internationalisation that are presently invisible, such as the recognition of international students as valuable cultural resources for 'Internationalisation at Home'. The notion of 'Eduscape' could also be used to create an awareness of the lived experience

of students and professionals working with international students.

The analysis of student narratives through the lens of an 'Eduscape' also reveals the complex relationship among the intersecting scapes associated with studying abroad, thus challenging the essentialist view of internationalisation as a straightforward, even celebratory development that only brings benefits. By examining the context, relationships and identities of students and staff, it opens up ideas and possibilities for more inclusive practice.

8.3.2 Implications for policy

The general understanding of internationalisation is that it is a process of integrating intercultural and international dimensions in all areas of the university. The current response, however, is largely limited to increasing numbers. Nonetheless, there are many positive developments, although not 'officially' identified as internationalisation.

The current add-on approach cannot guarantee that the objectives of internationalisation will be met. Genuine internationalisation should be seen as an on-going process rather than a product. When a university adopts a market model of internationalisation, it needs also to pay attention to 'customer satisfaction.' Assuming that 'happy customers' improve word-of-mouth reputation, recruiting efforts may be better served by ensuring the satisfaction and retention of current international students, recognized as a key influence in recommendations to new students. This approach would support the goal of maintaining the overall prestige, status and reputation of the university in international rankings.

Re-envisioning internationalisation must first include an examination of the market/competitive model of internationalisation, which involves naming the ways in which economic globalisation pervades the processes and practices of internationalisation. The student experiences reported in this study illustrated the many connections between globalisation and the internationalisation of the university. It is important, then, that these

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experiences should be related to systemic and structural issues rather than being seen in terms of individual difficulty. An acknowledgment of the economic dimensions would thus encourage resistance to and destabilisation of the negative impact of globalisation.

The university needs to address the changing landscape of HE by developing stronger connections with the international students themselves. Only in this way will it be possible to embed internationalisation more comprehensively in wide-ranging, mutually gratifying practices. One solution might be to use the notion of 'Eduscape' as a basis from which to theorize the many dimensions of internationalisation. For example, the welcome events should invite both home and international students and university accommodation should not create 'ghettos' of home and international students.

Internationalisation is not a neutral policy but a vibrant process that involves the complex the social, cultural, political and economic dimensions of globalisation, and its impact on HE. Acknowledging this complexity can lead educators and policy makers to avoid the damaging effects of economic imperatives and encourage a shift towards more caring and ethical practices.

An internationalisation strategy is central to the development of HE in the twenty first century. If it is to be efficient then the institution must be clear what it means by internationalisation, as this is a much-disputed term. Consequently, the organisation must set out clearly the development needed to meet its international goals and these must inevitably include the issues arising from a diverse student population. If the economic 'good' is, as asserted by Harris (2011), prioritised over the educational goals, it might ultimately result in a lack of credibility for the institution's courses.

8.3.3 Implications for practice

There appears to be very little guidance for staff at the university on approaches to pedagogy and curriculum that support intercultural communication. While there are isolated examples of good practice and an emerging awareness of approaches that might promote intercultural

competences, there is little evidence of attempts to develop a coherent overall approach to pedagogy and curriculum.

In addition, there needs to be a closer relationship between informal and formal learning and a recognition of the importance of the social context of learning through, for example, the development of mentoring schemes. The university needs to provide opportunities for all new staff and students to collaborate with an existing student or a staff member, ideally from a different culture, to maximize the benefits of the cross-cultural exchange.

Leask (2009) notes that improved interactions between home and international students are dependent on the way we use both the formal and informal curricula to encourage and reward intercultural engagement, a key outcome of an internationalised curriculum. However, this requires a campus environment and culture that motivate and reward interaction between international and home students both inside and outside classroom.

While it is unrealistic to suggest we cease to use 'international', geographic or ethnic labels or problematic conceptual terms such as 'culture', these descriptions need to be used with awareness of their complexity. A more considered approach to the language we use to describe each other and the learning context in which we interact might go some way to improving intercultural communication. We should also consider ways forward that will take account of situatedness of social, educational and cultural practices in universities (Ryan and Louie, 2007).

Internationalised university experiences cannot be achieved by simply increasing casual exposure between home and international students (Harrison, 2007). Rather, the tasks and activities that require students to engage in intercultural interaction should have meaning, purpose and authenticity in the students' personal and academic contexts.

In the quest for a more inclusive understanding of what internationalisation involves, this should not be presented as a twofold relationship of international and home or self and other (Pierce, 2003) but as a complex site of struggle, tension and conflict. By the same token, this 'troublesome space' in which intercultural communication occurs should be perceived as useful and transformative rather than problematic (Savin-Baden, 2008).

On the level of social practices, the university needs to address the tensions between home and international students, and the lack of inclusion, consideration of and thoughtfulness about the needs of international students. The lack of such support is a serious oversight on the part of the university. By the same token, new ways of looking at teaching and learning need to be developed that do not rely simply on assumptions of previous experience. It may be useful to abandon the idea of learning styles associated with international students. Instead, the universities should adapt a wide variety of approaches to embrace the diverse 'learning cultures' and to level the playing field for more meaningful interactions between all students and staff (Davies and Ecclestone, 2008).

8.4 Study limitations

Whilst this thesis has illustrated the experience of postgraduate international students, teaching staff and those in management roles, what is missing, are the perceptions of home students. Although originally planned, I was not able to access this group. In addition, I was not able to secure interviews with senior management of the marketing and student recruitment department. The missing information would be extremely valuable in understanding of how to facilitate integration between the two cohorts of students as well as establishing the university's alleged lack of comprehensive internationalisation strategy. Finally, the thesis does not provide insights into teaching and learning facilitators' work, which would shed more light into the institution's passion for creative pedagogy.

In addition, as the research participants in this project are international postgraduate students and staff in the UK, another limitation of the study is that the findings cannot be generalised to other international student groups, such as undergraduates or another national context, such as the USA or Australia.

Other possible limitations concern my personal experiences in a variety of international education settings and my insider status in the research process. Although knowledge of, and familiarity with, the settings are vital to the research (Bourdieu *et al.*, 1999), predetermined mind-sets, opinions and values may have limited my analysis and interpretation of the phenomenon under investigation. Glaser (1978) argues that, in a sense, researchers with no preconceived knowledge of the research topics under investigation could be an advantage.

8.5 Suggestions for future research

Future research in the area should explore the experiences of other student groups, especially the dynamics between both international and home students. The possibilities include the use of different research methodology and data collection instruments to investigate the experiences of international students. A mixed method approach that combines both qualitative and quantitative data might better represent the larger population, at the same time as obtaining in-depth information from the participants. In addition, other forms of data collection, such as participants' reflective diaries, shadowing or analysing social media accounts, could be used to enhance the trustworthiness of a study with a longitudinal design.

Despite the fact that there has been a significant increase in academic research on international students, little effort has been made to critically and systematically review the latest studies of their experience in the UK. Such a review could usefully establish research trends and offer critical appraisal of research designs. An undertaking of this kind would provide us

with a panoramic view of the latest research landscape in the field of and help us identify issues upon which future research should focus.

Future research could also investigate issues such as troublesome spaces in particular teaching, learning and assessment environments; issues that help determine who succeeds and who drops out; and how intercultural communication can be improved.

Finally, the majority of the participants in my study were females, both students and staff. However, due to time constraints, I was not able to analyse gender as a variable in my study. This focus would provide some insights into how international female students and staff frame their identity and position themselves in the context of creative arts. This approach would give a voice to international female students and add to the feminist research studies and feminist arts education in international higher education context.

8.6 Recommendations

An important aim of this study has been to enhance the experiences of both staff and students in HE. While the debate on more sustainable approaches is at a very early stage, a number of recommendations for both policy makers and teaching staff on how this aim can be achieved flow from the findings of this study:

- Leaders must clearly articulate internationalisation in the institutional mission and core values
- Leaders need to recognise the ethical dimensions as well as the economic imperatives of internationalisation
- Leaders must recognise the breadth and depth of internationalisation from the top at macro and on the ground at micro levels to build a broadly supportive institutional culture that views internationalisation as an institutional priority and an imperative

- Leaders must implement internationalisation through concrete programmes, activities and projects (e.g. expanding the number of students from diverse backgrounds, integration of international and home students on campuses, extending study abroad opportunities for all programmes, developing cross-border research partnerships and collaborations, internationalising the on-campus environment and curriculum).

- Leaders need to listen attentively to feedback from both staff and students about their experiences of implementing university policy, and to respond appropriately

- Cross-cultural communication training should be provided for all university stakeholders, including administrators, policy makers and educators in issues related to internationalisation

- Leaders of Student Services and Support units should sensitise offices and staff to the kinds of challenges experienced by international students, and particularly recent arrivals and develop culturally informed approaches to problem solving, such as induction programmes for all students or provision of student accommodation for both home and international students

- Staff should be encouraged to adopt more interactive pedagogy, allowing space for critical reflection on students' own and others' backgrounds

- Academic schools should recognise their pivotal role they play in curriculum and research in the implementation of internationalisation

- Academic schools should define their goals for internationalisation through more active engagement with international opportunities

- Learning Development Tutors should partner with academic schools and academic leadership to spread language awareness across curriculum and to develop learner-centred pedagogies that are responsive to international students' needs

8.7 Endnote

To conclude, Appadurai's (2001) concept of weak and strong internationalisation has been used in my study to reconceptualise the meaning of a more sustainable internationalisation. 'Weak' internationalisation is essentially a superficial engagement with the issues whilst 'strong' internationalisation entails a deeper, more sophisticated, and genuine desire to explore what it means to become internationalised. The beauty of Appadurai's (2001) theory is that, in a time when internationalisation processes in HE *and* definitions, concepts, and models of the internationalisation of HE are becoming more and more complex (Knight 2004, de Wit 2002), it allows us to place an institution's approach (indeed, even that of an individual, a department or even a school) along a continuum ranging from 'weak' to 'strong'. Internationalisation, then, can be defined as a 'personal journey of deconstruction and reconstruction' (Sanderson, 2004: 16) that

> ... shows the extent and manner in which globalising
> processes are mediated on the ground, in the flesh and
> 'inside the head' ... paying attention to diverse peoples and
> places, and their complex and contradictory experiences of,
> reactions to, and engagements with various aspects of
> globalisation as these intersect with their lives and identities.
>
> (Kenway and Fahey, 2006: 267)

It is my hope that this study has made a contribution to this journey.

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Appendix A: Data analysis - main themes

Initial codes	Main themes and sub-themes	Research questions	Theory
Accommodation, Induction, Welcome Event, Integration, Learning, Teaching, Assessment, Feedback, IELTS, English Language, Student Union, Social Life, Library, University Space, Intercultural communication, Intercultural competence, Cultural Capability, Valuable quotes, Reasons of studying abroad, Strategies, Curriculum , Policy Implementation, Policy level, First impressions, Stereotyping, Inclusivity, Communities of practice, Feeling of isolation, Challenges of dealing with international students, International student support, Study abroad, Mobility	**Addressing the changing landscape of HE from the top** Issues at policy level Issues at implementation level	How has the university addressed the changing landscape of HE in regards to internationalisation?	Edward and Usher's 'Pedagogy of (Dis)location' Appadurai's 'Theory of Indigenisation' with Beck's 'Eduscape'
	Dealing with internationalisation on the ground Students' attitudes towards internationalisation Staff attitudes to internationalisation The start of the journey - slippery beginnings	What are the views/attitudes of international students and staff on the university's approach to internationalisation?	Bhabha's 'Third Space' Wenger's 'Community of Practice'
	Adapting pedagogy and curriculum Internationalisation of Pedagogy Internationalisation of Curriculum Assessment and feedback Coping with Language	To what extent do current pedagogy and curriculum accommodate international student needs?	

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Appendix B: Ethics documentation

Participant information sheet

I would like to invite you to take part in a PhD research study about enhancing international PG students' experience.

What is the study?
The study is part of PhD research that I am undertaking at the Institute of Education, University of Reading on the international PG student experience in HE. Drawing on the views of international students, and staff members, the findings will form the basis for discussion of ways in which improvements might be achieved at the university and more widely.

Why have I been chosen to take part?
You have been invited to take part in the project because you have been identified as an international PG student or a staff member.

Do I have to take part?
It is entirely up to you whether you participate. You may also withdraw at any time during the project, without any repercussions, by contacting the researcher using the details above.

What will happen if I take part?
A focus group will be conducted at a time convenient to you, lasting between 45 to 60 minutes, in which you will contribute to a discussion on the international PG student experience from the perspectives of teaching, learning and assessment. With your permission, this discussion will be recorded and transcribed. After the focus group, there will be a possibility to take part in further study in a form of a one-to-one interview, if you are interested.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?
The information you give will remain confidential and will only be seen by the researcher and his supervisor. You will not be identified in the final PhD thesis although some of your responses will be used in it in an anonymised form. Taking part will in no way influence the grades you receive on your course. Information will not be shared with teachers. I anticipate that the findings of the study will guide staff approaches to teaching that would support the development of intercultural skills in learning communities. A copy of the findings of the study will be made available to you by contacting the researcher.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only the student researcher, Tomasz John, and the researcher's supervisor, Professor Viv Edwards, will have access to the records. The data will be destroyed after 5 years. The data will be presented in my PhD thesis and possibly in subsequent academic publications. If you are happy to take part, please complete the attached consent form.

This application has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. Thank you for your time.

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Supervisor: Professor Viv Edwards
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Consent form

<u>Student/Staff Consent Form</u>

I have read the Information Sheet about the project.

I understand what the purpose of the research is and what you want me to do. All my questions have been answered. I agree to take part in this project.

I understand that it is my choice to help with this research and that I can stop at any time, without giving a reason and that it won't affect me adversely in any way.

I have received a copy of this Consent Form and of the Information Sheet.

Please tick as appropriate:

I am willing to take part in a focus group where the researcher will take notes.   ☐

I am willing to take part in a focus group which will be recorded.   ☐

I am also willing to take part in an interview.   ☐

Name: ………………………………..

Signed: …………………………………..

Student: Tomasz John
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Appendix C: Focus Groups - topic guide for students

1. **How do the current teaching, learning and assessment methods accommodate the international postgraduate students' needs?**
   - Why did you choose to study the course you're currently studying?
   - How do you experience studying here? What, for you, are the most enjoyable aspects of studying here? Give examples.
   - What is most challenging about studying on your course?
   - How are you coping with the course assignments? Do you receive enough support from staff?
   - To what extent do you believe your course tutors recognise the need of adjusting the programme for students from different cultures?
   - Are you aware of any activities in your institution and on your course that have been developed specifically to support students from outside the UK?

2. **To what extent do structures such as international student services, International Offices, and International Departments meet the needs of international PG students?**
   - Have you ever used any services provided by the Library and Students Services? (EAP seminars, International Student Advisor, International Department, Librarians, Study Advisors, Counsellors)? If yes, give examples and say how helpful did you fine them.
   - Is there anything else the university could provide specifically for international students to enhance your experience?

3. **How do international PG students perceive home students and what impact does this have on their student journey?**
   - What is it like to be an international student on your course, is it easy or difficult?
   - Can you describe the nature of the relationship between international and home students on the course and at university?
   - Is there anything being done by the lecturers and teachers to promote integration between these two groups of students. Can you give examples? If not, what do you think could be done to enable this?

4. **Which communities do international PG students become members of while studying and what influence can these communities have on their learning process?**
   - Do you belong to any university or external clubs or societies?
   - If yes, what are they and why did you become members of them?
   - Who are the other members of the club/society?
   - Do the clubs/societies you belong to help you with settling in the UK?
   - Would you like there were any particular clubs/societies/extra-curriculum groups that would help you to succeed socially and academically?
   - If you were to decide on creation of such society, what would you call it, what would be the purpose of it and, who would you invite?

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University of
Reading

Focus Group and Survey - topic guide for staff

1. Exploring the terms

- What does internationalisation mean to you?

2. The extent of internationalisation within your discipline, department and in your institution.

- How much has internationalisation of HE affected your job responsibilities?

- What activities in your department/institution have been developed specifically to support students (or staff) from outside the UK?

3. The effects of internationalisation on teaching and learning

- What impact has working with students from a range of cultural backgrounds had on your approach to teaching?

- How about, when you've come to design the curriculum?

- In your experience, how do international postgraduate students find the traditional British/art college-based teaching methods?

- What about assessment, how do international students cope with the assessment methods?

- What strategies do you use to help students who do not speak English as their first language maximize their learning experience?

4. The challenges international students face, and their successes

Interactions and group dynamics

- In your view, for international students, what impact does working with students from a range of cultural backgrounds have on their interactions and group work in the classroom?
- How have you found your interactions with students - in lectures, tutorial sessions, group work, etc.?

Challenges
- Can you give examples of some the challenges you've faced as a teacher when facilitating/organising group work with international students?
- Have you noticed any challenges that students have faced?

Successes

- Has working with students from a range of cultural backgrounds added value to you as a practitioner?

Internationalisation at home

- What have you learnt, as a person and as an educator, to challenge your beliefs, as a result of being in a culturally diverse environment?

5. How internationalisation could be developed further in your discipline and institution

- How teaching and learning in an international landscape could be developed further on your course/within the university?
- Is there anything you would like to add or clarify? Perhaps there is something important to you that we missed?