

THE IMPACT OF INTERNATIONALIZATION ON TEACHING AND LEARNING: A  
QUALITATIVE EXPLORATORY EXTREME CASE STUDY IN A BUSINESS PHD  
PROGRAM AT AN AMERICAN PUBLIC RESEARCH UNIVERSITY

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE DIVISION OF THE UNIVERSITY  
OF HAWAI'I at MĀNOA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR

THE DEGREE OF  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN  
EDUCATION

DEC 2018

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Keywords: internationalization, transformation, cross-cultural learning and engagement, PhD  
education, case study, curriculum

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## **Acknowledgements**

I benefited tremendously from the literature on doctoral student socialization, international student experiences, and intercultural communication. The scholarship empowers me to realize the situation and position that I am in as an individual with a fluid identity. Without that knowledge and cognitive map that it entails, I wouldn't be able to initiate many meaningful conversations and engage with some of the opportunities that have contributed to my personal transformative intercultural learning.

I thank my committee, particularly my chairs, Dr. Phan Le Ha and Dr. David Ericson. Without their help and support, I wouldn't be able to finish this journey. Thank you to Dr. David Ericson for always being there for me when I needed him the most. I am grateful for the support of my research participants. Their trust and sharing made my completion possible.

Special thanks go to Dr. Phan Le Ha for her advising. She directed me to the literature of internationalization to have a thorough understanding of issues related to international students and intercultural learning. Her expertise and advising have enabled my transformation from a doctoral student to a junior researcher. I am always thankful for her constructive ideas and for the fact that she holds high standards. Under her guidance, I feel I have received a valuable training.

I will always remember Dr. Christopher S. Collins. I met him at a critical time, when I was full of self-doubt, confusion, and uncertainty about my capability and potential. He saw me through. I still remember the day that he told me, "You have the knowledge and capability, all you lack is confidence." He invited me to join a whole day retreat on academic writing that he and his wife Dr. Kristy Collins provided for all the graduate students. It was free and they

offered us nutritious food that satisfied our stomach, our brains, and our souls. For them, I was simply one of the many students. But for me, I was touched beyond words.

I was very grateful to have Dr. Niki E. Libarios, Jr. as my former boss. He recruited me to train, nurture, and support. At his team, I felt comfortable to grow as an individual and a professional. He was a mentor. From him, I learnt more about how to be a parent, a child, a spouse, a professional, an individual, and a community member. Like a light, his life illuminated for me many possibilities regarding how an individual can live a meaningful life.

A very special gratitude goes to Denise Nakaoka, Dr. Adam Tanners, Geri Salvador, Kori Ricci, Reid Kuioka, Alyssa Kapaona, Jolene Muneno, Laurie Akana, Denise Abara, LaJoya Shelly, Keli'i Ruth, Toni Oyama, Dolores Black, Jorin Young, and Leatrice Sakamoto. They are my OSAS Ohana. When I first joined them I was a dry sponge, longing for knowledge of the social and cultural norms in this country and at this state, they have been enriching my understanding. I thank Judy Ensing and Marcella Johanna Deproto for expanding my knowledge of internationalization. Dr. Chisato Nonaka is my peer, my best friend, and my sister. She helped me with many struggles.

I thank all my ancestors in the Families of Xiong and Li. They created the spirit in my family and passed it on from generation to generation. I feel deeply humbled and extremely fortunate to accept the torch of knowledge and wisdom from my parents. It lights my way, sharpens my awareness, and enables me to envision the future. I thank my kids, my husband, and my parents. Because of them, I feel free to be free and I am brave to be free.

Years later, when my boys ask me what my doctoral education had offered me, or what I was most proud of in that journey, I will say, "I was able to have a full life, a transformative life."

## **ABSTRACT**

Exploring the impact of internationalization on teaching and learning, this study employs a qualitative exploratory extreme case study at an internationally oriented business PhD program by analyzing the experiences of international students, domestic students, and faculty. The four research questions are: What is the meaning of internationalization at the level of doctorate? How, if at all, does internationalization impact teaching and learning? Why has there been an impact or not? What is the major attitude in the learning community towards internationalization? Most of the findings are consistent with the literature.

This study enriches and adds new dimensions to the inherent challenges, ambiguity, confusion, problems, as well as the complicity and complexity within the practice of internationalizing a PhD program. It provides new data on the indirect and pervasive impact of the values, beliefs, cultures, and traditions within the academe on the teaching and learning in a doctoral program. These factors have exerted the influence via shaping the purpose of doctoral education, the solitary academic culture, the difficulty in publishing international research at top journals, the implicit pressure from future job and career, the established status of U.S. dominance in theory development, and other ingrained intellectual traditions practiced in the academic world.

Both the student and faculty data emphasized the crucial role of faculty in internationalizing the curriculum, teaching, and research. Their comments disclosed the gap between international education and intercultural education. This study explores difficulties in enabling international education to become intercultural education at a business PhD program. The importance of learning ecology and the creation of necessity became obvious in enabling

transformative intercultural learning. If the academy, higher education administrators, faculty, and students are committed to fulfill the intercultural promise of internationalization, there needs to be a serious discussion on how to respond to the impact of some of the academic value, culture, and tradition on local practices. This study provides theoretical implication, policy implication, and suggestions for future research. It contributes value to the discourse of internationalization by engaging with the scholarly conversation on rethinking, reimagining, and rehumanizing internationalization through the lens of transformation.

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **Why This Project?**

Since I first stepped foot in Hawaii—the land of a country that is thousands of miles away from my home country China, internationalization has become part of my life. I am interested in understanding the meaning and impact of internationalization. Generally speaking, I feel intrigued by questions like if and how internationalization changes one's thinking, behavior, choice, and motivation.

In the past few years, I happened to experience different roles at my university. These roles have brought opportunities for me to actively engage in internationalization. I came as an international student. I gained two years of teaching experience at two colleges. Since 2015, I have worked closely with two university administrators who supervise international programs at their own institutions. We have been collaborating and offering intercultural communication workshops related to internationalization at regional and national conferences of the Association of International Educators (NAFSA). Through those workshops, I learned more of the practical concerns from university administrators and international student advisors. I also presented my papers related to international student experiences at other conferences. It was not rare that some graduate faculty would approach me and inquire of behaviors of their international students in the classroom. In general, with these experiences of different roles, my overall impression is that internationalization is welcome by many university groups (e.g. faculty, international students, administrators, and international student advisors). However, at varying degrees people from these groups feel uncertain about what they can do to better the practice. They expect more research to better inform their work. Their feeling of uncertainty and their need for more research to improve teaching, advising, and program planning has been corroborated by the

scholarship. As de Wit and Hunter (2015) put it, at the current stage of internationalization, many universities are walking into uncharted waters.

It is natural that each member of the university tends to imagine or interpret internationalization from their own experiences. For instance, for an international student, internationalization is more straightforward in the learning experience than the institutional mission statement or strategic plan. In the classroom, internationalization is about intercultural teaching, learning, and communication rather than dealing with a mere concrete number of internationalization indicators (e.g. international programs, student mobility). As a result, for an instructor, teaching international students is more about articulating expectations and dealing with a different type of relational learning. For an intercultural communication trainer, supporting internationalization means facilitating the understanding and communication between international students and their host intuitions. In other words, different university groups approach internationalization differently. Although each group is doing the best job in their roles, without deliberate efforts and strategic planning, it is possible that our endeavors are not united and that we may not work toward the same direction.

Similar to what Fabricius (2014), Friesen (2013), and Leask (2010) have found in their studies, I believe that the process of internationalization is ultimately personal. This indicates a relational perspective, which means that individual experience of internationalization is complex, nuanced, and qualitative in nature (Friesen, 2013, p. 221). Considering the strength qualitative study, as I later explain in the Chapter 4 under the section of *Justification of Qualitative Study*, qualitative study is the best approach to understand these experiences.

I also share the same assumption held by Marginson and Sawir (2011) that our approach to intercultural education needs to be rethought from the ground up (p. 9). Despite the fact that

there are many possibilities to conduct research on the meaning and practice of internationalization, I chose to examine the phenomenon within and outside the classroom by inquiring of different groups of participants' life experiences.

Internationalization at the individual level means engaging with all of the real learning, interaction, curriculum, advising, and extracurricular activities available in a department. All participants (faculty, international students, and domestic students) actively involved in the learning community have a fair share in creating and shaping the environment. To better the practice of internationalization at the departmental level, it is of great significance to invite all parties to talk about, articulate, and advocate for their ideas and expectations about internationalization. I think it is necessary to incorporate all parties' perceptions in my study for the formation of a holistic picture of the impact of internationalization on teaching and learning.

Given the current fiscal reality of universities, it is more stringent than before for institutional leaders to think about how to wisely spend money and human resources improving the practice of internationalization. Hence, it is urgent to put all minds together—the minds of the faculty, international and domestic students—to come up with ideas of better policy to support and improve the practice of internationalization.

In this study, I select Marginson's (2014) student formation theorization as the working framework for interpreting participants' experience. There is a personal reason for this decision. Personally, Marginson's theory makes more sense of my doctoral educational learning experience (as an individual experiencing cultural transition and learning) than other theories (e.g. doctoral student socialization theories, cultural shock theory). Acknowledging that the international student does not have control over the situation (Marginson, Nyland, Sawir, & Forbes-Mewett, 2010, p. 74, p. 394), Marginson stresses the role of individual agency in

forming a student's learning; while highlighting that the international student is a self-determined agent, Marginson underscores that the process of international and intercultural learning has been romanticized (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 146-147). He made a fair statement on the relationship between the learning context and individual cross-cultural learning.

Lastly, I try to address the limitation that de Wit (2013) and Turner and Robson (2008, 2009) have identified in the current literature. The discourse on internationalization is often dominated by a small group of stakeholders: higher education leaders, governments and international bodies. Other stakeholders, the student and faculty voice in particular, are heard far less often (de Wit, 2013, cited in de Wit, 2016, p. 16; Urban & Palmer, 2014; Peterson, 2010; Turner & Robson, 2009, p. 17). Thus, those who should benefit from its implementation have insufficiently influenced the discourse. Yet if the impact of internationalization is felt as profoundly as indicated in the literature, then it must be experienced keenly by those most intimately involved in the process. My exploration of academics, domestic and international students' experiences within an internationalizing environment, therefore, makes a useful contribution to the broader discourse of the internationalization of higher education.

All things considered, in this project, I have conducted a qualitative case study to examine the impact of internationalization on teaching and learning at the individual and departmental level for policy implication. Specifically, it investigates the teaching and learning experiences of three groups of participants (international student, domestic student, and faculty) who are the most important practitioners in international and intercultural education, and it is guided by Marginson's theorization of self-formation.

## **Research Objectives**

This study attempts to engage in and contribute to the conversation of rethinking, reimagining, redefining, and rehumanizing international education<sup>1</sup>. This research tries to achieve three goals:

- (1) To unpack the complexity of teaching and learning in an international environment.
- (2) To look for possibilities of mutual adjustment in the local community and international students for better teaching and learning experiences.
- (3) To offer policy implications for institutional managers (e.g. department, college, and university levels) who are committed to internationalization at home.

## **Research Context and Scope**

My research studies the internationalization of higher education, which is susceptible to the social, economic, and political environment. Globally, the neoliberal global imaginary has become a dominant force shaping the discourses of education policy across nations (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). This imaginary places a great focus on market efficiency and individual liberty (p. 186). In the field of education, market economy and consumer choice are the principles guiding policymaking around the world. Higher education is no longer considered a public good; instead, it is viewed as a tradable commodity selling across national borders.

Within higher education, global ranking has a major impact on universities. Universities are making efforts to become visible to the world and enhance international reputation. In the past 30 years (since the late 1990s), it has become fashionable that higher education institutes internationalize the campus, trying to bring in more international students and make more

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<sup>1</sup> International education: in this paper, international education is interchangeable with two terms, the internationalization of higher education, and internationalization.

international connections. This practice also happens in the context of universities that have been pressured to look for external funding sources due to sizeable government funding cuts. Scholars (de Wit & Hunter, 2015; Dirlik, 2012; Turner & Robson, 2008) suggest that universities are national and local institutes. Also, intellectual knowledge and traditions are culturally embedded (Holmes, 2005; Shi, 2011; Trice, 2004; Trice, 2007; Turner, 2006). This can create inherent challenges for internationalizing the campus.

In the United States (U.S.), in recent months at the major higher education newspapers—*University World News*, *Insider Higher Ed*, and *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, renowned commentators (e.g. Elizabeth Redden, Hans de Wit, Jenny Lee, Philip Altbach) on international education concerted remark on the impact of current political changes on the future of internationalization. The outlook appears glooming. Altbach and de Wit (2018) even warn that the era of internationalization might either be finished or at least be on life support. This pessimistic perception of internationalization is relatable to current scholarly concern regarding many severe challenges and intractable problems across academia.

In the scholarship, from the historical perspective, scholars have shown that (1) the current global valuing of internationalization among higher education only started in the 1990s, although the practice of international academic mobility has roots in the Middle Ages and the Renaissance period; (2) the expansion of internationalization has been primarily driven by political and economic reasons; (3) it is time to rethink, reimagine, and rehumanize internationalization; and (4) it is expected to focus attention on the learning outcomes at the home campus, implementing comprehensive internationalization.

At the conceptual level, current scholarship reveals three features: (1) a nascent stage of conceptual development, (2) a rosy picture of internationalization, and (3) a lack of consensus

among scholars, practitioners, and policy makers on the meaning and content of internationalization. There is a variety of conceptual interpretations of what internationalization is. In the literature review chapter, I identified four major interpretations that reflect different rationales and goals. Overall, much of the conceptualization has created a rather positive image of internationalization and what it can bring to the university.

Methodologically, leading scholars jointly point to one direction and recommend one research method for future studies on internationalization. They recommend that qualitative case study is an appropriate research method for understanding the contextualized and relational intercultural teaching and learning experiences. The lens of transformation is an expected theoretical framework for examining cultural learning. Marginson's (Marginson et al., 2010; Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Marginson, 2014) self-formation cultural theorization of internationalization is a newly developed framework for understanding the intercultural relational experience through the lens of transformation.

My research attempts to understand internationalization in the major English-speaking countries, with a particular focus on the United States (U.S.). More specifically, this study pays attention to the impact of internationalization on the teaching and learning in the PhD program at a business college that has been renowned for its active engagement in internationalization. This study investigates the intercultural, educational, and social aspects of internationalization. Internationalization in other countries or regions and internationalization practices abroad are not the focus of this project.

### **Project Description**

Following the lead of renowned scholars (e.g. Jenny Lee, Simon Marginson, and Fazal Rizvi), my dissertation attempts to engage in and contribute to the conversation of rethinking,



reimagining, and rehumanizing internationalization. This study responds to the call to examine the impact of internationalization on the key stakeholders, including the faculty and student, through the lens of transformation. Employing a qualitative case study at the PhD program in the business college at a public research university in the United States, this research seeks to understand the impact of internationalization by examining the intercultural experiences of the faculty, international doctoral students, and domestic doctoral students. In other words, this study focuses on the local practice of teaching, curriculum design, advising, and learning in the international and intercultural environment. Documentation, archival records, short survey interviews, individual case study interviews, student focus group interview, direct observation, and physical artifacts are the main sources of data.

### **Research Questions**

Four questions guide this project.

- (1) What is the meaning of internationalization at the level of doctorate?
- (2) How, if at all, does internationalization impact teaching and learning?
  - a. How does it contribute to teaching, discussion, and the student's cross-cultural learning?
  - b. How does it contribute to the development of curricula, research, and extracurricular activities?
- (3) Why has there been any impact or not?
- (4) What is the major attitude in the learning community towards internationalization?

### **Contribution and Significance**

This dissertation project is a response to a few calls from scholars on the internationalization of higher education, with a particular focus on the major English-speaking

countries. This study tries to shed light on the following gaps and limitations in the literature. (1) There exists a lack of clarity in the conceptualization of internationalization at the departmental and individual levels and for a specific local context (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Friesen, 2013; Knight & de Wit, 1995; Turner & Robson, 2008). (2) There are insufficient data and studies on the impact of internationalization on the education and research experiences at the individual and departmental level (de Wit, Hunter, & Coelen, 2015; Knight, 2008). And (3) the majority of accounts to date have confined the discussion of internationalization to theoretical, policy or market areas; the experiences, expectations, and varied concerns of academics, teachers, and students are limitedly understood and barely have sufficient influence on policy implication (de Wit, 2013, cited in de Wit, 2016; Urban & Palmer, 2014; Peterson, 2010; Turner & Robson, 2009, p. 17). Yet if the impact of internationalization is felt as profoundly as indicated in the literature, then it must be experienced keenly by those most intimately involved in the process.

Further, this project responds to the calls from Jenny Lee (2017), Marginson and Sawir (2011), Marginson (2014), Rizvi (2014), Rizvi and Lingard (2010), Ryan (2012), and Volet and Jones (2012) for reimagining internationalization through the lens of transformation. More specifically, I take advice from these scholars with respect to research design. This means (1) selecting Marginson's self-formation theorization as the guiding framework for data collection and analysis, (2) employing qualitative case study as the research approach, and (3) incorporating the voices of all learners (i.e. faculty, domestic and international students) in the intercultural learning community, not just international students. This project contributes to the understanding of the impact of internationalization on teaching and learning. In doing so, I contribute to the broader discourse on the internationalization of higher education.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

### **The History of the Internationalization of Higher Education<sup>2</sup>**

Historically, the root of the internationalization of higher education can refer back to the Middle Ages and the Renaissance period in the form of student and scholar mobility. Only in roughly the three decades, internationalization has emerged as a popular phenomenon within higher education across the globe (de Wit & Hunter, 2015). The increasing discussion of and engagement in the phenomenon among researchers, policy makers, professional associations, national and international educational organizations, politicians, the business world, and higher education institutional leaders has created an image that internationalization is a meta-trend.

The historical background of its expansion, particularly the motives, main players, and development strategies, clearly shows that internationalization has never been conceived and utilized as a mere educational practice by national and regional governments. Internationalization does not grow in a vacuum. It develops in the soil, space, and even performs on a stage that has been provided by influential policy-makers. Major players can shape as well as limit its direction and potential. Currently, neoliberal thinking dominates the social imaginary of internationalization, which overstates the economic impact of internationalization on higher education and undermines the significance of its social, cultural, and educational aspects. This neoliberal thinking of internationalization narrows its potential and has devastating impact on its sustainability. To steer the practice of internationalization away from a direction where internationalization would become a passing fad, it is time to rethink, reimagine, and rehumanize the internationalization of higher education.

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<sup>2</sup> In the remainder of the paper, internationalization is short for the internationalization of higher education. It is interchangeable with “international education”.

## **The History of Internationalization before the 1990s**

According to Knight and de Wit (1995), prior to the 1990s, the development of internationalization experienced three stages. The historical roots of internationalization can be traced back to the Middle Ages and Renaissance period, when some phenomenon of internationalization already existed, such as the use of Latin as a common language, and the recognition of qualifications and the broadening of experiences and views among religious pilgrims, university students and professors (de Wit & Hunter, 2015; Knight & de Wit, 1995). This is similar to the practice of English as a global language and tool for academic mobility today. Compared to the limited and scattered mobility phenomenon in medieval Europe, internationalization nowadays is a mass-movement across national borders. Due to the very different social, cultural, political and economic circumstances, the resemblance and reference between then and now is limited and possibly superficial (de Wit & Hunter, 2015).

The nationalist period between 1800 and World War II is considered the second stage for the development of international activities in higher education. The two world wars had an impact on the expansion of internationalization. There was an emerging awareness of the importance in studying other countries. Some major influential international organizations were established during this time, such as the Institute of International Education (IIE) in 1919 in the United States (U.S.), the Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD) in Germany in 1925, and the British Council in the U.K. in 1934. Between the two World Wars, there was an increased focus on international cooperation and exchange in higher education (de Wit & Hunter, 2015). Still, as Knight and de Wit (1995) note, the main areas of international academic attention at this stage included the individual mobility of a small group of well-to-do and academically qualified students to the top centers of learning in the world, the export of

academic systems from the European colonial powers to the rest of the world, and cooperation and exchange in academic research.

The third stage of internationalization spans from post-World War II through the 1990s. Political interest in developed countries was the major driver of expansion. After the Second World War and the height of the Cold War, the significance and necessity of understanding and researching other countries became clear to national governments, particularly in the United States (U.S.) and Europe. In other words, the American government and European nations were interested in developing the strategic position of international studies for protecting national security and framing foreign policies. In the early half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, peace and mutual understanding were the declared driving rationales for international education; in reality, national security and foreign policy were the real forces behind the expansion of international programs, and with them came government funding and regulations (de Wit & Merckx, 2012, as cited in de Wit & Hunter, 2015, p. 42). From the post-war period up to the late 1990s, international education was linked to the strategic interests of the developed countries within the broader politics of the Cold War (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, p. 168).

In Europe, with the emergence of Japan as an economic world power, the European Community started to develop an active international higher education policy. During this period internationalization emerged as a process and a strategy. Europe created a group of programs (i.e., the Erasmus program, the Socrates, and the Erasmus+) to guide, support, and facilitate the expansion of international programs. The creation of these programs was not based on educational rationales; rather they had their foundation in the need for more competitiveness and in the development of European Citizenship (de Wit & Hunter, 2015, p. 43). In the 1990s, institutional response to these programs expanded rapidly, and set a clear path for the European

approach to internationalization. The success of this government-initiated top-down practice of internationalization has been recognized as a successful model and envied by many countries.

During the third stage, in addition to the political influence caused by national security and regional competitiveness, goodwill and genuine interest from the academics developed and helped with nation-building projects in newly independent countries. During this period, academic mobility served as overseas international aid across the globe. However, this was not the dominant trend.

### **The Changing Context of Internationalization after the 1990s**

The context of internationalization post the 1990s has been significantly different from the past. The political environment is generally more peaceful and stable. Internationalization has been largely influenced by the era of global knowledge economy. In the knowledge economy, education is no longer a public responsibility (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 291). Instead, it is viewed as a private good and a commodity to be freely traded. Higher education has been listed as one of the twelve areas for trade by the World Trade Organization (Knight, 2008, p. 171). International organizations (e.g. the World Trade Organization and the General Agreement on Trade in Services) provide regulatory framework to encourage international trade in education (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 291). Globalization has removed many barriers for free trade across national borders. This change shapes where future jobs are created. It has an impact on societal expectations on higher education. In the academic field, globalization makes mobility easier. Knowledge sharing and transferring, and academic collaboration across nations are more accessible than before.

Higher education is under a considerable amount of pressure to change, from internal and external sources. Tertiary institutes are experiencing sizeable cut from federal

funding. Expanding internationalization is a choice that higher education institutes have made to respond to the pressure, in an attempt to mitigate the challenging situation. Internally, cosmopolitanism is a long-standing assumption in education; the student demands higher education to be internationalized (Dirlik, 2012, p. 59). Externally, globalization depicts the university as a predominantly market entity governed by the dynamics of global consumer demand. This opens another door for higher education institutes to look for alternative source of funding to resolve fiscal distress (Dirlik, 2012; Hudzik, 2015; Knight, 2008; Turner & Robson, 2008). As a national civic institution, the university has to serve the public, taking into consideration the expectations from the state, elite business interests, and the local people. In this situation, universities are visibly pressured to assume greater strategic responsibilities by rescuing themselves from the ambivalent image of “ivory towers” into functional units of the global political economy (Dirlik, 2012, p. 55).

### **The History of Internationalization after the 1990s**

In the scholarship, the primary driving rationale of recent internationalization is associated with economic reasons, while acknowledging that social and cultural aspects are important. In 1980, the Thatcher Government introduced full-cost fees for international students. This changed the main focus of British higher education for international student recruitment from cooperation to income generation (de Wit & Hunter, 2015). Several years later, Australia enacted similar policies (de Wit & Callan, 1995; de Wit, 2002). Since the 1990s, more countries joined this practice through which higher education is treated as a tradable commodity selling across borders.

In the major English-speaking countries (the U.S., U.K., Canada, Australia, and New Zealand), while capacity building and the embrace of diversity also motivate international

student recruitment, revenue generation has been found to be the major public policy incentive. In Australia, the government has been actively involved in the design and development of international education through setting up the market and issuing regulation policies. International education is a successful industry and a collaboration project between Australian educational institutions and governments (Lawrence & Adams, 2011, cited in Murray & Leask, 2015, p. 198). By analyzing the financial revenue annually generated by international student recruitment (e.g. through tuition and spending) to New Zealand, the U.K., and U.S. economies, Garcia & Villarreal (2014) argue that the major public policy incentive for international student recruitment is the potential financial gains associated with large international student enrollment (p. 131). Scholars (e.g. Dirlik, 2012) notice that the U.K., U.S., Canadian, and Australian universities have growing financial dependence on international student enrollment. Many political, business, and educational leaders in these countries have been promoting internationalization as an effective method for income generation.

In the international higher education export market, the trade relationship is not balanced. The supply countries cluster in the highly developed countries and the demand is largely from the developing countries. The demand is so strong that it surpasses the supply and shows no signs of abating in the coming years (NAFSA, 2015). The flow of knowledge sharing and transferring is mainly unidirectional, from the north to south, the developed to the developing nations. The developed countries, especially the large English-speaking nations, reap the main financial benefits and control most programs (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 294). The “buying” countries are most notably in the fast-developing economies of Asia (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010).



Despite the fact that internationalization has received substantial growth of institutional attention and that its scope and accessibility has been largely expanded, we are at the nascent stage of internationalization. Academic mobility is one of the major indicators of internationalization. Every year millions of students and scholars mobilize across national borders for academic reasons. Many universities across the globe have added internationalization to the institutional strategy and mission statement (de Wit, Hunter, Howard, & Egron-Polak, 2015). The fast-growing expansion of internationalization is taking place at a time that higher education is entering a new territory of positioning itself as a service sector. In the policy area, dealing with issues and implications of trade agreements is relatively new for the higher education sector (Knight, 2008, p. 181). For many universities, they are entering uncharted waters and experiencing uncertainty. This is natural and reasonable at this current stage.

Researchers are positive about the instrumental role of internationalization for increasing intercultural understanding and transforming student learning, yet, empirical studies suggest that it leaves much to be desired. At many universities, internationalization is still implemented as some occasional, sporadic, random, or add-on activities or programs, which presents it as a passing fad instead of a long-term institutional commitment.

### **Active External Players Shaping Internationalization**

The history of internationalization reveals the significance of external players and the social, cultural, economic, and political environment in shaping the direction and potential of internationalization expansion. This section discusses how national policy, government, educational organizations and private foundations have shaped the development of internationalization. National policy, particularly those related to national security, as shown in

the two world wars and the Cold War, has proven itself influential from the very beginning of actively expanding internationalization from the top. The national government executes influence by enacting policies and providing funding, which directly supports or indirectly circumscribes the possibilities of what can be done in internationalization. National educational organizations and influential private foundations have been impacting institutional decision-making via disseminating comparative national and international reports, as shown in the discussion of the impact of the American Council on Education (2012) in the section of *major interpretations* (pp. 45-46).

National security and the political interest of developed countries had an impact prior to the 1990s. At different times the U.S. national government strategically altered the focus of internationalization to satisfy the changing political needs. For example, according to de Wit (2002), the focus of internationalization in the U.S. had changed multiple times to reflect the varying political environment. Before the 1930s it was nearly exclusively focused on Europe. Because of the political clouds of Nazism, it turned to Latin America for international cooperation and exchange. The post-World War II period and the Cold War had a direct impact on the American government's decision to expand international exchange and cooperation. The interval between 1965 and 1980 was further evidence of political consequences on internationalization. The Vietnam War and its domestic call to focus on national issues caused reduced federal support to internationalization.

In the last three decades of internationalization expansion, the national government's role varied in different regions. Nevertheless, scholars repeatedly stress its responsibility and potential in strengthening regulation and improving practice. After comparing two large-scale surveys conducted in the 2013-2014 (the fourth edition of the International Association of

Universities survey and the European Association for International Education survey), Egron-Polak et al. (2015) found that direct national and regional governmental internationalization policies have been the major external drivers of internationalization expansion in Europe, but this was not true in North America. This finding has been supported by de Wit (2002), Hudzik (2015), and McBride, Humphries and Knight-Grofe (2015). Internationalization in Europe has been more of a top-down movement initiated by the state, national and regional government. In the U.S., there has been no national or governmental policy that directly guides campus action; the main sources of advice and guidance are from the private sector; the actions of each institution in regards to internationalization depend on the decision of institutional leaders; internationalization must depend on self-financing mechanisms (E1-Khawwas, 1994, cited in de Wit, 2002, p. 36). Other studies expose the weakness in the current internationalization policy area and emphasize that the improvement is beyond the control of the university. In another policy analysis study on the role of the Canadian federal government, Trilokekar (2010) found inherent structural limitations that impact the ability of the federal government to influence coherent policy development related to internationalization. There is mutual skepticism, distrust and a lack of communication between the university and governments, with limited input from academics in policy development (p. 143). In Australia, Marginson, Nyland, Sawir, and Forbes-Mewett (2010) examined policies regarding international student security. Their book repeatedly underlines the limited capacity of national and state policy regulation to redress problems beyond the campus.

The comparative educational reports based on large-scale surveys at the national or international levels are producing lasting effects on institutional decision-making. As higher education ventures into the unknown, it is important and helpful to hear successful stories in

other institutions or countries. National organizations, influential private foundations, even renowned universities are collecting and analyzing data to inform policy decisions. Some organizations even evaluate the internationalization performance of colleges and universities. Their findings are accessible to the public. This creates indelible influence on the higher education community.

### **Time to Rethink, Redefine, Reimagine, and Rehumanize Internationalization**

In the last three decades of internationalization expansion (from the late 1990s to date), empirical studies and commentators' observations tend to suggest an urgency and necessity to rethink, reimagine, and rehumanize internationalization. This urgency and necessity is reflected in the scholarly concern on the narrow commercial approach and the unrealized intercultural potential of internationalization. In the field, a number of leading scholars are making immense calls for policy makers and educational practitioners to rethink, redefine, reimagine and rehumanize what internationalization is and should be. There have been conversations discussing the end of internationalization, searching for an alternative to counteract the dominant neoliberal thinking of internationalization, and criticizing the practice of reducing international education to enrollment counts and bottom lines. These warning bells clearly transmit a message that it is time to reflect on the practice and pay attention to the values of internationalization.

Theoretically, five rationales (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 2005) motivate higher education to engage in internationalization: (1) political, (2) economic, (3) social-cultural, (4) academic, and (5) international reputation. In implementation, scholars suspect that the benefit of internationalization is narrowly focused on the economic aspect. According to national and international survey reports (e.g. ACE, 2012; Egron-Polak et al, 2015; Knight, 2008), higher education engages in internationalization for diverse reasons and the economic rationale remains

on the lower rank of the major driving rationales. This is different from commentators' observation and contradicts with findings from empirical studies. As indicated in the work of Altbach and Knight (2007), Friesen (2013), Hudzik (2015), Lee et al (2010), Lobnibe (2009), Olcott (2009), faculty, administrators, and students perceive that revenue generation is the actual main motive driving internationalization. Some scholars are suspicious of the "socially desirable" survey results that higher education institutes provided in some of the national and international surveys (Knight, 2008, p. 219), which ranked income-generation and commercialization dead last as rationales at both national and institutional levels. Knight offered two possible explanations for the counterintuitive responses. First, although revenue generation is an obvious primary rationale many English-speaking countries, these countries were influential but not representative of all the 95 countries that had responded to the survey. Second, higher education institutes may not see the recruitment of fee-paying students as an income-generation activity in the same way that they regard the establishment of branch campuses and program franchising as income-generating initiatives (Knight, 2008, p. 220).

When the commercial approach is implemented as the major driving rationale for internationalization, it limits the potential of internationalization and has a devastating impact on international student security and faculty morale. In Australia, Marginson, Nyland, Sawir, and Forbes-Mewett (2010) examined the practice of international education as the third largest export in the country. After analyzing the policy structure, federal regulations, working framework, finances, work, housing, network, and intercultural relations that are related to internationalization and international student security, they conclude that the framework of international education is an exclusively commercial industry, which treats the international student solely as a market consumer. This is limited in protecting the broad security rights of the

international student. In another study in Canada, Friesen (2013) uncovers the tension between faculty's academic rationale and the institution's prioritized economic rationale. Some faculty members experienced alienation from the institutional internationalization process. Some even expressed the sense of moral indignation toward their institution's internationalization priorities.

More importantly, a narrow commercial approach to internationalization leads to the neglect or undervaluing of the intercultural potential of internationalization. Most broadly based Anglophone universities have rhetorically postured towards more transformative internationalization. This means that higher education is using internationalization to strengthen cross-cultural relations and offers transformational learning experiences for all parties (faculty, staff, international and domestic students). However, studies (Hayward, 2000; Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Mestenhauser, 1998; Montgomery & McDowell, 2009; Ryan, 2012; Turner & Robson, 2008; Urban & Palmer, 2014; Volet & Jones, 2012) consistently found the intercultural potential of internationalization largely unrealized in Australia, the U.K., U.S., New Zealand, and Canada.

According to Mestenhauser (1998), the long list of international accomplishments frequently lacks conceptual and theoretical foundations, and hides the fact that international and minority students are not well-integrated, and that only a few students and faculty actually study or conduct research abroad (p. 3-4). There is a gap between what is being said and what is actually happening. In another study, Hayward (2000) reviews both published and unpublished accounts of curricular and co-curricular undergraduate internationalization. The data suggest that in spite of an apparent growing national interest in international education, relatively few undergraduates gain international or intercultural competence in college (p. 1). In a U.K. study, international students tend to create strong international communities on their campuses, and

these international friendships are instrumental in their academic learning and personal development. However, these students' relationships with domestic student do not contribute to the development of international students' international perspectives (Montgomery & McDowell, 2009, cited in Urban & Palmer, 2014, p. 309). After a close examination of the scholarly work produced by influential researchers in the field of cross-cultural psychology related to intercultural education, Marginson and Sawir (2011) found that the presence of international students as a resource for mutual learning between domestic and international students is rejected. At the current stage, internationalization only occurs in enrollment. These studies suggest that the host country of education may have been unable or unwilling to draw full benefit from internationalization.

Many international student surveys suggest dissatisfaction amongst some international students with the level of social interaction they have with home students. According to Leask (2003), the low levels of interaction between home and international students is an issue with which researchers and educators should be concerned, because it can cause feelings of isolation among international students and be an impediment for them to achieve their educational goals.

From a historical perspective, Brandenburg and de Wit (2011) discuss antagonism in the literature, depicting internationalization as the good guy, upholding humanistic ideas against the bad guy globalization that is a world of pure economic benefits. They remark on the inappropriateness of maintaining such dualism at the current time when higher education is a tradable commodity and when the currently expanding internationalization is primarily driven by commercial reasons. To reflect the nature of changes in higher education in the last three decades, Brandenburg and de Wit call researchers to rethink and redefine internationalization. They underscore that internationalization is a means to end, not an end in itself. They encourage

researchers to invest time into rationales and outcomes, asking why universities support internationalization and what universities do to help in achieving the goal of quality education and research in a globalized society.

Rizvi (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010; Rizvi, 2014) scrutinizes the nature of globalization and its far-reaching impact on educational policy across nations. Distinguishing social imaginary from social theories, Rizvi elaborates how a particular social imaginary of globalization, neoliberal thinking, has become dominant. According to him, a social imaginary is a way of thinking shared in a society by ordinary people. It is the common understanding that makes everyday practices possible, giving the ordinary people sense and legitimacy. It is largely implicit, embedded in ideas and practices, carrying within it deeper normative notions and images, constitutive of a society (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, p. 34). This dominant neoliberal thinking of globalization reconfigures the discursive terrain within which educational policy is developed, articulated and enacted. It has linked the purposes of education to the requirements of the global economy. As an implication, the commercial opportunities offered by the increasing movement of people, capital and ideas have been excessively discussed in the internationalization of higher education. In their book, Rizvi and Lingard (2010) elaborate how the neoliberal thinking has historically been constructed as an ideology that affects the ways in which people both interpret and imagine the possibilities of our lives. In the field of internationalization, one danger of this ideology is that it forces people to think internationalization is inevitable. Rizvi argues that the legitimacy of neoliberal imaginary of globalization is problematic. He suggests that nothing is inevitable or necessary about locating globalization within this imaginary. Indeed, it is possible and necessary to look for an alternative imaginary of globalization and rethink educational aims.



To rethink internationalization and reimagine its possibilities, Rizvi underscores the need to recognize that human beings are social and cultural beings as well as economic ones. Three points of his ideas in these two books are relevant to my study. (1) It is important to learn local traditions in order to develop a complex understanding of the domestication process of an international policy in a local context (Rizvi, 2014, p. 115). International policy may be received, interpreted, and executed differently according to local traditions. (2) There is a need to rethink the idea of accountability in internationalization (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, pp. 201-202). Accountability can be not only top-down and vertical in character, but also bottom-up as well as horizontal, linking schools in reciprocally accountable ways to their communities. And (3) cosmopolitan learning is necessary if we are to develop ways of ethically steering the direction of global-local relations, instead of allowing them to be shaped simply by the dictates of global corporate capitalism (Rizvi, 2014, p. 199). For Rizvi, cosmopolitan learning highlights situatedness, relationality, and reflexivity. In an international and intercultural classroom, education is “an open-ended exercise in cross-cultural deliberation” that instructors have designed for students “to understand relationalities and imagine alternatives, but always from a position that is reflexive of its epistemic assumptions” (Rizvi, 2014, p. 210). Cosmopolitan learning demands significant reforms to the institutional character of universities, including changes to what is taught and how it is taught. Rizvi acknowledges that cosmopolitan learning is a challenge not only faced by the universities but applies equally to schools, and indeed the entire systems of education. It is urgent for educational policy makers to consider the question of how educational aims should be re-conceptualized in an era of globalization.

In a recent commentary on the 3% decrease in new international students in the U.S. during 2016-17, which was the first drop since the IIE Open Doors has reported new enrollments

over the past 12 years, Jenny J. Lee (2017) makes a call in the *University Worldwide News* for rehumanizing internationalization. She condemns reducing international education to dehumanizing enrollment counts and bottom lines. Based on that, Lee offers three orientations. First, Similar to Rizvi's thought, Lee argues that internationalization needs to be re-centered as a moral and global responsibility rather than a mere financial one. Second, she reminds the whole higher education community to beware of the political process of internationalization and the issue of power in international education. The political dimension of internationalization affects the destination of study abroad students' preferences in picking what foreign language to learn, who would be welcome by the local communities, where the money flows, where the money goes, and who benefits from the flow of money. Lastly, Lee emphasizes the need for higher education to transform beyond the Western-centric curricula, theories and paradigms. A number of inspirational questions are posed. In what ways can higher education not merely bring in internationals to supplement their income, but bring in internationals to supplement their education to a more global one? What are ways that Western universities can participate more fully as partners than providers? She points to internationalization at home, putting the pressure of raising awareness on the faculty and domestic students.

### **Direction: Internationalization at Home and Comprehensive Internationalization**

As the discussion focus shifts from describing what internationalization is to the effectiveness and essential nature of internationalization (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011), the instrumental role of internationalization is gaining increasing attention. Researchers explore strategies and programs to internationalize the home campus. The cutting-edge literature directs institutional attention to the home campus, calling for a shift from internationalizing student enrollment to internationalizing the learning outcomes.

An emerging group of studies (Beelen, 2011; Devlin & Peacock, 2009; Leask, 2010; Sawir, 2011a; Sawir, 2013; Urban & Palmer, 2014; Volet & Ang, 1998; Waldron, 2010) explore possibilities to internationalize learning outcomes of all students at home campuses, not just international students. It is an expected trend to internationalize the home campus at a comprehensive level, observing institutional commitments from the scale and scope of internationalization, upholding its values, and student and faculty experiences. As a result, a number of new terms have been created and entered the vocabulary of higher education across the globe, such as *Internationalization at Home* (McBride, Humphries, & Knight-Grofe, 2015), *Comprehensive Internationalization* (Hudzik & Stohl, 2012), *Transformative Internationalization* (Turner & Robson, 2008), *Existential Internationalization* (Sanderson, 2004, cited in Turner & Robson, 2008), *Reciprocal Internationalization* (Murray & Leask, 2015), and *Internationalization of the Curriculum* (Beelen, 2011; Niehaus & Williams, 2016; Ryan, 2012; Sawir, 2013).

## **Summary**

The history highlights the significance of external players and environment in shaping the direction, focus, and possibilities of internationalization. Unstable political environments were the major factor stimulating the growth of internationalization prior to the 1990s. Post-1990s, the political, economic, and sociocultural context has been considerably different. The shift in the primary driving rationale, from political to economic, in the last three decades reflects the nature of difference in the social environment at the two different time periods, divided by the 1990s. To have a meaningful understanding of internationalization, it is important to recognize the role of active external drivers. National and regional policy, educational organizations, and private foundations all have a lasting impact on institutional decision-making.

The meta-trend of internationalization across the globe is developing at its nascent stage and it is not a neutral process. The trade relationship is not balanced in the international higher education export market. The north and the developed, especially the major English-speaking countries reap the main financial benefits and control most programs (Garcia & Villarreal, 2014; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, p. 172). By taking a close look at the flow of money, where it goes and who benefits, research (Lee, Maldonado-Maldonado, & Rhoades, 2006; Lee, 2017; Marginson et al., 2010; Trilokekar, 2010; Viczko & Tascon, 2016) reveals that internationalization is highly political and involves power.

A group of scholars collectively caution the danger in thinking, defining, and imagining the possibilities of internationalization from a mere economic approach. It is quite a narrow view to evaluate internationalization achievement by a set of numbers, such as international student enrollment, the revenue that they bring, and the number of international collaboration programs. To develop sustainable internationalization, it is urgent for educational policy makers and the whole higher education community to rethink, redefine, reimagine, and rehumanize what internationalization is and should be.

### **Implication**

The arbitrary character of national internationalization policies that had been created due to political interests has been vividly present in the historical development of internationalization. Undoubtedly, these policies are influential in shaping the possibilities of internationalization within higher education. However, the process of how national political policies may positively and negatively impact higher education has not been well considered, especially their impact on long-term educational and sociocultural aspects. This point is quite obvious in the current study abroad ban and anti-immigration sentiment in U.S. political discourse. American colleges and

universities are scrambling to counter public anti-immigrant views with extra efforts to indicate that their campuses are safe and welcoming (Lee, 2017). To a certain extent, higher education institutes are put in a situation that is beyond their control and that they have to be responsive to.

Although the practice of international student recruitment has a long history in the major English-speaking countries, only recently it started to gain widespread attention from institutions, the educational sector, government, and other influential policy makers. Before internationalization receives the spotlight and moves to the center of institutional strategic discussion, the discussions of and attention to issues related to international students might be very limited. It is possible that host institutions do not have much understanding of international student experiences in general, their needs and expectations in particular. There might not be enough attention given to the issue of intercultural relations from faculty and administrators. As a result, even in a country or an institution that has historically recruited many international students, the awareness of challenges in intercultural communication, learning, teaching, and advising may not necessarily be strong among all university constituents.

A historical analysis of what has happened to date in internationalization suggests the importance of knowing the external environment for developing a meaningful understanding of why and how it is expanding. For my dissertation project, it is important and necessary to collect data on the local context, its social, cultural, economic, and even political environment where my research site is situated. In developing interview-guiding questions, it is appropriate and reasonable to leave conversations open for issues that are beyond the school setting or academic experiences.

## **Understanding the Internationalization of Higher Education**

Many terms have been used to describe internationalization. According to de Wit and Hunter (2015), before internationalization started to emerge as a process and strategy for developing European citizenship in the third stage before the 1990s, the concept of internationalization had not been recognized and the most commonly used term was international education. Alternatively, terms related to specific activities were used, such as study abroad, exchange, academic mobility, multicultural education or area studies (de Wit, 2013, cited in de Wit & Hunter, 2015, p. 43). Nevertheless, due to the complexity of different programs, approaches, strategies, values, perspectives, and rationales employed in practice, the problem of overlapping terms and casual selection of terminology remains. In addition to being termed as specific activities many terminologies are created to focus on the different specifics of internationalization, such as transnationalization, educational globalization, cultural globalization, international engagement, intercultural education, etc.

After delineating the current stage of the conceptualization of internationalization, this section introduces four major interpretations. Overall, this section tries to offer an analysis of the major debates and features of the conceptualization of internationalization.

### **Current Stage of the Conceptualization**

There is a growing acknowledgement of the complexity and overuse of the concept of internationalization. Broadly speaking, internationalization of higher education has been widely used to describe any global, international, or intercultural activities, programs, or interactions that are virtually or physically happening at the national, sectoral, or institutional level. Aside from a diversity of existing terms, more confusingly, some terms are used interchangeably with internationalization even within the same article, such as international engagement, intercultural

education, international dimensions of higher education, and cultural globalization. As de Wit (2009) notes, in the literature and practice of the internationalization of higher education, in many cases its meaning is linked to its rationales, its means, its content, and/or its activities (p. 116). This has contributed to the confusing overlap in terms used to describe elements of internationalization.

It is a challenge to reach consensus on the meaning and content of this concept. Numerous scholars, organizations at national, regional, and international levels, and government policies have described, defined, and interpreted internationalization in a number of ways. The diverse conceptualizations have been used to explore the nature of internationalization from different dimensions, angles, and positions. Fundamentally, the variety of conceptions of internationalization not only represents the range of different practice perspectives and institutional contexts, but also identifies the nature of internationalization as ideologically contended. This is elaborated in the following *four major interpretations* subsection (pp. 31-40).

The scholarship stresses the necessity and rationalization of having a more focused definition of internationalization if it is to be understood and treated with the importance that it deserves. It is not helpful for internationalization to become a ‘catch-all’ phrase for everything and anything international (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Turner & Robson, 2008). With the lack of a generally accepted definition, it is understandable that studies on the internationalization of higher education tend to define it ‘in the context of’ or ‘for the purpose of’ specific studies. Even if there is no agreement on a precise definition, internationalization needs to have parameters if it is to be assessed and to advance higher education (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 16). De Wit (2009) emphasizes this point and suggests that as long as the limitation is made

explicit and the author does not claim general use of the term, this is no problem in defining an approach to internationalization. He also criticized some practices in the literature that are causing more confusion in the conceptualization. These practices include that (a) no definition of internationalization is given, (b) several terms are used in parallel without any distinction, and (c) it is described across various terms as a superficial trend.

### **Four Major Interpretations**

Different schools of thought have different interpretations of what internationalization is and what potential it has, displaying the dynamics of internationalization. As the goal of this study is to show the complexity of internationalization, it is helpful to show the diverse situations that internationalization may be located in. Due to the distinctive characteristics of each school of thought, four major interpretations of internationalization are identified. These four major interpretations reflect the thinking of four main stakeholders, who have been directly and indirectly contributing to, shaping, and influencing the theorization and practice of internationalization. These four groups of stakeholders are the renowned commentators and theorists, the individual learners or participants, higher education institutional managers, and policy makers at the national and sectoral levels.

This section discusses the conceptualization at the organizational level, at the intercultural level, from the institutional managerial perspective, and at the national and sectoral level. Specifically, they are (1) the integration process approach from the functional and organizational viewpoint, as suggested by Knight (2003) and others, (2) the self-formation process approach from the intercultural and individual perspective, as recommended by Marginson and colleagues, (3) the organizational adaptation continuum approach from the managerial perspective, as created by Bartell (2003) and Turner and Robson (2008), and (4) the



performance and effort evaluation approach from the national and sectoral viewpoint, as implemented by the American Council on Education (ACE, 2012).

**The functional and organizational viewpoint: The integration process.**

In an attempt to understand the rapidly expanding international activities and programs in higher education around the 21<sup>st</sup> century, Knight (2003) defines internationalization at the national, sector, and institutional levels as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education (p. 2). This process conceptualization conveys that internationalization is an ongoing and continuing effort.

To emphasize that internationalization is not an end, but a means to improved quality of education and research, more recently de Wit, Hunter and Coelen (2015) revisited Knight's (2003) process approach and expanded it by adding the purpose. Internationalization at the national, sector, and institutional level is the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society (p. 281).

In a multidimensional, multi-variable case study at the University of Minnesota, Ellingboe (1998) contributes two points to the enrichment of this functional, organizational viewpoint. First, internationalization at the institutional level is an ongoing, future-oriented, multidimensional, interdisciplinary, leadership-driven vision. After interviewing four groups (central administration, deans, faculty, and international education practitioners and directors of international units), Ellingboe found that internationalization as a future-oriented vision is an institutional action to respond and adapt appropriately to an increasingly diverse, globally

focused, ever-changing external environment. It involves many stakeholders working to change the internal dynamics of the institution (p. 199). Second, campus internationalization is not always a top-down initiative, from top administrative leadership down to the college or departmental level. In Ellingboe's (1998) study, at the University of Minnesota internationalization was an observable, operational, and evident practice at the college dean's level; it did not commence with top administrative leadership.

This functional, organizational viewpoint has some obvious advantage and limitations. It is recognized that this organizational process conceptualization is more global and neutral, more bottom-up and institution-oriented. It gives space to a broad range of activities that can lead to internationalization and exclude none (de Wit & Hunter, 2015). Turner and Robson (2008) warn of the potential weakness of any conceptualization that aims to offer a universal term. According to them, this action is an attempt to capture the highly complex and contradictory process attaching to the increasing international traffic that is occurring between nationally based higher education institutions and knowledge systems. A universal term of internationalization does not necessarily provide insight into the specific styles or character of response that will shape internationalization in particular local environments (p. 10).

Marginson and Sawir (2011) further enumerate two limitations of Knight's (2003) conceptualization. First, inherently Knight's (2003) definition has the normative and variant character. It presumes that postsecondary education has a host or main culture of the educational purpose, functions and delivery; the international, intercultural or global dimension is not from within. As a result of the internationalization process, higher education institutions have to integrate this alien dimension. Due to the fact that the purpose, functions, and delivery vary among institutions, it is impossible to achieve analytical precision and common understanding of

Knight's "inclusive, if not quasi-universal term" (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 15). Second, this definition has a demonizing implication on the image of globalization. It problematizes globalization as merely capitalist world markets, but in effect globalization also included communication and knowledge flows, of which universities were the driver. Similarly, Brandenburg and de Wit (2011) acknowledge the problem in the constructed antagonism between internationalization and globalization. The antagonism neglects the commercial interest of internationalization. They comment that it is time to leave the old concepts of internationalization and globalization behind and move on to a fresh unbiased paradigm.

**The intercultural and individual perspective: Self-formation in intercultural education.**

At the individual level, studies show that internationalization experiences resonate more with intercultural development. Marginson and colleagues (Marginson et al., 2010; Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Marginson, 2014) conceptualize internationalization at the individual level as a process of self-formation. This interpretation is a theoretical response to two challenges identified by leading scholars. The first challenge is the difficulty to pin down the concept of internationalization and relate it to practical phenomena within the routine experiences of people in higher education institutes (Turner & Robson, 2008, p. 5). The second challenge relates to the fact that the neoliberal globalization as an ideology has a long lasting impact on current educational practice.

According to Rizvi & Lingard (2010), the neoliberal social imaginary of globalization is limited in informing internationalization practice. This mode of analysis "pays scant attention to the subjectivities of people, how these are formed, and how communities develop a sense of global interconnectivity and interdependence. In this manner, these neoliberal thinking oriented

discourses lack an effective theory of political agency, or any other kind of agency. They do not view global processes as ever-changing products of human practices, but interpret them instead as expressions of the deeper logic of economic imperatives, failing to come to terms with their ‘situatedness’ in the world of people, communities and nations alike” (Smith, 2000, cited in Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, p. 32). In the neoliberal thinking, the economic logic is overstated, and the influence of locality as well as the sociocultural aspect of internationalization are understated or ignored.

Thus, Rizvi & Lingard (2010) call the need for a new imaginary that recognizes that human beings are social and cultural beings as well as economic ones, an imaginary that recognizes the need to think locally, nationally and globally (pp. 201-202). In higher education, this new imagination demands a shift of institutional attention from international student recruitment and economic revenue to the construction of cosmopolitan citizenship of all university participants (Leask, 2015, cited in de Wit & Hunter, 2015). It also suggests the need to rethink the internationalization practice. For example, who is or should be accountable for internationalizing the university? What do we internationalize? Who are we internationalizing?

In response to this call of rethinking internationalization and emphasizing the sociocultural aspect, Marginson and colleagues conceptualize internationalization at the ground level, that is, the individual interaction within and outside the classroom between and among faculty and students. They rethink and remake internationalization in terms of universal humanism and global cosmopolitan intercultural exchange. Internationalization at the individual level is conceived as a process of self-formation in which students and their families invest in learning and personal change. In contrast with the current literature, particularly in the field of counseling psychology, which portrays international students and international education as a

“patronizing vision of other-formation” (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. viii), this theorization stresses the role of agency of the international student.

The term ‘self-formation’ highlights the relational and imaginative nature of communicative sociability in intercultural education. Communication, cross-cultural encounters, and personal agency together shape the international education experience. These three factors enable intercultural education and set limits on it, for internationals and locals. The role of agency, self-determination, and reflexivity is stressed. Elements external to the student can help to shape international education. They include institutions, teachers, cultural groupings and networks. But self-determination is central to the successful intercultural experience. This is an important corrective to theorizations that imagine the international student as a weak, deficient or conflicted agent largely shaped by forces outside the self (Marginson et al., 2010, p. 439). The essential elements of generative intercultural relations in international education are active student agency, communicative competence, and cross-cultural engagement in local conditions that favor relational cosmopolitanism. Self-formation is an integrated cultural theorization of international education.

**The managerial perspective: A continuum from symbolic to transformative internationalization.**

Employing Sporn’s (1996) organizational culture typology, Bartell (2003) develops a framework to assist in the understanding of the process of internationalization of universities. In this framework, both the collegial process and executive authority are acknowledged as necessary to position the university to bring about substantive, integrated, university-wide internationalization in response to pervasive and rapidly changing global environmental demands. Viewing internationalization as an organizational adaptation, Bartell identified four phases of

internationalization in the continuum: the domestic (Phase I), multidomestic (Phase II), multinational (Phase III), and global or even transnational (Phase IV). By illustrating the experiences of two extreme examples of university culture, one weak and internally oriented and another strong and externally oriented, Bartell demonstrates the importance of congruence between strategies and university culture in enhancing the effectiveness of substantive internationalization. The orientation and strength of the university culture and the functioning structure can be inhibiting or facilitating of the strategies employed to advance internationalization. The significance of leadership, institutional management, and creative innovation become obvious in determining the phase of institutional internationalization.

Turner and Robson (2008) detailed Bartell's (2003) continuum conceptualization from the institutional managerial perspective. Emphasizing that internationalization is an evolving process for institutions to move in a continuum position from 'Symbolic' to 'Transformative', they enrich the idea of an international institution, explicate the challenges and opportunities, and offer suggestions for institutional management and policy creation. Symbolic internationalization is exemplified by an institution with a national character and a local way of doing things, but which may be populated by a proportion of overseas students and staff. Transformative internationalization characterizes institutions where an international orientation has become enlivened. At a global or transnational institute, internationalization is embedded into routine ways of thinking and doing, in policy and management, staff and student recruitment, curriculum and program development, funding allocation, new hiring, tenure and promotion evaluation systems.

With respect to organizational evaluation of the level of internationalization, Turner and Robson (2008) mention the limitation of relying on one or two obvious aspects, such as the

presence of international students and the revenues they bring. They raise the concern that this assessment may not attest to anything other than temporary and short-lived international engagement and certainly does not speak of more fundamental internationalization. They contend that systems, attitudes, and motivations provide the evidence rather than any individual group of activities (p. 35), if an institution is making an assessment of more profound levels of internationalization. The affective and value based aspects of internationalization are essential for long-lasting implications on campus.

The continuum approach highlights the role of tangible and value-based aspects of the university in implementing internationalization strategies and policies. It emphasizes internationalization as an ongoing process of institutional improvement incorporating ethos, activities, content and graduate attributes. As Turner and Robson demonstrate, the expected evolution and desired move from Symbolic to Transformative demands critical institutional reflection and open discussion on shared values, beliefs, goals, assumptions, and ideologies among university constituents. To embrace transformative internationalization, institutional change is necessary. By no means would this change be of ease or comfort.

**The national and sectoral viewpoint: Institutional performance and effort evaluation.**

The performance and effort approach represents the school of thought that it is higher education's responsibility to internationalize their campuses in response to the changing global environment. And, their efforts and performance can be evaluated by a standard. This approach reflects the action that is taking place at the national and sectoral level to map out, frame, and guide the direction of internationalization at the institutional level. It shows the external pressure on tertiary institutes and the expected change in higher education due to the changing global

environment. Many of the thoughts in other conceptualizations are implicit in this performance and effort approach, such as internationalization as an ongoing process, the direction of transformative internationalization, and the pursuit of individual intercultural competency. In comparison with other organizational conceptualization, the performance and effort approach indicates a top-down initiative.

In 2001, the American Council on Education (ACE) started the project *Mapping Internationalization on U.S. Campuses*. Every five years, ACE sends out surveys to institutions and analyzes critical international education issues. This survey is designed to assess the current state of internationalization at U.S. institutions, examine progress and trends over time, and identify priorities going forward. It is the only comprehensive source of data on internationalization in all sectors of U.S. higher education. This series of surveys include information on two-and four-year and public and private degree-granting institutions (ACE, 2012, p. 4). ACE publishes these reports online and offers free access to the findings.

According to the American Council on Education (ACE, 2012), it is imperative that graduates possess intercultural skills and competencies to be successful in this globalized world, and higher education institutions must commit to helping students achieve these outcomes (p.3). ACE (2012) defines internationalization as the institutional efforts to meet this imperative by incorporating global perspectives into teaching, learning, and research; building international and intercultural competence among students, faculty, and staff; and establishing relationships and collaborations with people and institutions abroad (p. 3). It envisions a comprehensive internationalization that requires a deep commitment on the part of institutions, and a far-reaching scope of action.



ACE creates a model of comprehensive internationalization and uses it to evaluate current practices. Comprehensive internationalization is defined as a strategic, coordinated process that seeks to align and integrate international policies, programs, and initiatives, and positions colleges and universities as more globally oriented and internationally connected (ACE, 2012, p. 3). Comprehensive internationalization is fundamentally a transformative process. This process requires a clear commitment by top-level institutional leaders, meaningfully impacts the curriculum and a broad range of people, policies, and programs, and results in deep and ongoing incorporation of international perspectives and activities throughout the institution. As with any large-scale, institution-wide undertaking, it requires significant vision, the commitment of adequate financial resources, energy, creativity, time, and above all, broad support from all constituencies.

### **Three Features**

The conceptual discussion reveals three features of the current state of the literature. First, the scholarly focus on the internationalization of higher education started in the past 30 years. The conceptual development is at its nascent stage. Despite the fact that the practice of academic mobility has a long history, only from the 1990s did researchers start to show interest in comprehending this phenomenon as a concept. The feature of incipency is present in the exploitation of internationalization as a concept, the lack of consensus on the meaning of internationalization, the messy ways of interchangeably using different terms with internationalization, the major competing interpretations, and the variance of, if not the conflict of, implementing internationalization between the faculty and administrators.

Second, much of the conceptualization has painted a rosy picture of internationalization. The theorists, educational administrators, and leaders at the national and sectoral levels tend to

promote internationalization as a rather positive, applicable, and enabling thing for all good.

This particularity of the conceptualization has contributed to and further promoted the chasing among higher education institutes towards internationalization.

Third, there is a lack of consensus among researchers and practitioners with regard to the meaning and content of internationalization. At the institutional level, studies (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Friesen, 2013) found that faculty members receive little guidance or clarity from administrative leadership on the definition of internationalization. In institutional statements, assumptions exist regarding internationalization as a commonly understood term that needs no explicit definition. This lack of clarity in institutional documents can result in confusing and different perceptions of internationalization among various university groups (Friesen, 2013, p. 216-217). At the national and international level, the lack of consensus is also causing problems in creating an accurate and holistic image of the current practice of internationalization (see Egron-Polak, Hudson & Sandstrom's (2015) work for example).

## **Summary**

This section illustrates how the concept of the internationalization of higher education has been developed, interpreted, interrogated, and promoted at different times by different people. Internationalization is a rather broad umbrella term. It has been overused or exploited to cover almost any activities, programs, rationales, approaches, and components relevant to international and intercultural interaction. The usage of this term is not clean, which causes much confusion and controversy in the scholarship.

After delineating the current stage of the conceptualization, this section discusses four major interpretations. (1) The functional, organizational viewpoint stresses the autonomy and active role that educational institution, sector, and department or organization have in integrating

the international, intercultural or global dimension into the operation of postsecondary education. It is characterized by its comprehensiveness and inclusiveness compared with other approaches. (2) With respect to internationalization as a contact zone for intercultural interaction, Marginson theorizes internationalization as a process of self-formation. This interpretation stresses the relational and imaginative nature of communicative sociability, which depends on much more than individual proficiency (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 96). It responds to the call for rethinking and reimagining internationalization. It is a corrective to the predominant ethnocentric adjustment perspective, which fails to imagine international student presence as a valuable learning resource. (3) The institutional managerial perspective highlights the social and cultural aspect of internationalization. The university culture, values, beliefs, and ethos have to be congruent with the internationalization strategy. This conceptualization puts institutional leadership and managerial innovation at the center of discussion, as they are crucial in developing policies that may either hinder or facilitate internationalization. (4) The national and sectoral viewpoint considers internationalization as institutional performance and effort. This interpretation reflects the external pressure that higher education institutions are experiencing. In this conceptualization, internationalization can be evaluated by some criteria.

By dissecting the various dimensions and components of internationalization, this section presents that we are at the nascent stage of the conceptual development of internationalization. In the theoretical discussion, educational leaders and researchers together have painted a rosy picture of the possibilities, capability, and implementation of internationalization. As my following section shows, this picture largely underestimates the real challenge, controversy, and conflict at the teaching and learning level. At its current stage, scholars have not reached a consensus on the meaning and content of internationalization.

## **Implication**

It is actually inaccurate and perhaps an illusion for administrators to think that their institutes are experienced in internationalizing their campuses. The current state of the literature does not offer much evidence for educational administrators or any higher education practitioners (i.e. faculty and students) to be confident or certain in the effectiveness and efficiency of their internationalization strategies, programs, policies, and approaches. To some extent, this is understandable as for most universities they are venturing into the unknown. The current way internationalization is conceptualized and how the market is constructed leaves many assumptions unexamined, unquestioned, and hidden. It is likely that the nature of change and its impact on challenges are not widely recognized. The danger is that much of the theoretical discussion and institutional practice promotes an unsound impression that higher education institutes are the expert in internationalizing the campus.

Internationalization is a far too complex and complicated concept. Conceptualization and practice vary in different countries, institutions, colleges, and departments. This variance may be caused by different specificity of the local context, and also by a variance of driving rationales, university cultures, leadership, strategies, and other influential factors. Although some common elements exist across the globe, it has to be cautious to consider a universal condition and universal solution. As Altbach (1996) remarks in a report of an international survey on the academic profession, all the respondent countries share common historical roots—the European heritage. Yet each university operates in a particular country as well, and the realities of the academic profession are very much affected by national policies and even by local situations (p. 5). For my study, understanding the international, national, local, and disciplinary context is important for the research design.

The changes in the major interpretations indicate an emerging focus on the home campus and a trend of comprehensive internationalization. Comprehensive internationalization is intended to influence all levels and all aspects of institutional practice. It impacts the campus in six areas: (1) institutional commitment, (2) administrative structure and staffing, (3) curriculum, co-curriculum, and learning outcomes, (4) faculty policies and practices, (5) student mobility, and (6) collaboration and partnerships (ACE, 2012, p. 4). Internationalization is a means not an end. In the process of internationalization, quality improvement is the goal. To follow this trend, higher education institutes can anticipate challenges and expect, perhaps painful, organizational changes.

As Knight (2005) notes, these trends in internationalization raise important questions. How does internationalization deal with the intersection of international and intercultural? Is internationalization a vehicle for increased understanding and appreciation of cultural diversity and fusion, or is it an agent of cultural homogenization? How do curricula, the teaching/learning process, research, extracurricular activities, and academic mobility contribute to intercultural understanding and cultural hybridization/homogenization (p. 33)?

My dissertation project attempts to explore this emerging trend of comprehensive and transformative internationalization and offer policy implications for institutional administrators. I found the questions raised by Knight (2005) interesting. My study tries to search for answers to some of the questions raised by Knight (2005). I am interested in the intersection of intercultural education and internationalization. To explore these, I am employing Marginson's self-formation theorization to observe the meaning and practice of internationalization, with the goal to offer clarity to the broad conversation on internationalization.

## **Intersection of Internationalization and Intercultural Education**

In the last three decades, internationalization has expanded exponentially. However, it is still not a deep-seated reality. There is not always a direct or causal relationship between the level of activity and the importance attributed to it. It is unwise to assume that the importance of internationalization has increased at the same rate of expansion (Knight, 2008).

At the individual learning level, internationalization is located at the intersection of international and intercultural education. The nature of this intersection is intercultural interaction and relationship building between the cultural insider (the local) and the cultural outsider (the international). Marginson and Sawir (2011) define intercultural education as a relational education in which all parties in the encounter open themselves to transformative learning and change, enabling them to see the world through each other's eyes and evolve new practices while interacting with each other (p. 163). The educational product of this intersection—transformative learning (Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Turner & Robson, 2008), cosmopolitan learning (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010; Rizvi, 2014), cultural learning (Volet & Jones, 2012)—is an expected or assumed social, cultural, and academic benefit of internationalization. It is a belief that this intersection has the capacity to enable transformative intercultural learning for all learners.

Research findings of empirical studies (Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Ninnes & Hellsten, 2005) on this intersection emphasizes that universities are contact zones, where global cultures meet, interact, and form a relation. Ryan (2012) contends that in intercultural education, internationalization should not be viewed as integrating one dimension into a single system. Instead, it is an endeavor between civilizations (p. 57). The intersection of internationalization and intercultural education can be perceived as a mutual enterprise between countries of

education that exchanges culture and values, promotes mutual understanding and a respect for difference. The intersection does not suppress one national culture by another culture, as often seen in assumed superiority in ethnocentrism (Gu, 2001, cited in Ryan, 2012, p. 57).

This section discusses the major components of an international and intercultural education. These are the academic cultures and intellectual traditions, the international student, intercultural interaction and relations, and the faculty role. It also summarizes four directions of future research, as recommended by previous scholars. It ends with an analysis of how the existing knowledge informs my research design.

### **Academic Cultures and Intellectual Traditions in Intercultural Education**

Researchers bring up the issue of academic cultures and intellectual traditions as well as their impact on learning in an international and intercultural education setting. Scholars (Elliot, Baumfield & Reid, 2016, Gu & Schweisfurth, 2006; Ku, 2008, Trice, 2004; Trice, 2007; Turner, 2006) in the major English-speaking countries recognize how academic cultures and conventions may conflict and thus impede student learning. The influence of the difference is captured and often reflected in studies on cross-cultural teaching and learning (Elliot et al., 2016; Holmes, 2005; Shi, 2011), pedagogy (Peterson, 2010; Turner & Robson, 2008, 2009), advising (Ku, 2008; Wang & Li, 2011), and assumptions (Deem & Brehony, 2000; Gu & Maley, 2008; Marginson & Sawir, 2011). Academic cultures and intellectual traditions execute power through participants' understanding and expectations of the concept of learning, the structure of academic support mechanisms, norms of good manners in conversation, etc.

The impact of the academic conventions in the country of education becomes apparent in the experiences of international students. Most of them were not born, raised, or trained in the host country before study abroad. Many examinations delineate how academic cultures and

intellectual traditions operate their inclusiveness and exclusiveness, create opportunities and challenges for different students. Holmes (2005) investigated communication styles underpinning Chinese and New Zealand education systems. She found that the lack of learned skills (e.g. handling open-end questions, being expressive, working in small groups, communication skills in dialogic model) created challenges for Chinese ethnic international students to participate in, build relationships, and learn inside and outside the classroom. Gu and Maley (2008) conducted research and reported that many British lecturers have had little or no training in how to effectively teach overseas students in these numbers. Most international students have never before had to adjust to an alternative teaching and learning style. The encounter therefore is rich with possibilities for misunderstanding, stress and failure (p. 227). From the perspective of politics of difference, Lobnibe (2009) conducted a qualitative study on international student experiences in two U.S. higher education institutes. This study found that American higher education has been largely constructed around the concept of independent learning that views the student as active consumer of educational services, taking responsibility for his/her own learning as an autonomous and self-directed individual (p. 351). This differs from the academic cultures in other countries, and thus may create difficulty for some international students.

The impact of differing, locally-defined knowledge traditions still influences many aspects of intellectual life, particularly in the implicit assumptions governing academic practices within higher education institutions. Employing postconstructionist theory and intercultural communication theory, Shi (2011) examined the learning experiences of 13 Chinese graduate students for two months. Shi argued that direct participation and active contribution as the norms of good manners in cooperative communication in the U.S. had culture bound. This was



contested with the polite regime and face save tactics that many Chinese international students had used. In this study, international students felt the pressure and necessity to gain a command of academic conventions and forms of discourse (p. 586), such as eloquence and presentation. In another study on international doctoral students' academic acculturation in the U.K., Elliot et al. (2016) found that international students needed to not just recognize but also learn, even master, the new rules of the new game, while taking advantage of available university support provisions, if their aim was to have a good chance of winning, that was, successful completion. The real problem with international students was not so much about lack of motivation or cognitive competence—often camouflaged by poor linguistic ability—but that they used 'the wrong approach' (p. 13). Numerous studies on cross-cultural learning suggest a need to reassess seemingly universalist 'Western' pedagogical assumptions in light of increasing international engagement in order to develop more inclusive, reciprocal approaches towards both knowledge-sharing and teaching and learning practices within culturally diverse academies.

Built upon the findings on how academic conventions impact learning, researchers (Peterson, 2010; Ryan, 2012; Turner & Robson, 2008) urge teaching faculty to reassess assumptions, reflect on the concept of teaching and learning, and warn the risk of being complacent about the superiority of 'Western' academic ways. First, it is assumed that pedagogy has a global audience. With a focus on university teaching and learning, Turner and Robson (2008) elaborate how this assumption is implicitly exercised in everyday life through 'Western' pedagogy and epistemology. International students bring cultural baggage to the country of education. Potentially, the locally defined concept of teaching, learning, pedagogy, and appropriate behavior of performance can conflict between the home and host country. These conflicts can cause tension and barriers in learning. However, there appears to be not enough

motivation for a pedagogical adaptation to respond to the changing needs of students due to a changing learning context. In another commentary, Peterson (2010) asserts that the pedagogy does not normally profit from an ongoing critique from scholars in other cultures (p. 134).

Second, internationalization brings opportunities for teaching faculty to reflect on assumptions and practices. But, it is difficult to make pedagogical change. In a comparative study on the Chinese learners' adaptation in China and the U.K., Gu and Schweisfurth (2006) stressed the importance of other factors beyond cultural influence, such as the high level of motivation and willingness to adapt in the intercultural experience. The outcome of the intercultural learning process is as much about learners' relationships with their learning environments and teachers. The authors call upon teachers to see education as an intercultural experience and take advantage of this opportunity to reflect on their own assumptions and practice. In a British study, Turner and Robson (2009) reveal such challenges via examining academic faculty attitudes toward internationalization. In this study, faculty acknowledged that the institution is essentially British. However, none of the academics recognized their day-to-day pedagogies as culturally constituted. The faculty did not think that the teaching methods, course content, and curriculum design may need a change as a result of the shift in context. The authors concluded, while

Welcoming the notion of international exchange, being open to working with larger numbers of international students and willing to internationalize academic content in the teaching, nonetheless the underlying epistemological and pedagogical values beneath routine practices remained both implicit and culturally inviolate. Fundamentally, therefore, in spite of increasing internationalization in practice, the people involved in the

study remained indelibly linked to a locally articulated knowledge tradition fixed in its socio-historic context. (Turner & Robson, 2009, p. 29)

According to Ryan (2012), the difficulty of adaptation in teaching may be ascribable to a lack of recognition of the potential to take advantage of this global flow of people, ideas and perspectives by engaging with the knowledge and academic cultures that international doctoral students bring. She warns the risk of wasting the opportunity brought by internationalization by questioning, “are we taking advantage of these opportunities for the generation of new knowledge and skills or do we risk being complacent about the superiority of ‘Western’ academic ways” (p. 55)?

In sum, the academic conventions at the host country are culturally implicit and appear unchanging with the arrival of a large amount of international students. The discourse of pedagogy seems not plural and creates inappropriate assumption of intercultural learning. With the considerable number of international students showing up in the classroom, it is of necessity for academic faculty to rethink, reflect, and reassess their beliefs about the nature of learning and make academic conventions explicit. There is a belief that international students can help researchers and educational practitioners better understand the implicit rules and norms of higher education and help create a more inclusive learning environment for nontraditional learners from diverse domestic cohorts.

### **The Position and Value of the International Student in Intercultural Education**

Scholarship in the last ten years reflects a change in institutional attitude with respect to the position and value of the international student in internationalizing the home campus, moving from a deficit thinking of international students (i.e. adaptation approach) to viewing them as valuable learning resources for achieving a transformative learning experience of all participants

(i.e. transformation approach). The deficit thinking approach puts the onus of adaptation mainly on the international student (Cadman, 2000, pp. 476-7, cited in Turner & Robson, 2008, p. 70), normalizes the one way transcultural learning from the host institute to the international student. That is, the international student learns from the host institute (Haigh, 2008; Ryan, 2012). It leaves the teaching practice at host institutes unchallenged by the demographic change of the student population. Ryan (2012) summarizes three distinct but overlapping phases of institutional response toward international student presence, shifting from ethnocentric responses to a more recent intercultural appreciation approaches. At phase one, international students are viewed as 'skills deficit'. At phase two, more attention focuses on adapting teaching and learning to 'accommodate' international students. Problematizing the difference of international students is their similarity of the two phases. Ethnocentrism permeates both phases. Phase three is currently emerging and is driven by the demand of the internationalization of the curriculum for both home and international students (p. 57). For host institutions, to take advantage of the opportunity of intercultural learning brought by international student presence, institutional thinking has to move beyond any outdated models of integration and adaptation (p. 57). Researchers underscore the importance of giving equal respect to international students, recognizing their agency in intercultural learning, and valuing their existence as a learning resource that can stimulate curriculum development.

By reviewing the historical research background of individual cultural transitions in higher education, Volet and Jones (2012) notice two perspectives interpreting the international student experience: adjustment and transformation. Adjustment perspective has a pragmatic focus and takes a unilateral approach, mainly concerned with international students' challenging experiences and adjustment. In this approach, international students can only adjust to and learn

from their host campuses. Their contribution to the learning community is neglected. The literature focusing on transformation perspective refers to a small but growing body of work. In this approach, mutual learning and adaptation between the international student and the host institution is possible. This shift in scholarship has been evidenced by recent works focusing on mixed group cultural change experiences of international and domestic students (Volet & Ang, 1998), the potential for mutual learning (Ryan, 2012), international student as valuable learning resources (Lee, 2010; Sawir, 2013; Turner & Robson, 2008; Urban & Palmer, 2014), faculty response to diversity (Sawir, 2011a; Sawir, 2011b), and student agency and self-formation (Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Marginson, 2014; Rizvi, 2014b; Rizvi, 2014e). These studies show that international students are highly motivated, self-determined, resilient, and strong agents of their own journey in a foreign land.

Despite the fact that more researchers are paying attention to the value of international students in helping internationalize the curriculum and research, empirical studies observe that such resources have not been fully utilized. In a study on connecting intellectual projects in China and Australia, Singh (2010) comments that educational practice, curricula and resources typically do not engage the intellectual resources of culturally and linguistically diverse students (p. 34). The practice that having international students from Asia make these intellectual connections could let them to question epistemic ignorance in Australian education. Singh calls upon graduate faculty to treat Chinese international doctoral students as equally reasoning beings and engage them in research projects.

In another study on the contributions of international students to the internationalization of the curriculum, Sawir (2013) found two broad issues. First, the international student body was a cultural and educational resource for academic staff, because it facilitated them in

implementing an internationalized curriculum. Second, cultural diversity represented by international students was undervalued and underutilized by domestic students, and this was of serious concern amongst academic staff who participated in this study. Sawir contends that fulfilling the aims of internationalization not only depends on the ability of international students to internationalize by adjusting to the local culture and the capacity of institutions to internationalize their curriculum, but also on the full commitment of all institutional communities, including domestic students.

A quantitative study (Urban & Palmer, 2014) in the U.S. confirms this finding, suggesting that international students were not being actively engaged as cultural resources, although they would like to be engaged to a much greater extent. In open-ended comments, international participants indicated that their cultural involvement was mostly demonstrated through interpersonal relations, the annual international festival, and engagement in a student organization (p. 319). The areas in which international students were the least involved as cultural resources included being invited as a guest speaker to share aspects of their culture and being asked to serve as a language tutor (p. 312). The presence of a diverse population of international students provides multiple opportunities for colleges and universities to meet their goals of internationalization and global engagement; however, this study reveals that higher education is not taking advantage of these opportunities.

It is a trend to problematize and rethink the traditional concept of ‘the international student’, critiquing its limitation and extending its inclusiveness to incorporate all participants who have the potential to transform and become an international in an international and intercultural education setting. Traditionally, ‘the international student’ only equates to overseas students. Recently, Turner and Robson (2008) broaden the concept to incorporate overseas

students, indigenous and other domestic students, and the staff who work with them. The logic is that all these constituents in intercultural education all engage in a process of exploring and understanding the cultural values that underpin their expectations of teaching and learning (p. 67). This intentional characteristic of not confining it to foreign students who crossed national borders has received support from other scholars (Haigh, 2008; Volet & Jones, 2012). This new definition emphasizes that all parties in intercultural education have the potential to be international. In this sense, the term 'international' can be extended to all students who have experienced transformation (Tian & Lowe, 2009). It also includes all teachers who are culturally transformed by their experiences in research and teaching (Robson, 2011). Volet and Jones (2012) argue that dualism between international students and permanent residents (home students) neglects the heterogeneity in both groups. Scholars are redefining the meaning of the international student. Rethinking the term of the international student by imagining all learners as international is an emerging theme in the literature.

### **Intercultural Interaction, Relations and Challenge**

Although internationalization brings possibilities and opportunities for intercultural interaction and relations, they (possibilities and opportunities) are not a spontaneous byproduct or natural fruit of cross-cultural or international interaction. Simply putting different groups of students together would not engender reciprocal intercultural relations. To distinguish the characteristics of four relevant concepts and delineate the relationships, Marginson and Sawir (2011) conceptualize international, internationalization, cross-cultural relations, and intercultural relations as such. International and internationalization are neutral spatial descriptors. International refers to a movement or relationship between nations. It does not presume anything about the contents or significance of the relationship. Internationalization means any process of

creating or enhancing cross-national relations, movements, or comparisons. Cross-cultural means a move or a relationship between two separately identifiable cultural sets. The term cross-cultural is neutral as to the contents or the significance of the relationship. When people are involved in a cross-cultural comparison or relationship it does not necessarily mean that their cultural or other identities change during that interaction, even though that is possible.

Intercultural relations involve the potential for mutual transformation within the broad category of cross-cultural relations. This conceptualization makes it evident that international education does not necessarily nurture intercultural relations.

Empirical studies collectively underscore the challenge in intercultural interaction. Volet and Ang (1998) researched the nature of change in students' perceptions after a culturally mixed group experience. They found that a number of students realized that their perceptions about peers from other cultures were not accurate and needed to be revised, especially the perceptions relating to language and work-related attitudes. However, these same students still expressed a lack of commitment to join culturally mixed groups in the future, despite a successful culturally mixed group experience in the study. Four types of reasons causing lack of interaction are identified: cultural-emotional connectedness, language, pragmatism, and negative stereotypes. The authors suggested taking more drastic, interventionist measures in course programming to bring about social integration between local and international students and to allow all students to benefit fully from intercultural learning opportunities.

Both international and domestic student groups homogenize the other and prefer to work with own cultural people (Marginson & Sawir, 2011). In another study, Tran and Pham (2017) found that local students had the fear of displaying their cultural unresponsiveness because they assumed that international students had these cultural skills (p. 50). This fear was responsible for



their absence of reciprocity. In Tran and Pham's (2017) study, teachers' comments suggest that domestic students' fear of having to construct, maintain and negotiate differences and creating new schemas of understanding of differences are just as prominent as they are for international students.

### **The Faculty Role in Internationalizing the Home Campus**

It is a growing consensus that the faculty is the most important factor and that their role should move from the periphery to the center in comprehensive internationalization. In a discourse analysis of comprehensive and strategic internationalization in the U.S., Hudzik and Stohl (2012) contend that the faculty is among the most powerful elements in the governance of an institution. An institution cannot internationalize without the active and agreeable participation of a majority of its faculty. Friesen (2013) and Peterson (2010) confirm this idea. But Friesen and Peterson both remark that there is a fundamental lack of understanding of the faculty role in internationalization.

More recent research pays attention to the role of faculty in internationalizing the curriculum. In a study on cultural mixed-group experience, Volet & Ang (1998) stress the responsibility of institutions and academics in influencing student choices for forming groups with students from other cultures. Volet and Ang highlight the importance of the academic staff's intercultural knowledge and skills in developing appropriate intervention influencing student group choices. Leask (2010) supports the idea of the faculty role in facilitating intercultural engagement between the home and international students. In a four year research project funded by the Australian Research council, Tran and Pham (2017) report how teacher participants at vocational education and training (VET) and dual-sector institutions in three states of Australia find a link between pedagogical practices and students' life experiences. In this

study, teachers were aware of differences in cultural skills and they valued international students. Although faculty members used different strategies to integrate all students—some teachers preferred segregated class and others engaged in deliberate strategies of putting students together through their recognition of learning differences—the teachers in this study engaged in practices that were shaped with the functional relations with students generally and international students specifically. They had clear functional goals towards developing students' vocational skills and thus they engaged in functional practices to achieve these goals. With functional goals of developing students' vocational and cultural skills, these teachers engaged in practices inside and outside classrooms to connect with international students and fostered the connection between international and domestic students. Making cultural differences visible and utilizing them as learning resources functioned as enabling teaching strategies in this study.

In another two studies, Sawir (2011 a; 2011b) discusses the divided faculty attitude towards international student presence and possible impacts on internationalizing the curriculum. If student learning should be the center of home campus internationalization, faculty role is not negligible. In Sawir's (2011a; 2011b) studies, some academic staff indicate a great awareness of the presence of international students and are able to identify both academic and social difficulties; other academic staff make no distinction between international and local students. The academic staff who recognize the difference between international and local students sensitize themselves to the needs of international students and make adjustments in their teaching. The academic staff who think international and local students are the same believe that all students should be seen as the same regardless of their cultural background and that there was no need to make special accommodations for international students. Sawir's studies show that subject nature and individual characteristics have more influence than disciplinary differences on

how academic staff respond towards international students and teaching practices. The interview data also indicate that there are positive effects resulting from staff having overseas experience.

To teach an internationally diverse student population, faculty confront an important question: do faculty need to be sensitive to the needs of international students where these needs are different from those of local students, or should faculty treat the students as one homogeneous group (Sawir, 2011b)? Different thinking can impact differently on the instruction method and pedagogy that faculty are employing in teaching. With the large number of international students arriving on campuses, it is important and necessary to ask if there is a need to adjust teaching and pedagogy to be responsive to the changing environment. Unless academic staff, as a group, resolve this question, moving forward will be difficult. As commented by Sawir (2011b), universities can no longer afford to carry a divided academic staff in which only some respond to cultural difference in an effective and conscious manner.

Currently, faculty has not been very engaged with institutional internationalization. Studies found a number of factors contributing to this situation, including resistance, lack of professional training, and institutional barriers blocking or discouraging faculty participation. Turner and Robson (2009) conducted a qualitative case study, reporting that some faculty are resistant to internationalization and share the feeling of being victims of internationalization. This study explores the resonances between the lived experiences of academics within a rapidly internationalizing institutional setting and other forces shaping their academic lives and identity. The academic participants experienced internationalization as a powerful but negative factor in their working lives. In this study, academics saw themselves as victims of externally generated forces, which have brought increased teaching workloads, resource pressures and a shift away from their preferred academic identities.

Scholars bring the issue of professional training to the front of discussion. First, many, if not most, university teaching staff have had little or no training in how to effectively teach overseas students in these numbers (Gu & Maley, 2008, p. 227). They may not understand or be culturally responsive to the special needs or expectations of international students. Marginson and Sawir (2011), and Turner and Robson (2008) comment that some of the teaching faculty may never have travelled abroad or interacted with foreigners before teaching international students. Most international students have never had to adapt to a different teaching and learning style before study abroad. With the changing student demographics caused by expanding internationalization, academics need professional training in order to be responsive to the changing environment. Second, according to Leask (2010), in an internationally diverse classroom teaching, the academic staff needs to have particular skills and knowledge in order to help develop international perspectives among all students. The development of an international perspective is more of a personal integrative process than a set of ideas and/or skills able to be transmitted generically. It is a process that requires considerable effort on the part of students and particular skills and knowledge on the part of teachers. Third, scholars (e.g. Rizvi and Lingard, 2010) are making efforts to raise the awareness of intercultural communication and learning challenges, and to increase intercultural sensitivity and reflexivity. All these issues discussed here need specific training so that faculty can be equipped with appropriate knowledge, skills, awareness, and sensitivity to respond to the changing learning context.

There are institutional barriers blocking faculty participation. First, there is a general lack of coordination and information available regarding engagement in international initiatives. Faculty reported feeling unclear about institutional internationalization rationales, which can cause tension between faculty's perceived values and the ones held by the institution (Friesen,

2013). Second, limited funding availability put many constraints on international work (Dewey & Duff, 2009). Third, some administrative policies and procedures at the university serve as disincentives to participation in international initiatives. Fourth, there is a lack of support staff and personnel to facilitate international initiatives (Turner & Robson, 2008; de Wit et al., 2015).

From different angles, researchers collectively call for institutional intervention to create a conducive environment for comprehensive and transformative internationalization. Solutions of many of the issues are beyond the capability of any individual, such as intercultural separation between international and domestic students (Devlin & Peacock, 2009; Urban & Palmer, 2014; Volet & Ang, 1998), faculty and staff professional training (Leask, 2003; Leask, 2010), and creating a university-wide consensus on internationalization (Turner & Robson, 2008; Marginson & Sawir, 2011). The university has to take the responsibility and adopt a more systemic approach to campus internationalization. This will help enable its faculty, staff, and students to participate in institutional internationalization.

### **Future Research**

First, research should include domestic student experiences to understand how they contribute to campus internationalization. The key issue is how open and how prepared are domestic students, as agents of internationalization, for this personal shift and engagement. The literature tends to ignore domestic students. The extent to which domestic students contribute to internationalization of the institution is hardly recognized. Scholars (Sawir, 2013; Volet & Jones, 2012) call for more research to explore their perspectives and transformation experiences to inform institutional policies and practice and the design of intervention strategies and to counter the arguments that “international students wish to develop friendships with domestic students”

but the unwelcoming attitudes of domestic students prevent them from establishing friendships (Sawir, 2013, p. 373).

Second, the transformation perspective is a recommended approach to view intercultural interaction at an internationalizing campus. In the context of strong criticisms of the ‘adjustment paradigm’ prevailing in international education (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 49), the literature from a transformation perspective goes beyond individual adaptation by unpacking the ultimate outcome of intercultural education at the personal level, including both students and teachers (Volet & Jones, 2012).

Third, it will be fruitful to investigate situational factors influencing the intercultural learning behaviors of international and domestic students. There is a need to turn attention from international students to the host institution for innovative strategies for diversity management (Turner & Robson, 2008). For example, how are curriculum or co-curricular activities structured and developed? How does the teaching, pedagogy, advising, and learning environment facilitate, inhibit, promote, or devalue intercultural learning?

Fourth, qualitative case study from a transformation perspective is recommended as a valid methodology to observe individual intercultural encounters and transitions in higher education. To explore the two-way reciprocal adaptation of faculty, international and domestic students, Volet and Jones (2012) reminds that research design needs to carefully avoid decontextualized surveys, interviews or focus groups. With a carefully designed qualitative case study, research may be able to address the nature of reciprocity as it occurs, that is where the two parties represent each other’s small culture context.

## Summary

In theory, internationalization at the individual learning level is expected to be transformational learning. The word ‘transformational’ suggests the need of change. As Ellingboe (1996) recognizes, internationalization is an ongoing, future-oriented, multidimensional, interdisciplinary, leadership-driven vision. It involves many stakeholders working together to change the internal dynamics of an institution. This change is an institutional response and adaptation to an increasingly diverse, globally focused, ever-changing external environment.

This section makes the invisible visible, explaining the influential components and challenges of the intersection of international and intercultural education. First, it depicts the influence of academic cultures and intellectual traditions on student learning at the country of education. Studies on cross-cultural learning experiences uncover how the academic conventions in the country of education facilitates its inclusiveness and exclusiveness, creates opportunities and challenges for different students. It underscores the necessity to reassess assumptions, reflect on the concept of teaching and learning, and warn the risk of being complacent about the superiority of ‘Western’ academic ways.

Second, it illustrates the changing institutional response towards international student presence, from deficit thinking (adjustment perspective/approach) to valuable learning resources (transformation perspective/approach), via which the position and value of the international student in internationalizing the home campus becomes clear. The emerging trend of scholarship problematizes the traditional concept of the international student, extending the possibility of becoming an international learner among all participants in an international and intercultural education setting.

Third, it demonstrates that intercultural interaction and relations are not natural and spontaneous product of bringing different groups of students together. Both international and domestic students confront challenges in intercultural communication and learning, which should be of concern for the teaching faculty.

Fourth, it explains the significance of the faculty role in internationalizing the home campus, via their impact on the internationalization of the curriculum and the facilitation role in intercultural interaction. Some institutional barriers are laid out and the necessity of institutional intervention is explained.

### **Implication**

Established scholars offer a few caveats for conducting research on internationalization through the lens of transformation. In the transformation perspective examining individual cultural transition experiences, Volet and Jones (2012) point out some methodological problems and limitations in the extant literature. For example, regarding mutual adaptation, few studies investigate the views of both international and domestic students. Data collection methods in some studies exploring reciprocal adaptation are decontextualized, which are not well suited to capture and analyze the reciprocal and dynamic nature of interactions. In my research design, I need to be deliberate and strategic in (a) avoiding decontextualized interview questions and (b) asking probing questions that can produce rich contextualized data.

It is a research gap that there is no sufficient data and studies on the impact of internationalization. This leads to the lack of information to guide decision-making. More evidence needs to be collected for making accurate analysis and comparison about internationalization (de Wit et al., 2015). Looking at the individual learning experiences in an international doctoral program at a public research university, my dissertation project tries to



shed light on the impact of internationalization on the teaching and learning experiences of the faculty, American students, and international students.

### **A Highlight of Internationalization Issues in the United States (U.S.)**

This section offers a glance of internationalization issues in the U.S. It discusses the history of international education, its current stage, challenges, characteristics, and direction. Overall it is not a very encouraging picture. It is a scholarly concern that Americans were victims of the strength of U.S. higher education, which helped to foster the view that everything an academic needed was right here at home. Much of the international education in the U.S. applies a minimalist approach. While many books, articles, and conference papers address university attempts to internationalize, the curriculum has remained hidden from public discourse. Internationalization activity must be driven by an institution-wide vision, and the first and foremost focus of the vision should be student learning. With the current situation, to enable transformative and comprehensive internationalization, it is up to individual institutions to set new rules and new expectations to adapt to the changing environment.

### **A Brief Report on the International Education Expansion in the U.S.**

According to de Wit (2002), in the U.S. the primary internationalization activities before the twentieth century were individual mobility to Europe and the import of European Models to higher education. Promotion of peace and mutual understanding was the traditional rationale in the first half of the twentieth century. The Second World War caused a radical change in internationalization and American higher education generally. In the name of promoting peace and mutual understanding, national security and foreign policy became the real forces behind the expansion of international activities.

During the period between the 1950s and the 1980s, although international education was motivated mainly by political interest, it has resulted in a great variety of national, private, and institutional programs for international education, far more than the number in Europe at that

time. America has developed an active lobby and advocacy tradition during this time. This tradition has made it difficult for U.S. international education to move in new directions.

Since the 1980s until the late 1990s, foreign policy and national security continued to be a factor, but were less dominant than it had been in the past. Conversations of international education started to emphasize the economic contribution of international students to the nation and discuss actions for coordinated marketing and recruitment. This indicated a shift of major driving rationales from the political to the economic.

Although educational leaders speak in many cases with great enthusiasm and support about the importance of international education, there were very few attempts at comprehensive internationalization in American universities up to the 1990s (de Wit, 2002, p. 35).

Internationalization to a large extent is “occasional, coincidental, sporadic, or episodic” (Teichler, 1996, cited in de Wit, 2002, p. 75). Mestenhauser (1998) made a famous comment on this history. In the U.S. history, internationalization

Has experienced a roller coaster ride of rapid rise and fall, driven by the Cold War; by various international crisis, such as the hostage or oil crisis; or by the laissez-faire forces of demand and supply. When rapid growth seemed just around the corner, other educational or political priorities have pushed international education aside. Indeed, during the past 70 years, it was on the verge of becoming the mega-trend, but never quite made it. (p. xvii)

In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, American higher education has been undergoing external and internal pressures to internationalize the campus. Externally, American higher education is experiencing pressure towards deeper and wider international engagement. Identified forces include deliberate governmental policy, the inquiring minds of scholars and students, the special

interconnectedness of science and the increasing interconnectedness of commerce, and the extraordinary advances in technology and transportation that have so diminished former barriers of time and distance (de Wit, 2002; Johnstone, 2010). Internally, studies (Hudzik, 2015; Lee et al, 2006) suggest three internal motives for actively recruiting international students. First, it is motivated by revenue-generation possibilities in reaction to more recent fiscal pressures. Second, it is motivated by a desire to increase student and cultural diversity in the classroom and on the campus. Third, it is the long-standing centrality of international students to the U.S. higher education economy, particularly in graduate education (Lee et al., 2006, p. 558). The details of institutional internationalization are quite ‘bottom up’ (institutionally driven) and institutionally diverse (Hudzik, 2015, p. 265). Although U.S. institutions remain the foremost destination of international student mobility, international student enrollment comprises only about 3.5% of total degree-granting tertiary enrollments, much lower than the U.K. (nearing 20%), and Australia (over 20%) (Hudzik, 2015, p. 216).

The newest NAFSA (2017) report evidences that there is a strong economic motive for the U.S. to recruit international students. International students studying at U.S. colleges and universities contribute \$36.9 billion to the U.S. economy and support 450,331 jobs. For every seven international students enrolled, three U.S. jobs are created and supported by spending occurring in the higher education, accommodation, dining, retail, transportation, telecommunications and health insurance sectors (NAFSA 2017). This is a 12.4% increase in jobs supported and a 12.5% increase in dollars contributed to the economy from the prior academic year. In the state of Hawai‘i, according to this report, in the 2016-2017 academic year the state has economically benefited \$111.4 million from international student recruitment. International students helped create 1,040 jobs.

In the recent twenty years following the economic crisis, the U.S. expanded internationalization in the context of fiscal distress and the massification of higher education. This historical shift in American higher education influences what approaches can be selected for internationalizing the campus and even influences the potential of institutional internationalization. Hudzik (2015) identifies three constraints caused by this particular historical moment. First, it is to control the costs of internationalization. Second, it is to provide access to mobility opportunities to a rapidly changing and diversifying student clientele. Third, it is not to increase student debt or decrease completion rates as a result of adding new requirements to internationalize curricula and learning.

In the U.S., the discussion of comprehensive internationalization as an expected direction has been existing among scholars since the late 1990s. Yet, it still leaves much to be desired. In the 1990s, using the University of Minnesota as a case for studying comprehensive internationalization, Menstenhauser and Ellingboe (1998) explored possibilities of internationalizing the curriculum across diverse programs and instructional unities. Their book shows that international education in the U.S. was minimalist, instrumental, introductory, conceptually simple, disciplinary-reductionist, and static. They argue that internationalization of the curriculum is a system which demands an urgent need to study international education on the highest level of sophistication as a multidimensional, multiplex, interdisciplinary, intercultural, research, and policy-driven system of global scope at all levels of education. To better the practice, applying a “maximalist” approach to internationalization of the curriculum seems necessary.

In a qualitative study, Ellingboe (1998) pointed out problems of missing a systemic policy at the institutional level as well as a lack of communication between the bottom and top

levels. At the bottom (college, department, and individual) levels, internationalization was already happening. Some faculty members were aware of it, and there were many programs and linkages in operation that provided cross-cultural experiences; also ample examples of international courses were existing in various college units. However, as a system the University of Minnesota lacked a comprehensive curricular and systemic policy for internationalization as well as a coordinated effort to communicate the importance of internationalization. Thus, the resources and internationalization efforts at the bottom level were not connected or communicated at the institutional level.

The American Council on Education (ACE, 2012) analyzes the nation-wide institutional internationalization practice based on its model of comprehensive internationalization. The findings suggest that comprehensive internationalization is not a deep-seated reality yet. Although institutions are incorporating internationally focused goals into their mission statements and strategic plans, the thought-provoking questions raised by Altbach and Peterson (1998) about faculty development and international students are still valid today. These questions include: How does a goal of having more students to study abroad relate to plans for faculty development? Will we have a globally oriented student body taught by a faculty that is hard-pressed for resources to place its teaching and research in a cooperative context? Will foreign students on U.S. campuses be seen as a source of income or as a resource of international expertise (Altbach & Peterson, 1998, p. 36-39, cited in ACE, 2012, p. 23)? The absence of evidence, as shown in this report, further suggests that improvement in faculty development is still needed.

In a more recent work completed by the Boston College Center for International Higher Education, a very fundamental question on professional training was asked. That is, where and

how are practitioners, researchers, and policymakers trained for the work they do, and to what extent is internationalization a focus of this training? In this study, Rumbley, Stanfield, and de Gayardon (2014) found that, globally, there are some 217 research centers around the world focused primarily on higher education, as well as 277 academic programs granting graduate-level degrees or other credentials in the field of higher education studies. Notably, the U.S. is home to 70 percent of the degree-granting academic programs in higher education identified by the global inventory. However, just 6.7 percent of programs in North America indicate that comparative and international studies are a key focus area, and a mere 8.2 percent point to globalization and internationalization as primary topics of interest. These data re-emphasized the space for improvement in relation to the training of practitioners, researchers, and policy makers in the U.S. whose work engages with internationalization.

### **Two Important and Relevant Issues of American Internationalization**

This section identifies two important issues in the U.S. in relation to the development of internationalization. The first one is the leading position of doctoral institutions in many of the internationalization indicators compared with other higher education classifications in America. The discussion shows that if the public doctoral institutions are committed, they have the autonomy, experience, and capability to achieve transformative internationalization. The second issue is a possible complacency characteristic that has been suspected, critiqued, and discussed since the late 1990s. This has caused transformative and comprehensive internationalization not be viewed as a deep-seated reality.

#### **Outpacing doctoral institutions and their future.**

The U.S. has very complex higher education classifications. According to Hudzik (2015), there are about 4,600 degree-granting accredited higher education institutions in the U.S. Of

those approximately 42% grant only two-year or associate degrees, 17% grant mainly baccalaureate degrees, 16% master's and baccalaureate degrees, and slightly less than 7% (around 300) are doctoral and research institutions. Nearly 20% are special or narrow focus institutions. A little over one third of post-secondary institutions are private non-profit and a little more than one quarter are private for profit. This diversity is consistent with the variance of internationalization focus, strategies, and achievement across tertiary institutes.

There is no national system of higher education in the U.S. The federal government exerts influence on higher education policies at the state and institutional levels, but does not exercise command and control (Hudzik, 2015). There is very little support for increased federal control, regulation, or standards, either within the higher education community, from the general public, or politically, unless funding for innovation were to be provided without excessive requirements attached. It is within the framework of system decentralization, diversity, accreditation and federal government influence rather than authoritative control that U.S. higher education institutions engage in internationalization.

National organizations, major private foundations, and many scholars clearly state that the focus of American internationalization is on the undergraduate level (ACE, 2012; de Wit, 2002; Johnstone, d'Ambrosio & Yakoboski, 2010; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998). American higher education has been developing a broad variety of activities, programs, and projects in international education, mainly at the undergraduate level: international curriculum development, area studies, foreign language training, study abroad, exchanges, foreign student recruitment and advising, and development cooperation and assistance.

The research tends to suggest that doctoral institutions outpace all other colleges on many of the internationalization indicators. In the 1990s, Haas (1996) found that university faculty had



significantly higher participation rates than colleagues at teaching-oriented colleges (p. 378). About twenty years later, the American Council on Education (ACE, 2012) identifies a similar pattern. 95 percent of doctoral institution respondents reported that the level of internationalization at their institutions has been “high” or “moderate” in recent years. This is in comparison with an average point across all institutions at 56 percent (p. 6). Doctoral institutions also lead the way on both of these indicators, (a) mission statements refer to international or global education, or other aspects of internationalization, and (b) campus-wide internationalization plans (p. 7).

Currently, it is up to individual institutions to set new rules and new expectations to adapt to the changing environment. First, institutions are not just followers but also agents of their internationalization. From the organizational management perspective (Bartell, 2003; Turner & Robson, 2008), institutions still have some choices to engineer their prospects and steer the direction. Each institution is unique in its own culture, resources, network, and priority. Higher education institutions have the foundation to create effective strategies that are congruent with their own culture, ethos, and serve its mission.

Second, other actors, such as professional associations of the disciplines, are not able to solve the specific challenges of internationalizing the curriculum, which is a major component of internationalizing the campus. According to Peterson (2010), associations of disciplines traditionally are not built for internationalizing the field. Further, for the major disciplines the emphasis is generally not on interdisciplinary and internationalizing work on behalf of curricular transformation (p. 144). In line with the autonomy of American higher education, it is primarily a responsibility of American universities and colleges to analyze their role in the new global environment and bring together different isolated components of international education into an

integral strategy for their institutions (de Wit, 2002, p. 36). If the institution or the program attempts to internationalize the curriculum, it will be up to individual institutions or departments to set new rules and expectations that can best serve the purpose. Internationalization activity must be driven by an institution-wide vision and the first and foremost directive of the vision should be student learning.

Third, compared with other world regions, the American public universities are at a more advantageous position. Compared with Europe, American institutions are experienced in situations where funding is not guaranteed and strategies are designed in a proactive instead of a reactive way (de Wit, 2002, p. 78). Johnstone (2010) observes that U.S. public universities have a great deal more institutional autonomy and active management than many public universities in most other countries (p. 206). These features contribute to a positive picture. If American public doctoral institutions are committed, they have the autonomy, experience, and capability to achieve transformative internationalization.

### **Suspicion of complacency in American internationalization.**

In the last two decades, scholars have been suspicious of complacency and a sense of parochialism in American internationalization engagement, and are concerned of their impact on faculty and student participation. In an international survey initiated by the Carnegie Foundation for recognizing the common challenges facing the academy worldwide, Haas (1996) reported on the performance of American academics. When item-by-item comparisons across countries are made, U.S. academics ranked last or next to last in the proportion agreeing with international statements. More than half of all faculty did not belong to any 'international disciplinary/scientific societies' and seven in ten attended no professional conferences outside the U.S. in the preceding three years. Two-thirds of all faculty had published no articles or

books in another country in the previous three years, 59 percent in the previous ten years. U.S. academics rarely used other languages. Only one in ten had written an article or book in another language in the previous three years (p. 378). In the past three years of the survey, only one in five academics had experience working on a research project with foreign colleagues. Teaching-oriented faculty, regardless of institutional affiliation or sex, participated in remarkably little international professional activity (p. 385). This phenomenon has raised the concern of parochialism and superiority in American higher education.

Haas (1996) acknowledges a broad-based consensus among U.S. academics that higher education should not be parochial, and that there is inherent merit in openness, including an international orientation. However, he notes that the rationale for such an orientation, when articulated, seems to rest more on the concept of having the U.S. educational process contribute to the development of students from abroad than from a belief that U.S. faculty and students need to tap into the richness and educational achievements of other cultures. The belief that this excellent education system could be improved significantly by revising the curricula of our universities to incorporate more of the perspectives, ideas, practices, and achievements developed in other nations has fewer proponents (p. 376). There appears to be a chasm between the internationalist attitudes of U.S. academics and the level of international exchange in which they are involved.

In the same international survey, after comparing all the findings of fourteen countries, Altbach (1996) found that international consciousness in all of the countries in the survey was quite high except the U.S. In many of the survey items, American faculty ranked below the average, such as interest in collaborating with foreign colleagues and appreciation of scholarly

work published in another country. It appeared that U.S. academics were far less internationalist than those of their counterparts in the other countries surveyed.

In another study, Mestenhauser (1998) raised a concern with parochialism in inhabiting internationalizing the curriculum. After an examination of 360 syllabi from courses that claim to have been internationalized by grants from the Title VI Program, Mestenhauser found some serious flaws. All the evaluated courses used only American reading sources, and the texts were based on Western cultural paradigms assuming the universality of knowledge. Mestenhauser listed four major implications of this assumption for international education. First, it sent a message that the disciplines have declared themselves fully internationalized and capable of functioning everywhere. Second, this assumption reflected that the American culture biased those who were called upon to work abroad or those who were from other cultures. Third, it implied an oversimplified comparison of all cultures with America's. Fourth, it ignored genuine cultural differences. These implications have a fundamental impact on limiting the potential of internationalization in the U.S.

Altbach and Teichler (2001) comment that there is scant interest in the U.S. in genuine reciprocal international exchanges and a genuine internationalization of higher education. Many American higher education institutions have undertaken substantial steps toward involvement in exchanges and international education. However, some institutions advertise their international commitments without making necessary changes in funding, exchange program initiatives, the curriculum design, or other areas. This suggests that institutional commitments tended to be modest and peripheral to the mainstream of the institution.

By analyzing the history of internationalization in the U.S., de Wit (2002) made a comment on the nation's characteristics in the practice of internationalization. He said, it is this

combination of parochialism and arrogance that determined for most of the twentieth century, and still to a large extent today, the worldview of and the motivation for international education in the U.S. (p. 39). Some scholars (e.g. Johnstone, 2010) claim that American higher education is a victim of its strength. Higher education in the U.S. takes many top seats of the major global ranking systems. But these do not necessarily signify a higher educational system adapting to an increasingly globalized world. While the U.S. is doing a little better in the internationalization of the American undergraduate experience than the recent past, most of the rest of the world is doing much better.

The Fulbright Program can be viewed as a stimulus plan from the U.S. government for faculty engagement. It is ironic that Fulbright programs has a “perennial challenge” of recruiting a full complement of applicants for the number of awards available, especially considering the budget constraints faced by many institutions (Peterson, 2010, p. 141). Peterson remarks that there is “something fundamentally wrong with this picture when we are purportedly deeply engaged in internationalization efforts” (p. 142). He comments that American higher education is its own victim. The strength of American higher education, as reflected in the dominance of top seats in the major global ranking systems, helps to foster a view that everything an academic needs is right here at home (p. 137).

There has not been enough institutional reward and incentive systems for faculty to participate in internationalization willingly. There is little conversation about providing opportunities for faculty to study abroad, particularly those who were not area, comparative or international studies specialists (Altbach & Peterson, 1998, cited in Peterson, 2010).

Longitudinal studies found that Fulbright faculty participants comprehensively internationalize their campus upon return (Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, 2001, cited in Peterson,

2010, p. 141). However, many departments do not actively encourage their members to apply for lecturing Fullbrights (p. 141). Once the institution is committed to remove barriers and create incentives, faculty can be expected to exercise their role more freely.

More recently the American Council on Education (ACE, 2012) reported that there are significant constraints on faculty development at the institutional level. Tenure requirements that reward international activities remain rare. Internationalization-oriented workshops for faculty have recently become less available. If faculty feels the tenure process does not reward them for undertaking international work, or if they do not have opportunities to learn how to infuse global perspectives into their teaching, their ability to help students develop international competence may be limited. This finding restates the necessity to make campus-wide systemic changes to encourage faculty engagement.

## **Summary**

Throughout American educational history, there were several times that internationalization almost became a mega-trend. But it never truly made it. The internationalist dream of comprehensive internationalization has existed in scholarly discussion for over two decades. To date, even with the unprecedented external pressure pulling and pushing higher education to be more internationally engaged, little change has occurred with respect to the questions and concerns raised by Altbach and Peterson (1998) about faculty development, international student support, and domestic student learning.

At the national perspective, doctoral and research institutions outpace all other higher education classifications in many internationalization indicators, as reported by the American Council on Education (ACE, 2012). American public universities enjoy a great deal of institutional autonomy and active management (Johnstone, 2010). They have much freedom to

engineer their internationalization prospect. The current situation suggests that it is up to individual institutions to set new rules and new expectations to adapt to the call of internationalization. The realization of comprehensive internationalization requires careful planning, allocation of resources, and a sustained commitment that starts from top leadership and permeates throughout the institution. It is the time for institutions to be innovative in organizational management and creating effective strategies.

Does American higher education have the capability, knowledge, and resources to achieve the glorious internationalization outcome that has been envisioned by leading scholars—the transformative and comprehensive internationalization? The answer is yes. Compared with other world regions or countries, the U.S. has been experienced in active lobbying, advocacy, and partnering with the private (de Wit, 2002). With the current fiscal distress in higher education worldwide, this is an advantage. The question is more about how determined and committed American tertiary institutes are in enabling the campus to be internationally oriented.

### **Implication**

The ideas discussed in this section have a few implications for my research design and data collection. First, as my case study research site is a public doctoral institution, it is helpful to collect data on the experience of active lobbying, advocacy, and partnering with the private, if available and appropriate. Knowing how autonomy is exercised at my selected case may better inform me about the context. The institutional mission statement, strategic planning, and international education reports are good sources of documentation data. Second, it is important to pay attention to how faculty is encouraged and discouraged to participate in internationalization. Documents about faculty curriculum vitae, department tenure promotion, rewards, and incentive policies may be of help. Third, it would be interesting to know the

experience of the faculty and students at my selected case in setting new rules and new expectations. There has not been much discussion about this in the extant scholarship.



## **Chapter 3: Conceptual Framework: Student Self-Formation in International Education**

### **Introducing the Theorization**

After a thorough and critical review of the main works in cross-cultural psychology related to international education, Marginson (see Marginson et al., 2010; Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Marginson, 2014) points out the weakness and limitations of viewing international education from the psychological perspective, particularly in understanding international student experiences. As elaborated in Chapter 2, the application of cross-cultural psychology as the main research paradigm in understanding international education is limited. This adjustment paradigm neglects and underplays the role of students as self-directed agents (Marginson, 2014, p.9). Marginson notes the under-recognition of such experience of the joys and terrors of making a self amid a range of often novel choices. He and his colleagues suggest an integrated cultural theorization that emphasizes individual agency in the experience of international education. This rethinking and re-imagining of international education conceives international students as self-determining human agents with full sets of human rights (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 9), beyond the narrow view that only treats them as consumers in the education trade market.

To address the academic neglect of student agency in international education and to counteract the implication of cross-cultural psychology's problematic assumption and theorization, Marginson and his colleagues offer a new theory that conceptualizes international education as a process of self-formation of all students in an intercultural learning environment. This idea has two layers of meaning. First, international education is a process of student self-formation. Second, international education has the potential to become intercultural learning for all participants.

## **The Idea of Student Self-Formation in International Education**

The idea of international education as self-formation puts the student in the center of the frame. It stresses that the student has the freedom to exercise self-reflexivity, self-will and self-determination for the accomplishment of self-change. This freedom can play an active role in altering students' space of possibles (Marginson, 2014, p. 10). The position of this theorization is to apprehend students as self-responsible adults, and not as dependent children (p. 11).

International education as self-formation also means that instead of the international student being seen as habitually weak or deficit, the student is understood as typically a strong agent piloting the course of her or his life (Marginson, 2014, p. 12). International students consciously position themselves in disequilibrium with their origins and the host country. Acknowledging that her or his setting and conditions are often challenging and transformative, Marginson stresses the idea that the student has chosen to experience that transformation.

“In cross-border international education, in which students visualize the journey before seeing the terrain, not all of the early dreams can be realized. The students adjust themselves and their preferred trajectory as they go” (Marginson, 2014, p. 11). For international students, changing themselves is the whole point of international education. They take on this great challenge because they want to acquire certain educated and personal attributes (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, pp. 137-138).

The idea of student self-formation in international education does not mean that anything is possible—that the student can be whatever she or he wants. “International students form themselves under conditions that they do not control. Those conditions are not the same for each international student” (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 139). If conditions are right, international education can provide transformative intercultural learning for all participants; faculty, domestic

and international students can all benefit from the diverse backgrounds that each member brings to the community.

### **Student Self-Formation and the Potential of International Education**

Marginson believes that international education has the potential to make its promise work, that is, “to integrate nations more closely and open up the exporting educational institutions to the world, so local and international students experience life-changing learning” (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 6). This idea of student self-formation strives to enable international education to create a more mutual and cosmopolitan experience for all involved parties. The premise of intercultural education is mutually transformative for local and international students.

In theory, depending on the conditions, student self-formation in international education can be culturally reciprocal and culturally separated (Marginson et al., 2010, p. 393). Self-formation is reciprocal when interaction takes place between internationals and locals. Potentially, this leads to mutual learning and change. International education becomes an intercultural process.

However, the tendency of cross-cultural separation and segregation between internationals and locals has been frequently noted by researchers (Marginson et al., 2010; Lee & Rice, 2007; Trice, 2004, 2007). The presence of a diverse student body does not spontaneously transform higher education classrooms into a cosmopolitan learning places. In a study on the contribution of international students to the internationalization of higher education curriculum, Sawir (2013) found that while academic staff members positively value international student presence in their teaching domestic students remained neglectful and unaware of the changing

cultural environment. It was a challenge for staff to get domestic students to utilize the cultural resources represented by international students (p. 359).

In reality, self-formation of both international and domestic students tends to occur in a culturally separated way. Interviews with 200 international students revealed that relations between internationals and locals were merely cross-cultural, with no necessary implication of deep engagement and mutual transformation (Marginson et al., 2010). International students changed out of choice and necessity while locals remained stubbornly unmoved by the desire or need to engage. The transformation of internationals occurred separately from the locals (Marginson et al., 2010, p. 393). Informed by the data from the same research subjects, Marginson and Sawir (2011) commented that international programs contributed little to the self-formation of most local students. These programs did not motivate local students to become someone different. Their self-formation took place elsewhere (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 147).

### **Two Forms, Strategies, or Sets of Tools: Multiplicity and Hybridity**

Self-formation is a work of the imagination configured by coordinating more than one cultural set of possibilities (Marginson, 2014, p. 14). Multiplicity and hybridity are crucial for understanding the shaping, formation, and development of self as fluid, unstable, and complex in intercultural education. In different books and articles, Marginson uses different academic words to categorize the connection between them (i.e. multiplicity and hybridity) and self-formation. Multiplicity and hybridity have been described as main forms (Marginson et al., 2010), strategies (Marginson & Sawir, 2011), and sets of tools (Marginson, 2014). The key point is that the international student encounter with English-speaking higher education systems is not a journey

of conversion to a (non-existent) stable equilibrium; it is a never-finished cultural negotiation (Marginson, 2014, p. 19).

Self-formation entails multiplicity because the international student is more than one person and lives more than one kind of life. The international student maintains home country beliefs and practices in domains like family, marriage, and religion. The student develops cultural learning from new daily practices and utilizes it to facilitate interaction in the host country. The active student also acquires a heightened sense of cultural relativism and greater reflexivity, with a more conscious and deliberative approach to personal choices and identity formation (Marginson, 2014, p. 15).

In the case of hybridity the international student synthesizes different cultural and relational elements into a newly formed self. Cultural maintenance and adaptation are not necessarily in opposition (Lee & Koro-Ljungberg, 2007, cited in Marginson, 2014, p. 15). At the end of the sojourn, the student, rather than flipping back into a home country identity, moves to a third place<sup>3</sup> they share with other experienced sojourners. According to Rizvi (2014), in a third place “students are equally comfortable in more than one cultural site. They are a new global generation” (p. 125). In international and intercultural education, students transform in the third place.

Multiplicity and hybridity are associated with a heightened reflexivity and a sense of cultural relativism. Openness to the other is essential (Marginson, 2014, p. 15). In intercultural education, many employ elements of both multiplicity and hybridity. With continuing relations back home, same-culture networks, and cosmopolitan friendships with other internationals and

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<sup>3</sup> Other scholars named it differently. Rizvi (2014) named it “third culture”. Kramsch called it “third space” (1993, cited in Chowdhury & Phan, 2014)

relations with locals, the possibilities are broad and open. But the choices are constrained in some respects (Marginson et al., 2010).

### **Essential Elements**

Multiplicity and hybridity rest on three conditions: cross-cultural experience, communicative competence, and individual agency (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, pp. 154-157).

Cross-cultural experience is the interaction between people from different cultures.

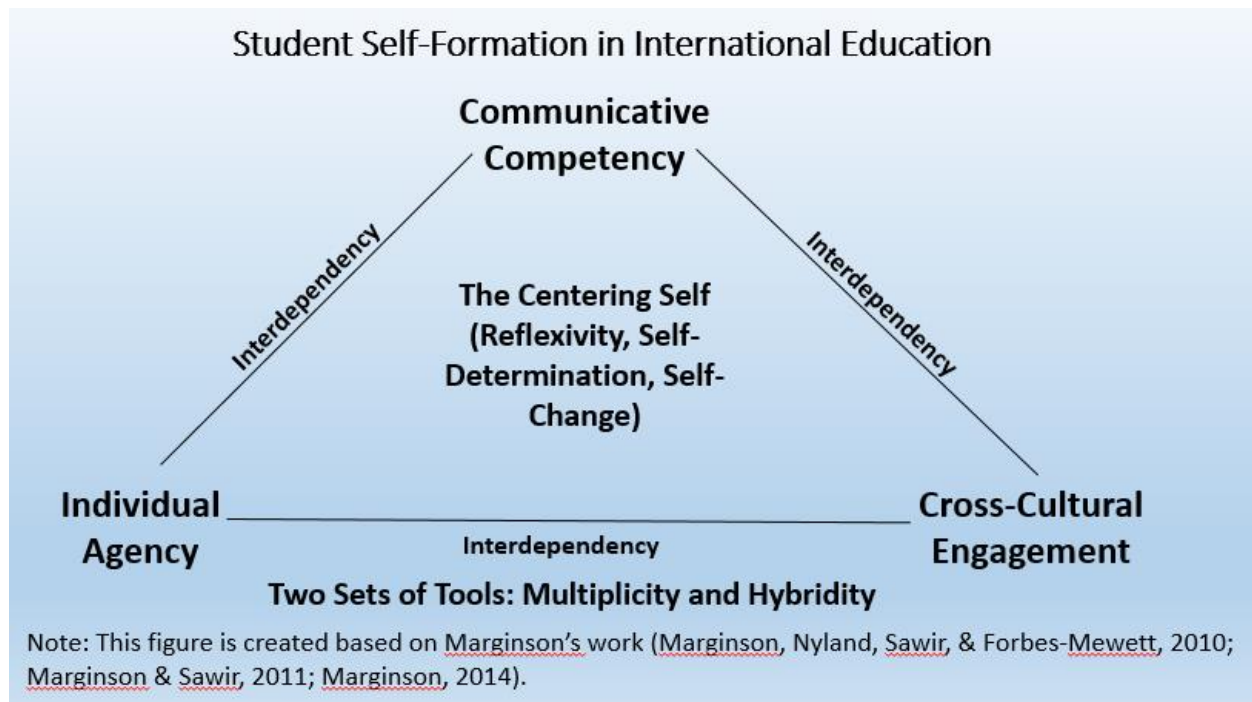
Communication competence entails the skills of cross-cultural communicative association and relationship building, such as language proficiency. Individual agency is an active, shaping, centralizing, coordinating self-will that is robust enough to sustain identity while managing cultural plurality. The three conditions are essential elements in effective self-formation.

Communications, cross-cultural engagement, and individual agency together shape the international education experience. In conjunction these factors enable intercultural education and set limits on it, for internationals and locals (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 97). Their relationship is interdependent.

Each of these elements is both medium for the others and tends to combine with and produce the others in a complex set of mutually reinforcing feedback effects (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 171; Marginson et al., 2010, p. 440). Language proficiency by itself does not ensure effective student agency, active cross-cultural relations, academic progress, and student freedom. But it helps. Likewise, active cross-cultural engagement, free of deficit-making and cross-cultural tensions, can help to build communicative agency. Cross-cultural contact per se does not deliver all these outcomes. Not all cross-cultural contacts are productive or even break down stereotypes. Nevertheless, the right kind of cross-cultural contact is likely to make a significant difference. This can be created in the classroom.

In local conditions that favor relational cosmopolitanism, these three elements (active student agency, communicative competence, and cross-cultural engagement) are essential for generative intercultural relations in international education. The interplay is complex, but the point that must be emphasized is the need for favorable local conditions. There must be sufficient common ground between the parties in the form of a common language, enough shared cultural knowledge, mutual openness and flexibility, and a common motivation to engage. Given that by and large international students are prepared to be more open and flexible, the key variable at play is the position of locals (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 134).

In summary, international education demands more of the imagination than domestic education does (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 142). The term ‘self-formation’ highlights the role of self-directed and reflexive agency. In addition to the student, there are other factors helping to shape international education. These include institutions, teachers, cultural groupings and networks. Nevertheless, self-determination is central to the intercultural learning experience (Marginson et al., 2010, p. 439). The graph below shows the theorization.



(Figure 3.1. Marginson's Self-Formation Framework)

### **Applicability of this Theorization to my Study**

As reiteration, my research objectives are to unpack the complexity of intercultural learning, look for possibilities of mutual adjustment, and offer policy implications for institutional managers. This study is interested in delineating the interplay between active participants (faculty and students) involved in an international program and the construction of intercultural learning environments. Self-formation theory acknowledges the active role of students and is also aware that individual agency is under conditions that may be out of control. It allows space for possibility and potentiality of the active role that faculty and students can play in making internationalization a better practice that everyone can benefit, learn, and transform. The advantage of this theorization align with my goals.



## **Chapter 4: Methodology**

With the aim to engage in and contribute to the conversation of reimagining, rethinking, and rehumanizing the internationalization of higher education<sup>4</sup>, this study responds to a number of leading scholars' (e.g. Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Rizvi, 2014; Ryan, 2012; Volet & Jones, 2012) calls for applying a qualitative case study approach for observing the impact of internationalization on the teaching and learning experiences of faculty and students through the lens of transformation. This chapter explains the justification of qualitative case study methodology, research design, data collection, data sources, data analysis process, and validity.

### **Qualitative Case Study Methodology**

#### **Justification of qualitative study.**

Qualitative and quantitative methods are not simply different ways of doing the same thing; they have different strengths and logics, and are best used to address different kinds of questions and goals (Maxwell, 2013). Quantitative researchers tend to view explanation as a demonstration that there is a statistical relationship between different variables. Qualitative researchers tend to see the world in terms of people, situations, events, and the processes that connect these; their explanation is based on an analysis of how some situations and events influence others. Compared with quantitative research, qualitative research characterizes itself by (1) the focus on process, understanding, and meaning, (2) the researcher is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis, (3) the process is inductive, and (4) the product is richly descriptive (Merriam, 2009, pp 14-16; Maxwell, 2013, pp. 30-31). In the respect of developing causal explanations, as expounded by Maxwell, quantitative researchers tend to be

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<sup>4</sup> In this paper, the internationalization of higher education is interchangeable with internationalization, international education.

interested in whether and to what extent *variance* in *x* causes variance in *y*; qualitative researchers tend to ask *how* *x* plays a role in causing *y*, and what the *process* is that connects *x* and *y*. As this project does not attempt to generalize findings to other populations or sites, nor test a hypothesis, qualitative inquiry is more appropriate for investigating the transitional, nuanced, dynamic, reciprocal, and evolving nature of the international and intercultural teaching and learning process.

Creswell (2013) offers advice to researchers on when to use qualitative research. Qualitative research is appropriate when a problem or issue needs to be *explored*, when a *complex*, detailed understanding of the issue is needed, and when quantitative measures and the statistical analyses do not *fit the problem* (pp. 47-48). As I extensively explained in the literature review chapter, the practice and interpretation of internationalization are complex. The history and conceptualization of internationalization both suggest the nascent stage of the scholarship. Understanding the issue of international education is exploratory and complex in nature. Furthermore, some scholars (Marginson et al., 2010; Marginson & Sawir, 2011) have identified that internationalization as a process of self-formation can scarcely be glimpsed by large survey samples and regression equations.

Using this kind of analysis [quantitative analysis] there is little space for the subjects of research to influence its content. Qualitative methods are less precise but more open and inclusive. Semi-structured interviews allow student subjects to contribute to conceptual development, for example, by introducing insights and ideas new to the research field... The idea of international education as self-formation, not other-directed adjustment, puts student-centeredness into practice. (Marginson, 2014, p. 9)

My research objectives are to (1) unpack the complexity of teaching and learning in an international environment, (2) look for possibilities of mutual adjustment in the local community and international students for better teaching and learning experience, and (3) offer policy implications for institutional managers who are committed to internationalization at home. To attain these objectives, it is crucial to understand the context, the events, and their influences on behaviors. Qualitative data are strong in focusing on naturally occurring, ordinary events in natural settings, their richness and holism, processes, and their emphasis on people's lived experiences (Clark & Creswell, 2010; Miles, Huberman, Saldana, 2014, p. 11). After a comparison of the features of quantitative and qualitative inquiry, I choose qualitative research for this project.

#### **Justification of case study.**

Different authors conceptualize case study differently. Some (Clark & Creswell, 2010; Creswell, 2013; Merriam, 2009) categorize case study as one of the major approaches to qualitative inquiry, contrasting with narrative research, phenomenological research, grounded theory research, ethnographic research, etc. Other scholars, like Yin (2014), regard case study as a research method contrasting with another four methods: experiment, survey, archival analysis, and history. Nevertheless, a case study is generally defined as an empirical inquiry that “investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident” (Yin, 2014, p. 16).

According to Creswell (2013), Flyvbjerg (2011), Merriam (2009), and Yin (2014), case study research has unique features and strengths. These characteristics prescribe certain conditions for which case study research might be of best value to investigate. First, it is an

especially good design for practical problems—for questions, situations, or puzzling occurrences arising from everyday practice. Second, case studies offer in-depth understanding of a contemporary and complex phenomenon. It can get insights into “how things get to be the way they are” (Stake, 1981, cited in Merriam, 2009, p. 44). Third, it is distinguishable from other research designs by producing concrete, context-dependent knowledge. Fourth, it relies on multiple sources of evidence. The data need to converge in a triangulating fashion (Yin, 2014, p. 17). Fifth, it benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis. And sixth, it has proven particularly useful for studying educational innovations, evaluating programs, and informing policy (Merriam, 2009, p. 51).

There have been concerns over suspicion on the rigor, trustworthiness, and generalizability of case study research. As illustrated by Flyvbjerg (2011) and Yin (2014), a good case study research design demands a high level of the researchers’ skills, training, and capability. In addition, it expects the researcher to put extended time and efforts for data collection from wide sources (Yin, 2014, p. 17). The researcher has to be skillful in choosing the case (Flyvbjerg, 2011, p. 304), and systematically strategic in selecting the sampling (p. 305). Put simply, a case study researcher needs to exert lots of care in the research design so as to warrant the rigor, trustworthiness, and generalizability of the study.

Given the nascent stage of internationalization as a research field (de Wit & Hunter, 2015), after a consideration of all of the features, strengths, and limitations of case study research, I found it the best fit for my project. As extensively explained in Chapter 2, this study, with the focus on the impact of internationalization on teaching and learning, has an exploratory nature. There has been enough scholarly attention paid to the economic and political aspects of internationalization; the social, cultural, and educational aspects of internationalization have not

been fully understood, particularly with regard to the impact of internationalization on teaching and learning (Knight, 2005; Leask, 2010). It was unclear if internationalization has an impact on the teaching and learning, how it exerts or does not exercise the influence, what situational factors contribute to the current way of doing, and why teaching and learning are the way they are. The strengths and features of case study research match with the two characteristics of internationalization: its complexity and the significance of locality. As such, case study research is selected as the appropriate research approach because it can offer exploratory and in-depth understanding of contemporary internationalization. Case study can produce context-dependent knowledge on its impact on teaching and learning.

## **Research Design**

**An extreme case: Examining the impact of internationalization at an internationally oriented PhD program at an American public research university.**

As one of the research objectives is to achieve the greatest possible amount of information on the impact of internationalization on teaching and learning, this study selects an extreme case, which excels among peers with its conscious and active participation in internationalization, its reputation of international business, and its label of international excellence. Flyvbjerg (2011, p. 307) underscores the significance of strategic selection of the case to maximize the utility of information from small samples and single cases. Among the four information-oriented selection strategies, “extreme case” stands out for its ability to obtain information on unusual cases, which can be especially problematic or especially good in a more closely defined sense.

This selected case was an extreme case on the positive side for three reasons. First, in the U.S., doctoral institutions outpace all other colleges on many of the internationalization

indicators (ACE, 2012). And as elaborated in the section of *Outpacing doctoral institutions and their future* in Chapter 1, American public research universities have a great deal of institutional autonomy and active management. These facts make the American public doctoral institution one of the best places to investigate the impact of internationalization.

Second, business colleges stand out among all colleges in higher education as an extreme case for two reasons. First, business colleges have been widely recognized by scholars as one of the most active disciplines that proactively engage in internationalizing their programs (Turner & Robson, 2008; Marginson et al., 2010). If internationalization does have an impact, no matter the format, this is most likely to be captured as an extreme case than at other colleges that are less consciously and actively engaged in internationalization. If the impact does not exist or there are barriers for creating an impact, an extreme case has the potential to “clarify the deeper causes behind” the problem and “its consequences than to describe the symptoms of the problem and how frequently they occur” (Flyvbjerg 2011, p. 306). Second, business is a relatively normative applied discipline (Turner & Robson, 2008, p. 43), which makes it a favorable site for investigating international education. As I have discussed in Chapter 2 on the *intersection of internationalization and intercultural education*, knowledge traditions are influential in teaching and learning experiences. To investigate any impact on teaching and learning, it is necessary to observe how implicit norms of intellectual life are made explicit in and outside the classroom. In this sense, the Business College is a critical case.

Third, among all Business Colleges, this select Business College (addressed as The College hereafter) has been particularly famous for its international excellence. It distinguishes itself with its expertise on the Asia-Pacific region. According to the college website information, The College is a pioneer among U.S. business schools in international business. It hosts seven

centers with Asia-Pacific focus and offers MBA programs in 3 Asian countries. “Global business skills”, “international focus”, “multi-ethnic and multi-cultural”, “Asia-Pacific economies and cultures”, “Pacific-Rim nations”, “international management”, and “international research” are words frequently mentioned throughout the college website. The College has been consistently ranked as one of the top institutions by *U.S. News & World Report* for international business and is accredited by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) International. It also hosts an annual international conference on information systems, which has been given an “A” rating by the Australian Government’s Excellence in Research project. Put shortly, compared with many colleges, based on searchable online information, this college is distinguishable for its conscious and active engagement with international research, teaching, and learning,

#### **The context and units of analysis.**

I made the decision to conduct an exploratory single embedded extreme case study for this dissertation project (Yin, 2014, p. 49-67). The context is the teaching and learning experiences of the faculty and students (i.e. domestic students and international students) in the PhD program at The College over the last ten years. Three embedded units of analysis are the experiences of faculty, domestic students, and international students in the selected program within the temporal boundary (Yin, 2014, pp. 49-56).

This study aims to contribute to the analytic generalization of the impact of internationalization on teaching and learning at a doctoral program; statistical generalization is not the aim of this study (Yin, 2014, p. 40). In other words, the findings of this study will be applicable for the usage of corroborating, modifying, rejecting, or otherwise advancing Marginson’s theorization (Yin, 2014, p. 41). It is not the aim of this study to generalize the

findings to all or any doctoral programs that has a strategic focus on internationalization. It relies on readers' own assessment, if they are looking for transferability based on shared characteristics (Flyvbjerg, 2011, pp. 304-308; Merriam, 2009).

### **Why focus on the PhD program?**

Choosing the PhD program as the context of investigation, rather than the master or undergraduate program, relates to my position and hope to resolve some of the fundamental issues of internationalization. I hold three points to argue the advantages of graduate education, doctoral education in particular, for investigating and implementing intercultural education in the U.S. First, If diversity in international and intercultural education is measured by the percentage of foreign nationals, these numbers say, out loud, that graduate school is a more balanced place than undergraduate to challenge the ethnocentric knowledge and epistemology that have been recognized by leading scholars (e.g. Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998; Turner & Robson, 2008). In U.S. post-secondary education, the total percentage of international students among all students is 5.2 (Open Doors Data, 2016). There is a stark difference when this number is compared with the percentage of international students at the graduate level. In American graduate schools, one third of graduate students are foreign nationals (Open Doors Data, 2015). In some disciplines, the majority of their doctoral students are from overseas, especially in electrical engineering (87 percent) and computer science (76 percent) (Anderson, 2013). The presence of a large percentage of international graduate students also puts American graduate education at a more advantageous position than undergraduate to explore the possibility of mutual adjustment and reciprocal internationalization, if the institution and the academe are committed to this goal.



Second, in theory the smaller class size and self-directed learning features of the doctoral program can offer a better educational environment for intimate intercultural interaction.

Common sense knowledge indicates that graduate students are more mature in mind and self-directed in learning. Doctoral education offers more small-class instruction and creates more opportunities to expose domestic and international students to potential transformational learning experiences. These characteristics of graduate school provide a more natural environment for maximizing the chances of enabling transformational learning, which seems a luxury for undergraduate education where the percentage of international students is low.

Third, as doctoral education is the place to train the next generation of scholars, faculty, and professionals (Weidman, Twale, & Stein, 2001), researching the PhD program may offer resolutions for some of the intractable issues related to faculty engagement in internationalization, such as the lack of interest and engagement in institutional internationalization. Researching the PhD program, where future professors, researchers, and professional leaders are produced, has the potential to extract rich information regarding the challenge and opportunity confronting internationalization.

## **Data Collection**

### **Participant recruitment.**

As the research focus is to understand individual experiences at an international and intercultural teaching and learning setting through the lens of Marginson's theorization, this study follows the methodological suggestion of diversifying the groups of participant, referred by Marginson and Sawir (2011), Turner and Robson (2008), and Volet and Jones (2012). These scholars stress the need to have all the participant groups (faculty, international student, and domestic student) to form a holistic picture of the dynamic, transitional, and reciprocal

intercultural learning. Hence, the faculty, international students, and domestic students in the Business PhD program were all targets for participant recruitment.

I received approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) in August of 2017. Participant recruitment lasted five months, starting from January 2018 to May 2018. In total, 25 participants volunteered for individual interviews. They included five domestic students, ten internationals, and ten faculty members.

I used a number of strategies to recruit participants. These strategies were found helpful in recruiting student participants.

- Starting the first interview with an acquaintance who was a current doctoral student in the program;
- Recruiting participants from a PhD class that I have observed since February;
- Recruiting participants from the dissertation defenses that I have attended in the program;
- Recruiting participants from the weekly PhD seminars that I have observed since February;
- Contacting some of the PhD graduates that are listed in The College's placement website;
- Snowball strategy.

By observing the weekly PhD seminars, where faculty often went, I had the chance to meet many faculty members and introduced my research project and myself. But the faculty participants were mainly recruited via these strategies:

- Student participants' recommendation;
- Tailored Email recruitment of all the instructors who have been offering graduate level classes in the recent two years;

- Tailored Email recruitment of all the administrators related to the PhD program (e.g. specialization chairs, program director, deans);
- Sending out hand-written invitation cards with recruitment messages to all prospective faculty participants;
- Snowball strategy

### **Interview questions.**

The Appendix D, E, and F are the interview protocols that I have used for the semi-structured individual interviews with the faculty and students. Participants' perceived meaning of internationalization, the impact on teaching and learning, comments on Marginson's self-formation theory, and ideas for improvement were the focus of the development of interview questions. For example, the question "what does or should internationalizing the program mean?" probes participants' conceptualization of and expectations upon an internationally oriented PhD program. The query "how do you integrate an international perspective into your own teaching?" is an instance of asking faculty member's attitude and experience. In short, the construction of interview protocols reflects the focus of the four main research questions—the interpretation and implementation of, its impact on teaching and learning, the factors causing or not causing an impact, and the main attitude toward internationalizing the PhD program.

Two reasons justify the necessity and relevance of incorporating perspectives from faculty, domestic students and international students. First, it is a source to triangulate the data, adding value to the rigor of data collection. Second, it responds to the call from researchers (e.g. Volet & Jones, 2012) about the significance and necessity to include diverse participant groups in regard to the transitional, evolving, and reciprocal nature of intercultural interaction and relationship building. Relying solely on one group of individual self-reported data (e.g.

international students) is methodologically weak for the understanding of individual adaptation, transformation and engagement in cultural transitions in higher education (Volet & Jones, 2012).

### **Data collection procedure.**

In preparation for individual interviews, I have been actively looking for information about this program (e.g. internet search, anecdotes, archival data). After initial collection of documentation, I visited the site, took notes, collected materials, and had casual conversations with the people on site, when possible and appropriate. The information collected from basic search and physical visits helped form my initial impression about the research site, its environment, location and physical structure. The initial impression prepared me for later interviews.

### **Data Sources**

According to Yin (2014), singular sources of evidence are not recommended when conducting case study research. A major strength of case study data collection is “the opportunity to use many different sources of evidence” (p. 119). Those case studies using multiple sources of evidence were rated more highly in terms of overall quality than those that relied on only single sources of information (p. 119). In addition, compared to other research methods, such as experiments, surveys, or histories, case study research has an exceeding need to triangulate data sources.

To ensure the rigor of data collection and maximize the strength of case study research, this study employed multiple data collection methods in order to gain information about different aspects of the internationalization phenomenon (Maxwell, 2013, p. 102). Documentation, archival records, short survey interviews, individual interviews, student focus group interviews, direct observations, and physical artifacts were the seven data sources.

### **Documentation.**

Any forms of documents relevant to the program and its internationalization history have been systematically searched before and during fieldwork. In addition, email and text communication with the participants, and my personal reflections during the study were part of this data source. Personal reflection documentation (e.g. journaling and diaries) was a way to observe my research bias, track thinking and listening. Memo was another type of documentation. It can contain “hints, clues, and suggestions that simply put into writing any preliminary interpretation of any part of your data—basically conceptualizing your data” (Lempert, 2011, cited in Yin, 2014, p. 135). Documentation was designed to supplement other data, and to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources.

### **Archival records.**

Archival records in regard to The College’s international engagement, its PhD program structure, and its faculty and students’ involvement in international projects were collected. To be specific, these included but were not limited to historical archives, PhD program manual, faculty and students’ curricula vitae, PhD graduates’ job placement information, available courses offered in the recent two years, course syllabi, and other relevant documents.

### **Short survey interviews.**

A short survey (Appendix A and B) was designed to get to know participant backgrounds. In the survey, participants were offered the choice to create a pseudonym. The survey asked questions as to knowledge of language, study or work abroad experiences, intercultural network, and personal teaching, learning, research and publishing experiences relevant to internationalization.

### **Individual interviews.**

Individual interviews were the major data source of this project. Most of the interviews with student participants lasted about an hour. Informants were asked about their motivation for selecting this program, comparison between the expected and the actual learning experiences, experiences of learning with students from other countries, ideas on internationalizing a PhD program, and possible transformation experience. The diverse background of student participants enabled me to see corroboratory and contrary evidence.

The length of interviews with faculty participants ranges from 40-60 minutes. Most of them lasted 45 minutes. Faculty shared ideas on the meaning and impact of institutional internationalization on the teaching and learning in the PhD program. They shared insights on the challenges and opportunities of building an internationally oriented PhD program. Interview questions cover the main attitude in the field towards international and comparative research, the adjustment in the curriculum, and any personal change due to working with people (i.e. students and colleagues) from other countries.

### **Student focus group interview.**

After completing data collection from individual interviews, domestic and international student participants who have showed further interest in participating in a group interview were contacted. Interviews were semi-structured. Based on the initial analysis of all individual interviews, an interview protocol (Appendix G) was used for stimulating insights on the reasonability of my initial findings.

### **Direct observation.**

I spent five months in learning the context, culture, activities in the PhD program. Besides site visits and having informal chats with the students, since 2018 February I have

observed one required course for all first-year and second-year PhD students, most of the weekly seminars, and attended two dissertation defenses. Direct observation of the location, study room, classroom, and interpersonal interaction were helpful sources for learning the social and environmental conditions. Observations were used to describe settings, behavior, and events. It enabled me to draw inferences about the perspectives participants shared in interviews. These inferences I might not be able to obtain by relying exclusively on interview data (Maxwell, 2013, p. 103).

### **Physical artifacts.**

At student focus group interviews, participants were asked to bring physical or cultural artifacts that could best represent their international and intercultural learning at the program. Their explanation and discussion of the artifacts were valuable sources for insights of successful intercultural experiences.

### **Data Analysis Process**

Data analysis has been a process of playing with my data (Yin, 2014, p. 135). This process has also been understood as “making sense out of the data” to answer research questions (Merriam, 2009, pp. 175-176). This complex process involved moving back and forth between concrete bits of data and abstract concepts, between inductive and deductive reasoning, between description and interpretation. I have been searching for patterns, insights, and concepts that seemed promising. It has been necessary to compare and contrast the data in multiple ways throughout the analysis process (Merriam, 2009), such as by juxtaposing the data from two different interviewees, putting information into different arrays, making a matrix of categories and placing the evidence within such categories, creating data displays for examining the data,

tabulating the frequency of different events, putting information in chronological order or using some other temporal scheme (Miles & Huberman, 1994, cited in Yin, 2014, p. 135).

Being aware of the warnings as well as suggestions referred by Maxwell (2013) and Yin (2014) regarding qualitative case study research design, this project has used a number of analytic strategies and techniques before and during data analysis. The following sub-sections explain the study propositions, which state the direction for this study. After that it illuminates how I have used the propositions as important theoretical issues to look for ways in which Marginson's self-formation theory operates in the lives of my participants. Lastly, it explains my strategy for searching plausible rival explanations.

### **Study propositions.**

Undergirding by Marginson's self-formation theory, this case study seeks to understand how and why the self has played a centering role or a limiting role in enabling international education to become intercultural education. It also shows how the three interdependent elements (individual agency, communicative competency, and cross-cultural engagement) has or has not contributed to effective student self-formation in international education. This study exhibits how students undergo multiplicity and hybridity in self-formation.

### **Linking data to propositions.**

The theoretical components in self-formation theory (the centering self and the three elements) shaped the design of interview questions and analytic priorities. Merriam (2009) suggests that data analysis involves both inductive and deductive reasoning (pp. 175-197). The deductive reasoning in this study was reflected via the reliance on theoretical propositions to purposefully look for data, remain focused on research questions, create rival explanations, and avoid distraction in analysis.



### **Working data from the “ground up.”**

In contrast with strategies explained above, using theoretical propositions to make sense of the data, working data from the “ground up” is an inductive strategy (Yin, 2014, p. 138). This strategy stresses the process of developing concepts, constructing categories, and identifying relationships of patterns from the raw data, independent from applying theoretical propositions to test the data. According to Merriam (2009, p. 183) the analysis strategy is totally inductive at the beginning of the study, if the researcher starts data analysis in conjunction with data collection. Coding and the construction of categories are common practices of working data from the “ground up”.

### **Examining plausible rival explanations.**

Yin (2014, pp. 140-142) stresses the importance of identifying rivals prior to data collection. He urges case study researchers to include attempts to collect evidence about the possible other influences than the predicted explanations. As he puts it, “you should have pursued your data collection about them [rival explanations] vigorously—as if you were in fact trying to prove the potency of the other influences rather than finding a reason to reject them” (Patton, 2002, p. 553; Rosenbaum, 2002, pp. 8-10, cited in Yin, 2014, p. 140). Examining rival explanations adds value to the trustworthiness.

I have a few rival explanations that demand attention in data collection and analysis. (1) There are environmental and/or personal conditions for self to play a centering role in enabling international education to become intercultural education. There may be external and internal factors that are conducive for the development of effective self-formation in intercultural learning. For example, students may have to achieve a certain level of maturity in order to form a realistic understanding of her or his learning environment. This knowledge or consciousness

can stimulate the student to become a more active and proactive intercultural learner. (2) Since most domestic students' transformation takes place somewhere else that is independent from the presence of international students (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 147), Marginson's theory may have limitations in explaining the experiences of domestic students, as it was mainly based on the experiences of international students. It is possible that other elements or factors are found influential in the self-formation of domestic students. (3) Although the relationship between the three elements (individual agency, communicative competency, and cross-cultural engagement) is interdependent, the significance and contribution of each elements to student's self-formation may not be equal. And (4) in their book *Ideas for Intercultural Education*, Marginson and Sawir (2011, pp. 153-154) devote several lines to talk about identity-displacement as one of the three strategies of self-formation, in addition to multiplicity and hybridity. However, in their theorization and Marginson's (2014) later elaboration on self-formation the role of displacement is not included. It would be interesting to test this issue and to see if there is any discrepancy in my study.

### **Pattern matching.**

Pattern matching is an analytic technique that “compares an empirical based pattern—that is, one based on the findings from your case study—with a predicted one made before you collected your data (or with several alternative predictions)” (Trochim, 1989, cited in Yin, 2014, p. 143). If the empirical and predicted patterns appear to be similar, the results can help a case study to strengthen its internal validity.

### **Validity**

According to Maxwell (2013, chap 6), it is important to remember that validity is a property of inferences rather than methods. Methods are ways of getting evidence that can help

rule out threats. A number of methods have been used to increase the possibility of testing the correctness or credibility of accounts (e.g. description, conclusion, explanation, interpretation).

The section below discusses two possible threats as well as methods to test validity.

### **Researcher bias, implications, and reacting strategies.**

My bias was that I am sensitive to international students' feelings of difficulty, especially those with an Asian cultural background. I tended to think that the international student's different cultural and educational experience at home country has had an impact on their learning at the country of education, which may contribute to their shared sense of distinction or uniqueness that was normally not shared by most domestic students. My assumption was that the international student might have different learning experiences from the domestic student.

I have been aware of possible implications linked to this bias. If I have paid too much attention to the "uniqueness" of Asian international students, no matter what may have caused it, I could have run a risk of overstating the challenging side of international student experiences in their overall learning. I could underestimate the similarities of learning experience between the international and domestic students, and could form a static, stagnant, and fixed view of the dynamic intercultural learning. I have been aware that this bias tended to interpret the dynamics of learning and the complexity, and fluidity of self-formation in an overly narrow way.

The bias has brought pros and cons. The attention given to international students' cultural, educational, and linguistic background can bring positive influence to the research design in terms of offering a base for developing a rival explanation. I assumed that the external factors (e.g. environmental conditions) might have a significant impact as much as the centering self in forming effective individual agency. Other components of the risk might raise questions and suspicion on the validity if no actions were taken.

To avoid the potential negative consequences, I have tried to avoid relying on data solely from one single group of participants (e.g. international students). Further, I have purposefully compared the experiences of international students and American students to look for similarities between the two different groups in regard to opportunities, challenges, and uncertainty in intercultural encounters and relationship building. Third, Marginson's self-formation theory and the comparison of the student part of the data have directed the analytic focus on the evolving, transitional, reciprocal, and interdependent nature of intercultural learning.

### **Researcher role.**

According to Maxwell (2013, p. 128), the researcher is part of the world she or he studies; the interviewer and the interview situation always influence what the informant says. For qualitative studies, it is meaningful for researchers to remain reflexive of how their values and expectations can influence the study and participants. Positioning myself both as an insider and outsider, I am aware of some advantages and disadvantages in conducting this research.

As stated in the *Introduction* chapter, my personal experience as an active participant of internationalization has shaped my interest in this topic, selection of participant groups, and my preexisting beliefs about the challenges and possibilities of internationalization. The conceptual framework explains my theoretical assumptions about the process and potential of cross-cultural learning at an international program.

As an insider, my earlier experience as an international student and an instructor as well as my genuine interest in supporting international and intercultural learning has offered relative ease for me to initiate conversation, encourage participation, and stimulate ideas for deep reflection. I have been very careful not to overly empathized with them or projected my own feelings and experiences onto theirs. I have successfully maintained the role as an outsider of

this study as a stranger to my participants, a listener of their perceptions, an observer of the field, and the researcher. I have spent 5 months on the site and have made efforts to know potential participants, build rapport and trust, and ensure the reliability of data. As a listener and observer, I have been aware of the necessity to pay attention to silence in interviews. I have also been mindful of the need to observe my bias and constantly remain reflexive of how I might reconstruct participants' experiences.

### **Validity tests.**

For qualitative researchers, it is essential to have validity tests in the process of ruling out validity threats and increasing the credibility of conclusion. It is integral to remain open and look for evidence that could challenge conclusions or that bears on the plausibility of the potential threats (Maxwell, 2013, p. 125). I have specified the most serious and plausible validity threats in the earlier sections under *Examining plausible rival explanations* and *Researcher bias, implications, and reacting strategies*. The following justifies the reasonability of selected strategies for dealing with specific threats.

Earlier discussion of data sources shows that a number of validity tests that are recommended by Maxwell (2013, pp. 125-136) are already embedded in the research design. The multiple sources of data specify intensive involvement and rich data. Triangulation is another effective strategy that has been included in the research design for reducing the risk of researcher bias (p. 128). These strategies have allowed a much greater opportunity for developing and testing alternative hypotheses.

Respondent validation and searching for discrepant evidence and negative cases were two additional strategies I have actively used during data analysis. The discussion topics of the focus group interview focused on the preliminary findings and a clarification of other issues. This was

an approach to rule out the possibility of misinterpreting the meaning of what participants have said, done, and the perspectives they have had on what was going on, as well as being an important way of identifying my bias and misunderstanding of what I have observed.

I have elaborated the theoretical considerations in Chapter 3 and specified the study propositions and four rival explanations in the earlier sections of this chapter. Despite the fact that theoretical lens is important for making sense of the data, it is crucial to limit the imposition of confirmation bias. As such, as a researcher I was aware that I needed to remain open and interested in evidence that might go against the theoretical framework. I have been actively seeking supporting evidence for the four identified rival explanations. The principle was to rigorously examine both the supporting and the discrepant data to assess whether it was more plausible to retain or modify the conclusion (Maxwell, 2013, p. 127).

## **Chapter 5: Findings and Discussion Part 1—Student Perspective**

This chapter presents the findings and discussion based on the 15 student participants' life experiences. I start the discussion from introducing The College and the participants. After that, I present four major themes that have emerged from all the comments, wonders, stories, concerns, emotions, and other forms of memories that my student volunteers have shared with me. These major themes are the meaning of internationalization in the PhD program, the nature of PhD education, the relation of intercultural learning and the ecology of the learning environment, and influential external factors. This chapter demonstrates that internationalization is not a mere educational practice within a program. It is susceptible to a number of uncontrollable factors beyond the reach of the college, such as the traditional purpose of PhD education, the culture of doctoral student training, the influence from the job market, the dominant position of the U.S. research in theory development, the impact of the outlying sociocultural environment, etc. The complexity of internationalization has been explored and discussed via the identification of what factors have been active, and an examination of how they have been exerting power in a direct and indirect way at the program level.

### **Introducing the College**

The College was a business college at a public research university, which was a world-class institution ranked among the top 200 universities in the world by the Academic Ranking of the World Universities. According to the 2015-2016 annual report of the international education at this campus, the university's vision was to engage students with the world and "function competently, competitively, and responsibly as citizens of a global society" (University Annual Report, 2017, p. 5). Its international mission was to "promote excellence by engaging diverse peoples and cultures by integrating international dimensions through teaching, research,

scholarship, and outreach” (p. 5). In recent years, the university has made efforts to recruit more international students and has been having conversations about global engagement at the top administrative level.

By viewing The College’s website, visiting this college on-site, as well as reading some relevant archival documents, one can easily and quickly develop an impression that The College has been a leader in international business and an experienced supporter of international and multicultural education. It has been consistently ranked among the top 25 institutions for international business in the U.S. The two words *International* and *multicultural* were frequently mentioned throughout the college’s website, indicating an awareness of the diverse cultures present at this college. The College prided itself of its active engagement with the business community in the Asia-Pacific region. It hosts one famous international business research journal, offers 3 international MBA programs in China, Japan, and Vietnam, and has 7 centers with Asia-Pacific focus. In addition to the study abroad program, The College had the traditions of (1) hosting an annual international conference and (2) taking dozens of students to intern at big companies in Asia every year. The College was proud to say that all of the faculty members have international expertise and incorporated a global perspective in their courses and academic activities (University Annual Report, 2017). My notes below describe some features of its site.

This college is big, located at a corner of the campus. All of its buildings are connected, like a circle. Walking into the circle of these buildings, I see a yard, a large yard. There are 25 stone tables with wide-open green umbrellas that are inserted into the center of these stone tables. Each table has a set of stone chairs. Besides these table sets, there are a number of other benches, stairs, and flat stones that can serve as comfortable seating places for people to meet, talk, and have a casual conversation. The yard is quiet and



spacious. It is a good place for holding outdoor events. At The College, the identity of “international excellence” is obvious. *International Excellence* is posted right under the college name on all the walls of building entrances. Over a dozen *International Excellence* banners are hung on the light poles inside and around the college. Two giant posters of *international excellence* with the images of two renowned people are attached to two walls of the 7 main buildings. Each poster is about the same size of the whole wall. Walking across the hallway on the first floor, in total there are about twenty bulletin boards on both sides of the hallway, explaining the college’s world experiences, global engagement, international honor society, Pacific Asian Center for Business, various student associations, a number of professional associations, and ongoing events. Once I become familiar with its structure, the feeling of “international,” “active,” and “open” comes naturally.

From online sources, The College’s PhD program in particular promotes an image that it was building up an internationally oriented PhD program. “*International management*,” “*Asia-Pacific focus*,” “*international research*,” and “*global economy*” were highlighted in almost every bullet point statement under the PhD mission and PhD objectives. It had five specialty areas: Accounting, Finance, Information Technology Management, Management, and Marketing.

The doctoral program was created in the late 1990s with an original name *International Management PhD Program*. Two years ago, this doctoral program changed its original name and renamed it with a more widely used title in the field—*PhD Program in Business Administration*. The doctoral program had a strict 4-year graduation plan, requiring all doctoral students to pass the qualifying exam by the end of the first year, pass the comprehensive exam by the end of the second year, complete and successfully defend a dissertation proposal by the end

of the third year, and complete and successfully defend a dissertation by the end of the fourth year.

At The College, the PhD program only offers seminar courses, no introductory courses, and no research method courses. Students took research method courses from other colleges. If needed, students would take introductory level courses from the master's program. Besides specialization courses, in the first two years the College required all doctoral students to take a general seminar course every semester<sup>5</sup>, where professors from the five specialty areas were invited to share tips, lessons, and their most recent research projects with doctoral students. All specialization courses were small in size, about three to five students taking an almost three-hour long class.

It was a small doctoral program. According to the PhD program director, as of the end of my data collection (May 2018), the total number of doctoral students was 28. Although there were five specialty areas in the doctoral program, in recent years one specialty area has not been active in enrolling new students. I wasn't able to recruit any participant from that department. My student participants were all from four departments in The College: Accounting, Finance, Management, and Marketing. Nevertheless, I was able to recruit 15 student volunteers. I was satisfied with this number.

### **Introducing the Participants**

The two tables below show the demographic information of all participants. A total of 25 volunteers participated in this project, five American student participants, ten international

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<sup>5</sup> This policy started to change in the spring of 2018. The first-year doctoral students are all required to take a general seminar course every semester. Since the spring of 2018, this course has no longer been required for the second year doctoral students. The second-year doctoral students are encouraged to attend if the guest speaker's presentation is relevant to the students' research interest.

student participants, and ten faculty participants. Among the 15 student participants, two held assistant professor positions, and one was an associate professor by the time of data collection.

All 15 student participants had rich overseas life experiences in at least one foreign country. All American student participants had either extensive overseas work experience (at least six years) or cross-cultural life experience since they were kids. Most international doctoral students (seven out of ten) have had a minimum of four years of learning and work experience in more than two foreign countries. For the other three international doctoral students whose international and intercultural life experiences were mainly limited to the host country of education, the average length of stay in the U.S. was about 6.5 years.

Most faculty participants could speak two or more languages. Two of them were visiting scholars. Four were administrators. The average length of tenure at the college was over 14 years.

<b>Table 5.1. Demographics of Student Participants</b>				
<b>Name</b>	<b>Domestic or International Student</b>	<b>Knowledge of Languages</b>	<b>Study or Work Abroad Experience</b>	<b>Progress Stage in the Program</b>
Spring	Domestic Student	1	Yes	Coursework taking
John Doe	Domestic Student	2	Yes	Coursework taking
Frog	Domestic Student	3	Yes	Coursework taking
Gift	Domestic Student	2.5	Yes	Coursework taking
Joe Visky	Domestic Student	3	Yes	Coursework taking
Shidler	International Student	3	Yes	Coursework taking
Nancy	International Student	4	Yes	Coursework taking
Tim	International Student	2	Yes	Coursework taking
Jay	International Student	2	Yes	Coursework taking
Samuel	International Student	2	Yes	Coursework taking
Ali	International Student	2	Yes	Coursework taking
Apple	International Student	3	Yes	Close to Graduation
Q	International Student	3	Yes	Close to Graduation
Bin	International Student	2	Yes	Graduated
Lucy	International Student	2	Yes	Graduated

<b>Table 5.2. Demographics of Faculty Participants</b>				
<b>Name</b>	<b>Knowledge of Languages</b>	<b>Study or Work Abroad Experience</b>	<b>Years of Teaching or Advising International Students</b>	<b>Years in the Program</b>
Selma	2	Yes	4 Years	Less than 1 Year
Voltdire	2	Yes	More than 10 Years	Less than 1 Year
Dreambig	2	Yes	More than 10 Years	More than 10 Years
Anne	2	Yes	5 Years	Less than 5 Years
Buval	2	Yes	More than 10 Years	More than 10 Years
QQ	2	Yes	More than 10 Years	More than 10 Years
GK	2	Yes	More than 10 Years	More than 10 Years
John Butler	4	Yes	More than 35 Years	More than 10 Years
Sirius	1	Yes	More than 30 Years	More than 30 years
5387	1	Yes	More than 50 Years	More than 50 Years

## **Meaning of Internationalization in the PhD Program**

What does or should international education mean in a doctoral program? Would you consider the education that you are receiving an international one? What makes you think so and why? Two features of the meaning have emerged from the student responses. I have observed a practical meaning, which was the actual resources and feelings that my participants have experienced in the program. I also have identified other assumed or expected meaning that has not been quite real in the practice.

### **Practical meaning.**

This theme consolidates the similar interpretations that students made on the international and cross-cultural aspects of the resources, characteristics of, and opportunities in this program. Overall, it contains three layers. First, the program was internationally attractive. Second, the international and cross-cultural components were existent in some courses and some faculty expertise. Third, this program was comparatively more open to international research than the ones in many other business colleges.

The international attractiveness of the program incorporates international diversity in the faculty and student demographics, and an international conversation about the college. Consistent with scholars' (Baer, 2016; Beelen, 2011; Fabricius, 2014; Friesen, 2013) observations, the international background of faculty and students were recognized by all student participants as one of the major features of international education. Participants agreed that the program was able to attract students and researchers around the globe to come to study or work. Other examples of international attractiveness included international recognition by third party accreditation associations and university rankings, and the reputation of its MBA programs in Asian countries.

Some faculty conducted international research and brought the international and cross-cultural components into their courses. Depending on the course subject and the instructor, students hold different perceptions on how international the program was. Some students reported opportunities available for sharing cultural perspectives, and some other students said that the teaching content and discussion topics were merely American, barely leaving chances for bringing out international backgrounds into class discussions. The contrast of different opinions reveals two interesting phenomena. (1) There might be a specialization difference in terms of how internationalized the teaching was. Across the four specialty areas where student participants have studied (i.e. Accounting, Finance, Management, and Marketing), Management integrated the most international and cross-cultural ingredients into required courses than other specializations. In Marketing, students were aware of cultural differences internationally, but the PhD seminars did not necessarily discuss international topics. In stark contrast, MBA marketing courses intentionally integrated that international piece. Jay and Gift shared their observations.

Gift: I think it's [international education is] geared more towards the MBA, I don't think the PhD is that [international].... it's [international education is] relevant in terms of research thing that we recognize the cultural differences internationally so when we conduct design, think about research, we have to be aware that these [cultural differences] are important, that cultural aspect, but not as frequently and openly talk about it [that cultural aspect] as it would be in the MBA.

Jay: I take two Marketing classes. One is [a PhD seminar on] Marketing Strategy. One is a MBA class, Global Marketing. As you can tell by the title, Global Marketing is so international. We have students from France, from Japan, U.S., and Korea. The topics

are international. Marketing Strategies [class] is not international, because all strategies are conducted in the U.S.

In Finance, students acknowledged that a few professors published articles on Asian markets in addition to their main focus on the U.S. one. They did not consider the training they have received as international in nature. Doctoral student training in Accounting appeared the least internationalized and the most American in the teaching and research aspects.

(2) There might be a difference between the American students and international students in the expectation upon what could count as internationalized teaching. Some international students may have a higher level of expectation than the American participants would have. It is interesting to see that they held contradicting evaluations on the same course taught by the same professor in the relatively more internationalized specialization. The comments of Frog, an American student and Q, an international student, are selected to present the contrast.

Frog: [intercultural education] means active discussion, active research, and active topics of comparing aspects of different cultures. And you know that doesn't always have to be the case but a lot of times it [the program] is. So here it [the program] is clearly intercultural, a lot of the professors have research topics [that] are specifically intercultural, and part of the required courses I have to take involve international and intercultural subject matters. Professor A is a cross-cultural expert. [In his class] We learn intercultural connections, measurements of culture and spirituality.

Q: But it's [the class is] not like that [internationalized], yeah, we could learn more like how to...from the Hofstede's [an expert in cross-cultural studies] study or something, we could learn some [cultural things] of it, but we also learned that it's [the culture is] changing actually. It [the class] was about like couple of cases already using a sample of



a specific company with 700 people. The organizational or management culture is changing and some part of it is no longer the case as time goes by. We can see the change in there, like differences in this way or that. That's why probably the result isn't the same as before if we replicate the study for now... That's part of what we learned from that course. But it's not like talking about different cultures or something, it's more like a management-related topics.

The College's PhD program website had a heavy emphasis on international focus. Half of the international student participants acknowledged that this was an appealing point, drawing them to join this college. Some students had comparative life experiences in different business colleges in the U.S. Based on the remarks of these students, it appears that this college was more open to international research than many other business colleges. Samuel and Q explained the situation.

Samuel: None of the faculty conducts international research in my former doctoral program in another university. Here, we have professors do Asian finance research. One professor has a paper on Chinese market. We have an international journal here. My former doctoral program also invited guest speakers to present at Friday seminars every week. But no international speaker; all of them [the guest speakers] were Americans. Here we had [guest speakers from] Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korean, America, and other countries. In academia, these are considered as internationalization.

Q: I think it's [international excellence is] true in any way because it's especially...our undergraduate program here probably has a good reputation for its international business focus, so I think they are in anyway pursuing that goal. I'm not sure [if international

excellence relates to the PhD program] but I know that not many schools have that international business focus recently.

In sum, internationalization has been reflected in different components of the program. First, it was present in the international background and demographics of the faculty and students in the program and in the conversations about the college's characteristics, reputation, and programs outside the U.S. Second, internationalization has been reflected in some faculty's expertise and some internationalized courses. Still, the findings disclosed complexity in the varying levels of internationalization among different specializations and uncovered nuanced differences in student expectations. Third, internationalization has been reflected in the program's relatively more open attitude towards international research compared with some peer institutions.

#### **Other assumed or expected meanings.**

Some interpretations were salient but were not necessarily shared by most students. I presented these ideas here and categorized them as *other assumed or expected meanings* based on their common characteristics. In general, these interpretations concentrated on two aspects: student research and the international nature of the learned knowledge.

Before joining the program, by viewing online information some students assumed that in this program student research would have an international orientation. This idea was shared by a decent number of international students. 5 out of 10 international participants expected such an opportunity to connect their international background with their own studies. For one international student in Management, Q, "if it is an international[ly-oriented] program, student research interests, their dissertations should reflect that piece as well". Shidler, an international student in Finance, said that if the doctoral program was dedicated to international education

then international and comparative research focus should be one of the criteria for recruiting new students. Lucy's remark explained the assumption held by some other international students about this International Management PhD Program.

Lucy: When I was a doctoral student there, the program did have a heavy emphasis on international management. Before I started the program, I wasn't quite sure what international meant in the program. I thought I might be able to connect my background with the program and found a research focus out of the connection. I thought my international background might be an advantage. But later I learned that our research focus did not have to be international. There was no requirement in the program, saying that students have to do international research. I didn't feel there was an open and explicit encouragement motivating students to do international research. International accounting is just one of the many areas under Accounting. I don't think the program wanted us to prefer doing that [international accounting].

It is surprising to hear the same comment shared by a third of participants (i.e. five students), "most students don't do international research." According to Bin (Accounting student) and Samuel (Finance student), none of the 12 dissertation defenses that they had attended or were aware of had focused on the international market. All the dissertation projects studied the American market. In Management, students Q and Ali stated that they have not sensed an open and explicit encouragement or garnered motivation from the program for doing international research. Q, who conducted an international research project for her dissertation and would be an assistant professor at another business college in the fall, made this note, suggesting an influence beyond the college on student research.

Q: This program named itself International Management PhD Program. Most business schools don't call it that way. But still they [other business schools] are doing international business related topics as part of their study. They [other business schools] can still do international study; they can do multinational study, use multinational company example. They [other business schools] can still do the cross-cultural studies or something like that. In terms of student research, I don't think we are that international...I don't think there's a big difference between this program and other regular [doctoral] programs that don't name it international something. It [the reason] can be also related to market demand and supply thing. I don't know. You better know something more about the name change thing<sup>6</sup> as related to that matters. That's probably why most schools do not actually use that kind of term of promotion or something. Even [at] undergraduate [level] not many schools are really having that kind of focus or major in their business colleges or something, but someone still keeps that one as their main focus.

A few international students wished that they could have in-depth and lasting research collaboration relationships with experienced international researchers in the program, such as visiting professors. Two international students shared that they had such learning, publishing, and collaboration opportunities with foreign visiting scholars when they were graduate students in their home countries.

The second aspect of the expected meaning stressed the international scope and nature in the knowledge students gained from the program. The interpretations that are discussed here

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<sup>6</sup> About two years before my data collection, the PhD program changed its original name from International Management PhD Program to PhD Program in Business Administration.

share a character—it was considered as a positive outcome of internationalization but was not always present in actual teaching and learning.

Students expected the courses to examine international issues beyond one domestic or cultural perspective. One student shared his definition of international education, and said that the students would “have a very good understanding...and have key interests about international issues in the world”. Another student described this international learning experience in these words. “Knowledge-wise, students can learn and get a globalized perspective on key issues. The program provides not just American perspective, also Japanese perspective, and other Asian perspectives”. John Doe, a Marketing student, and Joe Visky, a Management student, clarified their interpretation of learning opportunities at an internationally oriented PhD program:

John Doe: An international PhD program should expose the members to views that outside that nation. So if you are an American, you should be exposed to views outside the nation, like Chinese, Russian, Korean, England, whatever. You should be exposed to views outside your preview. If you just have international students come to your home country, but you are only being exposed to your domestic context and views, then that will be a violation of what I consider an international PhD program. PhD is the Doctor of Philosophy, so that means you need to, essentially you are examining assumptions of society, examining the assumptions of great minds, and you try to question those assumptions, so in an international PhD program, I consider a good PhD program questions the domestic assumptions, the national assumptions, the assumptions of great minds, being assumptions of papers of the models that we make to understand and form our world.

Joe Visky: Having international colleagues are hugely valuable, because a lot of the materials that we are reading, like the management theory is written from a Western perspective by westerners... Their [international students'] interpretations of the academic theory is interesting. They analyze it from a perspective of another culture and applying it to their cultures. Hearing them applying to the Chinese economic history or economic systems, [it's] very valuable. I also think it's useful because as a person who has a lot of international work experience that most of the things people are taught or the practices they use in business are thought of only within the framework of the U.S. market, and even if they are doing business overseas they tend to take what they are doing here in the U.S. market, just try to ship it there [to foreign countries] in the same form... in my master programs I learned how important to take the local market into consideration so having international students looking at the same theory and discussing it adds values...if you think of it logically, U.S. market, U.S. population, 0.3 billion is very small percentage of the global population. If you use a theory that was developed with Western companies in mind that operates in the U.S. market for U.S. consumers, it's almost silly to think you are able to find that globally to the 7 billion people. That doesn't make any sense. But many of our academic theories, not just in business, but also in psychology, in a lot of the social sciences, it's really been developed in the Western viewpoints. The best case of scenario is if that has an explanatory power, it only explains this part of the population, you know what I'm saying?

These student comments collectively illustrated how an expected international doctoral program might or should help break down the nationally or culturally bounded knowledge system and transform it into something else. This belief resonates with the scholarly call made

by Sanderson (2004) and Turner and Robson (2009) in relation to overcoming the intellectual constraints of locally structured historical knowledge traditions and progressing in understanding as well as practice into a more globally inclusive intellectual and educational future. In particular, Joe Visky's comment demonstrated how the international dimension of diversity may enable intellectual diversity.

### **The Nature of PhD Education**

Much of the participants' shared experiences related to international and intercultural learning at the program points to the nature of PhD training. The experiences concentrated on four aspects of the nature: 1) the purpose of doctoral education, 2) the available chances for cross-cultural engagement with cultural issues, 3) the silo culture of doctoral programs, and 4) the tremendous pressure to graduate within a strict time frame. From student comments, it appears that doctoral education has not been offering much space for cross-cultural engagement in most of the specializations. Thus, cross-cultural learning and engagement has been put in a competing if not irrelevant position against the purpose of doctoral education. Scholars (ACE, 2012; Knight, 2008; Lee et al., 2006) have discussed possibilities of internationalization being put at a competing position against other priorities at the institutional level. This section offers interesting discussion on how it was occurring at the program level.

#### **“The purpose of PhD education is to train good researchers and professors.”**

My four-months-long class observation as well as most of the participants' sharing clearly showed that the purpose of doctoral education at this college was to train good researchers and professors. This attests to the argument that Gardner (2009) and Weidman et al. (2001) have made about doctoral student training. PhD courses all focused on theories in the specific field. Most of the time class discussions were a form of intellectual engagement with

the articles that professors have assigned to read. Co-curricular or extracurricular activities organized by the program were another form of seminars, inviting scholars from other U.S. colleges or from foreign countries to have an in-depth level of sharing of their most recent research projects with the faculty and students here. The research-driven and theory-oriented nature of the PhD training was vividly disclosed in Marketing student Gift's remark.

Gift: We barely bring out our international backgrounds into discussions, because it's really heavily focused on the theories...and the seminars are all about what we read from, you know, the assigned papers. So we, our focuses really talk about what we think of the theories. It is the experiment and the theories, and how to publish papers. So, if talking about sharing experiences, I think it's more of the MBAs, not much of the goal of the PhD.

In Management PhD seminars, two out of the three core courses had the word *international* and *cross-cultural* in the course titles. Participants from Management attested that their seminars had an international scope. When being asked if marketing courses had done similar things in the course title, Gift restated that the nature of PhD seminars was theory-oriented. From her comment, it seemed that no matter if the course title had the word *international* or *cross-cultural* in it, PhD seminars would offer limited space for relating personal background to the teaching content.

Gift: so management may focus on cross-cultural theory related, so maybe they would experience in, but I think they may probably talk about theory related to cross-cultural, so they talk about that because the seminar is designed to talk about that theory specific to cross-cultural. You know what I mean? In Marketing, not so much international stuff, but we did talk about cross-cultural difference because that will impact our design.



Because when you have different background your answer would be different, but we are Marketing PhD, we are not MBA PhD. We do not talk about how different culture may like different products. We do not talk about that, we talk about what theory may explain it...In the MBA class, we did talk about people from Thailand, people from Asia may like advertisement that is more conservative; people in the Western may like something that a bit more flashy, or more like whatever, like daring, say that. Now in the PhD, we don't talk about what they did like, we talk about why that's the case. Why is that people in Asia may like advertisement that is more conservative? So we say that maybe based on Hofstede's theory of 'interdependency versus dependency', it's driven them to, based on the theory that's why they like, what it is. You know what I mean? We are going at the outcome; we talk about where things are generated.

I observed two college-level seminars for about four months. One was a PhD seminar course that was required for all first-year and second-year doctoral students. Another one was a weekly seminar organized for each specialization. On average, at the doctoral program level, each week there was at least one such seminar organized by at least one department. These weekly seminars were given by guest speakers from other American colleges or from foreign countries. During my observation, it is obvious that this doctoral program puts deliberate efforts to familiarize its doctoral students to the academic culture. Moreover, it explains to their students the expectations in a systematic way.

I heard from the students that for the required college level PhD seminar course the instructor was always the PhD director. His responsibility was not to teach but to invite and coordinate guest speakers (from the college most of the time) to talk to the class. It was the guest speaker who did most of the talking. The instructor mainly served as a facilitator, introducing

the guest speaker, facilitating the Q & A session, and concluding the class. All guest speakers were asked to offer tips to doctoral students and share the research process of their most recent studies. The instructor who was one of my faculty participants told me this and I noted it down as an observation memo.

PhD program director: Based on my experience working with the faculty over years as well as receiving recommendations from some colleagues, I have a list of names who I think would be good candidates to talk to the students, to share experiences and offer general tips. Some faculty is good at research and happy to share with students. But they may not be good at sharing tips. They are excited to talk about their research for the whole two and a half hours but couldn't give many general tips that most doctoral students can benefit from. I wouldn't prioritize inviting them. If the speaker is able to share useful tips, such as today's speaker. He shared useful tips on time management, teaching tips, and communication experience with editors and manuscript reviewers. I will invite him again next year.

The weekly seminar was 2.5 hours long. The guest speaker had one to 1.5 hours to detail a recent study. After that, one hour for free communication was arranged between the speaker and the audience. The speaker normally talked about a paper that was in submission or under revision. They would explicate each research process, like literature review, conceptual framework, methodology, and findings. It appeared that the free communication time was allocated for the students. Based on my observation, faculty normally left the room after the presentation and only students stayed. Sometimes several students were very into the conversation with the guest speaker. The conversation would go over the allocated time. Then the faculty who invited the speaker would give an extra 30 minutes to an hour to the students

before taking the guest for dinner, if the guest speaker was willing. Usually, this meant that 3-5 students would stay and talk to the speaker for one to 2.5 hours about research. The advising and mentoring were there and the information being communicated was rich. Some uncommon but valuable research, writing, and academic communication experiences were shared, such as what things to consider when research findings contradicted ones published by established researchers, how to select journals for paper submission, how to deal with questions and doubts on research validity, and what good ways there might be to have the established researchers' support on the critical findings.

The students did not necessarily share the value of cross-cultural engagement in helping understand or engage with the theory. In the interviews, two participants directly challenged this assumption that cross-cultural engagement can contribute to the learning at a PhD program. Gift vocalized her idea. "There is not so much [opportunities to talk about personal backgrounds]. There is really no need to. There isn't adding more value to discussion. You know what I mean? Unless the theory talk about the culture, like cross-cultural theories CCT". When I asked her what she would do if she had the power to recreate or restructure the PhD program to enable cross-cultural engagement for better teaching, research, and learning, she replied,

Gift: That's under the assumption that bringing their backgrounds is a good thing in a PhD. But I don't have that assumption for PhD. I know diversity is a good thing. I don't dismiss it at all. I think it's great. But for our seminar, I don't know if we have that official. That is...it's a different goal to put all this together.

The frankness of Gift and another student, Spring, pushed me to think if the social and cultural aspect of internationalization is as important as being reflected in Marginson's (Marginson et al., 2010; Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Marginson, 2014) self-formation theory. If the social and

cultural aspect is as important as the theory has suggested, then cross-cultural engagement should be an obvious and important goal of an international program.

In the scholarship, institutional internationalization appears to be an active and ongoing movement that everyone in the higher education community has been involved with. This image starkly contradicts the teaching and learning practice that I have examined at this college based on the student perspective. The traditional purpose of PhD education remains untouched, leaving little space for cross-cultural engagement and the development of communicative competency among students. If the integration of international and cross-cultural component into the curriculum is considered as an action of internationalizing the curriculum, this practice might relate to its subject nature. The integration of international and cross-cultural component may not necessarily be an outcome of the internationalization movement.

**“The chance of intellectual engagement with cultural issues depends on the subject and the instructor.”**

The various student sharing in regards to whether, how, and in what ways their courses have been incorporating an international or cross-cultural perspective into teaching drew my attention to two aspects: the role of the teacher in enabling intercultural learning and the different levels of engagement with internationalization among specializations. According to the students, opportunities for intellectual engagement with culturally related issues were not always there in class, depending on the topics of the class, the subject and learning materials, as well as the teacher’s research and personal background. I also found that Management appeared more open to the internationalization of the curriculum than the other three sub fields that my participants have studied in.

Interestingly, most students (8 out of 15) stressed the role of the teacher. Joe Visky believed that professors coming from international background themselves were more likely to run classes on the transformative side, “because they understand that there’s a diversity experience, whereas I think, let’s say a classically trained academic researcher, an American, teaching in a PhD program, you know, here he is more likely to teach the subject matter for homophony.” Although Joe Visky’s comment appeared too extreme, Samuel and Shidler confirmed that the professors who have done international research tended to be more willing to assign international papers and create opportunities for talking about other countries in class. In Shidler’s words, “if the teacher did not give the opportunity to talk about other markets and other countries, generally there would be no chances for sharing and engagement.”

In addition to research and personal background, mastering appropriate teaching techniques stands out as another important factor for enabling cross-cultural engagement. Frog remarked, “it has to be if it’s a goal to bring out intercultural discussions in the class, then I think that’s easier done from the teacher who knows techniques for doing it. It can happen by accident from an unskilled teacher, it’s more likely to happen from a skilled teacher.” A Marketing American student John Doe, who had taught English for second language learners for nine years in four foreign countries, explained this point. Handling and managing a class that about half or more than half of the students are internationally diverse demanded a lot of teaching skills from the teacher, not just international research skills.

John Doe: I think it takes a lot of teaching skills too, not just international skills, international teaching skills; I took the CELTA [a certificate program offered by Cambridge English for teaching English to speakers of other languages]. The CELTA gives you some understanding of the cultural values and norms, but they also teach you

how to make sure that people are reaching their wording objectives. They have definable measures. It really gets to be aware of the way that you are presenting yourself to others, the way they think, their perception of you, the different learning styles of different people.

Another student Gift highlighted the role and importance of the teacher in creating an appropriate discussion background for cultural sharing in class. To Gift, the teacher “in the learning context has the power to enhance the self-motivation [of the students] through being appreciated of whatever the sharing is.” Q, a Management student, commented that professors needed to have relevant experiences and skills to integrate different ideas into the curriculum and bring up discussion in class.

All these shared stories suggested that the teacher had the power, legitimacy and authority to create an appreciated environment for cultural sharing and cross-cultural engagement in the classroom. Further, these experiences highlighted the demand of appropriate skills, techniques, and capabilities from the teacher to teach an internationally diverse class. These findings support the argument made by Friesen (2013), Hudzik and Stohl (2012), and Leask (2010). Consistent with these researchers’ studies, I found that the faculty functioned as agents of internationalization in this program. They operated their role in internationalization by modifying the curriculum and enabling cross-cultural engagement through discussion.

It appeared that specializations differ in how internationalized the curriculum and the teaching were. Students generally believed that Management and Marketing would be more open to and aware of cultural issues than the Finance and Accounting departments would be. According to the students, only Management has been offering courses specifically dealing with international and cross-cultural issues in the PhD seminars. In contrast, in Finance and

Accounting, students perceived that most professors did not do international research. All the assigned articles and theories discussed were based on findings from studying the American market. According to the participants, no students from these two departments had conducted international research as a dissertation project. In the following quotation, one Finance student shared his feeling of riskiness in choosing to do an international study in the environment where most or all professors' research has mainly focused on the U.S. market.

Apple: I don't think professors in my department do international research. Their research is always about the U.S. market. They always talk about U.S. market. That can affect the students' research interest...maybe it is fine [for guidance], if the students certainly write about international research. But we don't learn that much [about international research], so it's kind of self-study, you know? Because the students want to get some help, if the professor is not interested in [international research], it's risky.

This quotation further stated the importance of faculty as the agents of internationalization, and detailed how this role might have functioned via offering advising on students' international research.

**“The silo culture provides no incentives for interaction, not even intercultural interaction.”**

The silo culture of the doctoral program, emphasizing “individual learning outcomes and methods”, stands out as another feature of the PhD education that had lasting impact on whether and to what extent students may have cross-cultural engagement opportunities. Participants perceived that the program has not organized many social or cultural activities, except the Welcome and Mix-up receptions that the program offered at the beginning of the fall semester. But this activity was not offered every year, depending on the number of new doctoral students

the program has admitted each year. Again, it was a small PhD program. To warrant that specializations could find qualified students and were able to provide four-year funding for them to finish the degree, the specializations might not necessarily enroll new students each year.

For most students, doctoral student life could be essentialized into two parts: 1) attending classes and discussing articles; and 2) saying bye to classmates and doing own things (i.e. research and teaching). It was up to individual students to initiate gathering opportunities with peers after class. Within the group of students that I have interviewed, only a small number—three out of the 15 participants—admitted that they had asked peers from the same cohort for meeting and discussing research and publishing papers together. But there was one exception. An Accounting PhD graduate, Lucy, who was a tenured professor at another American public university, recalled her doctoral student life experience and shared her social gathering experience. When she was a doctoral student, she experienced a Friday social gathering culture or tradition. After the weekly seminar, some students would gather together for dinner and fun. In the beginning, she was invited to join by a senior peer and later she always tried to attend if her time was available. As a result, she met some peers in other cohorts and from other specializations. But for the rest of the participants, “it’s highly likely that everyone is studying on their own, because you wouldn’t be able to see your classmates around [after class].”

Students also shared the encouragement they have received from faculty with regard to asking for help. Faculty tended to encourage students to learn from seniors or work with advisors instead of learning from peers. There were no group projects at the PhD level. John Doe stated that,

John Doe: The silo and heavy emphasis on research in doctoral education provides no incentives for interaction, not even cross-cultural interaction. Yes, we have the same



teacher. Yes, we might bring up a point and other people may listen to that point. But there in MBA programs, there's much more interaction. In PhD program, we are in the silos, we have research to do, maximum of work, so much work that collaborating with others is not only, there's no point in it. There's no motivation. We have an assignment that's due. We have to get it done, and if we don't we are in big trouble. The MBA students, they have collaborative projects, I actually took the MBA classes here at the university and I saw that MBA students had to work together for the same A, at least for a portion of it, like 25%, 30%. That is not happening here in the PhD program... There's no interactivity, if there is, maybe with 1-2 students, and that's the most. Professors tell us that we will learn more in getting advice from senior, working with professors, not with each other.

John Doe highly recommended the program to structure group projects for doctoral students so that students can have maximum benefits from the various strengths that their peers might have. For example, one student might be good at academic writing and another could be strong in methodology. These two students could learn from each other and collaborate if there was a group project opportunity. On the other side, Management student Q shared that her seniors offered valuable advice and helped her throughout the whole job search, interview preparation, campus visit, and job talk, whereas peers in the same cohort might not be able to share insights.

**“To graduate with a PhD is already tough.”**

Most of the students received funding to complete this program within a strict time frame. The program financially supported most of them. Others brought their own funding from other sources, such as the military. Very few students were self-funded. As a result, all students were expected to finish the degree within four years and there were benchmarks at the end of each

year for students to complete. And the graduation time frame was even tighter for military students. They had to graduate within three years.

This funding feature of the program had a major influence on students for setting up priority and allocating time to the investment of social, cultural, and academic issues. According to the students, they were always busy and graduating was the top priority. Four participants frankly told me that the expected cross-cultural engagement and intercultural learning was unlikely to become a reality, because the program was firmly structured in a tight time frame. Spring, a military student, exclaimed, “To graduate with a PhD is already tough.” Gift added, “We don’t have the time [for cross-cultural engagement and intercultural learning] either.”

Q and Samuel explained why they thought this program did not provide much flexibility and possibility for building up an internationally oriented PhD program within the current structure. Q detailed how each year was fulfilled with stressful tasks and why achieving the social and cultural aspects of internationalization was so hard. Here is her quotation:

Q: This [cross-cultural engagement and the development of communicative competency] is hard especially within a couple of years, right? After coursework, it’s kind of hard, as we talk about the job marketing, we usually go to the job market one year before our graduation, which means after two years of coursework, we have kind of one year to prepare our dissertation proposal because it’s always good for us to be on the job market as an ABD, right? They encourage us to finish the proposal before the third year summer, so...

Samuel added that it would be difficult to make any changes within the current structure to better provide opportunities for cross-cultural engagement.

Samuel: First, at this college among all the sub fields only Finance looks similar to Accounting. But these two specializations are completely different from Management and Marketing. This means that we [Finance and Accounting students] wouldn't collaborate with them [Management and Marketing students]. Talking about collaboration within your own sub-field, it depends on the [research] topics. If the topics are different, then there're a thousand differences. Unless both or all [students] are interested in a same topic, collaboration is hard. Especially if both or all of them have limited research capabilities, collaboration would be hard. A Mentor-Mentee program between senior and junior students? Not possible. Seniors are busy. They need to look for jobs. If you are talking about seniors in their third year, they have to write dissertation and teach at the same time. It might be possible, but it's a hard one. For most students, teaching at the third year is their first time to teach and that's quite challenging and stressful. For junior students in the first two years, they have to pass qualifying exam and comprehensive exam. It's really difficult to make any changes.

The discussion under this theme delineates the fact that the doctoral program has its own culture. It also shows how its own culture has created and at the same time has limited the opportunity and possibility for engaging with internationalization. It was recognized by the students that this program has somewhat had a flavor of internationalization. And this sense varied among different sub-fields. Some departments appeared more open to integrating the international and cross-cultural perspective into teaching. Others seemed much more contextualized, mainly focusing their curricula on the knowledge relevant to the U.S. market. To commit to the comprehensive and transformative internationalization at the PhD level, any internationalization conversation has to deal with the unique nature of the doctoral education.

## **Relation of Intercultural Learning and the Ecology of Learning Environment**

The link between intercultural learning and the learning environment emerged from the interview data. Throughout the life experiences of all student participants during their years in the program, teaching and learning were an important but a small part. Their ideas, cultural assumptions and understandings, habits of the mind, and even dissertation topics might have had already developed before they started the program. To have a realistic impact on doctoral students' cultural understanding, the data suggested the importance of the ecology of learning. The data also implied that a consideration of necessity is needed for enabling meaningful impact on students' cross-cultural learning. Future development of effective teaching techniques might want to incorporate group projects and apply the necessity strategy, as reflected in some participants' previously successful transformative cross-cultural learning experiences.

### **Experiences of and reflection on intercultural learning: “You have to be confronted with ideas that are foreign to you.”**

Students shared ideas about their impression of and reflection on what intercultural learning was via class interaction, overall academic and cultural exposure in the program, and their previous intercultural life experiences. In essence, they talked about the importance of being confronted with foreign ideas. Overall, the intercultural learning experience was mostly limited to exposure to new cultural thinking. The curriculum, the class discussion, and other social and academic extracurricular activities had a limited impact on bringing in a transformative intercultural learning experience for the students. Realistically, changing one's idea and transforming one's thinking were regarded as a tough task indeed.

Comments from six different students reached a consensus that intercultural learning in class meant exposure to foreign ideas. Such exposure added new knowledge to mind but it was

not an understanding of another culture. Three issues stood out, revealing the complexity of intercultural learning. 1) It's harder to challenge the experiences of one who had a rich cross-cultural life experience. 2) Class discussion had limited space to offer opportunities for stimulating learning, not just with culturally relevant issues. And 3) study in Singapore was a much more international and intercultural experience than study in the U.S.

Frog was an American student in Management who had over six years of work experience in five foreign countries. When he was a kid, he also moved a lot with his family across different states and nations. When asked to explain why intercultural learning in class was limited to be an exposure of new knowledge, he replied,

Frog: it's hard to say because I had a lot of international experience before this, so I like to think that I don't hold a lot of unfounded stereotypes, so it takes more to challenge the stereotypes that I hold. It's harder to challenge the experiences that I have had with other cultures, so that's why it wouldn't form my ideas with other cultures, so you know if somebody, an example like one of my classmates from Saudi and he will say things about what, you know, the interpretation of Saudi culture and some of the norms are in Saudi culture and how Saudi culture might do this, but I went to Saudi Arabia, I kind of knew these things are, not all of them. He does bring this richness of being from there originally and speaking that language much better and everything. So he adds to that but he doesn't challenge stereotypes. I think he just enriches, enriches my understanding of different cultures. The answer is adding details, and adding understanding to a framework that's not wrong. It's already in place but not it's becoming full.

Frog's point that intercultural learning in class was adding new knowledge to his mind, was the same as shared by other students Spring, Jay, and Bin. But his explanation added another dimension of complexity to this issue.

Shidler, a Finance student, pointed out the limitation of class discussion in shaping and transforming student thinking. He shared three reasons why intercultural learning in class would have limited impact on students. 1) Discussion only provided a direction for thinking. It was different from giving specific feedback on a thoughtful idea. 2) In class discussion, everyone's attention and focus could be different. Students might be coming from different countries but they might not be interested in doing research in these different countries that their peers were from. Class discussion "is not like that because you came from a certain country and you know more about this country so you can change others' thinking by jumping into the culturally relevant discussions." And 3) the human mind was not easy to be changed. "If your idea is easy to be changed, it means that it is not a mature one. I may be able to help optimize my classmates' ideas. But I think it's very hard to change their ideas."

Despite the fact that two students who had study abroad experience in Singapore gave high remarks on how international and intercultural the learning was there, by recalling the experience in Singapore they both supported Frog and Shidler's impression that intercultural learning in class was not equated with an in-depth understanding of a foreign culture. Apple spent one year in Singapore as an exchange undergraduate student. Bin received his master's degree in Singapore. Although both of them stated that they didn't have much cultural learning at the doctoral program, they both reported feeling certain that they experienced cultural learning in Singapore. Even then, still, they didn't think class discussion and the cross-cultural

engagement they had with others had formed their deep understanding of another culture. As Bin explained.

Bin: Actually, the impact level should be low. Unless you could speak their language, there's no chance that you can understand their culture in-depth. I can speak a little bit Japanese, so my understanding of Japanese culture is stronger. But I mean, Malaysian, Vietnam, I wouldn't say I understand more. I had experienced other cultures. I wouldn't say that I understand their cultures. It's more than nothing, but it's not a deep understanding of their cultures, like history, no.

John Doe, who also had a lengthy cross-cultural life experience, summarized his understanding of intercultural learning and shared that it was more like a slow developmental process with layers. "It's incremental, like a tree". He stressed the need of being confronted and challenged by foreign ideas to better understand one's own ideas, beliefs, and social norms, no matter if they are political, economic, or intellectual. As shown in the quotation.

John Doe: It's [intercultural learning is] incremental. It's [intercultural learning is] a slow developmental process. That's not going to happen immediately but there's a clear distinction when it does or does not happen. I think the more and varied situations you were in the more you get a better understanding. If you are in the same situation all the time, you are not going to grow. If you don't have enough situations, you are not going to grow. So you need to have a number of situations and a variance of situations. You have to be confronted with ideas that are foreign to you, and that goes with not just culture. We are talking about institutional differences, much higher structure of cultures, social norms, practices, beliefs and values, whether it's political, economic, intellectual, social. All these different contexts, in order for us to understand our own ideas better, we

have to find the opposite and get challenged by those ideas. So if I want to believe in individualism, I need to be confronted with collectivism. If I'm in a tight culture, I need to be confronted with a loose culture in order to better understand.

This sub-theme presents the complexity of intercultural learning, shows how difficult it was to achieve an in-depth or transformative intercultural learning experience. In sum, prior personal experience, the limit of class discussion, and the challenging nature of intercultural learning were all contributing factors to the complexity. As a result, often times students' intercultural learning experience at the program was merely limited to the level of exposure to foreign ideas, if the opportunity for cross-cultural sharing has been provided.

**The learning ecology is important: “The majority is localizing the experiences for the minority.”**

The significance of the learning ecology—the social and cultural environment in the community—has been repeatedly mentioned in the interviews. The learning ecology appeared connected to the necessity of behavior change or adaptation. In other words, students reported the link between learning ecology and the sense of majority or minority.

The influence of the learning ecology could determine who the majority was and who the minority was in the learning community. According to the student demographic data shared by the PhD program director, there were more international students studying in this program than the number of the American students. Then, at this specific program where international students were the major population, would international students have more impact on the learning of the demographic minority group—the American students, or vice versa? This is a fascinating question. In terms of cross-cultural learning and engagement, international students overall reported more noticeable changes in mind, horizon, worldview, and stereotypes. All five



American participants reported no or limited changes in ideas and stereotypes due to the presence of many international students in the program. Several international students shared the same feeling, “The impact of the American culture and my American peers on my cultural understanding is obvious, but I think my impact on them is ignorable.” Student responses unveiled some influential factors contributing to the learning at this international and intercultural educational setting. It was the ecology of the learning environment that has produced the sense of minority among international students. The ecology of learning also provided a comfort zone for the American students, protecting them from the sense of anxiety and pressure for cross-cultural learning. Joe Visky, an American student, shared his insight on how the ecology of learning has worked on the student learning experience.

Joe Visky: I’m thinking that the international students coming to the new culture are more likely to be transformed in that environment, and people from the comfortable cultural environment, there isn’t many transformation. Maybe there are some evolution based on their experience working with international students, but it would be the other way, maybe their cultural immersion isn’t there. The whole experience, not just in the classroom, also outside of the classroom, the ecology, the food, the living experience, the currency, the language, so maybe the difference in the environment for local students, the presence of international students are the most student, but the presence of international students are like here, right? International students are speaking English, presenting in English, and writing in English, and talking about research in English, translating their international experience into an English context, so they are making it easy. It’s almost like the majority is localizing the experiences for the minority, so they are presenting the framework in the frame of the minority students are most comfortable with. So there’s

nothing, no transformation at all, when, you know, the minority students are comfortable in the ecology they are at. I don't know maybe that's why that's no transformation. It's not truly immersive.

Five international students' cross-cultural learning experiences (Apple, Lucy, Nancy, Samuel, and Shidler) supported Joe Visky's thinking. The social and cultural aspects of life experiences in foreign countries had a more obvious impact on their cultural understanding than learning from the program.

This finding is consistent with the research done by others (Erichsen & Bollinger, 2011; Kashyap, 2011; Khawaja & Stallman, 2011; Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Sherry, Thomas, & Chui, 2010; Tian & Lowe 2009; Yan & Berliner, 2013). International students appeared to have more positive cultural transformation experiences than the domestic students at the host country.

Another finding under this theme is the importance and value of creating necessity for all students to feel the need to change. According to the students, necessity had the capability to remove the comfort zone from all learners. In that situation, no student group would necessarily have a strong feeling of majority or minority; everybody was expected to and was offered the opportunity to have cultural learning. Five students shared their personal experiences of why necessity was influential and how it had contributed to their cross-cultural engagement and relationship building. Among them, American student Joe Visky and international student Jay's stories distinctly showed the crucial role of necessity in enabling all learners to have transformative learning.

The most transformative experience Joe Visky had, as a student in the international context, was when he was trying to complete one of his master's programs. He had to do a business Plan B thesis, a group project, with four international students from four different

countries. And he was the only American. It was a language immersion school. Many of the classes were instructed in his second language, Russian. He was in a business school but he was taking Business Law in Russian language, taught by a native Russian language speaker who was teaching Russian Business Law as it related to Russia. Despite the fact that the learning took place in his home country, it was transformative.

Similarly, Jay shared his comparative cross-cultural experiences in his home country, and offered his insight on why one was transformative and another was not. In his home country, socially and culturally it was common for young adults to get together to drink at night. According to him, inviting peers and colleagues to drink for a few hours at night generally would be considered appropriate in his culture. In his master's program, there were many international students, most of whom did not share this belief of drinking culture. Before he had to work closely with these international students, he thought that international students should respect the local culture and show up at these gatherings when being invited. But after he joined a research team where most team members were international students, he restrained his desire and changed his habit of inviting peers and colleagues to drink at night. He changed his behavior because he perceived the necessity to follow the rule in this specific community, although he was studying in his home country.

In the focus group interview, Frog's comment further evidenced the strategic role of necessity and the importance of the creation of necessity in intercultural learning. Below are his original words.

Frog: If there's a necessity there that pushes learning, I think it pushes the actual transformative experience. It's [the creation of necessity for cross-cultural engagement is] absolutely necessary. So like if there's no necessity, is it possible for somebody to have a

transformative experience? Maybe not. I think if somebody wants to have a transformative experience they can create one, necessary or not. But if that desire is not there, then that [transformative experience] might not happen. Whereas desire I think it is less important. If there is necessity, then desire becomes less important.

This sub-theme shows that the feeling of majority or minority in a learning environment might not necessarily relate to the demographic representation. For example, although international students were the demographic majority in the program, they might report the feeling as a minority and the pressure to adapt to and learn from U.S. culture. In contrast, as shown in students' comments, when necessity was created, students from the host country would still feel the pressure to adapt or change behavior in a specific learning community.

### **Influential External Factors**

Student experiences, mostly from the international student group, revealed some influential external factors in affecting student self-determination, choices, interests, and preferences of cultural learning in the program. This theme has three sub-themes: implicit pressure from future job and career, the established status of U.S. dominance in theory development, and family and job responsibilities.

#### **Implicit pressure from future job and career.**

By viewing the information of PhD student job placement that has been published at The College's website, and by talking to the students, most of the PhD graduates from this program had become professors. Both American and international students perceived that they needed to publish for a better chance in the job market. For both student groups, much of their time after class has been devoted to writing, manuscript submission and revision, and other publishing preparations.

For international students, according to the participants Bin, Samuel, Lucy, Apple, and Q, most of them, if not all, had the aspiration to work at U.S. colleges after graduation. However, Bin, working as an assistant professor at a public university in the East coast, said that most international doctoral students at this program did not receive a bachelor degree from the U.S. As a result, Bin observed that when he was in the PhD program international students did not learn about other international students' societies and cultures. "Everybody wanted to learn the American culture." Based on his current work experience, he explained the reasonability of this thinking and the necessity for international students to invest their time and energy to learn about the American culture and society.

Bin: I am advising 50 undergraduate students. Pretty much everyone is American, who never went out of the U.S. So what I need is to better understand the U.S. culture. So, you know, we have a lot of international students in the PhD program at The College. The main challenge is not to understand Chinese culture or Japanese culture. The biggest challenge is to understand the U.S. culture, because most of them [the international students], over 90% didn't get an undergraduate in the U.S., so they don't have any experience in the U.S. undergraduate program. Even at the current moment, I always feel that I have to learn more about the U.S. culture in order to better understand and advise the undergraduates that I am working with.

Even though Bin's comment appeared a bit extreme on international students' lack of interest to learn about cultures other than the U.S., other international students have supported his argument about the necessity of and preference to interacting with American students. Samuel and Jay particularly talked about the necessity to interact and work with American students for better speaking and academic writing.

### **The established status of U.S. dominance in theory development.**

In response to my interview questions on the curriculum, teaching, and research, students frequently talked about the leading position of the U.S. as a knowledge producer in the field, a perceived hierarchical recognition of research contribution, the more accessible and standardized American data for research, and a perceived limited international scope in the research articles assigned to read in some sub-fields. For doctoral students, who were learning to understand the atmosphere and norms in the academe, they might not necessarily have the faith and confidence that the experienced researchers would have (as shown in the discussion in Chapter 6 on the faculty perspective) about the value of international research. These different aspects of the U.S. dominance in theory development have been interwoven into and reflected in the curriculum, faculty research, and students' perceived level of encouragement for conducting international research at this program. This U.S. dominance had a powerful impact on student research choice and their recognition of the value of international research. My below discussion shows the details.

Across sub fields, participants told me that the teaching content and the articles that were assigned to read were mostly American based, or had a Western perspective at least. This meant that the classical theories that they were exposed to were mostly produced by American scholars and based on the research that has been focused on the American market. There might be a slight difference among the four sub-fields that my participants were from; Management professors appeared to have assigned more articles published by authors from countries other than the U.S. than the Finance, Accounting, and Marketing professors. However, I didn't see an agreement among the seven Management student participants. While two Americans and one international student felt that the curriculum had an international scope, one American and two

other international students were hesitant to say that the curriculum and the assigned articles were that internationalized. The Management students who did not completely feel the program was culturally inclusive generally shared this idea as vocalized by Joe Visky. “The topics are international. The content is different though. The content is very Western content.” Q, who was graduating and would be an assistant professor at another U.S. university in the fall, further explained this seemingly contradictory argument and revealed the complexity of integrating an international and cross-cultural perspective into the curriculum.

Q: The content, the discussion topics that we are discussing in the seminar courses would be the previously published articles from the previously published big journals and by big authors. And most of the previous studies were actually focused on the U.S., or a comparison between the U.S. and other country cases, right? I think that’s part of the thing. Because most of the journals are published in the States. That has caused a situation that most of the empirical studies are still focused on the U.S. company cases, because it still is the biggest market, the biggest data available. So comparative studies also talk about the differences between the U.S. and other countries. So it’s always that the U.S. is the focus of discussion. Also theory development is also based on the U.S. or some Western companies or economies, most of them are...yeah, related to the U.S. culture or Western culture at least, so I think the curriculum is not that international or culturally inclusive.

In Accounting, Finance, and Marketing, student comments were consistent, saying that the mainstream research was done in the U.S. and by the U.S. scholars, which had a pervasive impact on students’ cognitive interpretation of the international research possibility in their sub fields. In Marketing, Gift and Jay stated that Western scholars, mostly the American scholars,

created all the classically classic theories. Jay was suspicious that international research might not belong in mainstream research, because the mainstream research all focused on the U.S. market.

In Accounting, Bin, currently an assistant professor, vocalized a perceived pressure to study U.S. business and to know about the U.S. market in order to publish at top journals. Here are his original words.

Bin: Normally it's not popular [to publish international studies]. In Business, every good journal is published in U.S., so if you wanna publish in good journals you have to study American business, American context, American market, like New York Stock. I mean, actually, it's getting ridiculous and worse. Because nowadays a lot of Asian schools create rankings, but these rankings value publishing at U.S. journals. The Singapore school that I studied before, nobody [in the faculty] researches on Singapore economy, literally nobody. Everybody wants to publish at American journals, so nobody, no professors are experts in Singapore economy at all. This kind of situation is happening in Korea as well, like Seoul University, Korean university, they don't study Korean economy. They study U.S. economy, because they want to publish in U.S. journals, and global ranking is based on [the number of articles published in] U.S. journals, at least in business [field]. I'm not sure about physics or psychology, in business global ranking is based on U.S. journal publishing.

In Finance, students recalled that most of the articles that professors have assigned studied the U.S. market and were done by American scholars. Samuel and Shidler even mentioned the existence of a hierarchical recognition of the academic value of different papers. According to Samuel and Shidler, it seemed that this hierarchical recognition was reflective of a three-step



process of theory development—inventing and testing the stability of a theory. In theory development research, the first step in the process would contain the initial theory development articles, trying to offer explanation of a new phenomenon. The second step in the process would include the articles trying to improve and stabilize the newly created theoretical framework by doing empirical studies. And the third step in the process would encompass the articles trying to test if the relatively mature theory makes sense in foreign countries other than the U.S. Both Samuel and Shidler stressed that the first tier research was theory research and that the second tier research was replication of the research that has been done in the U.S. and to test it in the foreign markets.

In the Focus Group Interview, both Samuel and Frog confirmed this perception. They agreed that in their sub fields, Finance and Management, top tier research and top tier journal articles were all theory. Samuel further confirmed that in Finance international research has been practiced as the replication of the existing theories to test if they would make sense in markets other than the U.S. But according to Frog, international and cross-cultural studies were conducted in a different way from the research practice in Finance. In other words, under the general thinking of the differentiated originality level in academic research, in Finance the value of international research appeared not always being well recognized based on the students' comments.

Another influential impact was reflected in the thoughts on the availability and standardization of data for student research. Across the four sub-fields, both international and American students concertedly expressed the concern of difficulty for accessing international data if choosing to do an international research. Most students recognized the fact that U.S. companies have been providing open access to data for researchers for many years. Due to the

relatively longer history of the U.S. in conducting business research and producing classical business theories, American companies appeared to have a tradition and habit of saving data. According to the participants, U.S. data were recognized as trustful and more standard, but there existed no such belief towards the reliability of international data collected from countries other than the developed Western countries.

### **Family and job responsibilities.**

Even though family and job responsibilities as influential factors were not shared by most of the student participants, the impact was stark so it is discussed here. Seven participants had a family with young kids when they were doctoral students in the program. One of these seven participants even worked full time. In the interviews, a few of them were forthright and confessed that their main network was not with the people they met in this program. They did not have the time for cross-cultural engagement and did not consider it as a goal of their doctoral education.

Spring, a Management student who received funding from the military, shared her challenge.

“I think that when someone is along the age but they have other responsibilities, like family, you have to balance that with the time you spend with your family when they are awake. So how much time I spend in doing the homework, reading, and then you want to spend time with other students?”

Spring was a special participant. During the interview, she offered contradictory ideas on which educational level might be an ideal place for encouraging and promoting meaningful cross-cultural engagement among students. At the beginning, she said that graduate programs particularly her PhD program could be an ideal place due to the discussion-based instruction

method and the small class and program size. Frequent and in-depth cultural exchange and intellectual engagement could happen. But later she changed her mind and stated that undergraduate level would be a more realistic place to promote intercultural education considering the different purposes at the two different educational levels.

Spring's sharing added rich information regarding the complexity of international and intercultural learning at the PhD level. Besides having some popular internationalization indicators, such as international student presence, faculty expertise in international studies, the international demographics in the faculty background, there were many influential internal and external factors to consider when developing an internationally oriented PhD program. To enable a meaningful impact of internationalization on teaching and learning, more attention needs to move to the historical tradition of the PhD education, the intellectual tradition, and the ingrained value of originality, as well as other influential external factors.

## **Chapter 6: Findings and Discussion Part 2—Faculty Perspective**

This chapter presents the findings and discussion based on the ten faculty participants' experiences. Three major themes have emerged from the data. These major themes included the meaning and practice of the internationalization of higher education in the PhD program, academic publishing and international research, and PhD curriculum and teaching an internationally diverse class. My findings have made explicit some of the implicit intellectual tradition, academic norms, and values upheld by the academics. External influences were explored. In short, this chapter provides explanations and discussion on the complexity of building up an internationally oriented PhD program from the faculty's perspective.

### **Meaning and Practice of the Internationalization of Higher Education in the PhD Program**

The shared faculty experiences related to internationalization could be broadly divided around two topics: the expected meaning and an evaluation of the practice in the current program. This section presents the findings concentrated on the meaning and practice of internationalization. The findings are consistent with the main discussion in the scholarship and have offered more details on the complexity.

#### **What should it mean?**

Overall, faculty shared similar thoughts on what internationalization should mean in the PhD program. Some of the popularly used internationalization indicators were mentioned, such as international student presence, cross-cultural learning, and the faculty's international background. But most responses highlighted the international and cross-cultural nature of the curriculum and research. Across specialty areas, participants emphasized that faculty research and expertise as well as the seminar courses were supposed to be international, at least have some international components.

Interestingly, not all faculty members have included student research as an important aspect of internationalization. This was different from the student perspective. Only three out of ten faculty participants (Buval, Dreambig, and John Butler) thought that student research was an important aspect of ideal internationalization and that it should have an international nature as well. This was in stark contrast with the fact that most faculty participants agreed on the significance of having faculty research background on international issues.

Three faculty members talked about the value and importance of cross-cultural learning and collaboration as critical aspects of internationalization. One professor, Anne, underlined that cultural differences should not be regarded as a national-border-bounded product. She emphasized that cultural differences could exist within a single country. For her, internationalization was that faculty provided education 1) for “people coming from elsewhere” and 2) for “the local students to experience other cultures.” In other words, internationalization should serve as a bridge, connecting students from different cultural backgrounds. It should go in two directions. “One is other people coming to us, the other one is us going to them, what it means is having collaborations.” Selma and Buval narrowed down cross-cultural learning and collaboration into research. Accounting professor Buval specifically enunciated what a good model of an internationally oriented PhD program would be.

Buval: In my opinion, what is a good model of an internationally oriented PhD program is that, by having students from different countries and cultures, all those students can share the different views about accounting or business practice and appraising their countries so they can build really interesting ideas and how does the same things can be interpreted in different ways in different countries. I think if we can generate that atmosphere in our program, all the PhD students can get a lot of benefits from discussing

with other colleagues from other cultures. With that the findings can also benefit other people, other researchers, because they didn't think of that before. "Oh this person from this country thinks this and that. Because we think this is good or not before, this is totally a big change." I think this would be a good model for this field.

As the quotation shows, the sharing of different cultural perspectives on the same practice could spark valuable research ideas. Presented in this model, Buval also expressed the need to create such an atmosphere in the program, inviting students from different cultural backgrounds to share their cultural insights and encouraging the exchange of cultural perspectives among all learners.

Two professors, both administrators who have stayed in this program for a very long time, remarked that the biggest challenge for building an ideal international program was the faculty. Sirius, who has been working at this college for over 30 years, shared that not all faculty wanted to do international research or teach international courses. Hence, the program could not be international in every facet, as detailed in the quotation.

Sirius: Not all the faculty member who is a good researcher in every field is doing international research. That's the biggest challenge. So unless you go out and hire specifically for international people and you make that a priority, and you say, "Okay, you know, you are a very good scholar, we would love to have you, but you are not doing any international research so we can't hire you." Unless you take that position that you can't hire people who aren't focused on international. You have to do international research to come here and work. If you take that position in the market, then you can have international in everything you do, but once you say "Well, these persons are doing

research in the U.S. but they are very good at that and we hire that person.” Now these persons go to the PhD seminar. They are not going to teach international. That’s not. Sirius’ sharing brought the issue of faculty hiring standards to the discussion table of internationalization. As clearly showed in the quotation, faculty’s research interests and background had a direct link with the possibility if she or he was able to offer an international PhD seminar.

5387 has spent over 50 years in the program and had been a high level administrator for almost 20 years. To him, the biggest challenge for enabling students to have in-depth intercultural learning was that the faculty had to be familiar with intercultural learning issues. The conversation between him and I is presented here.

Researcher: What are the challenges for students to have an in-depth intercultural learning?

5387: I think obviously the faculty member has to study a lot of these stuffs. So you know, I had learned more about Japanese culture, Filipino culture, or we had a number of Russians in our classes. You know, you have learned more of these cultures so that you can kind of understand what the students are trying to say, and then say you can ask question like “can you explain to so and so, how you do things in Russia?” or whatever, give examples. My courses, I gave only essay exams and papers, and typically what I would be doing is asking them to compare one thing and show me how this concept is used in organizations and how would that be different if you are in, say Japan, China, Korea or whatever, and so, they would discuss a lot of these things in class, you just mix everything up and you.... and I use guest speakers, you know, and so I think through all

those things you kind of develop a culture in the class, where that kind of things are expected, and students will share and they will go deeper.

So 5387 was emphasizing that faculty needed to have relevant knowledge of different cross-cultural issues in order to develop enough cross-cultural sensitivity and become capable of recognizing when an appropriate time would be to tap on the cross-cultural conversation. He had tried many strategies to encourage and facilitate the exchange of cultural insights on the same practice. He also demonstrated that this experience or say cross-cultural sensitivity could be gained over years. Useful teaching techniques for purposefully bringing out cross-cultural sharing were shared. It appeared that a deliberate creation of class culture and some teaching strategies were necessary for enabling intercultural learning among all students.

This section *Meaning and practice of the internationalization of higher education in the PhD program* discusses the faculty's mind on the theoretical meaning of the internationalization at a PhD program. Mostly, the popularly used major indicators for institutional internationalization (i.e. the mobility of students) as reported by researchers (Delgado-Marquez, Hurtado-Torres, & Bondar, 2011; Hudzik & Stohl, 2012; Marginson et al., 2010; Peterson, 2010) were regarded as important ones but not the core. Numerous faculty comments pointed to the significance of research, curriculum, and cross-cultural learning as meaningful aspects in the doctoral program. The faculty's perspective was reflective of the expected direction as pointed out by the leading scholars, such as Beelen (2011), McBride, Humphries, and Knight-Grofe (2015), Murray and Leask (2015), Rizvi (2014), and Rizvi and Lingard (2010), and others. The findings have exemplified the possibilities of producing internationalization learning outcomes of all students in a doctoral program at the home campus. It also demonstrates how value and



culture could indirectly and fundamentally facilitate or inhibit the practice of internationalization, such as via the faculty hiring policy.

**Is this PhD program an international and intercultural educational program?**

Faculty responses repeatedly talked about the current practice. But I was not able to see an agreement among the various evaluation comments. These different or appearing contradictory answers further demonstrated the complexity of internationalization. Their experiences specified the internal and external factors contributing to the internationalization at the doctoral program level. My findings stressed that internationalization was susceptible to the influence from the academe, even though the program could execute some influence within its control. These external impactful factors included the job market, competition pressure from peer colleges, accreditation body, and others. Despite the fact that the program could try to shape the practice through changing and creating policies and program structure, it was hard to lead the practice toward the ideal direction. Again, the internationalization of the program was a difficult task indeed.

The professors, who believed or used to think that this was an internationally oriented doctoral program, enumerated a number of examples. Some stated that the program focused on the Asia and Pacific, and that internationalization was reflected in the program's original name *International Management PhD Program*. Faculty expertise in international studies was another aspect. Other indicators included international student presence, the availability of some international courses, and a higher percentage of student dissertations relevant to international and cross-cultural issues in the Management specialty area than the one in the same sub-field in other peer colleges. These faculty members tended to agree that this program was able to expose

students to international and cross-cultural research and issues via faculty expertise, courses, and guest speaker seminars.

Two faculty administrators said “yes and no” as the answer and explained why. John Butler had stayed here for over ten years. He thought the program’s “focus on international research has dramatically weakened.” According to him, the faculty hiring policy used to stress the international piece but many things have changed over years. The PhD program name has changed and the faculty hiring policy has changed. Hence, he did not think the current doctoral program was much different from other business PhD programs in the U.S. or in other countries. Here are his original words.

John Butler: Well as I said we changed the name of the program. I think when I first came here there was a much stronger focus on that [internationally oriented PhD program]. And that focus has dramatically weakened in the 13 years I have been here. Well even in hiring they wanted people that were international. That’s no longer the case. It just you can walk into the business school in the United States, they are all the same. I mean I can leave here tomorrow and go to the University of Nevada and I can start to teach there with no adjustment whatsoever. They all offer the same courses. They all teach the same books. They are all identical. I don’t think there will be much difference. I think you can go to one maybe they have more money, have more students, have more seminars, but we have a common accreditation body, and I think it resulted in these business schools being pretty identical. There may be some exceptions. [They are identical] To the degree that they can do anything. The marketing courses in Hong Kong Polytechnics are the same as the marketing courses at here, which is the same one as in the University of Washington, yeah. In Hong Kong they are gonna do dissertation related

to China but that's not really international if you are in Hong Kong, so if you are in Thailand you are gonna do a dissertation related to Thailand. I don't see much difference. This quotation provided rich information on what factors could influence internationalization and how they executed the power in a distant way. Some factors that had not been extensively discussed in the scholarship were revealed here, such as the same accreditation body and using the same textbooks. This professor's comment was thought-provoking, and inspired me to ask some interesting questions: What research could be regarded as international research? In the business field, if the research is focused on the home country's companies, should it be considered an international study? If yes, how international would these studies be? If no, what research should qualify to be called an international research?

Sirius, another administrator, offered another example, indicating that the internationalization focus on the student research side might have weakened. Compared with the number of student dissertations on international studies before the program name change happened, he observed a drop in the total number in recent years. Before the program name change, more student dissertations focused on an international issue or were at least related to culture in a certain way, as "they were supposed to do that." But now less students were doing that because it was no longer necessary.

Three participants said no, or felt hesitant to say yes, or said yes in the beginning but later realized an inconsistency between what it was supposed to be and what has been happening. Their remarks revealed that in their specialty areas (Finance and Accounting) the curriculum was not that internationalized. According to QQ, the large percentage of international students in the program was a common fact among all business schools at the same tier level. So there was not

necessarily a link between the large international student population and the internationalization of the program. QQ shared some remarkable ideas.

QQ: The program's original name was *International Management*, and it was a misleading one. We have a class teaching foundation theories. In the past we had to put the word *international* into course titles to be consistent with the original name. This was very inaccurate. International finance was a small branch in Finance research. Now the program name has changed. We no longer put *international* in the course title. It's Foundation of Finance. I think it is a more accurate course title. If we want to provide good quality training for the students and make this program competent compared with other peer colleges, we have to provide the foundation training. International finance is not. If we do that, that really misguides the student. We have made the program name to be more general. The original name was too narrow and it created pressure for us to make sure that our courses can reflect that focus. If we make it [the courses] international because of that, it creates misunderstanding. Some people think that we only train students to do Asia and Pacific research. This is a misunderstanding. Our program is comparable with the ones in other universities. We do not train students to only do international research.

In this quotation, one main concern being expressed was that this program might not be regarded as a competent and comparable PhD program if being compared with peer colleges. He emphasized that international finance was a small branch of research areas in the Finance sub-field, which could serve as a cause for misunderstanding. He worried that if internationalization was imposed upon the department from the top when a negative perception of international

research training stayed active in the field, it could do harm to the students when they went to the job market.

This professor's comments speak to a critical issue that has been discussed in the scholarship. Should the field of international education be practiced as a system in itself, or be treated as a small area for training a few students to become future international specialists? Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (1998) devoted a whole book to explain the necessity of applying a "maximalist" approach to the internationalization of the curriculum (p. 7) and called for a serious debate on how to integrate fragmented segments of international education into the mainstream system of academia (p. 30). The various conversations (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Murray & Leask, 2015; Ryan, 2012; Sawir, 2011b) on comprehensive internationalization have explored the possibilities of expanding the scope of international education from a minimalist approach—international student presence. This Finance professor's sharing exhibited the inherent challenge within academia. This is consistent with some scholars' (i.e. Turner & Robson, 2008; Marginson & Sawir, 2012) concerns that academia might be its own worst enemy for internationalization.

An Accounting professor Buval explained why there was a distance between the practice and the ideal internationalization—students were not doing international research, including the international students. To him, the valuable resources of different cultural interpretations of business practices—the internationally diverse student population, have been wasted. The potential of cross-cultural learning has not been reached. The below interview illustrates his thinking.

Researcher: so you are thinking ideally in an international PhD program because students come from different background so the interpretation of the same phenomenon can be different.

Buval: yeah, kind of new interpretation and potentially the discussion can be stimulated and maybe become potentially a very new and big contribution to the field.

Researcher: when you say discussion, you mean class discussion or other?

Buval: no, it can be in-class discussion, work discussion or other informal discussion, but nowadays, still the students they kind of try to just learn the U.S., just the U.S., I mean they don't have the ability or they don't want to. I don't know, integrate their cultural differences to the U.S. findings. They don't want to combine these two things. They abandon what they learned before, try to mimic the U.S. research that has been done. You know what I mean?

By discussing faculty's views on the current practice, this section described the various influential internal and external factors that could facilitate or inhibit the efforts in building up an internationally oriented doctoral program. The findings disclosed one dimension of the complexity. Internationalization of the PhD program was not merely an educational project growing within a college. Its stakeholders involved the international culture of a sub-field, the faculty, the students, and the accreditation body. To have a meaningful impact on the doctoral program, institutional administrators might have to have a thorough consideration and come up with a strategic plan on how to engage all the stakeholders with the practice of institutional internationalization.

### **Academic Publishing and International Research**

This section discusses issues related to academic publishing and international research. Based on the character of the sharing, findings were divided into two groups. One focused on professors' experiences of and perceptions on publishing international research at top journals in the field. Another concentrated on student research, presenting professors' remarks on the

training environment and discussing if student research could be included as an important internationalization indicator.

**“It’s very difficult to publish international research at top journals.”**

Participants have reached a consensus on the difficulty in publishing international research at top tier journals. The various explanations and remarks could be grouped into three core reasons. First, international research was indeed a very hard project in itself. Second, academia had the tradition to value the originality and theory development of academic articles, which had a far-reaching impact on the evaluation of the academic contribution of international research. Third, the accessibility and reliability of data were a real challenge for international studies. This difficulty could have a discouraging impact on junior scholars and doctoral students, as Professors Dreambig explained, “Because they need to publish quickly and at better journals.”

Professor Sirius’ remark nicely explained why conducting international and comparative research was difficult in itself.

Sirius: Comparative work by itself is not very interesting. It has to be the work that takes theory, it’s developed in another country or wherever, and then, not just test if that theory works but also has to try to find some additional insight based on that country, so it’s not just say “oh, this is the relationship in the U.S. Let’s see if that relationship holds in Japan.” That’s not very interesting. What’s interesting is, it works here, let’s see if it works there, and what can we learn from there that maybe also build on the theory and applies around the world. So you have to really... international [research] is very difficult to do. And gaining the data, and speaking, not speaking, but working with the

people who speak the language and paying for it, it's expensive, so international in general is a very hard area to work in.

His description provided a lot of information, from the theoretical contribution challenge, to data collection, and then working with the local people, and the expensive cost. The hardship has been clearly expressed.

Another group of explanations sharply pointed to the foundational impact, derived from the intellectual tradition in academia. Half of the participants directly or indirectly talked about the need for international research to contribute to mainstream theories and research in order to publish at the top journals. The Finance professor QQ explained how this perceived need was related to the intellectual tradition in academia, and indicated a possible link between the originality of international research and the difficulty of publishing at top journals.

QQ: It may be a bias. But most people think of it this way and that's possible why international research is especially difficult to publish [at top journals]. To some extent, the originality of international research is not enough, particularly the ones that are done by students. They mainly want to follow a major approach, a method, or a famous article, using an American general theory or any other general theory that has been published in top journals, to apply it to a specific international market. In term of the pure academic value, the contribution of this application decreases already, unless it brings special and creative value to the theory. If you study Korea simply because no research has done that before, it is a second tier research from the academic point of view. So that's why most international studies are not published at top journals. It's particularly hard to do that. The top tier research emphasizes more on the pure academic value. That means original research method, new phenomenon, and new interpretation. It talks less about special



concepts that are internationally relevant. In most sub-fields in business, such as Finance and Marketing, we do not necessarily stress these [international] factors. So if an international research only emphasizes the application, then it's certain that its originality for theory development would decrease.

These findings contributed specific explanations for the scholarly discussion on the inherent challenges within academia and the impact of long lasting intellectual traditions on the practice of internationalization.

Faculty comments also produced some interesting and relevant issues regarding the current situation of international research in the field. Many faculty volunteers recognized that even though the interest in conducting international research has been expanding, mainstream research was still dominated by American research, mainly focused on the American market. One exception could be some topics in the Management specialty area. For example, Professor John Butler said that most of the research on family business has been produced by scholars outside the U.S., because family business was not originated in the U.S. and has not been become as popular in the U.S. as it was in the Europe and some other countries. Some faculty participants agreed that international research has been better perceived in recent years than before and that the difficulty for publishing at top journals has been improved.

One professor shared with me her observation of existing problems and a thought-provoking question in relation to publishing international research. These ideas were fascinating. Dreambig, a Finance professor, identified two problems in the practice of academic publishing.

- 1) While some business problems were content-dependent, some articles using the American data presumed an applicability of its results in any markets, without an awareness or acknowledgement of possible limitations in applying to other markets.
- 2) The vague definition

of the meaning of international research has caused confusion on the difference between “so-called international research and the other strategy of research.” Dreambig felt that a lot of the problems were general enough and had implications for other markets and other countries, even though the data set was from countries other than the U.S. In those cases, she wondered if these studies should be viewed as international research or general research. To think one step further, her wonder actually indicated that the definition of general research defined what international research was. I wonder if the dichotomy between general research and international research was necessary and what an appropriate attitude academia should have in treating the overlapping part between general research and international research.

The discussion in this section disclosed a long lasting practice of intellectual tradition and some taken-for-granted assumptions in academia. The first one is the evaluation of academic value based on the originality in theory contribution and the second is the unclear answer of what general research or international research entails. The perceptions, insights, and wonders shared by the ten faculty volunteers inspire me to ask questions and raise the awareness of the impact of these academic practices. Should application research be regarded as inferior to theory development research? What constraints might have this traditional intellectual context created toward the development of international research? How far can international research go and how high is the potential of international research within the context of this intellectual tradition? What could be the definition of general research, and what could be the definition of international research? In the current intellectual context in the U.S., has the research being done in the U.S. and other Western countries been presumed or exercised as general research? What limitations might the explanatory power have had and how have the limitations been recognized or explained by academics?

### **Student research on international and cross-cultural issues.**

According to the volunteers, international research could not and should not be enforced among students. The interest of international research was self-selected. Most professors did not feel they have used “a systematic way to encourage or enforce international research among students.” A few professors recalled that they and their departments might have been sending a discouraging signal to the students about the difficulty of conducting and publishing international research. Among them, one professor’s hesitance of encouraging students to do international research was obvious. Being aware of the pressure to publish at top journals, the difficulty in publishing international research in the top ones, and possible doubts from the job market on the knowledge background and research capability of the student who conducted international research, he did not think it was necessary to openly and explicitly encourage students to pursue international research. This professor kept emphasizing that the PhD program was to train students with research dispositions and high quality research skills. And the training should not be affected by which market students chose to engage in. According to the volunteers, the number of student dissertations that were internationally or cross-culturally relevant was relatively high in Management, becoming smaller in Marketing, and very limited in Finance and Accounting.

These findings did not just expose another side of the training environment in the program but also raised the question if student research should be included as an important internationalization indicator in the PhD program. If student research should be an important aspect, how could the program create a nurturing environment? Given the previous discussion on academic publishing and international research, it appeared that the program has provided a realistic and difficult prospect of international research in front of the students, while exposing

them to some international studies. If student research was as important as the faculty participants have said in the ideal meaning of internationalization, there might be some space for improvement in the training and structure for a consistency between ideal thinking and reality.

### **PhD Curriculum and Teaching an Internationally Diverse Class**

This section explores the PhD curriculum internationalization and the cross-cultural learning experiences. Three sub-themes emerged. The first sub-theme relates to the PhD curriculum nature. The second sub-theme focuses on teaching international students. And the third sub-theme presents the cross-cultural learning in the doctoral program.

#### **What does a PhD curriculum consist of?**

This sub-theme explores the nature of a PhD curriculum and the significance of the subject in determining if the curriculum would integrate an international and cross-cultural perspective. Five participants shared comments on what a PhD curriculum was and what factors could or could not affect it. It seemed that the curriculum had much to do with the instructor's research interests and what articles have been published in the field. Two administrators vocalized that hiring policies could have a direct impact on the internationalization of the curriculum, if the priority was hiring new faculty with the international research focus. One administrator acknowledged that the availability and course content of PhD seminar classes would not be impacted by the presence of large number of international students. He offered an example to illustrate this point.

QQ: If we have offered a foundational theory course, I don't think we are going to offer another course specifically focused on the international foundational theory simply because we have many international students. I won't say the presence of international students have an impact on the curriculum. Professor may use examples from the

countries that these international students are from. Even if the program was full of international students, the teaching content should reflect the scholarship.

This acute comment on the relationship between the PhD curriculum and international student presence contradicts the expectations from a number of scholars (Leask, 2003; 2010; 2016; Sawir, 2011a; Turner & Robson, 2008; Volet & Jones, 2012) supporting the internationalization of the curriculum. This finding implied that the core challenge of curriculum internationalization may relate to the nature of the PhD curriculum, especially in the fields where the mainstream research was not international research.

The specialization difference has been indirectly mentioned in the previous discussion on other topics (i.e. meaning and practice of internationalization, publishing international research), but faculty volunteers repeatedly talked about the significance of subject in relation to the PhD curriculum internationalization. From the comments offered by professors across specialty areas, Management and Marketing were widely recognized as more internationally engaged and culturally sensitive in teaching and research. Management stood out among all the four specializations as the more internationalized sub field in curriculum internationalization, recognized by all faculty volunteers. In addition, professors were able to reach a consensus that in Finance and Accounting, the business practice was more localized and contextualized, which has caused a lot of difficulty to internationalize the curriculum and the research.

The professor from Marketing remarked that people were aware of the importance of culture in the field and it has been integrated into everything. He offered an example that in the textbook that he required for his class there was a small section entitled *international research* that was devoted specifically to talk about the impact of culture. Even if the authors could not specify on how culture differences might impact the application of results in different countries,

they would still acknowledge possible limitations in applying their findings in foreign markets. In some cases, it was just a few sentences. In other cases, it was several paragraphs. But there was always a section there. To the contrary, in Finance and Accounting, especially Accounting, it appeared that these sub-fields offered limited space for the possibility of integrating the international and cross-cultural component into teaching. Accounting professors Buval and G.K. both emphasized the impact of one important fact in accounting practices across different countries. That is, different countries applied different sets of accounting standards, thus firms in different countries would follow different accounting regulations to file business reports. The variations among these different accounting standards and business report regulations have created a lot of difficulty in conducting meaningful comparative and international studies.

Finance professor QQ provided his idea on why the curriculum in some specialty areas appeared more internationalized than others.

QQ: Some courses are entitled cross-cultural, global, or international something. That's the character of that specialization, not an outcome or a trial of the internationalization of the curriculum. For example, Management sometimes offers a cross-cultural seminar.

That's true. I know one person has done a research. [In the research] He mentioned that religion brought harassment and that gender mattered in the findings. His study did show that these factors existed and had a function. So they do have these [cultural things in that sub-field]. But it [integrating the international and cross-cultural component into the curriculum] is not an attempt to internationalize the curriculum.

Management professor Anne confirmed QQ's point and further explicated the subject differences between Management and other specialty areas.

Anne: When we teach, we teach both the literature and what's happening in the real world. Because we are in the business, we are very applied. There are many multinational firms, so for example if you are talking about, sometimes, and many times, the issue of culture comes into play a role, and not only because they are in different cultures, we also have it in management and human resources, we have cultural diversity in the workforce, so for top management they have to understand the culture diversity of the workforce. So it's not the literature that comes from the U.S. or non-U.S., it's the application of the real world. So say in law, culture could be important if you are talking about international law, but if you are talking about family law, it has to within the structure of the legal frame of the country, right? So not only the literature comes from the U.S., but also the application of the literature is also within the U.S. That's very different. In Management area, culture is a component we have to teach, in most of the syllabus, as a human resource program we have to deal with culture, the specificity of culture or not, but if you are teaching accounting I don't know how international you are going to be in your teaching because accounting rule and regulations are going to be about the U.S. The subject, like Finance and accounting, I think it's very much contextualized. It's very much influenced by the legal entity that they are in, whereas Marketing and Management we have to think about culture, because in Marketing you can't take this the same marketing in the U.S. and show it in China, you need to understand that culture and come up with different marketing strategies.

In Management, two realities have made the cultural component present in the courses related to multinational companies and international business. These realities were 1) the reality of cultural diversity in the workplace and 2) the application of theories back to the real ethnically and

culturally diverse workforce that top management officers had to deal with. Anne made it clear that this integration of cultural components in the theory and curriculum was different from intentionally showing different cultural understandings of the same business practice in teaching.

### **Teaching international students.**

Some professors thought there was no learning style difference between international students and American students, and other professors would acknowledge the nuances. To some professors at the doctoral level learning was the same for all learners. All students needed to be diligent, highly motivated, and hardworking in order to complete the degree within four years. One professor, Sirius, belonged to this group of thinking, but he also said that the language barrier was an exception. And then he added that academic writing was difficult for everyone, including native speakers.

The other professors who sensed the impact of cultural difference on student learning were mostly former international students themselves. Their comments produced two observations. 1) Asian international students tended to be shy and participated less in the beginning. The small size of the program and seminar courses could efficiently buffer the impact of culture on student learning at the doctoral level, such as by enrolling one to two students at a time and having two to five students in an intense three hours long seminar class. So once students became familiar with the seminar format, cultural impact became less obvious on learning. There would not be much difference in academic learning between international students and American students. But the social part could be different. 2) The phenomenon of cross-cultural separation among students from different cultural backgrounds was generally better at the PhD level than at the undergraduate. Cultural intimacy between students from the same or similar cultures was a natural phenomenon. The smaller the program was, the more



meaningful cross-cultural engagement might be at the doctoral level. In response to the observed learning differences, these professors used four different strategies or teaching techniques to help with student learning: the accommodation strategy, name calling strategy, encouragement strategy, and the variations of learning assessments.

### **Cross-cultural learning in the PhD program.**

There was not much extensive discussion on the cross-cultural learning in the PhD program. Instead, faculty collectively spoke out on the same purpose of PhD training. Cross-cultural learning was recognized as a critical ingredient but was not mentioned in a way that related to the PhD training purpose or course learning objectives.

Most professors said that the purpose of doctoral education was to train future researchers and professors. In addition to the general agreement on the purpose of PhD education, Professor Sirius referred to the goal as giving back to the field and attracting “really quality faculty to raise the status of the college.” Interestingly, two professors held contradictory opinions on which educational level could be the most appropriate time period for meaningful cross-cultural learning among students. One stated that the transfer of cultural information and learning would be greatest at the undergraduate level. Another argued that students would have a more meaningful cross-cultural understanding at the PhD level than at the undergraduate or master level. Their original statements are presented here.

John Butler: [Cross-cultural learning in the PhD program is] a rare occasion. There may be studies they are reading, they say that the results are different in their countries and they might say the reason why. But also a lot of times we found international effect in a lot of research questions. So it depends. I would think if I thought of a class that has 1/3 of students from outside the U.S., at the doctoral level, MBA level, and the undergraduate

level, I would think the transfer of cultural information and learning would be the greatest at the undergrad, second the MBA, and the least at the doctoral level... We do have a higher percentage of international students in PhD programs, but the context of the doctoral education is not one where people are having lots of time to discuss issues other than those related to the tremendous demand of doctoral education... Well, at least at the college of business, I would say if they are not working 60 hours a week, they are not going to finish it [the degree] in 4 years. If they are not finishing within 4 years, their funding is gone. Can they find out a little bit about other countries? Yeah, someone who is a fellow student they associate with, they will find out a little. When I was a doctoral student, two of the people I associated with, one was from India one was from Greece, I learned a little bit about Greece and a little bit about India. But I wouldn't say it was significant. Most of our discussions involved getting work done that were related to research. We didn't have lots of time to discuss [cultural things].

Selma: I think the best time for people to study abroad by themselves and to have a meaningful cross-cultural learning and engagement, like understanding more about your own culture, having an appreciation of other cultures, respecting the differences in people's mind, is in the graduate school, particularly the PhD program. [Among] High school, undergraduate, master, and PhD, I think PhD level is the best, because people's ideas are more mature and they have enough life experiences to compare, reflect, learn, and grow in their own mind when they are challenged by or confronted with different perspectives. For students at a younger age, like high school or undergraduate kids, they are too young. Some young kids may get lost in a foreign culture. They don't know how to function. I know stories about some [international] students. They miss classes and

sleep all day, play instruments in bars while they are supposed to go to school. There won't be much reflective thinking going on at that young age.

It appeared that these two perspectives were contradicting each other. Indeed both perspectives make sense. But one of them talked about the context of doctoral education, the real cause for making cross-cultural learning less possible. The other highlighted the importance of age, life experiences, and maturity in making the doctoral education the most appropriate educational level for meaningful cross-cultural learning and engagement. In short, they were respectively talking about the actual opportunity and the expected potentiality for enabling transformative internationalization at the PhD level.

Some professors who were former international students themselves offered ideas on transformative cross-cultural learning experiences. They tended to agree that it was natural that international students would have transformative cross-cultural learning during their study in the doctoral program and that the domestic students might not have such experience. Professor Dreambig said that her cultural learning was from general life experience in the host country. At the doctoral program, her cultural learning was more academically oriented than social.

Dreambig: I think my personal experience there [at the host country] definitely was [transformative]. I did my undergraduate study outside the U.S., I came to the U.S. for the graduate school. I had some sort of exposure to new media [before coming to the U.S.]. To me to a large extent it was brand new, so there were definitely learning, maybe not from fellow students, just in general, interacting with the professors, even you know when you go grocery shopping or something, for me, there was definitely, specifically, I think a lot of learning, for me at least. Maybe in the classroom, we took a lot of classes together. I mean, when I say in the classroom, I mean at the beginning a lot of it [cross-

cultural learning] were academically oriented. We did homework together. We did some group projects together. So you know definitely some learning existed there: how everybody expressed himself or herself, the weakness and strength of different people, people from different part of the world. So that's definitely that. And towards the end of the PhD program, I felt there was more learning sort of outside of academics. We had fun, some social activities together. We played different games. We learned from each other how to play each other's games, and yeah, so, I think there was for me.

Selma, a visiting scholar who lived in the residence hall with many international graduate students, shared her experience of cross-cultural learning as an involvement in other people's lives and as an opportunity for breaking stereotypes.

Selma: Before, I knew Sri Lanka and Nepal just as two countries on the map. But now I have friends. I have been seeing them, their attitude, their behavior and their vision, their cooking. They are using it, how they are using them and how they are behaving people, I'm happy to see them. They are not far from me. We have people from China, in the same country, are curious again [about each other's cultures]. So the more I am involved, I feel more involved in other people's lives. You welcome this cultural sharing, so it's all the things I saw here. Actually you are hearing different languages. You don't understand. It sounds different, makes you think of what they are. The first impression is that they are strangers, but you get to know them, you get to know him or her, then you get to know there's no difference. Yes, there're differences but he or she is not strange. That's all. We had, yes, I'm not sure who told me that, they said that "I hate Chinese people, they are doing this and that" but I have Chinese friends. So they [the sayings] are

not right. It's good to have interaction with other cultural people, to know these people and to know their culture, and to break the stereotypes.

Their experiences had both the social and academic part. Apparently, the social and cultural part of life was at least as important as the academic part in contributing to a transformative cross-cultural learning experience. After saying that, I had to stress that behind the sharing of different learning experiences the common matter was the existence of cross-cultural engagement. The engagement might be caused by necessity, as Dreambig said about the academically oriented interactions and learning in the beginning. It might also be the product of curiosity, an open attitude, interest, and self-motivation, as Selma has illustrated in the quotation.

Other comments produced a list of factors that have contributed to the availability and unavailability of cross-cultural learning and engagement in the PhD program. 1) The factors contributing to the transformative cross-cultural learning of international students included a combination of student self-motivation and the pressure from the host country, requiring foreign students to adapt to the dominant culture. 2) The factors contributing to the unavailability of cross-cultural learning in the program included a possible lack of curiosity of American students about other countries and cultures and the fact that cultural learning was not a primary learning objective. Two professors talked about the attitude change in the big social environment in the U.S. toward the importance of cultural learning, which had a direct impact on teaching, contemplating if there was a need to integrate an international and cross-cultural component into the curriculum and learning objectives.

Anne: I think before the globalization cultural training was extremely important because people didn't understand that different cultures and behavior are differently. I think we are collectively getting to the point of understanding that different culture acts differently,

so we don't have to make it like a big point about it. We just have to talk about the nuances. In my opinion just thinking about, like marketing, so marketing in China is different from marketing in Germany, different from in South Korea, North America, I can see that, but not that "oh, let's talk about culture." I think that we can talk about different subjects and think about globally, which I think it's a trend and inevitable too. I don't know if we need to emphasize culture as a very huge learning objective any more. I think it was very important maybe 30 years ago.

3) There was one critical factor, the decision of which could directly determine if cross-cultural learning and engagement should become available or not in the doctoral program. That is the goal of the training. If the PhD program thought that cross-cultural learning and engagement were important for internationalization, they should be treated as part of the goal. Otherwise, cross-cultural learning and engagement could be supplementary practiced as irrelevant or secondary in the teaching and learning at the PhD program.

## **Chapter 7: Discussion**

This chapter presents the discussion of some salient issues that are not directly related to my research questions. But these issues are important and my study had enough data to support a scholarly conversation or exploration on these topics. Also, it engages the data with cutting edge literature in an attempt to unravel some complicated, profound, and less obvious issues constraining the further development of internationalization. Lastly, it offers theoretical implication for Marginson's theorization on international and intercultural education.

### **The Pure Meaning of Internationalization as a Means to an End in the Doctoral Program**

This section tries to narrow down the pure meaning of internationalization as a means to an end in the doctoral program. This attempt is two-fold. It firstly uses the findings to demonstrate how the lack of clarity in the meaning of internationalization is reflected in the practice at this doctoral program. Secondly, it identifies the core meaning at the doctoral program and pins it down at the departmental and individual levels.

### **Exploring the meaning of internationalization at the intersection of international and intercultural education.**

As I discuss in the literature review chapter (Chapter 2), there exist competing interpretations of internationalization from different perspectives. Different people can implement internationalization differently at different places. My data and findings support this aspect of complexity in internationalization. In the two findings chapters (Chapter 5 and Chapter 6), the analysis of the meaning clearly reveals the nuances and disparity between and among students and faculty, despite the fact that all participants agreed on a few internationalization indicators (i.e. international diversity in the demographics of the faculty and students). The variations in the perceived practical and expected meaning and the range of reported content in

internationalization reflected the fact that internationalization as a concept and institutional practice have been neither explicitly discussed nor agreed upon among the faculty and students across specialty areas in this college. In this doctoral program, the meaning and practice of internationalization revealed an obvious subjective and individualized color.

The uncertainty in and the variance of the participants' responses to the meaning of internationalization repeatedly highlight the inappropriateness to hastily connect the practice of internationalization with any assumed or expected positive outcomes of internationalization. Overall, the social, cultural, and educational outcomes of internationalization discussed in the scholarship, such as intercultural learning (Marginson & Sawir, 2011), transformative learning (Turner & Robson, 2008), cosmopolitan learning (Rizvi, 2014; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010), and cultural learning (Volet & Jones, 2012), seemed more like an ideal format rather than a purposefully structured daily practice in the context of the doctoral program that I have examined. Transformative intercultural learning did not happen for all students. According to the data, international students reported more experiences with intercultural learning, self-reflection on home culture, increased cross-cultural sensitivity and awareness, and behavior change. However, the cultural learning was not a direct outcome of the internationalization practice in this program. These reported transformative experiences related more closely to their cross-cultural interactions in the other aspects of their lives in the foreign country. American students did not have much to share about their cultural learning due to the internationalization practice at this PhD program and the international student presence.

Ultimately, my findings support Marginson and Sawir's (2011) point that there is a distinction between international education and intercultural education. In theory, these two concepts are interconnected and intertwined. In practice, there was not always a connection



between these two concepts. In some subfields, professors dealt with more cultural issues to internationalize the teaching, such as in the Management and Marketing departments. In the subfields of Finance and Accounting, internationalizing the teaching meant incorporating research on markets other than the U.S. A consideration of culture was not necessary in the internationalization of the curriculum in the Finance and Accounting specialty areas. The very different practice of what it meant to internationalize the teaching and curriculum among professors across specialty areas further evidenced the confusion, lack of clarity, and complexity of internationalization.

**Core meaning: An exchange of different cultural and intellectual interpretations of the same practice.**

Scholars (Gu, 2001; Leask, 2016; Ninnes & Hellsten, 2005; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010; Ryan, 2012; Singh, 2010; Turner & Robson, 2008; Volet & Jones, 2012) who examine the intersection of international and intercultural education have contributed a number of descriptions to delineate what such learning is and what the process might look like. Many of the descriptions and terms being used are abstract and fail to provide a clear definition, such as cosmopolitan learning and cosmopolitan citizenship (Rizvi, 2014; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010), transformative learning (Marginson & Sawir, 2011), and cultural learning (Volet & Jones, 2012). Even when a definition is offered, it provides limited guidance on the actual practice of teaching and learning in a specific context. For example, Marginson and Sawir (2011) define a cosmopolitan intercultural education as an education that equips students for self-formation in a relational environment marked by both local grounding and interconnectedness (p. 18). This definition is barely applicable and translatable for faculty and students to take concrete action in a real teaching and learning context. In another instance, Rizvi (2014), and Rizvi and Lingard (2010,

pp. 201-202) depict cosmopolitan citizenship as the construction of collective well-being sutured across local, national and global dimensions. More sensibly, Ryan (2012) suggests that such learning engages with intellectual traditions around the world. It is an endeavor between civilizations (p. 57). Overall, the scholarly discussion focusing on the intersection of international and intercultural education is limited in the respect of offering tangible and actionable guidance on the pure meaning of internationalization as a means to an end in daily teaching and learning practices.

The data in this qualitative exploratory extreme case study offer many concrete evidences on what an international and intercultural learning experience might be, and how cross-cultural sharing might contribute or not contribute value to the teaching and learning within the context of doctoral education. As identified by the student participants Gift, Spring, Samuel, and Shidler, it was an assumption that cross-cultural sharing was necessary or could facilitate learning at the doctoral program. The practice did not always support this assumption. The findings suggest that a mere sharing of cultural backgrounds or personal experiences that were not relatable to the theories and articles being discussed in the class brought limited value to the class discussion. This kind of cross-cultural sharing would not receive much appreciation among students. On the contrary, in the context of doctoral education, meaningful cross-cultural sharing and engagement normally were able to create opportunities for intellectual reflexivity, a reflection on cultural assumptions, and an increased awareness of cultural values and beliefs. As the student participants Joe Visky, John Doe, Frog and the faculty participants Buval and 5387 explicated, the nature of meaningful or valuable cross-cultural sharing and engagement was an exchange of different cultural interpretations of the same business practices, which could confront the students with foreign ideas and might spark creative research ideas.

My findings suggest that the core meaning of internationalization in the doctoral program is the exchange of different cultural and intellectual interpretations of the same practice, which could spark creative ideas and enable cultural reflection among students when the teacher designed her or his class in this way. It was the embracement, encouragement, and enabling of intellectual diversity in the teaching, learning, and research practice. It involved a purposeful creation of a welcome, comfortable, and inviting environment for the free exchange of various cultural insights on the same or similar business practices in different countries. In this study, the complexity of and challenge in implementing this core meaning often involved a lack of consensus among all participants, especially among the faculty participants, on to what extent, how to implement, and what counted as intellectual diversity. There was no public debate or discussion about these issues in the program among all faculty and students. For example, should student research on international and/or cross-cultural issues be included as an important internationalization indicator of the program? Or, would faculty research on these issues be sufficient to claim a program an internationally oriented program? What could be a key difference between a program that claims itself an internationally oriented program and the others that do not claim so?

Building upon this core meaning of internationalization, this study attempts to narrow it down at the departmental level and individual level for this specific business doctoral program. This attempt has been recommended by a number of scholars (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Friesen, 2013; Jones, Coelen, Beelen, & de Wit, 2016; Knight & de Wit, 1995; Turner & Robson, 2008). As I discuss at length in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6, at the research site—a PhD program in the Business School at a public research university in the U.S.—internationalization at the departmental level could mean the integration of an international and cross-cultural perspective

into research-driven and theory-oriented PhD courses, the curriculum, faculty research, student research, and co-curricular activities. At the research site, internationalization at the individual level could mean the possibility and opportunity for cross-cultural engagement that the context of doctoral education in the U.S. has provided for the student's self-formation process with the goal of intercultural learning.

### **Behind the Scenes: What Has Been Causing the Different Internationalization Engagement Levels across Specialty Areas?**

Despite the fact that the relationship between disciplinary culture and the practice of internationalization was not the focus of this dissertation, findings of this study have revealed a possible fundamental core reason that has been causing the differences in the engagement level with internationalization across the four main specialty areas. This relationship and the possible core reason deserve researchers' attention. In essence, this study has observed that the applied and contextualized characteristic of the discipline of business and its research might have been causing the main differences in the engagement level among Management, Marketing, Finance, and Accounting.

The data on both the student part and the faculty part repeatedly mentioned the different engagement levels across these four specialty areas with the internationalization of the curriculum, teaching, and the research. The student perspectives dug down to what articles they were exposed to and what specific topics their subfields engaged with. The faculty data as well as the focus group interview offered more details in the explanations of why and how the four subfields had different engagement levels with the internationalization of the curriculum and the research.

Based on all the data, the subject characters of Management and Marketing appeared quite distinctive from those in Finance and Accounting. In Management and Marketing, according to professors Anne, Sirius, John Butler, and 5387, cultural diversity, culture difference, and their impact on business practices were unavoidable and not ignorable. Although business research had to deal with theories, it had to contribute to the application in the real workforce, the corporate managers and human resource personnel's daily practices, and the foreign markets where customers' interests could be very different due to culture. Thus, in these two specialty areas, culture has been recognized as a big component in the teaching and curriculum, especially in the Management subfield.

In contrast, data from both the student and faculty perspectives illustrated that the business practice in Finance and Accounting was very localized and contextualized. This was more obvious in Accounting. Finance students Apple, Samuel, and Shidler offered general comments on the finance practice in different countries, suggesting that each country had their own focuses and differences. The comments from Accounting PhD graduate Bin and professors Buval, and G.K. offered more information on how accounting practices were different across countries and why it was difficult to internationalize this subfield. According to them, different countries created their own sets of accounting standards which stipulated strict and specific regulations that the firms in the country had to follow in filing business reports. This characteristic of accounting practices—the missing of a widely recognized and applicable international accounting report standard—made it very difficult to conduct meaningful and impactful comparative and international studies. According to Bin, Accounting training was contextualized; students had to receive training in a specific country in order to become an accountant in that specific country. Buval offered another example to illustrate this point. He

shared that it was hard to find a collaboration opportunity with visiting scholars from other countries, because the meaning of mainstream research was localized in different countries. A popular research topic in Japan was likely to be different from the mainstream research in the U.S., because the research had to contribute to the improvement of local industry and business.

This study did not directly offer much data on some fundamental questions in regards to the relationship between the business disciplinary culture and its institutional internationalization practice. Future research can explore this relationship by asking the following questions. How has the disciplinary culture enabled and/or restrained the production and availability of the scholarship, via shaping the research content (i.e. what could be and needs to be researched), research objectives (i.e. what problems need to be understood and resolved), and knowledge application (i.e. where the research findings would be applied to)?

Researchers interested in investigating the relationship between the disciplinary culture in the business field and the institutional internationalization practice at a specific college could push the question a bit further and pose a critical question: is the incorporation of the international and cross-cultural component into the curriculum and research a result of the subject character of different specialty areas? Or, is it the outcome of the institutional pursuit of internationalizing the home campus? Although these questions were not the focus of this dissertation, this study tends to suggest that it might not be a product of the institutional or departmental endeavor to internationalize the curriculum; rather, it appeared more related to the subject nature between and among different specialty areas in the business field. More research is needed to further examine this relationship.

## **Key Issues behind the Struggles**

This study identifies four key issues that were related to the struggles in enabling transformative intercultural learning for all students. The first key issue directly points to the situation of the doctoral program, wherein the relationship between the purpose of doctoral education and the educational goal of internationalization has been positioned as competing if not irrelevant. Second, the question that what the learning outcome of internationalization is or should be has not been openly and explicitly explored or discussed. Resolution of this issue of ambiguity and lack of discussion could improve the practice of internationalization. The third key issue discusses the potentiality of and the actual availability of opportunities for internationalizing the doctoral program. And the last key issue speaks to the importance of faculty preparation and the role of faculty in internationalizing a doctoral program.

**The situation that has put the educational goal of internationalization in a competing position against the purpose of doctoral education.**

The first key issue is about the context of doctoral education, which has situated the educational goal of internationalization—the transformative intercultural learning—a competing position against the purpose of doctoral education. The traditional purpose of doctoral education is to train the next generation of scholars and professors (Gardner, 2009; Weidman et al., 2001). My findings support this argument. This training goal was commonly shared by all faculty, and this message has been effectively transmitted to all student participants. In the context of this doctoral program and under the strict three or four year graduation time frame structure, the imagined educational outcome of internationalization has been considered as irrelevant or secondary in relation to the training purpose of doctoral education among almost all student participants, except Frog. For Frog, an American student in Management, these two goals, the

purpose of doctoral education and the goal of transformative intercultural learning, were not necessarily competing with each other. Frog stressed that dealing with the two goals was a difficult issue for the teaching faculty. According to him, handling these two goals without making them compete in the context of doctoral education demanded a lot of relevant knowledge, experience, cross-cultural sensitivity, and appropriate teaching techniques. Among the faculty volunteers, seven out of ten participants explicitly acknowledged the importance of cultural learning for doctoral students. Nevertheless, that importance was hardly recognized as a legitimate learning objective or the goal of doctoral education. Overall, 14 out of 15 students perceived that the relationship between these two goals was competing if not irrelevant. The faculty perspective showed that intercultural learning was important but it was not the goal of doctoral education.

**The ambiguity of and a lack of discussion on the learning outcome of internationalization.**

The second key issue relates to the ambiguity of and a lack of discussion on the learning outcome of internationalization in the program. According to the data on the faculty part, it was debatable if student research should focus on international and/or cross-cultural issues and if student research could serve as a significant indicator of the internationalization in this PhD program. To some professors (Dreambig, Buval, QQ, GK, and Sirius), conducting international research was a self-selected decision and could not be forced upon students. Additionally, the consensus was that conducting and publishing international research was a very difficult task for all researchers. Further, while acknowledging that the situation was getting better, some professors (GK, Dreambig, and QQ) admitted that there was a bias in academia against international research, questioning the validity of data and the quality of these papers. In my



study, these discouraging signals had an indirect but obvious impact on the teaching and learning environment at this doctoral program. Students held different and uncertain thoughts on the issue of if they were expected to conduct international research or not. Such confusion was more obvious among the students who were in their beginning years. There appeared to be a lack of open and explicit discussion on the issue and significance of student research on international and/or cross-cultural issues among the faculty and students in the program. As such, overall the data in this study showed a stark difference between junior researchers (i.e. doctoral students and junior scholars) and the experienced scholars (i.e. the faculty participants) on the perceived value of international research to the field and toward their career development.

**The potentiality of and the available opportunities for internationalizing a doctoral program.**

The third key issue speaks to the potentiality of and the actual opportunities available at the doctoral program for internationalizing the curriculum, research, and academia. As I explain the three advantages of the doctoral program in the subsection *Why focus on the PhD program?* under *Research Design* in the *Methodology* chapter (Chapter 4), it is my stance and hope that doctoral education can resolve some of the intractable issues in internationalization, compared with other levels of higher education (i.e. the undergraduate and the master levels). These intractable issues include faculty engagement (Friesen, 2013; Hudzik & Stohl, 2012; Leask, 2010, 2016; Peterson, 2010; Sawir, 2011a; 2011b; Turner & Robson, 2008; 2009) and an understanding of possible ethnocentric knowledge and epistemology (Holmes, 2005; Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Trice, 2004; Trice, 2007; Turner, 2006; Turner & Robson, 2008) circulating in academia.

In at least three aspects, doctoral education in the U.S. has exceptional advantage over the undergraduate and master education to support and enable transformative intercultural learning for all. 1) It has a large percentage of international students in the program. 2) Its teaching is normally structured in a small class size, offering a better environment for in-depth intercultural interaction. 3) It is the place to train and educate the next generation of scholars, faculty, and professionals (Gardner, 2009; Weidman et al., 2001). In this sense, the doctoral program is the place to identify the roots of inherent challenges and opportunities that have been influencing the current and future institutional internationalization practice.

My data solidified my belief in the significance and potentiality of the doctoral program in internationalizing higher education. The data also revealed the challenging nature of this internationalization task. In addition to the three exceptional advantages I listed in the above paragraph, American student Spring and faculty participant Selma talked about the importance of maturity and enough life experience in intercultural learning, which positioned doctoral education as the most appropriate and enabling place over other educational levels in fulfilling the promise of internationalization—transformative intercultural learning.

On the other side, this study demonstrates that the culture, tradition, and value in the academic world had a fundamental, pervasive, and significant impact on the practice of internationalization at the doctoral program via influencing the curriculum, teaching, advising, and learning. Teaching and learning in the doctoral education are susceptible of the solitary culture, job market, and intellectual traditions practiced in the academic world.

Internationalization was not a mere educational practice that was only happening within a program. The local practice was interconnected with and highly influenced by the internationalization practice in the discipline at the national and even global level. This study

found a number of uncontrollable factors beyond the reach of the college that have been directly and indirectly influencing student perceptions and decisions, such as the traditional purpose of PhD education, the nature of PhD curriculum, the culture of doctoral student training, the dominant position of U.S. research in theory development, the impact of the big sociocultural environment, etc. I offer detailed discussion on these issues in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6. These cultural and external factors in the field at the national and global levels have largely limited the scope and scale of internationalization practices at the local level. In a word, if academia, higher education administrators, faculty, and students are committed to fulfill the promise of internationalization, there need to be a serious discussion on how to respond to the impact of some of the academic values, traditions, and cultures affecting the local practices. In any case, if not doctoral education, who else would have the interest, legitimacy, autonomy, resources, and capability to deal with these inherent issues within academia?

**The importance of faculty preparation and the role of faculty in internationalizing the curriculum, teaching, and research.**

The fourth key issue is about faculty—faculty preparation for teaching an internationally diverse class and their role in internationalizing the curriculum and the research. In the literature, despite the fact that the faculty's role is receiving growing recognition of its significance in internationalizing the curriculum (Leask, 2003; 2010; Sawir, 2011a; 2011b; Tran & Pham, 2017; Volet & Ang, 1998), there is still a fundamental lack of understanding of their role in internationalization (Friesen, 2013; Leask, 2016; Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Peterson, 2010).

Many of my findings are consistent with the literature on the crucial role of faculty. This study provides many evidences to enrich the understanding of how faculty directly and indirectly contributed to the availability and unavailability of learning resources and cross-cultural

engagement opportunities via designing the curriculum, delivering the teaching and offering research guidance. As I elaborate in the sections of *The nature of PhD education* in Chapter 5 and *PhD curriculum and teaching an internationally diverse class* in Chapter 6, if the faculty did not offer opportunities and resources for students to engage with international and cross-cultural issues, students would hardly have any chances to learn, discuss, and engage with these matters. Responses from the students and faculty produced a list of factors that were positively related to transformative intercultural learning. These included faculty's interest in cultural learning, their personal international and cross-cultural background, research expertise, knowledge of cross-cultural issues, sensitivity to potential cross-cultural sharing moments, and a mastering of appropriate teaching techniques. Both the findings from the student perspective and the faculty perspective proved that enabling an international and intercultural class demanded a careful and purposeful design of the curriculum as well as a mastering of appropriate cross-cultural knowledge and teaching techniques from the faculty.

This study confirms the observations that Gu and Maley (2008), Leask (2010; 2016); Marginson and Sawir (2011), Rizvi and Lingard (2010), and Turner and Robson (2008) have made—the professional training of faculty is missing and needed. All the faculty members admitted that there was no training available at the departmental and college levels on how to effectively teach an internationally diverse class. They were also not aware of any such professional training offering at the campus level. Their comments on the hiring of new faculty suggested that it was assumed that the new faculty would have already known how to teach and engage an internationally diverse class.

In contrast, as I explicate in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6, all participants (American students, international students, and faculty) recognized that handling and managing a class that was

internationally diverse demanded a lot of teaching skills. For John Doe, the teacher had to have some understanding of the cultural values and norms, had to help students reach their wording objectives, and had to be aware and conscious of the way that she or he was presenting the idea to a culturally diverse population. For Gift, to enable a transformative intercultural learning environment at the doctoral level, faculty had to create something as the background and should help make student sharing relatable to the theory or the discussion topic. Gift kept underscoring that the faculty in the learning context had the power to enhance student's self-motivation in cross-cultural learning, via showing their appreciation and passion of intercultural learning. Frog, another American student, stated that intercultural learning in the classroom would be more easily achieved from the teacher who knew techniques for doing it, and that it was more likely to happen from a skilled teacher. In the data, the faculty perspective showed a wide range of understanding with respect to the difficulty, struggles, and challenges in teaching an internationally and culturally diverse population, which further highlighted the importance of cross-cultural sensitivity in utilizing the presence of cultural diversity as a learning resource and enabling transformative intercultural learning in the class.

This study adds a new dimension of the crucial role of faculty to internationalizing research. The findings point out three areas where faculty and only faculty could help improve the current situation for internationalizing research. 1) Their role in changing the situation and making more international and cross-cultural learning resources available to doctoral students. This importance applies to all specialty areas. By all means, if the faculty did not provide international learning materials, how and where would the students gain relevant knowledge? Nevertheless, the importance of such a crucial role would be more obvious in the specialty areas where international research appeared to be not that popular. According to the data, in Finance

and Accounting, students received less learning materials from international studies, compared with students from Management and Marketing, especially Management. Taking into account the nature of doctoral education and the development of a PhD curriculum, there could exist a cycle among a) a lack of availability of learning resources about international research to doctoral students, b) doctoral students would be less exposed to international research, and c) doctoral students would be less interested in conducting international research, unless the student was diligent in finding out resources on her or his own and was committed to conducting international research. In this study, such a cycle appeared active based on some students' observations, such as Q, Ali, Apple, Samuel, Shidler, and Bin. If the lack of enough quality papers on international research was the main cause of the lack of interest among emerging scholars (doctoral students and junior scholars) in studying international and cross-cultural issues, there needs to be a conversation among the academics on what needs to be done to effectively improve the situation, how to do this, and who should take the initiative, if academia is committed to internationalize the research field. By all means, in the doctoral program, the faculty, especially those with tenure, could take the lead on improving the situation by publishing more international research and by introducing more international articles into the curriculum.

2) In some subfields of business, faculty could play a role in bettering the way international research has been practiced and positioned in the academic world. If international research is practiced as a replication of an established American or Western study in an Asian or other foreign country, it tends to have limited space to offer academic originality, which has traditionally been widely recognized and practiced as the key factor in evaluating scholarly contributions to the field. In this study, across the data collected from the student perspective, faculty perspective, and the focus group interview, there emerged two interesting and

interconnected phenomena. A) In academia, there might exist a hierarchical recognition of the academic value of different research papers, based on the level of academic originality and the contribution to theory development. B) Across the four specialty areas, top journals were theory journals. In this study, it seemed that in the Finance subfield international research has normally been practiced as a replication of an established study or applies as an existing general theory in a specific international market to look for special characteristics. And American scholars or at least Western scholars have mainly produced the established or existing general theories. As the Finance students Samuel, Shidler, and professors QQ and Sirius commented, it was very difficult to find special or creative ideas in a replication study of established research.

However, the practice of international research does not have to be practiced in this way. There can be other approaches in conducting an international research project. It might be difficult, but international research also has the capability to produce new theory. In the focus group interview, Frog shared ideas on how the Management subfield treated international research. According to him, in Management scholars could turn different cultures into a variable for research, comparing variables from many different countries along different cultural lines. The practice of international research in the subfield of Management could be different from the one in Finance. This contrast and difference indicated that there could be other ways in conducting international research, which may offer more possibilities for researchers to show creativity in theory development. If it was a common practice in some subfields that international research meant replication of or applying a famous American or Western study in other international markets, and if there was an interest among academics to expand the scope of what international research was, in the doctoral program in those subfields faculty might have a

better position than the doctoral students to create international research in the department and across the greater academic field.

3) The influential role of the faculty in internationalizing research has been observed in the student participants' reports on what advising services they could access in the program. Student comments across specialty areas collectively consolidated an impression. If most of the faculty in the department focused on international research, their doctoral students tended to choose international research as the dissertation; if most of the faculty's research in the department focused on the American market, their doctoral students tended not to select international research as the dissertation. As I show in Chapter 5 under the section of *The chance of intellectual engagement with cultural issues depends on the subject and the instructor*, Apple confessed that it would be risky if he chose to conduct international research as his dissertation. Given that all the professors' research in his department mainly focused on the U.S., he perceived that he would receive limited advising if his dissertation were about international research. From another angle, the focus group interview evidenced the impact of faculty research backgrounds on the student's choices of dissertation. In the Finance program, where most faculty conducted research on the U.S., students tended to follow this line. In contrast, in the Management specialty area, the professors who were responsible for teaching doctoral student seminars both focused on international or cross-cultural studies. If the doctoral students in Management did not want to do research that related to the research backgrounds of these two faculty members, it would be hard for the student to find a qualified person to chair her or his dissertation committee. This study shows that there are many possibilities to internationalize the program, the curriculum, teaching, and the research, if the faculty role receives enough attention.



## **Theoretical Implication for Marginson's Theorization**

This section first engages with the guiding framework via a discussion of the connection between individual agency and local conditions. It then extends the theory by discussing the missing component of necessity to reflect the crucial role of the context in self-formation. It explains the inactivity of the two sets of tools in this case study. Further, it demonstrates the test results of my rival explanations. This section ends with an analysis of the critical feedback received from participants on the reasonability of this theory.

### **Individual agency and favorable local conditions.**

In their book *Ideas for Intercultural Education*, Marginson and Sawir (2011) stress the issue of favorable local conditions for exercising individual agency and enabling transformative intercultural learning. For them, there must be sufficient common ties between the parties in the form of a common language, enough shared cultural knowledge, mutual openness and flexibility, and a common motivation to engage. And, they think the key variable at play is the position of locals, given that most international students are prepared to be more open and flexible (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 134).

My study provides numerous evidences to attest the connection between individual agency and local conditions. My findings corroborate the existence of this connection in the form of both the positive and negative correlations. On the positive correlation, this study found that if the local conditions (the learning ecology, the purpose of PhD education, the content of the PhD curriculum, and the context of doctoral education) were able to remove the cultural comfort zones of all participants and at the same time created a shared learning goal, through team work or collaborative projects student individual agency engaged more with cultural learning. For example, American student Joe Visky received a master's degree in the U.S. It

was a Russian language immersion program. All the courses were instructed in Russian and by Russian native speakers. To fulfill the degree completion requirement, he had to collaborate with four foreign students to finish the thesis as a team project. Despite the fact that he was in his home country, he did not feel the teaching and learning was that culturally comfortable. Although he was a domestic student, the learning environment was not culturally familiar to him. He felt the pressure to learn and engage as an international learner in that specific environment.

In another instance, international student Jay had a comparable but contrasting experience, which further testified the critical role of favorable or unfavorable local conditions in producing or restraining individual agency towards intercultural learning. When he was a graduate student in his home country, his program had some international students. Before joining the research team (most of the team members were international students), he thought the international students should adapt to and it was their responsibility to conform to the local drinking culture. However, after he joined the research team where the local students were a small number, he sensed the inappropriateness asking his international peers out for drinking at night. Similar to Joe Visky's story, Jay's cultural comfort zone was removed in the format of joining an international research group where most of his peers were not his native culture. Because of that removal and his contact with cultural others, he was able to become more cross-culturally sensitive to his foreign peers' thoughts. Before that removal of his cultural comfort zone, although he still had some cross-cultural interaction with foreign students, these contacts were not able to challenge his cultural thinking on whose responsibility it was to adjust.

To sum up, this study supports and enriches the argument that Marginson and Sawir (2011) made on the connection between individual agency and favorable local conditions. Creation of a favorable local condition was not and should not be practiced as a provision of a

list of factors, such as a common language or specific cultural knowledge. Instead, favorable local conditions consisted of 1) the removal of cultural comfort zones of all participants and 2) cross-cultural engagement. The existence of these two conditions together enabled individual agency toward cultural learning. That was, the action of mutual adjustment on the part of the local students.

### **The missing component in the framework: Necessity.**

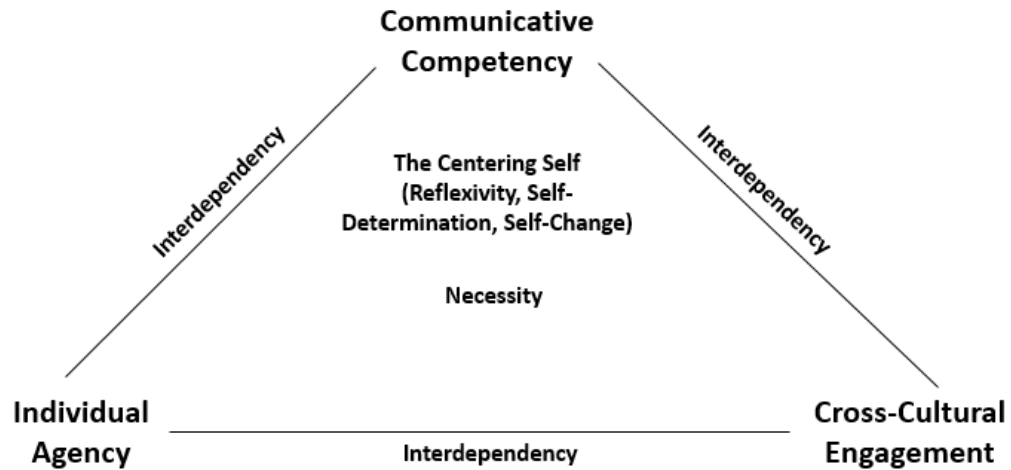
Marginson's theory devotes much attention to the student participants, their role, their agency, and their self-determination. In this framework, Marginson (Marginson et al., 2010; Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Marginson, 2014) emphasizes the centering role of self in the whole self-formation process at an international and intercultural learning environment. The importance of these factors was true and supported by my findings. However, this was just one part of the story. The context, the social cultural environment, and the local conditions have also been identified as influential in limiting the potential of internationalization. The interplay between the centering role of self and the broad social cultural context was particularly obvious in the context of the investigated doctoral program.

No matter how centering the role of self is placed in the formation of self, self-formation is always situated in a social and cultural environment. As my findings show (Chapter 5 and the section of *PhD curriculum and teaching an internationally diverse class* in Chapter 6), directly and indirectly the purpose of PhD education, the ecology of the learning community, the creation of the PhD curriculum, and the context of doctoral education all contributed to the availability and unavailability of cross-cultural learning and engagement opportunities at the PhD program. Nevertheless, the main components of Marginson's theory (three essential elements and the two sets of strategies) fail to speak to this issue. Thus, there might be a place for adding this missing

component to reflect on the crucial role of the learning context as well as its influence on self-formation in this theory.

Based on my findings, necessity appears to be the missing component that can reflect the nature of influence from the contextual culture and expectations. As explained in Chapter 5, necessity was the result produced by the learning ecology beyond the PhD program, which caused the demographic majority (i.e. the international student population in the program) to localize the experiences for the demographic minority (i.e. the American student population in the program). I analyze Joe Visky and Jay's experiences in detail in the above section *Individual agency and favorable local conditions* in this chapter. In addition to these two students, almost all the participants who had study abroad experience collectively admitted and recognized the impact of necessity on their own cross-cultural engagement experiences, no matter if they were students or professors when I was collecting the data. Across all their experiences, the creation or introduction of necessity had the capability to efficiently serve as an enabler, removing the cultural comfort zones of all learners, which provided a better environment for cross-cultural learning and engagement. As such, I suggest adding necessity as an important component to the center of the theory diagram. The below diagram reflects this modification.

## Modification of Marginson's framework on student self-formation in international education



(Figure 7.1. Modification of Marginson's Self-Formation Framework)

### **The two sets of tools: Inactive in this study.**

In this study, the role or importance of the essential two sets of tools (or two forms, two strategies) that Marginson has emphasized, multiplicity and hybridity, was not obvious in my participants' life experiences in this specific educational context. This inactivity of the two sets of tools may relate to the uniqueness of my participants' life experiences and the distinctive feature of the educational context that I was investigating. As I explain in Chapter 5 under *Introducing the participants*, all my participants had rich international and cross-cultural life experiences before I collected the data. All American student participants have had either extensive overseas work experience (at least six years) or cross-cultural life experience since they were kids. Most international students (seven out of ten) have had a minimum of four years of learning and work experience in more than two foreign countries. For the other three international students whose international and cross-cultural life experiences were mainly limited to the host country of education, the average length of stay in the U.S. was about 6.5 years. In

other words, most participants, if not all, reported feeling comfortable to walk across cultural lines. They felt comfortable enough with following the local cultural norms and expectations when living in a foreign culture and still maintaining their home culture or identity at the same time. This was similar to what Marginson (Marginson & Sawir, 2011; Marginson, 2014) and other scholars (Kramsch, 1993; Rizvi, 2014) have described about the third place, third culture, or third space. New or less experienced cross-cultural learners may experience multiplicity and hybridity and may find Marginson's description helpful, but my student participants were already very experienced in that so this was not obvious in my study.

Besides the factor of rich cross-cultural living experiences, the context and the nature of the PhD education have also made the students very aware that they were expected to become a good researchers and a professor within a strict four year time frame. The program deliberately put yearly evaluations into the PhD structure. All students had to experience the high pressure of developing their professional identity. Within this context, the growth of professional identity was the priority and thus may have made the possible cultural identity conflict issue appear less important or less noticeable. In this study, the self has always been active and the individual agency has always been strong. But, in my findings, the students did not necessarily use them towards cross-cultural learning and engagement, because it was not the goal or purpose of the education at my specific research context. In the findings, my participants have been actively exerting their individual agency to form the identity as a professional self.

### **Test results of my rival explanations.**

Three out of the four rival explanations (Chapter 4, sub-section entitled *Examining plausible rival explanations*) that I have developed before the data collection have been supported by my findings. 1) There are environmental conditions for self that play a centering

role in enabling international education to become intercultural education. In my case study, I found the nature of PhD education, the relation of intercultural learning and the ecology of learning environment, and other influential external factors have limited the possibility and opportunity for the self to actively and consciously engage in cross-cultural learning.

2) Marginson's theory has limitation in explaining the experiences of the domestic students. In my study, there was very limited noticeable change in the American students' knowledge of other countries or cultures or their understanding of their own culture. As one American participant Joe Visky commented, "There definitely is some form of transformation happening on the Americans. Because this is a doctoral program and everyone is highly motivated. But the transformation may not necessarily relate to cross-cultural contacts."

3) The significance and contribution of each essential element (individual agency, communicative competency, and cross-cultural engagement) to student's self-formation may not be equal. In the findings, students' life experiences and stories were different. For different participants, the impact and usefulness of these three elements differed. There was no identical answer saying which element was the most important one in self-formation.

### **Critical feedback received from the participants on Marginson's theory.**

In this qualitative exploratory extreme case study, many student participants agreed that Marginson's theory made sense to them, but the importance or the functional role of the three essential elements (i.e. individual agency, cross-cultural competency, cross-cultural engagement) was not something that was apparent in their experiences in the context of this PhD program. A decent number of student participants, four out of 15, talked about the difference between a new or first-time cross-cultural learner and an experienced cross-cultural learner. In addition, another two participants, Ali and Spring, candidly said that Marginson's framework appeared too

extreme. They emphasized that there were many other moderators in a doctoral student's learning experience beyond the issue of culture. One of the ten faculty volunteers, Sirius, also shared with me this same comment that culture was only one of the many moderators influencing people's decision making.

These three participants' (Ali, Spring, and Sirius) critical feedback on Marginson's theory is valuable and has encouraged me to look back at the theory and its supporting data. Marginson's theory was based on interviews with over 200 international students. My data were different in several ways from the data he and his colleagues have collected. First, I have not only had international students as the participants, but also domestic students and faculty as well. This slight difference might have an impact on the findings. Indeed, among the three participants who appeared critical of this theory, two of them (Spring and Sirius) were not from the international student group. Second, all my participants shared a common but unique characteristic in life experience. They all had rich and multiple overseas study and work experiences. None of them were first time cross-cultural learners or relatively inexperienced in cross-cultural learning and engagement. In other words, the influence of the home culture as a moderator has not functioned as a strong factor in this particular small-size educational program at the context of doctoral education. Nevertheless, the academic culture as another moderator has exerted an influential and pervasive power on my international student participants as well as the American student participants' learning experiences at this specific international and intercultural educational environment.

Again, the fact that some of the main ideas of Marginson's theory (i.e. multiplicity and hybridity, essential elements) did not find much support from my study may relate to the specificity of the case, the features of the program, and the characteristics of my participant's



international and intercultural backgrounds. To better understand the transitional cross-cultural learning, I recommend employing a qualitative longitudinal case study research method to better capture the mind or behavior change and student reflexivity. And, I recommend conducting qualitative case study research at other educational levels to reveal the influential contributing factors of cross-cultural learning for policy implication. These studies can focus on the development issue of communicative competency and cross-cultural engagement, as described in Marginson's work.

## **Chapter 8: Conclusion, Policy Implication, and Future Research**

### **Conclusion**

This dissertation project is a qualitative exploratory extreme case study on the impact of internationalization on the teaching and learning at a business doctoral program in a public research university in the U.S. This study is designed to clarify the deeper causes behind the problem and explain consequences than to describe the symptoms of the problem and how frequently they occur (Flyvbjerg 2011, p. 306). The findings are based on the various sources of data I have collected. The main data source was the interviews with 25 participants: 5 American student participants, 10 international student participants, and 10 faculty participants.

This section presents quick answers to all my four research questions. I encourage my readers to go back to the three findings and discussion chapters (Chapter 5, Chapter 6, and Chapter 7) to better understand the picture and arguments that I am presenting here. The rich and juicy qualitative data as well as my analysis are removed or minimally presented here, such as the influence of intellectual tradition, the nature of the PhD training, and the established structure of the PhD program on the practice of internationalization.

#### **Answer to research question 1: Meaning of internationalization in the level of the doctorate.**

Students and faculty agreed on some aspects of internationalization that were present in the program. These included the international background of the faculty and students, the existence of international and cross-cultural components in some courses, and the fact that some faculty did international and cross-cultural research. A slight difference was that some faculty volunteers thought student dissertation work was another aspect of internationalization that was present in the program, but the student remarks showed that most student dissertations were

focused on the American market, only very limited number of students were conducting or had conducted international and cross-cultural research. The student participants offered more ideas on the student research aspect as an expected or assumed meaning of internationalization.

With respect to the ideal, expected, or assumed meaning of internationalization in the PhD program, the faculty and student participants reached agreement on one aspect: the international nature of the curriculum, or say of the knowledge that the student learned from this program. They both regarded this as an expected positive outcome of internationalization. And remarks from both groups suggested that not all courses have integrated an international and cross-cultural component. Across specialty areas, the Management department appeared more internationalized in this regard than other sub fields. Finance and Accounting were more contextualized than Management and Marketing in the curriculum internationalization.

In regards to the importance of student research as an aspect of internationalization, faculty and students did not reach a consensus. Most faculty expressed that faculty research should have an international nature in an internationally oriented doctoral program. Only a third of them stressed that both faculty and student research needed to have an international nature if the program was an international program. In contrast, before their official entry into the program and in the beginning of their learning experiences, some students expected or assumed that students would do international research because the program focus was international management and the Asia and Pacific region, as stated out in the PhD program objectives and mission that were published on the college's website.

The faculty recognized one aspect of the ideal internationalization that the students did not mention—cross-cultural learning and collaboration. The faculty insights underscored the potential value of having an internationally or culturally diverse student population as learning

resources for the exchange of cultural thinking, such as sharing different cultural interpretations of the same business practice. Three faculty members gave high marks on the potential of these learning resources for inspiring new research ideas that could benefit other researchers and the field.

The students generally did not directly position cross-cultural learning and collaboration as an important aspect of internationalization. Indirectly, their appreciation of this piece could be found in their comments on the expected international nature of the knowledge that they would learn from the program. They expected and assumed that an international PhD program would be able to provide foreign ideas that could challenge their cultural assumptions, national assumptions, and the assumptions of the great minds, and that the program would not just expose the students to their domestic context and views. In addition, their recognition of cross-cultural learning and collaboration was reflected in international students' comments on cross-cultural interaction and relationship.

The findings revealed the complexity of internationalization in the doctoral program. First, answers varied in response to the question of if this program was an internationally oriented doctoral program. There was no consensus. Some people said yes, and others said no, within both the student and faculty groups. The same participant could give different answers when being asked additional questions. The same participant might also provide different evaluation answers about the same program at different time periods. Many participants acknowledged that internationalization could have many different interpretations, so they thought that their answers might differ depending on the definition.

Second, there was a clear difference among the four specialty areas in terms of their engagement level with internationalization. Some departments were more internationalized than

others, integrating more international and cross-cultural components into the teaching and curriculum. Whereas others appeared more contextualized in the aspects of their curriculum and student research focus, providing very limited space for cross-cultural learning and engagement. In general, both faculty and students have recognized that Management and Marketing were more open to international and cross-cultural conversations than Accounting and Finance.

Lastly, there were two interesting phenomena. From the data, international students may hold different expectations from American students on what could be counted as an internationalized curriculum and an international research. Faculty who were more supportive of internationalization tended to offer more positive remarks on how international the program was over those professors who appeared less supportive of internationalization. These differences could be captured by the varying comments that they gave on the same practice. For example, students have taken the same course offered by the same professor. While international students reported that this course was not overtly internationalized, American student participants generally told me that this course had an international scope and intercultural nature. In the case of the faculty in the same specialty area, professors offered contradicting views on how internationalized the curriculum and the program was. The professors who were more supportive tended to have a very positive view on the amount of resources and opportunities this program has provided. In contrast, the professors who were less supportive tended to provide more comments on the limitations, restraints, and pressures. Detailed explanations are provided in the two Findings chapters (Chapter 5 and Chapter 6).

**Answer to research question 2: The impact of internationalization on teaching and learning.**

If the impact of internationalization on teaching was meant to be measured by a standard that focused on the shallow level of cross-cultural learning, then internationalization had an impact on some of the specialty areas in the doctoral program. Finance and Accounting did not seem to have a focused international and cross-cultural component in the teaching and curriculum, but Management and Marketing did. According to the data, this impact was mostly exhibited via providing international examples or the acknowledgement of the impact of cultural differences on research design.

It was tricky and very challenging to tell if the integration of an international and cross-cultural component into the teaching and curriculum was a result of the internationalization or if it was an outcome of its subject character in the specific specialty areas. The students' perspectives showed an ambiguous image. In contrast, the faculty's observation explicated that the subject nature was the core reason. A comparative examination of the student and faculty notes suggested that there might not necessarily be a link between the current higher education internationalization movement and the internationalized appearance of the curriculum in this program. The subject nature in Management and Marketing might be the major cause for making conversations about culture an unavoidable component in teaching. Hence, it might be inappropriate to think that the integration of international and cross-cultural components in these two specialty areas was an attempt to internationalize the curriculum.

If the impact of internationalization on teaching was meant to be measured by a standard that focused on the in-depth level, then the impact was limited or not obvious. Based on the student and faculty's remarks on the ideal, expected, or assumed internationalization, an in-depth

level of impact would be that the teaching was able to enable transformative cross-cultural learning and engagement. By attending classes, joining co-curricular or extracurricular activities, students should have many opportunities to experience an exchange of cultural perspectives that may spark interesting research ideas and challenge cultural assumptions. The student data provided limited evidence on this.

If the impact of internationalization on learning was meant to be measured by any noticeable forms of change in cultural understanding, then international students might have experienced more transformative cross-cultural learning and engagement than the domestic students did in this program. This difference had much to do with the ecology of the learning environment as well as the perceived level of necessity for cross-cultural learning and engagement. Despite the fact that in this doctoral program the majority student population was international instead of American, the data showed that the majority has been localizing the experiences for the minority due to the impact of the learning environment ecology.

If the impact of internationalization on the learning was meant to be measured by student research on international issues, as explained earlier in the answer for research question one, then there was no united answer to this question, because some faculty and students held different perspectives. According to the students, the impact was minimum. Not many students were interested in choosing or had conducted international research as their dissertations. There was a difference among sub-fields too. But according to the faculty, the impact has been existing but was becoming less present after the program name change.

As shown in the short answers I have provided above, depending on what measurement would be used, the impact of internationalization on teaching and learning could result different outcomes, showing different faces of internationalization to the examiner. Overall, in this

doctoral program, the impact existed at varying degrees among specialty areas but the level of impact was not a fundamental one. More discussion is available in Chapter 5 under the sub-themes on *Relation of intercultural learning and the ecology of learning environment*, *Influential external factors*, and in Chapter 6 under the sub-theme *PhD curriculum and teaching an internationally diverse class*.

### **Answer to research question 3: Explanations.**

My third research question is why the impact has been there or not. Relevant data directed me to look at 1) the situation in which cross-cultural learning and engagement had been put in the PhD program and 2) the direct and indirect influence from academia in the business field on the internationalization practice at the doctoral program level. In short, institutional internationalization at this PhD program has been practiced in a situation wherein cross-cultural learning and engagement has been put in a competing position with the purpose of doctoral education. Institutional internationalization at the department level was not merely a practice that could be demarcated within the program. The data showed that the knowledge that has been taught, the faculty research, and even the student research were connected or reflective of how internationalized academia was in a specific sub field. The internationalization practice at the PhD program could not be separated and should not be viewed as a completely independent project from academia. The degree of openness and the extent of how internationalized academia was have fundamentally confined the space and possibility of institutional internationalization development.

Chapter 5, the student perspective, highlights what the situation was, how the nature of the PhD education has exerted power and influence on student's perceptions of the value and importance of cross-cultural learning and engagement, and why a large percentage of



international students as well as the rich international and cross-cultural life experiences of the American students in this program have not been fully utilized as valuable learning resources for the creation of an exchange of different cultural perspectives. All students perceived that the purpose of doctoral education was to train good researchers and future professors. The courses were theory-oriented. Student interaction was mainly research-driven. The assigned articles and class discussions were heavily focused on the theories and articles that the instructor has assigned. The teaching subject and the instructor's research interests both determined what materials the doctoral students could access in learning. According to the students, the PhD courses also reflected who and what cultural perspective has produced the most influential theories in the field. And students tended to agree that the western perspective and western scholars, especially American scholars, have created the most influential and foundational theories in the field. In sum, the student data suggested that the academic culture and intellectual tradition have been exercising effects on the doctoral program in multiple and pervasive ways.

In Chapter 6, in addition to an explanation of other functional factors, the faculty perspective mainly explicated two critical influences that have contributed to the existence and non-existence of the impact of internationalization on teaching and learning in the doctoral program. The first influence was related to the difficulty of publishing international research at top journals. The second influence was focused on the features of the PhD curriculum. The data from the faculty perspective provided three reasons attributing to the publishing difficulty: 1) a hard project in itself, 2) the academic tradition and its upholding value of originality and theory development, and 3) data accessibility and reliability issues in international research. These, in conjunction, may have sent a discouraging signal to junior scholars and doctoral students, "because they need to publish quickly and at better journals." The inspiring comments given by

my faculty participants encouraged me to raise thought-provoking questions in the analysis. I raised some hard questions to increase the awareness of the impact of the ambiguity and some taken-for-granted assumptions and intellectual practices in this chapter. For example, what could be the definition of general research, and what could be the definition of international research? In the current intellectual context in the U.S., has the research being done in the U.S. and other Western countries been presumed or exercised as general research? What limitations might the explanatory power have had and how have the limitations been recognized or explained in academia?

In the later part of Chapter 6, I presented the nature of a PhD curriculum and discussed the significance of the subject in determining if the curriculum would integrate an international and cross-cultural component. I also analyzed the contributing and non-contributing factors as well as potentially influential factors that have been attributed to or could have caused the availability and unavailability of cross-cultural learning and engagement in the doctoral program.

Both the student and faculty volunteers vocalized the critical role of faculty in enabling transformative international and intercultural learning. Both groups agreed on the significance of a number of faculty-related factors, such as faculty research interest and expertise, the experience of appropriate teaching techniques and skills, faculty's international and intercultural backgrounds, and cross-cultural sensitivity in bringing out, facilitating, and enabling the exchange of different cultural thinking on the same concept or practice. Apparently, these skills, experiences, techniques, and cross-cultural sensitivity were not the attributes that all faculty would have possessed, mastered, and utilized throughout teaching and advising. The data from the faculty participants actually stressed that the biggest challenge was the faculty on the college's pursuit of building up an internationally oriented doctoral program.

To sum up, if the student research on international and cross-cultural issues was agreed on by all or most faculty members as an important aspect of institutional internationalization, the training of international research should be prioritized in the teaching, curriculum, and advising. If the PhD program thought that cross-cultural learning and engagement was important in the internationalization, it should be treated as a part of the goal. Otherwise, cross-cultural learning and engagement could be practiced as secondary in the teaching and learning at the PhD program.

**Answer to research question 4: Major attitude.**

My fourth research question is: What is the major attitude in the learning community towards internationalization? Neither the data from the students nor the data based on the faculty perspective have provided a united answer. Some students thought that international research was expected and encouraged, but some others perceived that it was not that popular and that there was no open and explicit encouragement from the department. The student part of the interview data suggested a specialization difference among the four specialty areas. In Management, students had done more international and cross-cultural studies. Student research in the Accounting and Finance departments were mainly focused on the American market, based on the American data, with the goal to serve the American market.

Most of the faculty responses related to this question were positive and acknowledged the potential value of international research in knowledge production. There was no opponent in the faculty part of the data. A close examination of the comments from the only volunteer, who appeared less supportive of internationalization, revealed more of a hesitance in wholeheartedly supporting that idea of making everything international. He was conscious of the existence of a possible bias toward students who graduated from an internationally oriented program, a suspicion of their research capability, and the maintenance of a comparable competency of this

program among its peer colleges. It was a reality that the mainstream research was still largely focused on the U.S., even though international research has been growing in recent decades, and that international research was one of various research approaches in the field. In order to better prepare the students for the job market, he tried to understate the program focus in his class and has not felt it necessary to encourage students to conduct international research merely because of the program focus was international management in Asia and the Pacific.

The discussion of relevant data uncovers the ambiguity, confusion, problems and complexity of and within internationalization. The students were willing to read and conduct international research if the faculty chose to integrate more international and cross-cultural components into the curriculum and if the program had made it clear that cross-cultural learning and engagement was an important goal of the PhD education. As some students stated, “we have to read articles anyway.” It was up to the faculty and the top levels of administration as well as sponsors to make the decision if they would like to commit to transformative international and intercultural learning and how they may plan to strategically reach that goal.

Again, the findings stressed that internationalization of the PhD program was not merely an educational project growing within a college. To have a meaningful impact on the doctoral program, institutional administrators might have to have a thorough consideration of all the influential factors and contributors and come up with a strategic plan on how to position the program in the current intellectual and academic environment and how to work with these direct and indirect influences to improve the internationalization practice.

### **Policy Implication**

This study purposefully collected students and faculty’ ideas on improvement possibilities for realizing an ideal international and intercultural education at the doctoral

program. This section summarizes these ideas and reports them for practical implications for the teaching faculty and doctoral student advisors, program designers, and policy-makers at the college and upper levels.

The ideas relevant to the faculty can be grouped into three aspects: teaching, training, and pastoral care. Student Gift offered ideas on how teaching faculty can incentivize student self-determination or self-motivation toward intercultural learning. According to Gift, this could be effectively achieved via designing cross-culturally related assignments, structuring discussion, and the creation of other stimulating opportunities for students to learn different cultural perspectives. American students John Doe and Joe Visky as well as international students Jay and Bin shared ideas on and experiences with the potentiality of cross-cultural group projects in transforming learning. Accounting professor Buval talked about the need of a better education or training of international research from the faculty to doctoral students. For him, if the PhD program was committed to become an internationally oriented doctoral program, the education or training improvement had to receive attention, otherwise the stated PhD mission and objectives on the college website needed a modification.

Visiting scholars Selma and Voltdire as well as international students Ali, Tim, Apple, and Jay mentioned the issue of pastoral care. The issues that demanded a pastoral care included the U.S. tax report culture, information of events and activities, campus buildings and office locations, and the confusion and anxiety that they have experienced as a newcomer to a foreign land and an unfamiliar higher education system. Often times, the existence of cross-cultural sensitivity and a consideration of the cultural outsiders' situation on the part of the host institution could effectively prevent or help resolve some of the difficulties that these participants have shared with me. Excluding Selma, respondents who have shared with me about these

challenges were uncertain whose responsibility it was to provide the pastoral care to them when it was needed. But, it was a common belief among these cultural outsiders that the impact would be more effective if the pastoral care was provided from the host institution, the college, or the department, rather than expecting these newcomers to rely on random advising from other experienced foreign nationals or their national expatriates. Given that cultural newcomers did share some common unknowing, unfamiliarity, and anxiety, such as the American tax report tradition and some logistical issues in adaptation, it might be of need to provide this information to them as a group. Recognizing that such systematic pastoral care was not available at the institution, Selma, whose opinion appeared pointed and explicit, insisted that it was doctoral student advisors' responsibility to provide the pastoral care for international students, because advisors had the access to resources and would know the students more than other faculty and staff in the program.

The advice related to program structure and design focuses on three areas: visiting scholars, program structure, and facilities. 1) The program could utilize visiting scholars as resources for expanding doctoral student specialization knowledge and research capability. Student Jay shared his successful research collaboration experience with visiting scholars when he was a graduate student in his home country. He still had that interest in collaborating with visiting scholars here and expected the program to initiate possible collaboration opportunities, which was the way how he was involved in international collaboration projects at his former graduate program. Spring added that the PhD program designers could work with visiting scholars to run country series, presentation of international research, lecturing, and collaboration projects to enhance the learning and research of the doctoral students. 2) The flexibility of the graduation time frame was another area that has received much attention for improvement. Four

students Gift, Samuel, Q, and Jay as well as one professor, Buval, explicitly and directly talked about the need of more time for incorporating international components into the curriculum, educating and training good student researchers for international studies. Gift stressed that an international and intercultural PhD program demanded careful planning and a deliberate structure. Jay emphasized that the program had to enable students to share common experiences in research, such as creating group research project opportunities. 3) The creation of a spacious PhD student study room or an expansion of the current small PhD student study room was another area for improvement. Students talked about the convenience and usefulness of a spacious study room that only belonged to the doctoral students for initiating and facilitating conversation, collaboration, and research productivity between and among students across sub fields.

Decision making of the expensive and critical issues demands institutional intervention from top levels. Some improvement suggestions were beyond the capability of the PhD program and require a discussion and agreement by top administrators, and some suggestions might even require a consensus from the Board of Regents and the major sponsors of The College. The possibilities that students and faculty talked about included the purchase of big and expensive data for international research, professional training of faculty, offering international field trip opportunities for PhD students, and adding intercultural learning to the education goal of the PhD program.

My findings, discussion, and implications suggest a need for communication between and among different stakeholders of institutional internationalization. Based on all the data on the part of the students and the faculty, at this doctoral program these stakeholders included the faculty, American students, international students, administrators at the department and college

levels, the Board of Regents, and relevant sponsors who have provided funding or other means of sponsoring to this college and who have an influence in the shape of the vision for this college. To have a meaningful impact on the home campus, this study suggests that higher education administrators are expected to have a thorough understanding on how values, beliefs, cultures, and traditions are involved and have been fundamentally shaping the institutional practice in the teaching and learning, facilitating and inhibiting the development of internationalization at the program and individual level. If the faculty and students—the real practitioners in the teaching and learning—are invited to participate in the meetings and contribute to the campus internationalization planning and strategy design, especially those meetings and plans that are directly related to their internationalization practice at the doctoral program, this can greatly improve the international and intercultural teaching and learning at the ground level.

### **Future Research**

I interweave some suggestions for future research into the three findings and discussion chapters. These directions include questions that (1) explore the relationship between international research and general research. What is or could be the definition of international research? What is or could be the definition of general research (as discussed on p. 162)? (2) They also include questions trying to raise the awareness of some taken-for-granted academic practice. For example, should the applied research be regarded as inferior to theory creation research? What constraints might have this traditional intellectual context created toward the development of international research? How far can international research go and how high is the potential of international research within the context of this intellectual tradition (as discussed on p. 169)? (3) They even include questions that challenge some normalized academic practice. For example, in the current intellectual context in the U.S., has the research being done



in the U.S. and other Western countries been presumed or exercised as general research? What limitations might the explanatory power have had and how have the limitations been recognized or explained by the academics (as discussed on p. 169 and p. 217)? (4) I also ask questions wondering the relationship between student research and an international PhD program. Should student research on international and/or cross-cultural issues be included as an important internationalization indicator of the program? Or, would faculty research on these issues be sufficient to claim a program an internationally oriented program? What could be a key difference between a program that claims itself an internationally oriented program and the others that do not claim so (as discussed on p. 186)? And, (5) with the attempt to draw attention to the important role of doctoral education in internationalize the academy, I ask a question for institutional reflection on internationalization practice. In any case, if not doctoral education, who else would have the interest, legitimacy, autonomy, resources, and capability to deal with these inherent issues within academia (as discussed on p. 194)?

In addition, I found that intellectual traditions have had a pervasive impact on the research and publishing practices at the PhD program level. It would be interesting to see if other researchers could find similar findings. Many faculty and student participants told me that the MBA program in the Business field was more internationalized than the doctoral program. It would be interesting to conduct research on that educational level and may even include the undergraduate level to compare. This kind of comparative research can contribute to the knowledge of the uniqueness, strengths and weakness, and a possible different levels of internationalization engagement at the three different educational levels (i.e. the undergraduate, master, and doctoral program). The information can help higher education managers and other

internationalization policy makers make decisions on resource distribution, policy creation or revision, and investment.

Several student participants recommended the field of Second Language Studies as a possible ideal place for investigating international and intercultural education. Researchers who are looking for an extreme case in addition to the business field for qualitative case study on internationalization can work on this discipline and see if there might exist a difference in the disciplinary culture and its impact on internationalization, and try to explain the consequences.

Two faculty participants talked about the impact of the market change or globalization on business schools' positions in internationalization over the past thirty years. It appeared that in the business field there had been a passion among schools to build up international business departments and a perceived urgent need to learn about other cultures. But it was no longer the case. Cultural learning was no longer popular or stated as a learning objective in teaching. This phenomenon would be an interesting topic for future research to further understand the rationales driving the internationalization of the business school.

Generally, the identified rationales driving institutional internationalization include five categories: the political, economic, social-cultural, and academic rationales (de Wit, 2002) and branding or international reputation (Knight, 2005). All student participants rejected the idea that the internationalization at this PhD program was for revenue generation. Some of them said that it might be for the purpose of research diversity but they were not able to clarify how the research has been diversified in the practice because of internationalization. In this study, the relationship was not clear between learning outcomes of internationalization and the institutional internationalization practice in this specific PhD program. To better understand this relationship

and the impact of internationalization on teaching and learning, future research can focus on why doctoral education internationalizes the program, curriculum, teaching and learning.

### **Limitations**

This study is a qualitative exploratory extreme case study on the impact of internationalization on the teaching and learning experiences in a business doctoral program at an American public research university. I had 25 participants in total. In terms of institutional internationalization, this was a rather small sample to generalize the findings to all or any locations. Statistical generalization was not the aim of this study. I encourage my readers to take into account of the specificity of my research site and its program uniqueness when they look for transferability of the findings.

## **Appendices**

### **Appendix A: Faculty Participant Background Survey**

1. A pseudonym for you
2. Years in the program
3. Your home country and ethnic background
4. Do you have study abroad experience? If yes, was it for a degree?
5. Do you have overseas work experience?
6. Research experience related to international activities (e.g. international and/or comparative research, conference attendance or presentation, collaboration with faculty in other countries, received funding from other countries or relevant to international research, publishing in a language other than English, etc.)
7. Years of teaching or advising experience with international students?
8. Knowledge of languages
9. Is there any training available to faculty regarding how to teach or supervise international students at your department, college, or campus level?

## **Appendix B: Student Participant Background Survey**

1. Create a pseudonym to represent you
2. Years in the program
3. Home country
4. How many languages can you speak? What are they?
5. Teaching and/or learning experiences outside the home country
  - a. Do you have study abroad experience? If yes, was it for receiving a degree? What degree?
  - b. Do you have overseas work experience?
6. Research interest or professional engagement experience outside the U.S. (e.g. international and comparative research interest, conference attendance or presentation, collaboration with faculty from other countries, received funding support from other countries or international organizations, publishing in a language other than English, etc.)
7. Length of years in this program?
8. Do you have friends from other countries?

## **Appendix C: PhD Graduates Background Survey**

1. Create a pseudonym to represent you
2. Years in the program
3. Home country
4. How many languages can you speak? What are they?
5. Do you have study abroad experience? If yes, was it for a degree?
6. Do you have overseas work experience?
7. Research experience outside your home country (e.g. international and/or comparative research, conference attendance or presentation, collaboration with faculty in other countries, received funding from other countries or relevant to international research, publishing in a language other than your home language, etc.)
8. Do you have friends from other countries?

## **Appendix D: Interview Protocol for Faculty Participants**

1. “International Excellence” is put on all the buildings in this college, what does this mean and how does it relate to the PhD program?
2. In the PhD program, what does or should international education mean?
3. How do you integrate the international dimension into teaching?
4. What are the challenges, opportunities, and possibilities of implementing the PhD mission and objectives?
5. How do you evaluate student learning?
6. If there exists any, what is the dominant attitude towards internationalization in the business academic field?
7. Comment on relationship between international education and intercultural education
8. How can we improve the current practice towards the ideal direction?

## **Appendix E: Interview Protocol for Student Participants**

1. What motivated you to join this program?
2. “International Excellence” is put on all the buildings in this college, what does this mean and how does it relate to the PhD program?
3. Tell me about your experiences in this program, such as instruction format, formal and informal learning opportunities
4. Describe to me your relationship with your peers
5. What do you think of the “international excellence” shown in the Business College buildings?
6. What is your experience of learning with students from other countries?
7. What do you think of the idea of internationalizing the PhD program?
8. How would you evaluate your overall learning experience?
9. Would you like to recommend this program to others who are interested in joining an international program? Why or why not?
10. Is there any change in you after joining in this PhD program?
11. Some scholars contend that the potential of internationalization is self-formation of all students in an intercultural learning environment. In your opinion, how practical is this contention, for what reasons, and how to make it better?



## **Appendix F: Interview Protocol for PhD Graduates**

1. What was the name of the PhD program when you were in the College?
2. Why study in the College, not other universities?
3. “International Excellence” is put on all the buildings in this college, what does this mean and how does it relate to the PhD program?
4. What challenges had you encountered while pursuing your PhD at the College? What made you overcome the challenges and finished the degree?
5. Compare your current work university with the College, do you see anything unique at the College? If yes, what is the uniqueness?
6. Comment on the intercultural/cross-cultural relations between doctoral students from different countries or cultural backgrounds at the College
7. Comment on the impact or the role of PhD training (e.g. curriculum development, teaching and pedagogy, advising, and extracurricular activities) on the intercultural/cross-cultural relations between students from different countries or cultural backgrounds at the College
8. Based on your publishing and conference attendance experience, if there exists a dominant attitude in the business academic field towards internationalization, what is the dominant attitude?
9. Comments on self-formation theorization

## **Appendix G: Interview Protocol for the Focus Group Interview**

1. What artifact can best represent your international and intercultural learning at this program?
2. After hearing a report of my findings, do they make sense to you? Do you agree with the findings? Is there any disagreement or confusion or doubts regarding any of the findings? What do you think of these findings? Do you have any questions or remarks on any of the findings?

## **Appendix H: Participant Recruitment Letter**

Dear faculty and students at the Business College PhD program,

My name is Wendan Li, a PhD candidate in Educational Foundations, College of Education, at the University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa. I am conducting research on the teaching and learning experiences of faculty, American students, and international students in your program. I am inviting you to share your experiences and ideas with me about international education.

My dissertation attempts to engage in and contribute to the scholarly conversation on the rethinking, reimagining, and rehumanizing international education. The Business College is widely considered as the most active and successful discipline in internationalizing its programs. And your College is particularly famous for its focus on the Asia and Pacific region.

I would like to get your insights and learn from your experience on some of the major debates in the scholarship. For example, what is the meaning of internationalizing a PhD program? What is the purpose of doing it? And how are we doing it?

As an international doctoral student myself, I found many of the critical issues quite interesting. For example, what are we internationalizing and who are internationalized? If you are interested in this topic, I believe we will have a pleasant conversation,

Thanks for your consideration,

Wendan Li

## Appendix I: Consent to Participate in Research



### University of Hawai'i

#### Consent to Participate in a Research Project

Wendan Li, Principal Investigator

*Project title: The Potential of Internationalization as a Process of Self-Formation for All Students in an Intercultural Learning Environment: A Case Study at a PhD Program at a Business College in the United States*

Aloha! My name is Wendan Li and you are invited to take part in a research study. I am a doctoral student at the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa in the Department of Educational Foundations. As part of the requirements for earning my PhD degree, I am doing a research project. The purpose of my project is to understand the practice of internationalization at a PhD program based on the perspectives of active participants, in other words, the faculty and students who teach and learn in an internationalized program. I am asking you to participate because you are an active member of a highly international program.

**Activities and Time Commitment:** If you participate in this project, I will meet with you for an interview at a location and time convenient for you. The interview will consist of 16 open ended questions. It will take about 1-2 hours, depending on your experience. Interview questions will include questions like, "What characteristics make a PhD program international?" "What characterizes an international program?"

Only you and I will be present during the interview. With your permission, I will audio-record the interview so that I can later transcribe the interview and analyze the responses. You will be one of about 9-21 people I will interview for this study.

**Benefits and Risks:** There will be no direct benefit to you for participating in this interview. The results of this project may help better understanding the meaning and practice of internationalization and offer suggestions for the improvement of intercultural learning. I believe there is little risk to you for participating in this research project. You may become stressed or uncomfortable answering any of the interview questions or discussing topics with me during the interview. If you do become stressed or uncomfortable, you can skip the question or take a break. You can also stop the interview or you can withdraw from the project altogether.

**Privacy and Confidentiality:** I will keep all study data secure in a locked filing cabinet in a locked office/encrypted on a password protected computer. Only my University of Hawai'i advisor and I will have access to the information. Other agencies that have legal permission have the right to review research records. The University of Hawai'i Human Studies Program has the right to review research records for this study.

After I write a copy of the interviews, I will erase or destroy the audio-recordings. When I report the results of my research project, I will not use your name. I will not use any other personal identifying information that can identify you. I will use pseudonyms (fake names) and report my findings in a way that protects your privacy and confidentiality to the extent allowed by law.

**Voluntary Participation:** Your participation in this project is completely voluntary. You may stop participating at any time. If you stop being in the study, there will be no penalty or loss to you. Your choice to participate or not participate will not affect your rights to services at the UH Career Development and Counseling Program.

**Compensation:**

Due to the lack of funding of this project, there will be no financial compensation for your participation in this research project.

**Questions:** If you have any questions about this study, please call or email me at [808-282-5048 & wendan@hawaii.edu]. You may also contact my advisor, Dr. David Ericson, at [808-956-4243 # & ericson@hawaii.edu]. You may contact the UH Human Studies Program at 808.956.5007 or [uhirb@hawaii.edu](mailto:uhirb@hawaii.edu). to discuss problems, concerns and questions; obtain information; or offer input with an informed individual who is unaffiliated with the specific research protocol. Please visit <https://www.hawaii.edu/researchcompliance/information-research-participants> for more information on your rights as a research participant.

If you agree to participate in this project, please sign and date this signature page and return it to me.

Keep this copy of the informed consent for your records and reference.

**Signature(s) for Consent:**

I give permission to join the research project entitled, *The Potential of Internationalization as a Process of Self-Formation for All Students in an Intercultural Learning Environment: A Case Study at a PhD Program at a Business College in the United States*

Please initial next to either "Yes" or "No" to the following:

\_\_\_\_ Yes      \_\_\_\_ No      I consent to be audio-recorded for the interview portion of this research.

**Name of Participant (Print):** \_\_\_\_\_

**Participant's Signature:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Signature of the Person Obtaining Consent:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Date:** \_\_\_\_\_

Mahalo!

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