A CASE STUDY OF PEDAGOGICAL RESPONSES TO INTERNATIONALISATION AT A FAITH-BASED SECONDARY SCHOOL IN AUSTRALIA

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Keywords

Internationalisation, international students, second-language learners, culture of inclusion, cross cultural competency, cultural knowledge, academic acculturation, academic English, representations, ESL pedagogy, second language acquisition.
Abstract

This case study investigates the pedagogical responses of a faith-based Australian secondary school to internationalisation. Using a social constructivist theoretical framework that recognises teaching as a means of enhancing and scaffolding student participation and learning, the study examines teaching and learning for culturally and linguistically diverse students. In particular, the research investigates the views of teachers about the resources needed to meet the linguistic, academic and social needs of the diverse student group emerging as a response to internationalisation. Data generated through questionnaires, focus groups and individual interviews, and document archives were analysed and interpreted using thematic analysis and social constructivist principles. The study found teachers considered themselves ill-equipped to teach international students. The teachers believed they lacked the pedagogical, cultural and linguistic knowledge to help students acculturate and learn. The recommendations of this study relate to ways the school can address the teachers’ needs within its particular context and values.
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<th>Description</th>
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<td>AIS</td>
<td>Association of Independent Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT</td>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>CRICOS</td>
<td>Commonwealth Register of Institutes and Courses for Overseas Students</td>
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<tr>
<td>EAL</td>
<td>English as an Additional Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>ELL</td>
<td>English Language Learner</td>
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<td>EP</td>
<td>English Proficient</td>
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<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a Second Language</td>
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<td>ESOS</td>
<td>Education Services for Overseas Students</td>
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<tr>
<td>IELTS</td>
<td>International English Language Testing System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRE</td>
<td>Initiation, Response and Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISQ</td>
<td>Independent Schools Queensland</td>
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<tr>
<td>KLA</td>
<td>Key Learning Area</td>
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<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>LEP</td>
<td>Limited English Proficiency</td>
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<tr>
<td>NLLIA</td>
<td>National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia</td>
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<tr>
<td>NNS</td>
<td>Non-Native Speaker</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRISMS</td>
<td>Provider Registration and International Students Management System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QIEU</td>
<td>Queensland Independent Education Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLA</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TESOL</td>
<td>Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages</td>
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Statement of Original Authorship

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

Signature: QUT Verified Signature

Date: 15 May 2013
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Dedicated to my family

Paul, Steph and Joe
Chapter 1: Introduction to the study: Internationalisation and secondary education in Australia

1.1 Field and focus of this research

The field of research for this study is international education with a focus on international students in mainstream Australian secondary education. Mainstream, in Australia and other developing countries, is defined as the “most culturally normative school placement” (Foreman, 2011, p. 51) meaning placement into the general education class (Lewis & Doorlag, 2011). Mainstream classes in Australia are organised according to age, where this model assumes the student has Native English proficiency with little accommodation of language needs using withdrawal situations for English Second Language (ESL) learners. My purpose in undertaking this investigation is to explore the experiences of mainstream teachers working with students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Teachers encounter and work with international students on campus on a daily basis and interpret these experiences using their own frames of reference. Within this educational setting, each teacher approaches the context with their own preconceived ideas and repertoires of cultural and academic knowledge, and expectations.

There are numerous studies which investigate the international student’s experience in an English-speaking institution. Some research is focused on individual teacher’s experience with international students in their classroom; however, there is no research available profiling the pedagogical experience of a whole secondary school in relation to internationalisation. In particular, there is little research on internationalisation within the context of a faith-based secondary school, despite the recruitment of international students by faith-based schools in Australia (Australian Education International, 2010). This case study will address the gap in the research and will investigate the pedagogical responses to internationalisation at a faith-based secondary school in Australia. It draws on the perspectives of school leaders, administration officers, support teachers, and international students, but in particular it focuses on teachers as the main pedagogues in the school. In this chapter I will:
define internationalisation; describe the theoretical framework for the study; present
globalisation and English as a global language; introduce the international education
experience and international students in Australia. Following that, I will set the
school context for this study with my researcher perspective and finally, I will state
the aims, research questions and approach for this investigation.

1.2 Internationalisation

Many mainstream schools in Australia enrolling international students have elected
to internationalise. Internationalising includes adapting current policies and practices
to include international students into the school system. This involves working to
provide students from overseas with successful educational experiences, while at the
same time facilitating intercultural experiences for Australian students, who are also
a component of the internationalisation of education. Sidhu (2006) defines
internationalisation of education as:

…a process where education prepares the community for successful participation in an increasingly interdependent world…fosters global understanding and develops skills for effective living and working in a diverse world where our understandings of what might constitute “effective living and working in a diverse world” impinges on our needs and aspirations, and our ethical, political, social, and cultural values. (p. 3)

Sidhu suggests that through education a whole community can successfully participate globally by developing cross cultural competency. Cross cultural competency is the ability to be sensitive to and able to interpret another way of life (Fantini, 2000) presented by various needs, aspirations, ethics, politics, social and cultural values (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006).

This study draws on the principles of internationalisation defined above and also those outlined by Carroll and Ryan (2005) that internationalisation can be seen as the process of enrolling international students in mainstream education with all the necessary mutual adjustments and adaptations to work successfully together. These
include the development of the curriculum, teachers with cross cultural competency, an inclusive and equitable school culture, pedagogy for culturally diverse students, and how the international student is represented (Aulakh et al., 1997). My investigated mainstream school, to be known as The College, includes an international programme which following the definition above means it has the opportunity to develop and share reciprocal skills, knowledge and cross cultural competency with its international students. Students come to the overseas school experience with their own backgrounds and knowledge, which they contribute to the school, thereby enriching the lives of others. Different cultures place importance on different models of education and, as a result, this diversity brings a broad scope to the experience of all.

An international student coming to study in Australia enrolls in a school of their choice. Schools in Australia differ with their enrolment requirements, depending on the resources they have available. Many schools operate English centres or institutes, which allow for the admission of beginner-level English speakers into the school programme. Within Australia there are numerous English proficiency tests used by schools, including the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), school-developed tests, and the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia (NLLIA) band scales. The NLLIA band scales were developed in Queensland as a descriptive framework for identifying non-English-background speakers’ level of proficiency in English – a description which identifies current proficiency levels, which students work towards. The pre-requisite English proficiency level for enrolment into mainstream secondary education within Australia is determined by each institution.

The number of international students enrolling each year in schools around Australia has remained above 20,000 during the past decade, as presented below in Figure 1.1 (Australian Education International, 2011a). These numbers include international students enrolled in government and non-government schools.
Chapter 1: Introduction to the study: Internationalisation and secondary education in Australia

In addition, the number of international student enrolments in non-government schools, which include faith-based schools, is significant and accounts for 42% of international student enrolments (Independent Schools Council of Australia, 2011). Therefore, international students constitute an important population within non-government school education. These schools experiencing international student enrolments need to be adequately prepared in order to accommodate and respond to the changing student profile (Australian Education International, 2010).

Schools may need to internationalise their classrooms and curriculum. International students come from diverse cultural and educational backgrounds and environments (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2009), bringing with them diverse expectations, experiences and goals. It is unreasonable to expect such students to “cope with a new culture…make the adjustments necessary for their academic success” (Li, 2004, p. 26). Researchers such as Li (2004), Love and Arkoudis (2004) and O’Byrne (2001) identify the kinds of changes that teachers and schools need to make to respond to the internationalising of their classrooms and their curriculum. These changes may include:

- identifying difficulties that international students experience when in mainstream classes, such as the linguistic demands of instructional English;

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*Figure 1.1. International student enrolments into the schools sector (Australian Education International, 2011a)*
• being aware of and presenting background knowledge of subjects and the wider cultural context in which these are interpreted;
• being aware of and modelling student-teacher ways of interacting, using various teaching and learning approaches, discussing examination situations with the students, familiarising students with ways of presenting their learning;
• preparing teachers for working with students from diverse backgrounds and experiences, including understanding the international student’s specific educational needs, not stereotyping these learners, nor expecting the international student to be responsible for “fitting in”;
• providing the support that is needed through staff professional development, staffing, time and opportunities to collaborate, and linking with the school ESL program.

The above points provide a guide for school management and teachers to follow in the process of internationalisation. Awareness of these challenges and identifying the issues is an important first step, but this does not automatically lead to appropriate action. It is the connection between awareness of issues and the engagement of practice by secondary teachers for internationalisation which is the focus of this study.

1.3 Theoretical framework

Teachers’ experiences of internationalisation occur in social contexts. Whenever teachers share experiences or describe their experiences it is their understanding of that experience and these are referred to as representations (Minichiello & Kottler, 2010; Sarantakos, 2005). Representations are constructed by the teachers and international students in the social context of the Australian internationalised school. These principles align with the theoretical perspective of social constructivism and are used to frame internationalisation throughout this study. From a social constructivist perspective, humans are active in their intellectual or knowledge construction as they order what they have already experienced and this is an integral part of human activity (Howe, 2003; Kim, 2001). A foundational contributor to
social constructivist ideas was Lev Vygotsky (1978) who argued that community plays a major part in the process of constructing meaning. According to Vygotsky, as noted by his assistant Luria (1976), all fundamental cognitive activities take shape in a matrix of social history and form the products of sociohistorical development. Cognitive skills and patterns of thinking are not primarily determined by innate factors but are the products of the activities practised in the social institutions of the culture in which the individual grows up (Kim, 2001). Thoughts, actions and experiences are culturally mediated. My investigation considers the teachers’ accounts of internationalisation at The College as representations of the connections between thoughts, actions and experiences within the social conditions of the school.

As humans, individuals have developed the tool of language to acquire self-awareness where culture provides the structured environment in which behaviour and self-awareness are constructed (Kim, 2001). Language provides the outline through which humans perceive, experience and act, ultimately creating a reality (Vygotsky, 1962). Vygotsky (1962) argues that our beliefs and perceptions of the world are purely human constructs – that is, an active construction rather than a passive reception of sensory data. Knowledge is constructed socially using language (Vygotsky, 1962) and everyone has different social experiences, resulting in personal perspectives (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Groups of people functioning together by virtue of their shared cultural practices are essentially constructing knowledge in this view (Kim, 2001). In this investigation, the teachers’ experiences of internationalisation are presented through their construction of their understanding and knowledge of ESL pedagogy and Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Thus, knowledge is constructed in the context of the environment in which it is encountered through a social and collaborative process using language (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Kim, 2001; Vygotsky, 1962).

Interpreting teachers’ representations from the theoretical perspective of social constructivism will enable their experiences of internationalisation to be understood in broader social contexts. In this study the teachers’ experiences of internationalisation are analysed specifically to address the gap identified in relation to previous research and theories of second language acquisition, teaching and learning in the context of a globalised education. This research is an investigation of
the teachers’ experiences and processes of engaging with diversity and globalised education. Feeding into and influencing the teachers’ experiences are the policies and actions of school leaders, administrative and support personnel and the international students themselves. These responses from key stakeholders in the internationalisation process are also drawn upon in the study. The wider conditions in which The College operates include globalised education and the demand for English language proficiency throughout the world. I turn to this literature in the following section.

1.4 Globalisation and English as a global language

Globalisation as a term has been used in many contexts, with wide-spread and varied definitions. While the phenomenon of globalisation is not new, current awareness involves a view that the globe constitutes a single environment (Edwards & Usher, 2008) a concept that is connected to the way humans view and experience their position and existence on this planet (Bottery, 2006). Held, McGrew, Goldblatt and Perratonet (1999) describe globalisation as the advancing of world-wide interconnectedness on a local, national and international scale. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) highlights globalisation as the result of “human innovation and technological progress” (International Monetary Fund, 2000, p. 2).

Travel is easier now and not as expensive as in the past. This has impacted on where people can live, work and study, reducing the space-time concept (Bottery, 2006; Edwards & Usher, 2008). The interflow between nations and the movement exchange is also evident in school enrolments (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2011). Previously isolated areas are no longer separated, globalisation having helped to “deny distance, shrink space and facilitate cross-continental expansion” (Wilkinson, 2006, p. 83). Economic growth and subsequent decline in poverty for some sections of the community in countries such as China and India, represent the positive side to globalisation (International Monetary Fund, 2000), increasing the potential of opportunities now available to more people to move between countries and study overseas.
An international education experience enables learners to potentially develop as
global citizens, allowing for the experience of different systems of meaning-making
(Edwards & Usher, 2008). Students are able to participate and connect with
individuals in other cultures and contexts – sometimes by physical relocation
(Edwards & Usher, 2008). This notion of connectivity – a core feature of
globalisation – broadens and opens possible additional life-worlds (Edwards &
Usher, 2008). It is within this rapidly-changing and unevenly distributed global
movement that the phenomenon of internationalising of education is located.

A further feature of globalisation is the use of English as a means of communication.
Kachru and Smith (2008) state that the number of Non-Native Speakers (NNS) of
English outnumbers the native speakers of English. The status of English as the
current global language is a key component for the growth in international student
enrolments in English-speaking countries. Many decisions that affect world
populations are made in the English language. This is evident in military, financial,
cultural and technological domains (Bottery, 2006; Imam, 2005; Phillipson, 2001).
Many people of non-English speaking communities have felt the need to learn
English as a means of communicating with the traditionally influential countries:
United States of America, the United Kingdom and Australia (Crystal, 2003).
English, however, is no longer only used in communicating with native speakers. It
is seen as a contact language for those who do not share the same native language or
culture, and who have chosen English as a language of communication for business
(2007) refer to English as both the lingua franca of globalisation and as the new
cosmopolitan, global society language.

Studying in English for people from non-English speaking communities has greater
relevance and application than ever before (Kachru & Smith, 2008). While the nature
of the language is constantly changing, its “currency” is higher than ever. For many
young people, the opportunity to study in an English-speaking country is appealing
as this provides the international student with what Marginson (2006, p. 18) refers to
as “positional goods”, whereby the student has more to offer as an employee as a
result of their international education experience.
1.5 The international education experience

The acquisition of positional goods for the international student enhances their future and their potential career opportunities. International students embarking on secondary and tertiary studies in Australia do so on student visas, their intention being to return home once their studies are complete (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2003). Returning to their home country with positional goods is detailed by Marginson (2006) who observes that:

international students embark on courses of study that enable them to enter certain occupations with “positional goods” which include foreign degrees, foreign language proficiency, access to migration, experience of residing abroad. These goods all constitute the “acquisition” on the part of the student. (p. 18)

An international student studying in English not only earns their schooling, but also receives an English-medium education, develops their English proficiency, experiences living in a different culture and has access to migration. These benefits for the student provide for his/her future employment opportunities, both in their home country and in the host country.

The influx of international students to schools in the English-speaking world has brought benefits for host countries. Two decades ago, universities targeted students supported through country-based aid. Currently, the target is the self-funded individual (Birrell & Smith, 2010; van Damme, 2001; Ziguras & Law, 2006) and many of these have completed the senior years of their secondary studies in the English speaking country. These students are an important source of revenue for the local economy, as well as future ambassadors for the institution and the host country (Carroll & Ryan, 2005). In addition, Gribble (2008) notes that English speaking countries promote courses of study for international students in anticipation of also addressing skill shortages in key areas.
In countries with large populations, work can be limited and difficult to secure, and competition can be fierce for work ensuring life and survival (Friedman, 2005; Ryan, 2005). In some instances, tertiary qualifications and the ability to speak other languages become crucial factors in job opportunities, as does the status of having a degree from a Western English-speaking country (Diaz-Rico, 2004; Ryan, 2005). The study-abroad option – for those able to afford it – is attractive. Increasing numbers of young people choose to leave their home countries temporarily or permanently, depending on their circumstances (Hvistendahl, 2009), to acquire English and to participate in further education overseas. This may occur as a result of students not gaining access into courses in their home country. Developing countries may experience an under-supply of university places which contributes to students moving internationally (Gribble, 2008). Li (2004), for example, suggests that Chinese university placements are often limited and quickly taken. Students have no option except to go abroad to receive a degree and to increase the possibility of securing a job on return to their home country.

Presently, many parents are taking the initiative earlier, sending their children abroad to complete high school, seeing this as helping in securing placement in tertiary institutions before returning home fully qualified. Families know the advantages of completing high school in the intended country of university study (Li, 2004). Since 1975 there has been a worldwide increase in foreign students, from 0.8 million to 3.7 million in 2009 (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2011). An international educational experience is also seen as inherently valuable: “the global marketplace now rewards those who maintain or acquire the capacity to ‘perform’ in more than one cultural setting” (Coatsworth, 2004, p. 52). According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) report of 2011, Australia has experienced significant growth in foreign students in comparison to other OECD countries.

1.6 International students in Australia

Australia is a popular destination for international students, particularly from the Asian region (Böhm, Davis, Meares, & Pearce, 2002; Organisation for Economic
Co-operation and Development, 2011). Children who study abroad in Australia relocate temporarily for the length of their course, on a student visa – a sojourner in Australia. Australia is promoted and encouraged as a study destination for international students by Studies in Australia (2011) using the characteristics shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1
Why study in Australia? (Studies in Australia, 2011)

- dynamic and progressive education programs with a reputation for excellence
- globally-recognised courses and qualifications
- a relaxed, enjoyable and safe lifestyle
- cheaper study and living expenses compared to many other countries
- vibrant, appealing and multicultural cities
- great weather
- amazing and diverse landscapes and scenery
- unique and wonderful flora and fauna

Only the first two points relate to education and focus on programs and qualifications for the international student. There is no promotion of the educational system, or the teaching and learning within this system and how this relates to internationalisation. This lack of attention to teaching and learning in the international experience is also evident in the research on internationalisation in secondary schools including faith-based schools.

Interestingly, there is also no mention in the aforementioned advertising in Table 1.1 of the legal requirements for institutions enrolling international students. The law in Australia is protective of this market and has passed legislation to monitor and audit institutions that enrol international students. Any school that offers enrolment to international students in Australia is required by law to register with the Commonwealth Register of Institutions and Courses for Overseas Students (CRICOS). The registration includes policy, documentation, processes and adequate
accountability to ensure that international students are treated fairly and are adequately provided for in the courses they are enrolled in (Education Services for Overseas Students, 2008). CRICOS provides accreditation to schools for a period of five years, after which the school is evaluated and re-licensed to continue operating as a provider for international students for a further five years. CRICOS establishes and maintains the integrity of Australian education in the global market through the Provider Registration and International Students Management System (PRISMS), a visa-related reporting system. The secondary school under investigation in this research has had CRICOS registration since 1995.

1.7 School context for this study

The College is a non-government, independent school providing Christian schooling with the intention of leading students to a Christian way of life from daycare to Year 12 in South-East Queensland, Australia. As a private Christian college which forms part of the school’s company, it is operated by a board of directors with a chief executive officer and a chief financial officer. As a faith-based school, The College has a national and international affiliation with the particular wider faith-based education system.

The College is headed by a principal who oversees three campuses. The Early Learning Centre, as one of these campuses, is run by a director who reports directly to the principal while the primary and secondary campuses have deputy principals who report to the principal. The number of staff in the primary and secondary sections totals 65, with the staff total for the three campuses being 78. All staff members at The College are practising members of this particular faith. The staff members meet each day for prayer devotions before classes begin – twice a week as a combined school and three times a week as individual campuses. For the students, chapel is held once a week for the primary and secondary campuses respectively. The secondary campus meets on a Thursday morning for chapel, with all the students and teachers expected to attend as part of the faith-based character of the school.
The total number of students enrolled in the College from Preparatory to Year 12 is 622. Of these, 45 are international students. International students have been enrolled at The College since 1992, originating from numerous countries including South Korea, China and Japan. The secondary school, known as The College in this research, experienced a dramatic increase in international students in 2004 with 52 enrolled. This declined to 35 in 2005, increased again to 42 in 2006 and has steadily maintained at about 20 students from 2007 to 2011. Although these numbers fluctuate, there is still a steady flow of international students who wish to complete their secondary schooling at this school. The student, teacher and support-staff population consists of people from diverse ethnic backgrounds, language groups and socio-economic statuses. At the time of my research, students from the following backgrounds were enrolled at The College: Australia, China, Cook Islands, Croatia, Japan, Korea, Mauritania, New Zealand, Niue, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Serbia, Solomon Islands, South Africa, Tonga and the United States of America. This diversity provides a strong need for cross cultural competency among teachers and other staff at The College.

In the secondary school there are 290 students. There are 35 teachers, with five support staff. Teaching staff cover all areas of the curriculum and are assisted by an enhanced learning support teacher, an ESL teacher, and a librarian. The support staff includes a student receptionist, three teacher aides and an information technology (IT) technician. ESL support is provided for low English proficiency level students, many being international students, needing assistance via a system of withdrawal from mainstream classes once a week for forty minutes. Students miss class sport, Studies of Society and Environment (SOSE), or a negotiated subject or period from which teachers agree that the student may be excused. The aim of this study is to investigate the teachers’ views and responses to working with international students at the school as well as, how the management of The College contributes to internationalisation through contextualising teaching.
1.8 Researcher perspective

The research site for this investigation is my workplace and thus I am already part of the school and known to all involved. As such I have an insider’s viewpoint, *emic* perspective (Lichtman, 2010; Neuman, 2011). My initial role within the school was aligned to this research, and my work involved regular contact with the secondary school staff and international students. I am still involved at this site; however, it is now within a role at the primary campus.

It is crucial that I present my background which outlines my understandings and approach to this investigation. As someone who has lived in four different cultural contexts and worked in their educational settings, practising and understanding internationalisation is crucial. I was born in East London, South Africa, into the dominant English speaking white community. My parents were conservative Christians, with a strong sense of social justice, who promoted and instilled in their children a commitment to equal opportunities for all. My parents believed that every individual is equal in the sight of God, and that we should treat each other with respect and dignity. Apartheid was never practised in our household. My Anglo-Dutch background has influenced who I “am”, and my attitudes and perspectives have been shaped by my South African heritage. Growing up in South Africa I was surrounded by numerous cultures and languages – most people in South Africa spoke a minimum of two languages. This type of environment broadened my attitude to diversity. I only appreciated this after living outside that environment in South Korea, New Zealand and Australia.

While teaching English for three years (1993 – 1995) in South Korea, I was represented by locals as a “foreigner”. The expectations placed on me were of a foreigner teaching English. Living in an environment where I looked different and where most people did not speak a language I knew was an experience which was both enriching and challenging. This was the only time when I have really felt totally alienated and far removed from any sense of my “normal” reality. After some time, the feeling subsided, although I was always conscious of my difference in appearance as a tall European with long, blond hair.
I later lived in New Zealand, an English-speaking country with similar mainstream values and expectations to those of South Africa. In New Zealand my family still experienced culture shock through the change of environment, although we “fitted” in more easily than in South Korea. Our accents still notified people of our differences and our colloquialisms were often a point of humorous exchange.

In 2000 we moved to Australia. Once again, we experienced a cultural change similar to the one we felt when we first moved to New Zealand. These experiences of living in different cultural contexts have influenced who I am and have led my attention to the area of intercultural experience, in particular understanding how people integrate or adapt to different environments. “What is considered appropriate depends on what is valued, which in turn affects what is noticed” (Mason, 2002, p. 7). Everyone places value on things that they consider important and therefore hold in high regard, as is the case with this research; I value and am interested in the experiences of internationalisation at The College. The ranking of ideas and issues shapes the individual and how they view the world around them. Understandings are formed and value is assigned by each individual through their own personal development and experience (Mason, 2002). Understandings are particular and can only be shared through accounts or narratives forming representations.

In 2002 I was appointed to the role of English as a second language (ESL) teacher on the secondary campus of The College and remained in this role until the end of 2005. Since 2006 I have been working at the same school in an administrative role on the primary campus. I still have contact with the staff on the secondary campus, though this is now informal and on a casual basis. My ESL teacher role included working with both local and international ESL students in the mainstream. Initially I found I was spending all my time with the students, helping them with their academic work as well as their home lives. This role included being involved with resolving homestay problems and being available to listen to the students’ questions and concerns. I realised after some time that I also needed to be working with the teachers. Some of the teachers approached me for help, wanting to improve their interactions with and teaching of international students. They invited me to come into their classes and observe their pedagogy and management practices.
These requests prompted me to engage in discussion with the teachers about their work with international students. After the first discussion it was clear that my role needed to include supporting the teachers as well as the students which was the genesis of this project. The practices which I observed encouraged me to undertake research investigating international education within this particular school. As indicated above, the teachers identified difficulties in teaching international students and requested assistance to improve their pedagogical practice for internationalisation.

1.9 Aims, research questions and approach to research

The aim of this research is to investigate teachers’ responses to internationalisation at The College. There is much research about how international students experience internationalisation and many case studies of individual subject teacher’s experiences of internationalisation within the classroom. However, there is no research that investigates secondary teachers’ pedagogical experiences of internationalisation or how the management of a school contributes to internationalisation through contextualising teaching within the context of a faith-based school.

In this investigation, the teachers’ representations of their international students – and of themselves as teachers – will be described through their individual and collective understandings. The aim of the study is to provide an interpretation of the pedagogical responses to internationalisation at The College from the point of view of those who are involved in this process (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). The specific research questions are:

1. What are the institutional conditions framing pedagogical responses to internationalisation in The College?

2. How do the teachers represent the international students as learners?

3. How do the teachers represent their pedagogy for internationalisation?
To address these questions I will use case study methodology and qualitative methods to generate and interpret the participants’ perspectives. Drawing on an interpretivist paradigm, the research is an investigation of how the teachers construct their views and understandings of their experience of internationalisation at the school. Meaning is ‘constructed’ from the accounts that individuals and groups have shared about internationalisation and how they form practices within their work context (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Gray, 2004; Howe, 2003). I am attributing meaning to the way that individuals represent what is happening in and around them when they create, analyse, interpret and make meaning from their experiences and previous knowledge (Frazee & Ayers, 2003; Gray, 2004). To obtain this rich understanding, questionnaires, focus groups and individual interviews, and collections of documents were used. Using thematic analysis, the data were analysed by focusing on how the teachers and international students represented pedagogy and second language learners within the secondary school setting.

1.10 Chapter summary

In this chapter I presented internationalisation as the field and focus of my research, defining internationalisation and the role it has within the broader context of globalisation. The acquisition of “positional goods” such as English proficiency, obtaining a foreign degree, experiencing a different culture and access to migration, enhances the future employment opportunities for the international student.

International student numbers are significant in Australia and The College – my investigation site – has been engaged in a program of internationalisation since 1995. The chapter included a brief history of my background, providing an understanding and awareness of my perspective. The purpose of this research is to provide a representation of the pedagogical responses to internationalisation at a faith-based secondary school from the teaching staff experience at The College, as well as to investigate how the management of The College contributes to internationalisation through contextualising teaching. Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature on the internationalisation of education, with particular focus on the teachers.
Chapter 2: Literature Review: Internationalisation at a school

2.1 Introduction

The focus of this investigation is teachers’ responses to internationalisation at The College. While the school is a faith-based institution and faith education has been addressed by Van Brummelen (2009) and Smith and Smith (2011), this study focuses on the school’s academic program and teaching and learning issues relating to internationalisation and the process of internationalising. Internationalising refers, in part, to enrolling international students where active recruitment and monetary gain are prominent factors; however, the term is not limited to money and the number of enrolments (Carroll & Ryan, 2005). Internationalisation also includes mutual adjustment and adaptation including: development of the curriculum; potential employment of international teachers or of teachers with appropriate intercultural proficiency; rethinking the school identity; providing equality, equity and access for all students; reviewing the identity representations of students; and improving pedagogy, orientation and intention in regards to student diversity (Aulakh et al., 1997).

There is extensive literature which focuses on factors influencing stakeholders when a school, as an organisation, internationalises. Gray (2004) argues that organisations need to change the way that they “operate and interact with the world” (p. 1). He further emphasises the need for continual research if organisations are to modernise and update practices, and working environments to meet ever-changing market needs and requirements (Gray, 2004). The Australian government, together with non-government schools and some state schools, has been actively marketing programmes for international students – a move which involves organisational change (Love & Arkoudis, 2004). Glew (2001) however, raises concern that the specific educational needs of the targeted international students are often not addressed before embarking on these educational marketing initiatives. Recently, researchers have evaluated practices and procedures to investigate the effectiveness of existing programmes and the areas requiring improvement and changes in practice (Gray, 2004; Love & Arkoudis, 2004). Key to such changes in practice is the
understanding that individuals – in this case teachers – are a key element of the social and academic systems of schools and bring to the context a wealth of diversity in knowledge and understanding (Hoy & Miskel, 2008).

Teachers’ knowledge and understanding of internationalisation is constructed through experiences including those within the school community, in particular their academic and social relationships with other teaching staff, school leaders and administrative and support personnel. In addition, their constructed knowledge and understanding of internationalisation also involves their responses to: policy, the students themselves, families and guardians beyond the school. My interpretive frame understands the school conditions as impacting on the teachers and their pedagogy and contributing to their understandings of internationalisation. My presentation of the key institutional features is presented in the following section. The features are categorised as: the organisation and management of the school, the internationalised school culture, the provision of services for cultural knowledge/cross cultural competency, the international student and their experience, and in the final section, the teachers and pedagogy for internationalisation.

2.2 **Organisation and management of the school**

The administration forms the nucleus of a school and determines what and how things progress and occur throughout the entire school (Collier, 1995). Within an institution there are positions of leadership assigned to individuals to supervise and lead the institution, encompassing schooling, administration, curriculum and instruction (Pawlas & Oliva, 2008). Generally, schools are headed by a principal and supported by a school council and other administrative staff. Other administrative staff can include a deputy principal, a curriculum co-ordinator, a dean of students, a chaplain, a financial administrator, a marketing agent, a personal assistant and other support staff, which at this Christian school include chaplains. In The College there are staff who have been assigned certain roles and I am particularly interested in those which pertain to internationalisation. When enrolling international students in Australia there are certain legal requirements that an institution is expected to follow and maintain. These legal obligations are crucial for an institution to maintain its
registration for internationalisation and are detailed in the next section. They form the bedrock of the official requirements for the provision of effective international education as provided by the school.

2.2.1 Legal requirements of the school for internationalisation

The institution is to provide a safe and supportive environment making it a healthy place to learn, play and work (Queensland Government, 2008). This definition assumes that all students will experience a comprehensive education, taking into consideration health, personal development and well-being issues. As discussed in Chapter 1, in the Australian context an institution offering enrolment to international students requires a licence number issued by the Commonwealth Register of Institutions and Courses for Overseas Students (CRICOS). To obtain CRICOS registration, and in accordance with the Education Services for Overseas Students (ESOS) Act 2000, a school must meet the legal requirements and be responsible for the welfare of each international student enrolled at the institution.

The school accepts guardianship of the international student for the length of their course at the institution. The school is responsible for ensuring that the appropriate accommodation, support and general welfare arrangements are in place for the international student enrolled (Australian Education International, 2011b). The legal prerequisite placed on institutions is that they will provide adequately and fairly for the international student, and fulfil their promise stated prior to enrolment by meeting these proposed obligations. CRICOS registration is granted to an institution for a maximum of five years. At the conclusion of the five-year period, an audit is conducted of the school to determine whether a further five-year accreditation will be awarded to the school to continue offering courses to international students (Education Services for Overseas Students, 2008). The time between audits allows school management to determine where the school is legally obliged to continue fulfilling what has been offered and promised to the international students. Government and state officials may visit the site at any given time to assess documentation and practice regarding the obligations of the school to the international students (Education Services for Overseas Students Act, 2000), and
relates directly to how the teachers practise, and therefore experience, internationalisation. Schools have to provide policies for internationalisation in order to obtain CRICOS registration.

2.2.2 School policy for internationalisation

There has been increasing interest across different international contexts in policies established by institutions regarding internationalisation. Policies in a school are intended to ensure that all follow the same procedures and practices, in accordance with the goals of the school. For the purpose of my research, I will limit policy investigation to the topics of internationalising and international students within the institution and the links these policies have to teaching and learning.

Ensuring that policy is practised well within a school is the responsibility of everyone at the school. According to Clegg (1996) – who reported on his work in ESL school contexts in England and Africa – administration, together with all school stakeholders, should be actively involved in instituting good policy to ensure that multicultural and anti-racist education exists in the school environment. The term “multiculturalism” is one Clegg uses in his research; however, the term has recently been problematised. The term has been defined by various authors in different ways including as a set of principles, a condition and a policy (Mavrikos-Adamou, 2003; McKnight, 2006). Within my current investigation, I choose to use the term “student diversity” as it indicates different cultural heritages and backgrounds. Clegg (1996) argues that regular updates and revisions of policy build and strengthen trust and direction within a school. Importance needs to be placed on the “top-down, institution-wide, policy-led processes” creating a unity within the school through strong leadership and direction (Clegg, 1996, p. 13). Formal written policy provides for all affiliated with the school with an articulated and explicit definition of the expectations, norms, assumptions, and beliefs acceptable to the school and community way of life and assigns meaning for all (Sergiovanni, Kelleher, McCarthy, & Wirt, 2004).
My case study investigation of the school policy about international students will provide an indication of the written representations and management of internationalisation at the institutional and administrative levels. My research will include identifying whether there is an effective and clear policy on international students and internationalising for The College, how familiar the teachers are with the policy, and how the policy impacts on teaching. Collier (1995) states that schools with strong support for student diversity and cross cultural competency reflect a committed administration and a school staff who act as advocates for language minority students. How teachers advocate for the international students at my research school will be evident in their accounts and representations of their own practices and the students. Schools that advocate for language minority students exhibit a school culture that values and works productively with cultural and linguistic diversity (Collier, 1995).

### 2.3 Internationalised school culture

An internationalised school culture values cultural and linguistic diversity. The school culture and practices should be guided by management functions established in a consensual framework practised within the school (Clegg, 1996). Clegg (1996) argues that a school culture should be one in which ESL students begin their school experience as part of the community without having to prove themselves as part of it. An internationalised school environment values and promotes cross cultural competency of working with and understanding difference through supporting cultural knowledge, communication skills, opportunities to enhance the ability to succeed in multiple and diverse environments, and empathy and open-mindedness (Magala, 2005). An internationalised school culture therefore involves ensuring that the international students are being included and given equal opportunity within the school.
2.3.1 A culture of inclusion/equity of international students

A school enrolling international students should exhibit a school culture that includes these students and works productively with them. Within the context of Australia, as noted earlier, an international student enrols at an institution where they are entitled to be a full-time student of that school, and receiving equal and appropriate treatment to their peers (Education Services for Overseas Students, 2008). That means that international students have the same rights as other students enrolled, are able to study all subjects offered, are treated fairly in assessments and class organisation, are able to use their first language in studying, are able to learn in a situation that acknowledges and shows their home culture, are protected against discrimination, and are able to take an active and full role in the life of the school (Clegg, 1996).

Derwing, DeCorby, Ichikawa and Jamieson (1999) conducted research in a Canadian high school context involving 15 former ESL students and six mainstream teachers. The researchers established from these participants that the administration team were instrumental in determining the role that the school played in the inclusion and support of the international students. The students in their study reflected on being actively engaged with English-speaking classmates and treated as peers which contributed to their successful school experience (Derwing et al., 1999).

The administration of a school can establish guidelines that students and teachers are expected to follow to encourage participation and active engagement in teaching and learning. For example, Osterman (2000) notes that a culture of peer acceptance and friendship consistently shows as a contribution to higher achievement by international students. The experience of belonging is associated with positive attitudes towards self and others, attitudes reflected in interaction with others (Osterman, 2000). The sense of belonging also contributes to positive orientation and engagement toward school, class work and teachers (Adelabu, 2007). In her investigation of the correlation between school membership and academic achievement of urban African American adolescents, Adelabu (2007) notes that students who feel a sense of belonging and acceptance in school are more likely to participate in extracurricular activities and attend and actively engage in class. These behavioural components of school membership lead to positive emotional
connections with the school that foster a valuing of the school and academic achievement (Adelabu, 2007; Osterman, 2000).

In her Canadian study, Popadiuk (2010) reports that international student transition and adjustment into secondary school is affected by their interactions with their peers and teachers. These interactions include decision-making, receiving advice or information, and receiving help. Interestingly, she notes that the international students in her study initially did not want to bother their peers and teachers by asking them questions. However, once the international students realised that their peers and teachers wanted to help them and genuinely cared for them, they found it easier to take part (Popadiuk, 2010). The willingness to assist and care for the international student forms part of the school culture promoting inclusion and equity for these students. Noting the equitable treatment and interaction of international students will be an aspect of interest in my investigation of the internationalised school culture at The College and how the teacher experience and contribute to it.

A further contribution by the school administration to providing a school culture which is inclusive and equitable is the guidelines that they provide for the teachers and their role in internationalisation. Cheng, Myles and Curtis (2004), in their research with non-native English-speaking graduate students at a Canadian university, recommend that the administration implement a school-wide programme to ensure that all stakeholders work together to welcome and include the international students as part of the institution. A school administration that develops and promotes a school culture where everyone works together and takes responsibility for the international student promotes internationalisation.

The guidelines given by school administration regarding the teachers’ role for the inclusion and equity of international students will be evident in their practice. Teachers’ practice will reflect their understanding and knowledge of the culture of inclusion and equity for these students in this social context. Li (2004) in her research, argues that international students must receive the quality education they are entitled to and for which they have paid, and that schools need to address and include international students’ needs through cross cultural competency in action, awareness and duty of care. International students are enrolled at a school with full
student status and are entitled to receive what they have paid for – an appropriate and effective educational experience. In a London-based research project working with three primary teachers, Franson (1999) concludes that: “mainstreaming English as an additional language (EAL) pupils may have granted EAL pupils equality of presence, but has not necessarily secured equality of participation and achievement” (p. 69). Franson’s statement raises the issue of second language learners attending school but not necessarily succeeding within the mainstream.

The above statement is of concern as the school is responsible for these students and for providing them with a quality education. My research investigates the teachers’ understanding and social construction of the school culture at The College. How the teachers contribute to this culture of inclusion and equity for the international students. Of interest also is how the social context constructs their understanding and knowledge of their experience of internationalisation. Another aspect of inclusion and equity relates to the international student’s family who have invested much into their child and their schooling. Even though these parents may be located far from the school, they are still part of the school community and need to be included.

2.3.2 A culture of inclusion of the international student’s family

The international student’s family needs to be included as part of the community and encouraged to be part of their child’s learning experience via open communication with the school (using interpreters if needed), and active participation in the parent-teacher associations and the governing bodies (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Hoy and Miskel (2008), in their Californian schools research, argue that a climate which fosters a school-family relationship is one which needs to be cultivated by the school administration and practised by the teachers. Establishing a way in which things are done within a school contributes to the practice followed:

In a school, shared beliefs and informal norms among teachers have a significant impact on behaviour. Culture provides members with a commitment to beliefs and values beyond themselves; individuals belong to a group that is larger than themselves. When the culture is strong, so is their
Hoy and Miskel state that a school culture can define the way things are done within a school community through the commitment of the staff, students and parents to the beliefs and values established through the guidelines and practices set out for each school. Beliefs and values outline the way in which staff, families and students belong and identify with the school and direct the way in which they behave. Providing guidelines which include direct communication and inclusion of the international student’s family can be incorporated into the school culture by the school staff. The aspect of direct communication can be difficult when an international student's parents do not reside locally, as is the case in my investigation. However, Collier (1995) and Li (2004) both advocate direct communication between the teachers and parents of an international student to foster positive connections and support. My investigation includes exploring the communication links established at the school with international students’ parents and the teachers, focusing on the level and frequency of communication. Establishing whether these communication links are in use will provide insight into the implementation and management of internationalisation by the administration, and understanding the teachers’ experience of internationalisation and their representation of the international student. Ensuring that a school-family relationship takes place within a school requires regular review of the school procedures and communication practices. Another aspect of internationalisation in regard to school culture which influences teachers’ experiences of internationalisation is how schools ensure a focus on diversity through a regular review of the school programmes.

2.3.3 A culture of review of school programmes for internationalisation

An internationalised school culture enables the provision, facilitation and implementation of pedagogical adjustments. It is important to have programmes in place; however, it is just as important to regularly review these programmes. Harklau (1999) reports on research conducted on second language learners’ experiences at a high school in the United States. She argues that there is a need for school
administration to actively recognise and include language-minority students’ perspectives in the pedagogy and practice of the school and in so doing promote ethnic and linguistic diversity. Short (1999) makes a similar point by arguing the necessity within US schools to meet the needs of diverse learners through facilitating adjustment to the curriculum, materials, placement and testing practices. Short (1999) recommends, for example, that the school administration implements and drives “sheltered instruction” within the mainstream. By sheltered instruction she refers to a “broader, school-based initiative that takes into account the total schooling English language learners (ELLs) need” (Short, 1999, p. 111). She identifies as key components of the approach: the school vision, programme design, learning environment, professional development practices, instructional practices, curriculum and materials, and assessment. These two studies highlight the fact that school management directs whether mainstream programmes are reviewed for ELL students and whether planning and practice adjustments are facilitated. Although these two researchers did not conduct their studies with international students, the findings and recommendations which arise from research into the ELL experience appear to apply equally to these students.

The literature summarised above provides a model in which the international student “needs” to be included into the current practice by adjusting and changing. The model does not necessarily point to the need for adaptation or change within the institution or school. To provide for internationalisation practices need to be modified and improved, thereby broadening and extending the experience of all members of the school community. The school authority is responsible for ensuring that programmes are regularly updated to meet the needs of the international students, thus promoting an internationalised school culture. The teachers’ experience of internationalisation at The College will reflect whether the practice of reviewing school programmes is happening for international students. Another aspect contributing to the internationalised school culture is the commitment by the school administration to providing intentionally for the international student.
2.4 Provision of services for cultural knowledge/cross cultural competency

An internationalised school culture has services available to assist the teachers with the development of cross cultural competency and to provide specific expertise and help when needed. Schools growing and investing in the international market need to internationalise effectively through the careful planning and management of services they provide. They must then regularly audit these. International students enrolled in schools in Australia pay international student fees, which are more than local student fees. The international student population is important to The College as it provides additional funding. It also contributes to the wider Australian economy through student living expenses and purchases. The service provided at the school for these students affects future international market success in attracting more international students (Love & Arkoudis, 2004). As their guardians, schools need to invest in the care and well-being of these students by providing trained, collaborative, resourced and supportive staff (Brigaman, 2002; Pawlas & Oliva, 2008), as well as well-managed and appropriate homestays (Yeh & Inose, 2003). A school addresses these responsibilities through its provision of services such as pastoral care, establishing staff engagement for internationalisation, and staff professional development for internationalisation.

2.4.1 Pastoral care

A school enrolling international students accepts the responsibility as guardian of these students and as such needs to provide for them as their carer facilitating an internationalised school culture (Education Services for Overseas Students (ESOS), 2011). Li (2004) reports that international students sometimes struggle with issues but do not wish to burden their parents who are far away. Students in her research report that they feel they cannot have in-depth, expensive talks on the telephone to their parents, as their parents often worry and become distressed that they cannot be with their child, so students keep their worries to themselves. They feel their parents have sacrificed much for them and they do not want to burden them more with what they perceive as unnecessary worry and concern. Li (2004) is apprehensive about the pastoral care of such international students. Duff (2001), in her Canadian study of
Grade 10 ESL students, also expresses concern regarding affective and social psychological matters and student well-being. She sees the administration as playing a pivotal role as the guardian of students in their care, through identification of any problems and referrals for assistance. Faltis and Wolfe (1999), in their United States-based research on adolescents, bilingualism and ESL in the secondary school, argue that adolescent language-learners are entitled to an effective educational experience – including access to someone who speaks their first language, community involvement, health education and vocational education – and that the school administration is responsible for providing access and information regarding these services as part of the internationalised school culture.

Davis and McDaid (1992), reporting on their San Diego investigation of Vietnamese students in a high school, identified the need for the school administration to find better ways of assisting the students by providing guidance and counselling assistance. The researchers found the students needed information detailing such issues as high school graduation, subject choice, career guidance and opportunities, post-high school options, financial assistance plans, and life skills (Davis & McDaid, 1992). Popadiuk (2010), in her research of 21 adolescent international secondary-school students in Canada, found school counsellors are highly valuable when they are culturally knowledgeable and contribute to building connections and providing support for international students. The social and emotional well-being of the international student and the services to ensure this well-being are the responsibility of the school (Education Services for Overseas Students Act, 2000).

Identifying and understanding the provision provided for the international student’s well-being is part of my investigation of the teachers’ pedagogical experience of internationalisation and the way in which the teachers represent these students. The importance of family support and significant others for the international student is well documented (Banks, 2006; Flaitz, 2003; Tangen & Mergler, 2008). The international students at The College are reliant on the school for guidance, support and control. This dimension of the international students’ experience will be an important component of my research. Another way in which schools as a whole promote successful internationalisation is through staff working together and communicating regularly with each other regarding international students.
2.4.2 Establishing staff engagement for internationalisation

Leadership teams that intentionally provide regular opportunities for staff to collaborate and work effectively together for the international students contribute to the internationalisation of their school. Pawlas and Oliva (2008) advocate the creation of a “sense of community” in which administrators, teachers, students, parents and others work co-operatively to enhance student growth and development (p. 403). Brigaman (2002), speaking in relation to a culturally diverse American classroom context, recommends that the administration of a school needs to analyse current practice and instigate changes and improvements to encourage and foster collaboration between staff. She emphasises that co-operation between mainstream teachers, ESL teachers and other specialists requires time, which needs to be set aside (Brigaman, 2002). Clegg (1996) and Collier (1995) found in their respective research projects that shared decision-making by all parties (teachers, parents, carers and students) contributes to school reform capable of benefitting all students.

Providing ESL teachers, other specialists and professional development for staff is a school administrative decision and requires a commitment of time and money by the institution. The amount of staff collaboration and teachers effectively working together for international students contributes to the teachers’ experience of internationalisation. The final way in which schools provide services for internationalisation and cultural knowledge/cross cultural competency is through staff professional development.

2.4.3 Staff professional development for internationalisation

Professional development is a key service made available by institutions whereby administration invests in employees through time contributions and/or financial means. In relation to my investigation, the Association of Independent Schools (AIS) operates in each state of Australia, providing advice, guidance, accountability and training for the independent school sector, while also providing free and payable workshops and staff development for the Independent Schools of Queensland (ISQ). Other companies also provide free and payable professional development to schools within Australia. I have included ISQ in my discussion because The College is an
independent school. ISQ provides courses specifically for mainstream teachers working with diverse students. My data will take note of the professional development courses attended by staff. The data will give insights into the provision of development opportunities at the administrative level and also the input received by teachers about internationalisation and the teaching of international students.

Professional development may assist in teacher collaboration and effectiveness within schools where specialist teachers can help mainstream teachers and support staff individually or as a group (Short, 1999). O’Byrne (2001), in her discussion of schools in Toronto, emphasises the role school administration plays in preparing and continually equipping staff with the skills and knowledge needed to work successfully with international students. She refers to veteran English teachers who trained at a time when the numbers of second-language learners in a class were low, making the point that high-school English teachers need further professional development to gain understanding of second-language acquisition and intercultural experience, and to apply this knowledge to their assessment and instructional practices (Karathanos, 2010; O’Byrne, 2001). The need for professional development could apply to my case study context as well depending on the teachers and their understanding and knowledge of pedagogy and how they practise this for internationalisation.

The school administration directs and determines the amount of time, financial support, numbers of staff and energy allocated to a specific area within the school budget and as such determines these allocations for internationalisation (Brigaman, 2002; Sergiovanni et al., 2004). Brigaman (2002) notes that the administration determines the particular needs for change and improvement, and therefore directs staff professional development. I will investigate the steps the administration at The College has taken towards supporting staff, and what provisions have been utilised to assist the teachers in their experience and management of internationalisation.

Mainstream teachers – at The College and in all schools that enrol international students – have a responsibility to understand the complexity of the experience for the students, who experience a “newness” which can be both positive and negative. The student contribution to the experience is critical and demands inclusion within
my research. Including the international students’ voices in my investigation will balance, clarify and possibly challenge teachers’ experiences of internationalisation. There is a growing body of literature which explores the experience of international students in globalising times of expanding educational markets.

2.5 The international student and their experience

The term “international student” was discussed and outlined in Chapter 1. International students arrive at a school, as Faltis and Wolfe (1999) describe, with “the social and emotional needs…of wanting to belong to groups, wanting to succeed in their daily life, wanting to please their families and wanting to feel confident as young people” (p. 1). My investigation takes place on a secondary campus where the international students range in age from thirteen to nineteen years. Being young and in a foreign country unaccompanied, without the social network support to which they have been accustomed, opens students to a range of potential obstacles which have been identified and reported upon by many researchers (Collier, 1995; Duff, 2002; Kuo & Roysircar, 2006; Li, 2004; Love & Arkoudis, 2004). Teachers interacting and working with international students need to be aware of the students’ experience, learning styles and the obstacles which they encounter, namely culture shock, forming social and academic relationships, and academic communication. The most common challenging obstacle reported is culture shock (Popadiuk, 2010).

2.5.1 Culture shock

International students entering their new environment may experience what is called culture shock. Brown (1994) observes:

Culture shock is a common experience for a person learning a second language in a second culture. Culture shock refers to phenomena ranging from mild irritability to deep psychological panic and crisis. Culture shock is associated with feelings in the learner of estrangement, anger, hostility, indecision, frustration, unhappiness, sadness, loneliness, homesickness, and even physical illness. Persons undergoing culture shock view their new
world out of resentment and alternate between being angry at others for not understanding them and being filled with self-pity. (p. 170)

Brown’s definition explains culture shock as an emotional and psychological response to the new situation in which an individual is placed. Zhou, Jindal-Snape, Topping and Todman (2008) identify culture shock as “a process where ‘culture learning’, ‘stress and coping’ and ‘social identification’ take place” (Zhou et al., 2008, p. 73). Li (2004) also identifies culture shock as affecting learning and emotional well-being, and impacting on the experience of school-life. In summary, culture shock is commonly experienced by an individual in a new environment as an emotional response which manifests in various feelings that can fluctuate quickly and impact on the person’s well-being.

The symptoms of culture shock are identified as feelings which can change readily and are experienced differently by each person. Li’s research (2004) reports that international students go through a number of emotional stages including uncertainty, disappointment, anxiety, frustration and sometimes depression, while they settle into the routine they will follow for a number of years. Li’s study focuses on naming the feelings that the international student experiences in culture shock. The impact of culture shock on the international student’s experience of school-life can lead to a state of uncertainty, often resulting in feelings of confusion, fear and loneliness (Li, 2004). These feelings of confusion, fear and loneliness can result in international students’ feeling isolated and ignored in their new environment. In an investigation by Hinchcliff-Pelias and Greer (2004), concern is raised over the feelings of isolation experienced by international students and the perception that they have of being ignored by their peers. Heydon (2003) found that these students felt at a loss and it took much energy and determination for them to fit in with two languages and cultures. Often the students were mentally and emotionally tired. Another study identifies times when the international student experiences these feelings of culture shock. Watt, Roessingh and Bosetti (1996, p. 203) detect a “journey” which international students typically experience, and identify the stages of the journey as elation, initial adjustment, anticipation, adjustment to school life, integration, alienation, beating the odds and confronting reality.
The reasons why international students experience culture shock are well researched. Hughes (2004) identifies differences in norms and styles of communication in particular as leading to a range of individual anxieties and uncertainties influenced by perceptions and other differences related to gender, age and status (Hughes, 2004). International students in particular indicate they are more anxious about participating in class and express academic anxiety regarding language barriers (Kinoshita & Bowman, 1998). Carroll and Ryan (2005) contribute further, observing that as well as international students being aware of the high family expectations placed on them, and being without their usual support system, they have the added pressure of visa implications which are associated with academic failure. These factors can exacerbate each other, overwhelming the international student and contributing to enormous stress, and in some cases, lead to stress-related mental health disorders (Carroll & Ryan, 2005).

These researchers advocate identification of culture shock by the teachers and the need to provide for students who are unaware of the effects of culture shock. Teachers need to be aware of the potential for culture shock and provide assistance to the international student through their journey contributing to the internationalisation of the school. Understanding the emotional stages through which an international student progresses highlights important information and strategies for the school, the teachers and the students themselves. Teachers can help the students further by addressing factors such as emotional stability, confidence in social skills and flexibility as critical overall strategies required for adjustment to the new environment. At the same time, other students – and teachers themselves – need to learn more about the international student and their culture to build cross cultural competency and knowledge (Duff, 2002; Faltis & Wolfe, 1999).

To support students, schools need to ensure that:

- cultural differences are accommodated;
- educational practices are fully explained to international students individually;
- faculty members take the time to get to know the students individually, building trust;
• symptoms of emotional distress are identified and referrals made where necessary; and
• international students are encouraged to visit faculty members during office hours at the beginning of the term to discuss the upcoming term (Brigaman, 2002; Kinoshita & Bowman, 1998).

Researchers report that successful international students have a goal, have the support of significant others, expect success and complete high school. They have self-control with empowerment together with pride and a willingness to “do the time” (Watt et al., 1996). Finally, they recognise the link between an education and a better job in the future. Being aware of these factors in the success of international students provides the school, staff and international students with strategies that can be put into place to assist achievement and combat culture shock. A school that internationalises will set goals for their international students, provide them with the support of significant others, and do all it can to ensure that the international student is achieving academic success.

When all stakeholders take on the responsibility to create and maintain a positive sense of community within a school, all participants experience a positive sense of belonging (Schulte, Shanahan, Anderson, & Sides, 2003). There is a responsibility too for the international student to actively engage in the learning experience in the host country. Derwing et al. (1999) argue that international students need to step out of their comfort zone to develop relationships that are both social (linking with peers) and academic (interacting with their teachers), contributing to a productive and successful school experience and providing for cross cultural competency.

2.5.2 Forming social and academic relationships

In the new environment an important activity for the international student is interacting with others. These interactions are based on relationships that are both social and academic. Zhou et al., (2008) challenge all stakeholders within an institution to assist international students in adjusting to their new environment and to form academic and social relationships to enhance their experience of
internationalisation. Academic relationships refer to formal interactions for academic interest and advancement. Social relationships include interaction for friendship, general acquaintance, playing sport and other informal purposes. Forming good school relationships with English-speaking peers and their teachers, as well as their L1 (first language) peers is an important move for international students (Li, 2004). These relationships are vital for the success of the international student in their experience of internationalisation.

As a learner, the international student has academic aspirations and is in the country to study. Connecting and forming academic relationships with teachers and students is part of the experience of internationalisation. Li (2004) recommends that schools as part of their internationalising set up peer tutor groups where international students can help local students with Maths and Science in exchange for help with English, or where Chinese-English bilingual students assist the new international students for their first few months. She further reiterates that schools need to provide ongoing ESL support for international students as their English needs change over time (Li, 2004). Duff (2002) refers to quick entry into the academic aspect of mainstream schooling as a tense experience for ESL students. Her research shows the ESL students and their parents in her investigation experienced the academic classroom as a “hostile and unwelcoming environment” (Duff, 2002, p. 108). Duff is referring particularly to immigrant students in the mainstream school. However, although the circumstances are different from those of international students, there are some overlaps. A welcoming and friendly academic environment encourages involvement and active participation contributing to a sense of belonging for an individual (Chiang-Hom, 2004; Popadiuk, 2009).

An important academic relationship for the international student is the one they build with the teacher. Effective teachers connect with each student in their class and initiate academic relationships in order to assist the students with their learning (Borich, 2011). Establishing an academic relationship with the teachers at the school, as discussed in section 2.6.2 in connection with cross cultural competency, assists the international student with their learning. International students bring so much to the academic relationship through their diverse histories, knowledge, views and practices.
As well as establishing academic relationships with their teachers, international students benefit from having academic relationships with their classmates for study purposes such as discussions, group work and assignments. The research conducted by Derwing et al. (1999) and reported in 2.3.1 indicates that international students ascribe their school experience success to active engagement with English-speaking classmates which involves building peer relationships. These relationships can be of a social nature for the international student in and outside the classroom.

Establishing a relationship with another international student who has been in the country for a time, or with an appointed liaison officer, can assist in imparting to a newcomer information and an awareness of services available (Li, 2004). International students may find interacting with native-speaking students uncomfortable and difficult (Li, 2004), but research suggests that international students are often left on their own to engage. Love and Arkoudis (2004) observe that frequently international students are left either to “sink or swim” and are expected to initiate participation and find their own way within the school by fitting in. My investigation will explore and identify actions and activities planned by the teachers to assist students in forming relationships within the new environment. Many international students talk about communication as a barrier and an inhibitor in developing relationships with English-speaking students and teachers (Li, 2004; Reeves, 2006).

2.5.3 Academic communication

Teachers raise English proficiency as a main issue and concern in relation to international students in the mainstream. English proficiency has been repeatedly expressed within the literature in relation to L2 speakers in mainstream classes (Brigaman, 2002; Cheng et al., 2004; Duff, 2001, 2002; Faltis & Wolfe, 1999; Li, 2004; Love & Arkoudis, 2004; Reeves, 2006; Short, 1999). As one researcher states, “students develop quickly with social language, but take longer with academic language” (Heydon, 2003, p. 471). Schleppegrell (2004) observes that students can exhibit fluent spoken English while still underperforming in basic academic reading
and writing registers. Academic communication is a challenge for the international student and the teachers working with these students.

Staff unfamiliar with the difference between conversational English and academic English can become impatient and surprised with second-language learners. The students themselves expect to perform well in the mainstream with conversational English, and become discouraged and disappointed when they experience difficulty and failure. The aspect of difficulty and difference between conversational and academic English is often referred to in studies where staff and students alike raise it when they have been unaware of the difference and disappointed with the student’s result (Gottlieb, 1999; Gunderson, 2000; Harklau, 1999; Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Miller, 2000; Robertson, Line, Jones, & Thomas, 2000; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Cummins (1984) describes classroom language as cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) and outside the classroom as basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). The general differentiation between social and academic language presented by Cummins presents a foundation for understanding why second language learners experience difficulty within academic settings while being conversationally fluent.

Students who might be confident about their conversational English are surprised to find that academic English has its own style which also needs to be mastered (Dooley, 2004). They often expect their schooling to use conversational English and when they discover it is not so they become anxious and often experience feelings of failure (Carroll & Ryan, 2005). Burke (2004) notes the consequences of decreased confidence and its impact on academic performance. International students often arrive considering themselves competent English-speakers, having experienced careful and sedately paced classrooms with “sheltered” English (Carroll, 2005). They then encounter “real” English in the new country with local accents, discipline-specific vocabulary, and the need to use English all day, every day. The challenge and associated stress may easily cause students to doubt their ability and lose confidence in their English (Carroll, 2005). Often teachers assume that because an international student is able to converse fluently in English they have native speaker-like overall language proficiency in their academic work (Cummins, 1994). The subsequent discovery of a misalignment between social fluency and academic
language proficiency can be challenging: students may feel as though they have lost their personality and sense of identity, experiencing a lack of language facility needed to express more complex thoughts (Carroll & Ryan, 2005).

Second-language learners progress through stages of proficiency development which can help teachers understand the international student who is a second-language learner. Bandscales have been developed to measure students’ language proficiency levels. These bandscales are often tied to tests of the language macroskills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. Samples of the students’ language are judged according to criteria in the bands of scales or measures. Such scales are used for varying purposes, for example, entry into institutions (for example, the International English Language Testing System – IELTS) and for diagnostic purposes. At The College, the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia (NLLIA) band scales are used, as I referred to in Chapter 1. I will now explain these bandscales in detail.

2.5.3.1 The NLLIA bandscales

Students in a natural acquisition context (Spolsky, 1989), such as in my case study, have many learner advantages. They are living in the target language environment; they travel on public transportation, go shopping, see movies, talk with other students, make phone calls and send emails in the language (Miller, 2003). However, they also face some serious challenges, such as being required to work academically in their schooling across curriculum areas which involves some specific language competence. The National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia (NLLIA) bandscales were established and are used in Queensland as a model of descriptors identifying the proficiency levels of ESL students in school contexts (McKay, Hudson, Mewton, & Guse, 2007). They are also used to identify the language proficiency levels of students for placement in schools. The levels provide descriptors of the different stages of performance in terms of the four macro-skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing (McKay et al., 2007). The scales provide teachers with ways of not only establishing proficiency levels, but of ascertaining appropriate kinds of learner support to know how to assist second-language learners.
to access the intended curriculum across the Key Learning Areas (KLAs) of English, Mathematics, Science, Humanities and Social Sciences.

The College has a policy in place which requires a minimum NLLIA bandscale level five in listening, speaking, reading and writing for all enrolling international students. Identifying the students’ proficiency level provides teachers with a reference point of what their students are capable of and the kinds of development the teachers can implement to assist their students in their language development. A descriptor of level five is of interest as it details the kinds of proficiency levels with which international students are entering the mainstream programme.

2.5.3.2 NLLIA bandscale level five: Entry point to The College

The level five descriptors construct the following profile: this is what the international students coming into The College “look like” in terms of their English language proficiency. Learners at level five are experiencing a transition towards successful learning through English. They have sufficient comprehension to understand most routine social school demands with classroom instructions and teacher/learner interactions based on instructions and procedures. These learners are able to comprehend the main ideas and understand some of the details of non-specialized conversation between native-speakers at a normal rate on familiar topics. They are able to speak within their own particular interest and ability areas and within routine areas of interaction. Level five students are able to participate effectively in social and school contexts with support. They can initiate and stage interactions using longer utterances, although these may be inaccurate. When reading they can comprehend a wide range of authentic non-technical factual texts that are not culturally loaded and comprehend more when the topic is familiar. They are beginning to comprehend beyond the literal level and get the gist of more complex and abstract texts such as technical or analytical texts on unfamiliar topics. These learners need to read at their own pace and may require time to re-read. When writing they are developing a sound knowledge of a number of text-types with related language features. They are able to write with some precision and in some detail about most common topics when writing about a holiday in a letter, about a
school excursion in the school newsletter or about an area of interest. Although their fluency and range is developing, their writing still tends to reflect the spoken mode.

These descriptors establish a developmental sequence of English-language development that teachers can use to understand their students’ English language proficiency. This information provides tools for the staff to assist the international student with their language and curriculum learning. Stages of development are relevant for placement and/or the need for additional support within the mainstream.

In summary, culture shock, forming relationships and academic communication are the three identified aspects of internationalisation identified from the literature review which are particularly relevant to the international student. I now consider the experience of staff who are integral to the operation of the institution, the smooth functioning of the school on a daily basis, and the effective internationalising of the school and its programmes.

2.6 Teachers and pedagogy for internationalisation

Teachers, as individuals, are employed under the ethos and purpose statements of the institution for which they work (Collier, 1995; Hoy & Miskel, 2008). As the workforce of a particular school, the teaching staff perform their tasks and duties following guidelines established by the governing body (Sergiovanni et al., 2004). At an internationalised school the teachers are in the forefront interacting with international students in their classes on a daily basis (Collier, 1995). Teacher attitude and engagement with the international students are pivotal in pedagogy for internationalisation (Youngs & Youngs, 2001). I have divided this section into four parts in order to canvas the key elements in the literature namely: (i) teacher attitude to international students, (ii) teachers’ cultural knowledge and cross cultural competency, (iii) teaching approaches and perceptions of students’ learning styles, and (iv) classroom communication.
2.6.1 Teacher attitude to international students

A teacher’s attitude impacts their behaviour and interactions within the school in relation to their colleagues and students (Youngs & Youngs, 2001). It has been found that a teacher’s attitude is influenced by five predictors: their general educational experience; whether they have ESL training; whether they have had previous contact with other cultures; whether they have taught ESL students before; and personality and gender (Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Mainstream teachers can have varied attitudes to ESL students. They may find ESL students to be either enriching in class or more challenging to teach which will affect their attitude towards these students (Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Within my research context I am investigating teachers’ experiences which will include their attitudes and understandings to international students. Teachers model and direct attitudes towards inclusion, equity and learning within their classes (Good & Brophy, 2000; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Teachers contribute to the internationalisation of a school through their example and attitude towards the international students.

Teacher attitudes to international students significantly affect their understanding and practice of pedagogy. In Lee and Oxelson’s (2006) study of 69 Californian teachers, teacher attitudes were affected by their capacity to speak another language. Their research suggests that teachers who speak a language other than English – and therefore have some level of intercultural proficiency – are more likely to affirm an ESL students’ home language and culture in the classroom. These findings show that teachers proficient in another language display more awareness to issues of diversity and show more interest in working with the linguistic and learning needs that extend beyond English language acquisition (Lee & Oxelson, 2006). Teachers’ positive attitudes towards the cultural and linguistic diversity of students are crucial to the progress and empowerment of the whole child (Lee & Oxelson, 2006).

In an investigation of secondary teacher attitudes towards including English language learners in mainstream classrooms in a US context, Reeves (2006) reports on teacher attitudes towards a number of key aspects relating to English language learners (ELL) in mainstream classes. These include: their inclusion in the class; attitudes towards the modification of coursework for ELLs; attitudes toward ESL professional
development; and perceptions about second language acquisition processes. She surveyed 279 high-school subject-area teachers to gauge their attitudes and perceptions. Although most teachers stated that ELL inclusion in mainstream classes created a positive educational atmosphere, more than 40% did not believe that all students benefited from this inclusion (Reeves, 2006). A large portion of teachers in the study were not happy modifying coursework for these students and preferred to give them more time to complete the work. Her findings also showed that the majority of these teachers felt inadequate when working with ELL students, yet only half of the participants indicated that they were willing to undertake professional development.

The ability to be sensitive, communicate effectively and interact with culturally diverse students within the classroom demonstrates the attitude of a teacher who is aware of cultural difference and shows understanding and knowledge and puts it into practice. Exploring teacher attitudes and responses to working with other languages and cultures will provide insight into the level of commitment and intercultural competence of the staff. The relationship between teacher attitudes, beliefs and practices is a significant one (Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Reeves, 2006). In relation to my investigation, teacher attitude towards the international students will be influenced by their cultural knowledge and cross cultural competency.

### 2.6.2 Teachers’ cultural knowledge and cross cultural competency

Teachers’ attitudes may be influenced by their knowledge and understandings (Louie, 2005). Carrasquillo and Rodriguez (1996) suggest, many mainstream teachers have not developed the knowledge base required to teach culturally and linguistically diverse students, and therefore are unable to fully engage and assist all learners. Internationalising a school includes providing social contexts where staff can construct cultural knowledge and build cross cultural competency – where staff are aware and can work effectively with diverse students. Cultural knowledge refers to acknowledging and understanding difference and diversity, as well as knowing about diverse cultural norms and values (Brigaman, 2002). Cross cultural competency refers to being able to successfully communicate and interact with
people of other cultures, displaying emotional competence and cross cultural sensitivity by being able to interpret another way of life and explain it to those who live in a different culture (Fantini, 2000). Within the investigation cultural knowledge provides the awareness and understanding of cultural diversity, where cross cultural competency goes beyond awareness and understanding and is the action of interacting and becoming involved with culturally diverse people, in this case, within a mainstream school. Educators face the daily challenge of responding to the learning needs of all their students. These diverse needs include cultural and linguistic needs (Tangen, Bland, Spooner-Lane, Segley, Mergler, Mercer & Curtis, 2008). The experience of working with students from different backgrounds increases teacher’s knowledge as well as that of their students, building on their cultural knowledge and cross cultural competency (Louie, 2005).

Apart from the daily experience of working with diverse students, professional development pertaining to working with international students within the mainstream also increases teacher’s knowledge (O’Byrne, 2001). Love and Arkoudis (2004), who investigated a professional development situation in a research project conducted in Australia with mainstream high school teachers, note that these teachers were unaware of the support they needed or of the resources to which they have access. The researchers also identified unwillingness on the part of some teachers to change their practice in response to international students, taking the position that it was not their responsibility to “re-learn” how to teach, but rather the role of international students to change and fit in. Youngs and Youngs (2001) in their research focusing on ESL learners, state that:

…the more pre-service and in-service teachers are exposed to diversity through foreign language courses, courses in multicultural education, ESL training, and work with culturally diverse ESL students, the more positive teachers are likely to be about working with ESL students. (p. 117)

Youngs and Youngs link professional development, cultural knowledge, cross cultural competency and teacher attitude towards ESL students as international students together. The staff accounts collected in the course of my research will
provide information about staff-members’ cultural and cross cultural knowledge and proficiency as a way to view their experience of internationalisation.

Staff who have little knowledge of students’ cultures often fail to notice important cues and details concerning international students (Gunderson, 2000). These factors may provide important information when a school internationalises. Faltis and Wolfe (1999) maintain that negative expectations are frequently held by teachers who have no knowledge of the culture of the students they teach. The researchers develop the argument further by providing evidence of typical expectations of staff in Western educational communities, such as expecting students to hold eye contact when spoken to, to actively engage in small group discussions, to self-nominate to speak, to ask questions to clarify understanding and to participate actively in class. If students fail to meet the expectations noted by Faltis and Wolfe (1999) and confirmed by Li (2004), staff may perceive them to be disrespectful, inattentive or lacking in academic ability.

Researchers in the field of internationalisation report that international students often feel that teachers do not have knowledge of their history (Collier, 1995; Li, 2004; Love & Arkoudis, 2004). Robertson, Line, Jones and Thomas (2000), who conducted research at an Australian university involving 31 staff and 38 international students, report a lack of awareness and understanding of the international students by the university staff. These researchers conclude that staff need to get to know their students. Background information relating to international students is vital in assisting with their education. The detail of international student background information requested on application and gathered during the enrolment process is one indicator of the way a school approaches internationalisation. Staff acquainted and familiar with their students are more likely to engage each individual meaningfully in the educational experience. Teachers engage students by establishing closer rapport and building stronger relationships with their students (Carroll & Ryan, 2005; Derwing et al., 1999; Tangen et al., 2008). Teachers who engage their students are less likely to treat international students as deficient and limited in relation to mainstream schooling (Duff, 2002).
Teachers with cultural knowledge and awareness are more likely to actively involve their international students in the learning process. In her investigation of three American social studies teachers with no ESL training, Short (1999) notes schools and teachers need to understand, value and respect ESL students’ cultural heritage and include these students as part of the educational process. The benefits of schools and teachers including ESL students’ cultural heritage are evident in improved cultural knowledge, effective cross cultural competency and more positive attitudes for staff and students engaged in internationalisation. Short (1999) concludes that teachers require specific professional development, curriculum materials and support to work effectively with ESL students. The teachers in her study found ESL focused support assisted them to build on their existing cultural knowledge and reflect on their practice to further assist second language learners. Gottlieb (1999) supports Short’s argument, emphasising the importance of the teachers acknowledging and developing knowledge of the student’s culture, customs and values, and experiences. Knowledge and understanding of all students leads to better communication and learning. Miller (2000), in an Australian study of three international high school students, contends that cultural knowledge strengthens the learning community and fosters a positive climate where active engagement and learning can take place with differences included, treated as equitable and used in a productive, enhancing way, instead of resulting in discrimination.

In my research, the kind of cultural knowledge and cross cultural competency acknowledged as important in the literature will be investigated via questionnaires, interviews and focus group sessions with students and staff. I will examine what is understood as effective internationalisation. Teachers with cultural knowledge and cross cultural competency are more likely to engage in effective pedagogy through integrating different modes of teaching and learning. Implementing effective pedagogy involves knowledge of their students (Gibbons, 2006), which results in culturally and linguistically responsible pedagogy. Cultural awareness, knowledge and experience working with cultural diversity help to promote positive attitudes and increase pedagogical proficiency when working with international students (Duff, 2002; Li, 2004).
2.6.3 Teaching approaches and perceptions of students’ learning styles

Teachers who practise effective pedagogy have a knowledge and understanding of their student as a learner and, within the context of internationalisation, specifically as an international student learner (Carroll & Ryan, 2005). The literature relating to internationalisation identifies culturally and linguistically responsible pedagogy as addressing the individual needs of students through the creation and maintenance of a classroom climate where all students feel safe, supported and secure in terms of their academic achievements, as well as their personal growth (Tangen & Mergler, 2008). The manner in which the teacher conducts their classroom reveals their teaching approach and their understanding of their learner. In order to plan their teaching approach, teachers need to engage actively in the life of their student, in order to understand, to value and to have reasonable expectations of their students.

One important pedagogic principle relates to teachers’ understanding a student’s learning style, that is the student’s preferred way of receiving and processing information. This helps the teacher in assisting the learner to utilise appropriate learning strategies. Inappropriate pedagogical expectations of, and beliefs about, students’ learning can lead teachers to make assumptions which are unhelpful in the learning process. According to Kember (2000), Western teachers can hold generalisations about the perceived “Asian” (regional reference) learning styles, which include perceptions that Asian students rely on rote learning with a surface approach, are passive and unwilling to participate in class discussions, resist teaching innovations, are largely extrinsically motivated (in an implicitly negative sense), have high levels of achievement motivation, are high achievers, are good at project work, are only wanting to interact with others from similar backgrounds, and are willing to invest in education (Carroll & Ryan, 2005). There may well be misalignments and contradictions in terms of previous learning models for some students.

The international student may come from learning environments in which memorisation and accurate reproduction are praised and hugely rewarded (Flaitz, 2003; Kember, 2000; O’Byrne, 2001) and there is less interaction. Kember (2000) notes in the course of his research that students, on the contrary, first try to grasp the
new concept before committing the concept to memory and then proceed to the next concept, establishing that Asian students use memorisation in conjunction with understanding to build a deep awareness. In addition, Kember (2000) observes Asian students need:

- time to adapt to new forms of instruction;
- steps to ease the transition process; and
- clear and explicit directions on what is expected of them.

Teachers need to be mindful and take into consideration students’ different learning styles and preferences, and cultural experience without forming generalisations (Janssen, Palza-Rink, & Holcombe, 2003). Students as individuals differ in their learning by their achievement, gender, age, socialisation preferences, emotional preferences, perceptual processes and processing style (Dunn & Honigsfeld, 2009). Research (Dunn & Dunn, 1992a, 1992b; Dunn & Honigsfeld, 2009) also explores students’ preferred learning styles, finding that students differ in terms of their response to three key dimensions of learning – environment, physical stimuli, and structure and support.

According to Brophy (2004), the concept of learning styles has three major implications for teachers. First, it reminds the teacher to regularly vary teaching approaches since no instructional approach will be preferred by all students; effective teachers use a variety of instructional strategies to reach different instructional goals. Second, awareness of learning styles can increase the teacher’s sensitivity to differences in their students, increasing the likelihood of the teacher responding to the students as individuals. Third, teachers are more inclined to encourage students to reflect on and understand their own learning when they themselves understand the diversity associated with the learning process. Through the understanding of the learning process, students develop metacognition, that is, awareness of the ways they learn most effectively and their ability to control these factors (Martinez, 2006).

Apart from understanding students’ learning styles and preferences, another important pedagogical principle relates to interactive teaching (Eggen & Kauchak, 2007). Implementing interactive teaching allows students opportunities to actively try out their developing ideas. Interactive teaching refers to active participation by
the teacher and students where both learn and direct the learning; it is a dialogic model of pedagogy (Eggen & Kauchak, 2007). Many researchers identify the need for the international student to be actively engaged in the learning process (Harklau, 1999; Love & Arkoudis, 2004; Verplaetse, 1998). My research focuses on pedagogical activities implemented in the classroom by the teachers for their students.

My study will investigate the expectations and beliefs of the staff regarding the international students through their explanations and planned activities. The approach to their teaching the teachers practice at The College will reflect their understanding of their international students and the manner in which they expect these students to learn. The pedagogical approach within the classroom directly links to the patterns of classroom interaction and communication.

2.6.4 Classroom communication

Studies by Dooley (2004), Harklau (1999), Park (2002) and Verplaetse (1998) show that talk in the classroom is a core element of pedagogy. Teacher talk is important for all students, and especially for international students, where a good teacher meets and provides the necessary support for all individual students (Duff, 2002). Effective use of talk – in terms of both teachers and students – results in benefits for all members of the class (Park, 2002).

Excessive teacher talk and the assumption by teachers that they are protecting ESL speakers from embarrassment by not expecting them to talk in class limit the interaction and contribution by these students. In Harklau’s (1999) in-depth case study of four immigrant students in a Californian high school, all four students report problems with an excess of teacher talk in secondary classrooms which causes them considerable frustration. The students, apprehensive about their English competence saw their participation as limited by teachers who did not want to embarrass them in front of their peers. The teachers seemed to be overtly sensitive to the students’ English competence by not asking the students questions in front of the class or requesting their active participation (Harklau, 1999; Verplaetse, 1998). Verplaetse’s
(1998) notes that teachers gave more directives to their ESL students, but asked fewer questions of them than of their English proficient (EP) students. From this she concludes that ESL students had fewer opportunities for verbal interaction. Researchers suggest that co-operative learning – students working together – would ensure that the students could interact and contribute more within the classroom using “buddying” or small group work where students are expected to negotiate meanings and produce work generated as a team (Dooley, 2004; Harklau, 1999).

Mainstream teachers often have limited or no experience in either second-language teaching and learning or in how to construct an effective classroom speech community (Li, 2004; Love & Arkoudis, 2004). Standing in front of a class and following a teacher talk model often disadvantages international students – as well as all students (Li, 2004). Studies have shown that ESL speakers in the mainstream overall have little opportunity to speak English within the classroom as there is a great deal of teacher-directed classroom practice (Duff, 2002; Park, 2002). Characteristics of effective classroom language use have been identified in the literature. Dooley (2004), and Jacobsen, Eggen and Kauchak (2009), for example, note that teachers need to:

- use clear speech;
- reduce their speaking speed;
- simplify the vocabulary;
- use small-group activities to increase opportunities for students to use and practise English;
- relate new vocabulary to first-language terms;
- encourage writing and reading through creative and interactive tasks;
- make use of repetitions and pauses; and
- support their teaching using nonverbal cues such as pictures, demonstrations and hand gestures.

Creating an understanding of the classroom communication at The College is important to my investigation and will contribute to an understanding of the pedagogy implemented – or not – for internationalisation. Linking to classroom communication are teachers’ approaches to student learning styles. The method of teaching used is based on the teacher’s understanding of how their students learn or
how they expect them to learn. Identifying what teaching methods and approaches teachers utilise at The College will be a core element of my research, as well as their account of students in class will provide insights into how they understand international students as learners. Identifying the staff attitudes and knowledge base relative to cultural knowledge and intercultural competence will assist in understanding the extent to which staff are able and prepared to work with students as part of the internationalisation programme within the school.

2.7 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have highlighted key points from existing research about internationalisation at schools that documents international student and staff experiences. Much ground work is required before international students arrive. A careful management of plans and processes needs to be implemented and directed by the school administration. I have outlined the legal requirements for enrolling international students and the need for school policy relating to internationalisation. The literature indicates the importance of the school administration in the creation of an internationalised school climate. The points raised in the literature highlight the importance of establishing the institutional conditions that contextualise teaching in a school that has internationalised.

Little research evidence has been tabled in terms of investigating the school management responses to the processes and procedures instituted for international students, both in terms of operation and accountability as it impacts on pedagogy for internationalisation. I am interested in examining the commitment, involvement and provision by the administrative officers at The College in contextualising pedagogy for internationalisation. My study will involve identifying which services are made available to international students and teachers in the school, establishing the level of commitment of the school administration to teaching and learning by examining available documentation, and analysing the data collected from individual interviews and focus groups. Determining the processes and procedures that international students undergo when enrolling in The College, as well as the nature of their
ongoing care, will contribute to understanding the pedagogical responses to internationalisation and how the teaching staff experience internationalisation.

Of particular interest for this investigation and its focus on teachers and their experience of internationalisation are the three difficulties which international students face namely, culture shock, the need to form social and academic relationships, and academic literacy and communication, which require students to produce academic English.

I have discussed the role of the teaching staff in the internationalisation of a school. Within the literature, teachers’ roles and responsibilities were formulated in terms of attitude, cultural knowledge and cross cultural competency, as well as pedagogical knowledge and practice.

The research studies presented in my literature review focus on aspects of internationalisation within an institution, where none intentionally focused on the whole school context of pedagogical responses to internationalisation at a faith-based secondary school. My investigation focuses on the gap – where I will report on the pedagogical experiences of internationalisation at The College as a faith-based secondary school. My study will result in a detailed interpretation of the accounts provided by the participants. The next chapter presents the theories framing the investigation.
Chapter 3: Conceptual framework: Second language teaching and learning

3.1 Introduction

The focus of my study is to understand the pedagogical responses to internationalisation at a faith-based secondary school in Australia, looking at teachers’ representations. This chapter is an overview of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that guide the investigation. The majority of international students are English second language (ESL) learners, so second language acquisition (SLA) theory forms part of the conceptual framework of this research. Specifically, the challenges involved in the use of English as a second language in mainstream classrooms, the performance of identity using a second language, academic literacy and educational opportunities also forms part of the conceptual framework of my study.

As stated earlier I am using a social constructivist approach which provides the perspective that meaning is being built from the data gathered from the participants about their understanding of their lived experiences. This approach involves interpreting the participants’ accounts and framing them within the conceptual framework (Creswell, 2009). This interpretation factors in social considerations as I am using the participants’ words and life experiences to answer key questions about the institution’s and teachers’ responses to changes within the school. Speakers constantly construct and re-construct understandings regarding everything they experience in their social context (Barron & Zeegers, 2006). These understandings are shared with others through accounts – articulated accounts which build representations of what the individual knows, believes and values in relation to a topic (Smith & Sparkes, 2008).

Some researchers use the word “perceptions”. Within my investigation, however, I am choosing to use the word “representations” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Sarantakos, 2005). The word “perceptions” is unhelpful in this study as I cannot actually enter
the minds of others in order to know what they are perceiving. I am, however, able to listen to and record the language participants use to describe their understandings and to notice how meaning is created, organised and expressed through their accounts (Bruner, 2002). Social constructivism provides useful insights into the active making of meaning in different contexts (Smith & Sparkes, 2008). I share the same understanding as Esterberg (2002): “language conveys meaning and…what is said” (p. 181). This study takes the shared accounts of the participants – teachers, administrators and international students – and describes and interprets their representations of the teachers’ experience of internationalisation. Representations offered by the participants provide insights into the culture of the institution, as well as contributing to the shaping of it, and the culture of the school contributes to these representations.

How teachers in my investigation talk about international students and what representations they present of these students reflects their understanding, knowledge, values, experiences, linguistic resources and other relevant indexes (Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Representations can be applied to make meaning of actions and phenomena (Palfreyman, 2005) and these are often not based on facts but on stereotypes (Palfreyman, 2005). Holliday (2003) shows how the “us” and “them” representation within an educational setting works to position teachers as the “hosts”, “locals”, “civilised” and “insiders” who assist students – often Asian students – who are perceived to lack the autonomy and critical thinking capacity seen as necessary for effective learning. As Holliday, Hyde and Kullman (2004) comment, through these representations which construct both people and phenomena, individuals can be reduced or formed to be less or more than they are.

According to Derrida (1982), Western culture has built distinctions of inclusion and exclusion of individuals within social contexts, and notions of “difference”, “presence” and “absence” are central to these distinctions (Derrida, 1982, p. 213). Representations are often characterised by their inclusions and exclusions within a community; by language which often depends on presences and absences. Gergen (1999) states:
to make sense in language is to speak in terms of presences, what is designated, against a backdrop of absences...the presences are privileged; they are brought into focus by the words themselves; the absences may only be there by implication; or we may simply forget them altogether. But take careful note: these presences would not make sense without the absences. (p. 27)

The issue of presence, silences and absences from the data will be of interest in the analysis of my research when considering teachers’ commentaries on teaching and learning for internationalisation. “Good teachers make good choices, and good choices are grounded in theory” (Reiss, 2008, p. 4) and theory is traceable in how teachers talk about what they do. Good teachers are effective in their profession through what they are, know and do. My study investigates what the teachers in this research know and do – according to their own understandings.

3.2 Effective pedagogy

In this section I present the role of an effective teacher as my research is of a secondary school investigating the internationalisation experiences of teachers. I then present theories of pedagogy, providing an understanding of different teaching approaches, and put forward a continuum for movement between different teaching approaches. Identifying and interpreting the way teachers and international students represent their experiences at The College will identify the pedagogy practised and managed at the school and in turn will link to the theory on SLA. In terms of practice, effective teaching is determined by each individual teacher’s knowledge base and understanding about what they and their learners do. Their actions, expectations, motivations, values, knowledge and pedagogic practice both determine and demonstrate how effective they are.

There is a vast body of literature on the subject of effective teaching. There are many long and detailed lists of what effective teachers essentially are, know and do (Borich, 1996; Dalton, 2008; Fairhurst & Fairhurst, 1995; Hanna, 2004; Killen, 2007; Muijs, 2005; Tileston, 2004). Particularly convincing is the work of West
(1998), Grant and Gillette (2006) and Borich (2011). West (1998) and Grant and Gillette (2006) provide detailed accounts of effective teaching with native-speaking students. The principles are equally applicable, however, to contexts where teachers are working with students who are not native-speakers, as argued by Borich (2011). For my purposes, I have synthesised the work of these authors into six key points about effective teaching, centred on the principles provided by West (1998, p. 776).

1. Effective teachers are able to establish authentic relationships with students, which are built positively through getting to know the students and allowing the students to get to know the teacher, through the teaching and learning activities that are relevant to both individuals (West, 1998). This implies a knowledge of communication and an ethic of caring for teachers to build authentic relationships with their students (Borich, 2011; Grant & Gillette, 2006).

2. Effective teachers are able to maintain appropriate boundaries and expectations for students to learn and function within, believing that all students can succeed and achieve in life; they also see themselves as advocates for their students (West, 1998). This requires a knowledge of cultures and classroom interactions by the teacher (Borich, 2011; Grant & Gillette, 2006).

3. Effective teachers are able to draw on a repertoire of teaching approaches as students have different learning styles and different needs in terms of their knowledge and skills, and so are able to link everything together through content delivery within a smooth-running classroom (West, 1998). Effective teachers achieve smooth-running classrooms through a knowledge of teaching, learning and assessing what students can do, pedagogical skills, technology, the community, and management skills in arranging successful learning environments resulting in sound pedagogy (Grant & Gillette, 2006).

4. Effective teachers are able to engage in classroom level curriculum development, where strategies for differentiating the curriculum require
knowledge of organisation, curricular content and presentation of subject matter, making it understandable and applicable to others (West, 1998). Overall, it involves knowledge of curricular content and differentiated learning (Borich, 2011; Grant & Gillette, 2006).

5. Effective teachers are able to evaluate their own teaching through introspective and reflective analysis in terms of beliefs, bias and prejudices (West, 1998). This requires a knowledge of self, and a capacity to reflect on personal educational philosophy and competence, together with critical reflective skills through open-mindedness (Borich, 2011; Grant & Gillette, 2006).

6. Effective teachers are able to talk with each other about pedagogy, spending time collaborating in planning and implementing learning experiences that meet the needs of students (West, 1998). To meet students’ needs requires knowledge of collaboration, planning and evaluating skills (Borich, 2011; Grant & Gillette, 2006).

To be an effective teacher is a lifelong and multi-faceted process. Miller (1998) found that teachers who teach for understanding assume the roles of child developers, coaches, guides, advocates, and critics, thereby creating environments where students are enabled to achieve their best work. Communicative interactions are part of pedagogic interactions (Pedro, 1981). A knowledge of and capacity for effective communication is essential for teachers to be effective within their work, both inside and outside the classroom.

Effective teachers assist their students to “become independent and self-regulated learners” (Arends, 2009, p. 18) and teachers’ practice is greatly influenced by their understanding and knowledge of what teaching and learning involves – that is, their model of pedagogy and what they expect from their students as learners (Carroll & Ryan, 2005). A teacher’s assumptions and beliefs about language learning and the position of the minority learner in the mainstream class – as is the case in my investigation – inform their pedagogy (Gibbons, 2006).
3.3 Pedagogical theories

There are different generic theories of pedagogy; however, within the context of my research, I will focus on two key pedagogical theories when considering representations of international students in class: the transmission theory and the social constructivist theory. These two theories can be understood as positioned at opposite ends of a continuum of teaching practice, acknowledging that no teacher’s practice operates from a fixed point upon any such continuum. There is always movement between theories and approaches in individual practice.

3.3.1 Theory of transmission/traditional pedagogy

The first theory of pedagogy, transmission pedagogy theory, emphasises the teacher as the authority or executive (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2004) and it still operates in many classrooms today. This theory presents the teacher as the expert charged with bringing about certain outcomes, with the student in novice role. The teacher is the expert in the subject, who through careful time management, planning, resources, assessment and instructional effort, enables the student to acquire the necessary knowledge (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2004). Freire (1983) calls transmission pedagogy the “banking” model, as teachers “deposit” skills into the empty knowledge banks of their students.

Within transmission pedagogy, the teacher is transmitting a body of knowledge and the student is receiving this knowledge (Gibbons, 2002), and language is the tool primarily used to effect this transaction. A significant characteristic of transmission pedagogy is that learning and development are seen as identical (Gibbons, 2006); students are presented with the knowledge and are required to reproduce it. Methods used in this theory include expository teaching, corrective feedback, reinforcement, regulated use of wait time, highly structured curriculum, elaborately scripted lesson plans and rigorous testing (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2004). Gibbons (2006) notes that in traditional pedagogy there is a high level of teacher management. Learning is seen as building skills from simple to complex, and the process is totally teacher controlled and led. The subject matter is strongly bounded by the teacher who directs
the learning path (Morgan & Morris, 1999). Memorisation and repetition are the building blocks for this type of teaching, and there is limited active student involvement, or collaboration in the making of knowledge. Negotiation between the teacher and student is minimal, and communication is seen only as the transfer of information, with language as the vehicle – language which must first be taught and then used (Gibbons, 2006).

Teachers adopting this model of teaching often stand in front of the class and talk, instructing the whole class at the same time. While the teacher talks, the students remain silent and listen (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2004). The teacher uses the board in front or some other technology such as PowerPoint, to illustrate points or a book to which the student refers. Teachers often see this way of teaching as the most effective way to maximize the use of class time with careful classroom management. The lesson is clear-cut, the teacher presents the topic or information and the students are assessed and graded according to their reproduction of the information and content (Diaz-Rico, 2004). Teachers tend to use closed questions to establish whether students know the facts which have already been presented. Cazden (2001) refers to the type of questioning in traditional pedagogy as “display” questioning; the teacher already knows the answer and is either testing the students’ knowledge or getting students to participate in the lesson. The interactive patterns within the mode of question-and-answer present as a three-part sequence: the teacher initiates the sequence followed by a student response which is rounded off by teacher evaluation or feedback (initiation, response and evaluation – IRE) (Cazden, 2001). The questions directed by the teacher to the students anticipate that the students will be able to re-tell the information given by the teacher initially. The role of the teacher can be seen as that of information provider, controller, assessor and organiser (Harmer, 1991).

Within this pedagogical model, students have a clear framework for understanding how much effort is needed on their part; the expected rewards are clear and obvious. Grades play an integral role in traditional pedagogy as they “report back” as a measure of student effort, willingness and capacity to “learn”. The curriculum is structured and controlled, with the teacher or another authority determining what is valuable. Students are expected to be passive learners who learn via listening to all
the teacher has to say; they are expected to accept the teacher’s word as “truth”. Discussions around pedagogy acknowledge the value of the traditional approach in some situations and for some purposes; many teachers still utilize this theory, particularly in examination and revision settings. The theory for traditional pedagogy has been widely critiqued (Diaz-Rico, 2004; Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2004), but has its place in some contexts. It is useful, for example, for the direct conveyance of facts and organised routines of set procedures and for reviewing points, revising elements and facts (Cazden, 2001). This first theory describes a pedagogy that is teacher-driven and directed. The second theory provides a view of teaching which is different in a number of key ways.

3.3.2 Social constructivist theory or student-centred learning

The social constructivist theory of pedagogy aligns with social constructivism and is widely recognised in Western contexts as delivering more substantive educational learning outcomes (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2004). This theory emphasises the relationship between learning, activity and agency, social context and social relationships, which promote second language acquisition (Gibbons, 2002). Learning is viewed as a social and cognitive process occurring in a context where skills are developed through engaging and participating in social and cognitive activity with a skilled individual (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2004). The “skilled individual” may be the teacher who actively engages with the student; it may equally come in the shape of input from another source, or interaction with peers. Initial participation by the learner is limited, but increasing responsibility for knowledge construction is taken by the learner as understanding grows. Students’ prior experiences are highly valued in the social constructivist approach to learning, with the teacher assisting learners to link prior knowledge with the new knowledge being presented (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2004).

The social constructivist theory of pedagogy allows teachers to facilitate student engagement in activities which enable them to learn actively and increasingly independently. This perspective acknowledges that students have knowledge and experience which may not be the same as that offered in the formal school.
curriculum; this is knowledge they have gained from their own social worlds (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2004). The teacher and student’s previous understanding affects the way in which they engage, in the patterns and shapes of their interactions, through which learning topics are established and then presented in ways that enable the students to build on their prior knowledge. The role of the teacher in social constructivist theory is as prompter, participant, resource, tutor and investigator (Harmer, 1991). Enquiry is fostered and there is provision of quality materials and a stimulating learning environment (Gibbons, 2006). The theory emphasises student enquiry, in the belief that learning will develop naturally and spontaneously with language as one of the outcomes (Gibbons, 2006). Talk between the student and teacher is seen as important as the interaction is understood to impact significantly on learning (Gibbons, 2006). Many of the views inherent in this approach to teaching and learning derive from the work of Vygotsky (1978), who argued that an individual’s higher cognitive thought has a social beginning. He defines language as the root of learning whereby children’s learning is clearly established through the understanding of the language, behaviour, attitudes and thought defined by the social practices of the society in which they live (Vygotsky, 1978).

Using Vygotsky’s work Luria (1976), states that all fundamental cognitive activities take shape in a matrix of social history and form the products of socio-historical development. Patterns of thinking and cognitive skills are not firmly predicted by inborn factors, but rather by the results of practised activities from within the social associations of the society in which the individual is reared (Thomas, 1993). The history of the society within which a child is raised, and the individual history of the child are important factors contributing to the way in which that individual will think (Thomas, 1993). In the process of cognitive development, language is an important means influencing how the child learns to think (Thomas, 1993).

A central point in Vygotsky’s (1978) theory is the so-called Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), in which the teacher is the guide and the student is the active learner, being stimulated, guided and scaffolded. Scaffolding is a defining characteristic of this approach to teaching. Hammond (2001) and Gibbons (2002), working in the area of ESL students in mainstream classrooms, describe the process of scaffolding as teachers providing temporary supporting structures to assist learners...
to develop new understandings, abilities and concepts. As the learner develops competence, the teacher withdraws support only to provide more support for extending, or for new tasks, concepts and understandings. Here the teacher and the student are understood as co-learners, using and developing higher learning and problem-solving skills.

An example of the social constructivist pedagogical theory in action is when a teacher introduces a specific skill or concept through a learning experience, discussing and then broadening the subject within class discussion. The teacher still asks questions within this model of teaching. However, there are different kinds of questions, being open-ended and stimulating; and the learners’ subsequent responses are also different; neither the student responses nor ensuing teacher turns correspond with the IRE structure from the traditional model of teaching (Cazden, 2001). Cazden (2001) states that teachers within the social constructivist theory of pedagogy acknowledge alternative student responses and request other ideas from the students who then provide sustaining grounds for their responses. Teachers practising this approach understand the progress of student comprehension and realise the quandary of the tension between respecting student reason and teaching conventional information (Cazden, 2001). The teacher and student are both understood to be learners and share in the educational experience and development. The student in social constructivist pedagogical theory is presented as a participant who engages with the information, learns independently and searches for answers through discussion of the topic with peers and teachers. The ratio of teacher talk to student talk is the reverse of that experienced in most traditional lessons (Cazden, 2001).

As stated previously, the opposite ends of the continuum on pedagogical theory have been presented to create a dynamic line along which teachers can be seen to function. Teachers teaching second-language learners will apply teaching and learning strategies using this continuum of pedagogy from traditional teaching to a constructivist pedagogical theory incorporating a wide, interdisciplinary approach (Diaz-Rico, 2004). According to Coyne, Kame’enui and Carnine (2011), diverse learners benefit from a combination of pedagogical approaches. Outlining these theories of pedagogy can assist analysis of the commentaries collected in the course
of my project, of teachers’ talking about their classroom practice and their understanding of their students as learners.

The international students enrolled at The College are mostly ESL students, a key element of their identity as students at The College. Understanding of second-language pedagogical theory and Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory is an important element of effective teaching with such students. The literature points to the need for teachers to understand key principles of these theories: what processes are involved, what support is required and what to expect in developmental terms. Understanding is important because it will lead the teachers to better practice, especially with international students.

### 3.4 Theory of second-language pedagogy

In their classes teachers may be utilising traditional and/or social constructivist principles to guide their teaching, or somewhere else along the pedagogical continuum. The addition of international students as second-language learners into mainstream classes means that teachers need knowledge and understanding of the theory of second-language pedagogy for teaching and learning. The theory of second language pedagogy includes SLA which refers to the process of gaining linguistic and cultural proficiency in a targeted non-native language (Diaz-Rico, 2004). By definition all second-language learners have already acquired one language (Lightbrown & Spada, 1993), more or less successfully. However, learning a second or additional language is a complex process which requires a teacher to have a knowledge and understanding of second language pedagogy in order to be effective. The complexity of this process is reflected in the complexity of this discipline where multiple theories about second-language learning exist. Many of these theories are of a psychological nature; however, there is now more of a social constructivist understanding about the importance of the role of input and scaffolding from others (Lantolf, 2006). Learning a language for conversational purposes is already an intense task; learning a language in order to study in that language across the curriculum involves even more significant challenges and sustained effort and requires informed pedagogical support from teachers (Selinker & Gass, 2008). For
international students becoming proficient enough to work academically in English poses challenges which can be intimidating and cause anxiety.

The body of literature on SLA is vast and continuously evolving. For the purpose of my investigation, I will refer primarily to the work of Krashen (1987). His five hypotheses (1987, p. 4) about SLA provide a framework which is still widely used in reference to L2 acquisition (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). The five hypotheses relating to the process of second language acquisition which he identified as significant for teaching and learning are summarized briefly below.

1. Krashen makes a distinction between language acquisition and learning: language acquisition is the subconscious process whereby the language acquirer is using the language naturally for communication – for example, coming into first language in the home. Language learning, on the other hand, is the process of consciously learning language: studying and becoming conversant with the rules of the language – such as the grammar and conventions of usage. Krashen argues that acquisition is more effective than learning, but this view has been rejected by researchers such as Spada (2007) who maintain that explicit focus on form is a necessary part of second language teaching.

2. Krashen proposed what he termed the natural order hypothesis: that grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order; that certain grammatical structures or morphemes are acquired before others; that this natural order resists attempts to “teach” language in orders selected by teachers. In the developmental process, it is inevitable – and appropriate – for errors to occur in the use of the developing language as this is part of the process.

3. Krashen also proposed a monitor hypothesis, when thinking about the difference between natural language acquisition and the learning of language via explicit teaching. While acquisition leads to fluency, the usefulness of conscious-attention learning is rather to function as a “monitor” or “editor” that can notice how the language is “working”, make changes or confirm
utterances before or after they are made. The monitoring process, Krashen suggests, is only useful when the learner has sufficient time to focus on form and knows the rules to apply.

4. Central to Krashen’s work is the input hypothesis, which has to do with acquisition rather than learning. He argued the critical importance in the process of acquisition of sufficient language input – input which is comprehensible; that is, it can be made meaningful by the learner. For meaning-making to take place, the input must be comprehensible, even though it involves new language and further development. The optimum input, therefore, is just above the learner’s current level of proficiency, but it is made comprehensible via various forms of support – context, existing knowledge and extra-linguistic information. The ability to speak fluently emerges from this process of continuing comprehensible input rather than from being intentionally taught.

5. The last of the key five hypotheses is that of the existence of an affective filter, a mental or psychological element which can either facilitate or impede processing of the input. This hypothesis reflects the understanding that affective factors are connected to and directly influence the SLA process. Krashen emphasises the importance of affect in the acquisition process, noting that mental or emotional blocks impede language acquirers from understanding input. He conceptualises this impediment as a form of cognitive or emotional filter, blocking the smooth flow of the input. He emphasises the three key affective variables related to SLA and relevant to the concept of affective filter: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. High motivation and good self-image are conducive to successful acquisition; anxiety is not.

The hypotheses relating to successful language acquisition and learning have significant implications for second language pedagogy. The first hypothesis, which notes the distinction between acquisition and learning of language, has clear implications for classroom-based teaching of language and support for L2 learners in mainstream classrooms and is relevant to this investigation. The international
students in my study need input in relation to conscious attention to form – the “learning” of English – the rules and grammar of English. They also need explicit induction into the rules of academic writing and literacy, given that academic genres in Australian schooling may be different to what they have learned in their home situations. Like all L2 learners, the students also follow the natural developmental processes of learning grammatical structures and language forms as they experience input and turn it into output. They work through the various stages of acquisition, making appropriate mistakes at each stage, and it is important that teachers working with them are aware of this predictable developmental order of acquisition.

Krashen’s third hypothesis, relating to the monitoring function of language learning – the editing and correcting of utterances before and after they are made with the purpose of building fluency and accuracy – has other implications in terms of teaching and learning support. Students need time and support in the necessary processes of writing, editing and reworking language tasks in order to construct meaning.

The fourth of Krashen’s hypotheses, relating to comprehensible input, is also important for teachers to consider. They need to understand the key features of comprehensible input: input which is “slightly above the learner’s present level of competence, interesting or relevant, not grammatically sequenced, in sufficient quantity, and experienced in low-anxiety contexts” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 23). Comprehensible input links with Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development and scaffolding as defined in section 3.3.2.

Krashen’s research has been most influential in relation to communicative approaches to teaching. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is an umbrella term referring to the range of methodologies which place communication and interaction at the core of language teaching and learning; approaches where language is recognised as having many communicative functions, and language acquisition as taking place through exposure to and use of the target language (Davies & Pearse, 2000). Talk is recognised as a crucial element of what happens in classrooms, contributing significantly to language development and learning, helping in the processes of meaning being made, clarified, negotiated and reworded which aligns with Vygotsky’s approach (Gibbons, 2002). Krashen’s fifth hypothesis regarding the
affective filter is also relevant. Mainstream teachers working with language learners need an awareness of affective factors impacting on student motivation, self-confidence and anxiety, where motivation in turn impacts on interest, sense of relevance, expectations and learning outcomes (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

English is both the target and the medium of learning for the international students in this investigation. All the considerations identified in ESL-related literature (Brown, 1994; Diaz-Rico, 2004; Gibbons, 1998, 2003; Saville-Troike, 1984) apply to the study context and to international students. Provision of support materials, carefully structured interactions, repetition, scaffolding, message abundancy (Gibbons, 2003) these are some of the ways teachers can support students. Part of the teacher’s role includes teaching students how to do and be in new academic situations which I discuss in more detail in section 3.5.

The theory of second language pedagogy presents learning a second language as involving the whole person, both cognitive and affective aspects (Diaz-Rico, 2004). As a beginner speaker, the learner is usually given allowances for mistakes. However, as the learner becomes more proficient, errors are less tolerated and negative response can result in increasing anxiety about language proficiency (Diaz-Rico, 2004). Increased anxiety over language proficiency may result in learners remaining silent in class and not participating actively. The cultural and linguistic aspects of the English language are challenging: Diaz-Rico (2004) describes the dynamic nature of the language and its usage as, “making learning English like swimming after a moving ship” (p. 30). She refers specifically to the inconsistent English spelling rules and the various combinations of idiomatic verb-participle combinations, but there are many other variations and communicative traits and idiosyncrasies which can mean that international students working with a range of teachers across curriculum areas can face some major difficulties of comprehension.

A key element identified in the literature is teachers’ knowledge of their ESL students and their background (Karathanos, 2010; Li, 2004). Knowing something about the students, their language and their previous learning experience is crucial (Cummins, 2000; Karathanos, 2010). Teachers need to acknowledge their students’
identity, experience and knowledge as this contributes to the wellbeing of their students. Students also need to affirm their own culture because culture, identity and motivation are interconnected. Teachers often expect international students to perform well in this new culture and to become a part of it (Carr, 1999). Carr (1999) highlights that teachers of ESL learners often fail to recognise that difference is not an impediment, but a basis from which to develop.

In sections 2.6.3 and 2.6.4 I presented literature about ESL pedagogy which showed two main pedagogical ideas as imperative for internationalisation, namely: teaching approaches and learning styles, and classroom communication. Consolidating and contributing to these pedagogical ideas are Scarcella’s (1990) eleven principles for teaching language minority students in the mainstream via culturally responsive education:

- knowledge of students;
- understanding of the nature of language development;
- provision of comprehensible input;
- provision of good opportunities for meaningful interaction;
- culturally sensitive and responsive pedagogy;
- provision of effective feedback;
- assessment practices which are equitable and culturally responsive;
- parental involvement in students’ learning;
- interest in and inclusion of diverse cultures;
- incorporation of students’ language and cultures;
- implementation of policies and practices to reduce prejudice or exclusion. (Scarcella, 1990, p. ix)

According to Scarcella, culturally responsive education includes the teacher having knowledge of their student and understanding SLA. The teacher practising culturally responsive education is also culturally sensitive and provides for their student by involving their parents, by including the student’s background and language into the learning to enhance learning for all students, and by following all the guidelines provided by the school to include all students in the learning.

Effective teachers understand and recognise students’ progression in the second language, are able to fairly assess their students’ understanding of the subject content and use this knowledge in their planning. They use their students’ cultural and bilingual knowledge and experience productively, and include their students’ first
language knowledge (National Association for Language Development in the Curriculum (NALDIC) (U.K.), 1999). Some of these learners are ESL students in the mainstream where teachers need an understanding of second language pedagogical theory, knowledge of teaching L2 students in the mainstream, and an understanding of their students as learners and specifically as international student learners.

3.4.1 Pedagogical theories on the good second language learner

Awareness and understanding of the theory and practice of an ESL learner promotes effective teaching by a mainstream school. Teachers’ understandings and expectations of their students are reflected in – and shaped by – the pedagogical model they adopt. Learners are expected to follow certain ways of working within each model and they are assessed against the standards of the model (Gibbons, 2006). Investigating the teachers’ experience of internationalisation includes noticing their assumptions and understandings about what a good learner is and does; more specifically, what a good international student who is operating in a second language “is” and “does”. Understanding about “good” learners aligns with the model which informs the teacher’s own teaching; the two are inextricably connected. The teacher’s pedagogical practice impacts on student behaviour and the kind of learning that happens (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2004). It impacts on the types of knowledge engaged in the classroom, the types of roles and relationships established between students and their peers and the teacher, and the nature of classroom interactions. Different pedagogical models inform teachers’ representations of their preferred classroom practices and the students they teach.

An important dimension of teacher knowledge and pedagogical practice in this research concerns understanding the language and literacy demands of the curriculum (Hammond, 2001) as well as the core challenge of developing proficiency in English. International students studying in the mainstream are working in a language which is not their mother tongue and this constitutes a significant challenge. As Hammond argues, teachers working with such students need to know how to focus on “both curriculum knowledge and on language, because in doing so, they address two sides of the one phenomenon – that of educational knowledge”
(Hammond, 2001, p. 23). Cummins (1998) notes the importance of mainstream classroom teachers teaching academic language and being prepared to take on this supporting role with their students. Gibbons (2002) suggests similarly that second-language learners “can no longer be thought of as a group apart from the mainstream – in today’s culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms, they are the mainstream” (p. 13). In this sense, all mainstream teachers, across all curriculum areas, are language teachers – teachers with the responsibility of enabling all their students to cope with the language demands of their programs. Not many mainstream teachers see themselves as language teachers a position which represents a significant shift in thinking. All mainstream teachers being language teachers is essential for the effective teaching of international students in the mainstream.

There has also been considerable work undertaken in terms of identifying characteristics of effective learners who are learning the language at the same time as they are learning curriculum content. Rubin (1987) identifies six characteristics of successful language learners which are helpful when considering how teachers in my investigation talk about their international students. According to Rubin (1987, p. 23), good language learners are willing and accurate guessers, have a strong drive to communicate and to learn from communication, are not inhibited, are prepared to attend to form within the language, practise by pronouncing words, and use opportunities to speak with native speakers. These capacities all presume confidence and positive attitudes and these are dependent on the nature of the learning environment.

Furthermore, successful L2 learners monitor their speech and the speech of others and attend to meaning within the context, relationship of participants and interaction of the speech act. They form and reform their identities within contexts and are influenced by the possibilities their communities offer them (Pitt, 2005). These factors can influence the identity of the student using a second language negatively or positively within the teaching and learning environment.
3.4.2 Theories on the identity of the good second language learner

Identities are created by individual needs for establishing social or ethnic affiliation and recognition with the target language – in this case English (Nero, 2005). Language learners create an identity of use within their communities and contexts (Pitt, 2005). House (2003) states that English, as a spoken and evolving language, is no longer exclusive to native speakers: there are now more non-native speakers of English than there are native speakers (House, 2003). It is predicted that the number will increase further as English as a lingua franca is utilised more and more (House, 2003).

Individuals using English as a second language for a specific purpose create a particular identity for themselves. This identity establishes the individual within the community they are functioning and living in. Norton and Toohey (2001) state that second-language (L2) learners invest in the language, anticipating that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will in turn enhance their understanding of themselves and provide resources for their intended futures. Such desires are a complex configuration of memories and hopes, many of which may be difficult for learners to articulate. The motivation to continue and develop this affiliation with the language group relies on the benefits that the individual gains internally and externally. These affective and emotional factors are all part of learning (Diaz-Rico, 2004). The construction of identity is often ascribed by the educational institution where students are placed in certain categories such as non-native speaker (Nero, 2005).

Many terms are used within the SLA field to describe learners of English such as English language learner (ELL), English as a second language (ESL) learner, limited English proficiency (LEP) learner, and non-native speaker (NNS), to mention a few. These terms allocate linguistic identities to students as a means of determining their placement and assessment in education. The identities place students in particular settings for language instruction and affect both the attitude of others towards the student and the student’s learning. Identity using the second language is manifested by the learner through their language use and language attitude. Students carry a
combination of identities, including a social identity as a student of language and a cultural identity as part of a specific ethnic group.

Individuals learn English for specific purposes including conducting business with other countries; accessing scientific literature or cultural heritages; and learning as part of the school curriculum, for fun or to join in with friends who are studying another language and working in other countries (Cook, 2001; Harmer, 1991). As discussed in Chapter 1, international parents often initiate, decide and provide for their children to study abroad (Gribble, 2008; Li, 2004). Sometimes the choice of learning English is for wider communication globally, advancement in a professional capacity, and access to world commerce and culture (Harmer, 1991). English is a requirement for scientific writing and reading: “few scientists can make a proper contribution to their field without having access to English, either in person or through translation of one kind or another” (Cook, 2001, p. 165). English as a lingua franca is used as a contact language between people who do not have a common native tongue or a common national culture (House, 2003). Teachers knowing the reason(s) for motivation for their international student’s participation in the mainstream provides further understanding by the staff.

SLA learners are most effective when they know their aptitude and when they acknowledge their own culture (Diaz-Rico, 2004). They are able to expand their cultural catalogue through this experience by enriching their educational experience (Diaz-Rico, 2004). It is argued that by being aware of their abilities and understandings, learners are able to build a strong identity by being able to reach their desired goals. Identities can change and develop as the learner succeeds and develops in their language use. Critical to identity and positioning in classrooms is the teacher. Identity then relates to individual factors as well as social ones. The influence of the teacher and peers on the second-language learner and their educational experience is crucial. The implications of international study and the choice of English as an additional language impact on student identity in many ways. As shown in section 2.5.3, researchers identify academic genres and language competence as requiring careful and explicit teaching and support for language learners who have to learn how to participate in academic English (McKay, 2006).
3.4.3 Pedagogical theories of academic English/literacy

The use of English and the identity of international students within the pedagogical environment are impacted by their level of language proficiency and their ability with academic English. Academic English proficiency refers to the student’s ability to “understand and express, in both oral and written modes, concepts and ideas that are relevant to success in school” (Cummins & Man, 2007, p. 800).

Students develop academic reading and writing skills under intentional assistance from the teacher (Cummins & Man, 2007). Extensive reading develops and extends students’ vocabulary and reading comprehension. Teachers provide the support for second-language learners by making sense of written texts transforming them into usable input and focusing the students’ attention on how the language is used (Cummins & Man, 2007). Consistency on the part of the teacher in practising this with their students will enhance their students’ academic English and literacy proficiency. Building the academic proficiency or language of school for international students involves the teacher providing opportunities in the classroom for these students to explain, describe and compare concepts (McKay, 2006).

The language of school is text, whether it is written or spoken. Teachers are involved in establishing at what calibre and rating a student is achieving for that year level (Derewianka, 1992). Academic English is context reduced and cognitively demanding (Williams, 2001). Skills needed at this level of language include inferring, problem-solving, comparing, classifying and evaluating. Academic English is an integral part of the school system. Students are expected to demonstrate competence in both spoken and written genres. International students often experience problems in terms of coping with these demands within the classroom (Tangen & Mergler, 2008). Academic genres and language competence require careful and explicit teaching and support. Learning academic genres and language competence may take from five to ten years to achieve and thus becomes a problem in secondary school where international students have attended for less than that time period (Williams, 2001).
3.5 Chapter summary

My research is focused on the pedagogical practices of internationalisation in a faith-based secondary school. Through an interpretation of the data, I present representations of the understanding of teaching and learning experiences of internationalisation at The College. To provide for the representations, this chapter has established the conceptual framework which will guide the analysis and interpretation of the data generated in the investigation. Within a school, pedagogy is the core means by which the teachers are engaged in assisting their students to learn. This chapter has provided a deeper understanding of the research question regarding teachers’ experiences of internationalisation through their engagement with pedagogical theories, especially in relation to second language acquisition and ESL pedagogy. The teachers’ representations of international students are defined by their understanding of second language pedagogy, pedagogical theories on the good second language learner and their identity, as well as the pedagogical theories of academic English/literacy. This understanding contributes to the manner in which the teachers provide and plan for these students as learners. Chapter 4 establishes and explains the research design of the study.
Chapter 4: Research design

4.1 Introduction

This is a case study of pedagogical responses to internationalisation at a faith-based secondary school in Australia. The data for the study will be provided by the participants in questionnaires, focus groups, individual interviews and documents. The research questions of this investigation are:

1. What are the institutional conditions framing pedagogical responses to internationalisation in The College?

2. How do the teachers’ represent the international students as learners?

3. How do the teachers represent their pedagogy for internationalisation?

The purpose of my research is to provide a “thick description” of pedagogical responses to internationalisation at The College. Gall, Gall and Borg (2003) describe “thick description” as a representation of the phenomenon or context which gives detailed and comprehensive depiction of the situation and context which are being investigated through constructs, themes and patterns. By constructs, these researchers mean ideas derived from studied events that are used to describe those events. My investigation aims to describe the understanding of pedagogical practice in relation to the international students by identifying the patterns, constructs and themes that characterise this context. The results of this research indicate “what” is happening, as narrated by the different participants, and theorises the situation (Neuman, 2011; Punch, 2005). “Many qualitative studies are descriptive and exploratory and they build rich descriptions of complex circumstances that are unexplored in the literature” (Marshall & Rossman, 1999, p. 33). This is a qualitative case study that assigns meaning and interpretation to how teachers experience pedagogy for internationalisation at The College.
4.2 Interpretivism and qualitative methodology

The main task of my research is to establish how teachers in this particular situation experience, understand, explain and justify their actions in regard to internationalisation. My research approach involves understanding how individuals socially construct the world around them, by what they do and through what is happening to them. Then I present my findings in terms that are meaningful and that offer rich insight into the teachers’ experience of internationalisation. Using this approach characterises my research as qualitative with an interpretivist approach. The emphasis in my investigation relies on the importance of the subjective experience of participants where “meaning and the evaluation of events was seen as a personal and subjective construction” (Burns, 2000, p. 1). My investigation focused on gathering information through qualitative methods, where as the researcher I maintained a close association with the participants (Burns, 2000; Fern, 2001). Using qualitative research has allowed me to investigate possible effects, relationships and causes within this school setting. Another characteristic of qualitative research present in my investigation relates to the research questions being about real life-world representations in particular social practices. Fern (2001) states that “life-worlds include emotions, motivations, symbols and their meanings, empathy, and other subjective aspects associated with naturally evolving lives of individuals and groups” (p. 11).

I gathered data from the participants in my case study and used these subjective and shared understandings to make meaning of internationalisation at this secondary school. Using qualitative methods I used language to define the context through my interpretation of the understandings provided by the participants. Burns (2000) recognises the human factor as a vital and important component in the interpretation of understanding. He states that a person’s opinion is so profoundly a part of every human act that “the supposed objectivity of science is, in fact, a delusion” (Burns, 2000, p. 10). Providing an interpretation of the understandings shared at The College in relation to pedagogical practices for internationalisation is the objective of my research.
Qualitative forms of investigation are inclined to be based on an understanding of the significance of the subjective, experienced life-world of people. My investigation presents as a holistic research on internationalisation at a particular time. As “reality” may not be viewed as a stable and fixed thing, this approach provides the opportunity for me to investigate what Burns (2000) refers to as deeper levels of meaning. Neuman (2011) states, “qualitative studies give data meaning, translate them, or make them understandable” (p. 177). Using an interpretivist paradigm I will attempt to understand and explain the social realities of this case. Through this paradigm, I hope to capture and render meaning to what participants say and do as a product of how they understand the events within their “world” at a particular time in a particular context (Lincoln & Guba, 1986) that shapes them and that is shaped by them (Crotty, 1998; Neuman, 2011). Using an interpretivist paradigm provides the opportunity for me to pay attention to the multiple realities and socially constructed meanings that exist among the different participants within this secondary school context.

To investigate the pedagogical practices for internationalisation within a secondary school context as a case study I will use questionnaires, focus groups, individual interviews and document analysis as multiple data sources. Through the data sources I will be able to put together a comprehensive picture of how the teachers represent internationalisation. Often the understandings of practice are interpreted and understood differently by the various people involved; therefore, gaining insight and information from the teaching staff, administration and international students will broaden the possible understandings. In this investigation I use both an emic perspective, referring to an insider’s viewpoint supplied by the participants in the form of their language, concepts and ways of expression; and an etic perspective, referring to the viewpoint of an outsider where, as the researcher, I provide an interpretation of the participants’ understanding (Creswell, 2005; Lichtman, 2010; Neuman, 2011).

In this qualitative investigation of the pedagogical practices for internationalisation, the concept of interpretivism is an important part of the research design. Interpretivism provides the process whereby the researcher interprets and provides a
version of meaning for the constructed world of individuals, what they are doing and what is happening to them, through their accounts.

4.3 Case study method

For my research I focused on the teachers at The College as my case to investigate. O’Leary (2004) supports the argument that case studies can contribute to society in positive ways through the presentation of unique, appealing or even misunderstood cases, where insight is provided into particular circumstances and experiences. The case is brought to life by supplying an in-depth description of participants’ understandings, giving the individuals voice and providing data to strengthen particular characteristics presented and highlighted (Burton & Bartlett, 2005). Case studies potentially can provide evidence to support practical suggestions for effective practice, such as those included in the guidelines and transition booklets for mainstream teachers working with international students (Queensland Independent Education Union, 2004). Case studies in education also form an acknowledgement of valuable teacher reflection on practice, supporting the field with the uniqueness of understanding and access to other practitioners in simple, disciplined ways (Cochran, 2002). Educational case studies provide understanding on issues and useful approaches as examples through the presentation of detailed continuous research.

Case studies are an ideal way to introduce a topic that could be relevant for a future major investigation (Burns, 2000). Burns (2000) states that the rich data collected and analysed through this approach can highlight issues, processes and relationships that require further investigation. Case studies can also potentially provide short-story evidence and real-life situations which can illustrate general findings, and potentially confirm, challenge or extend a theory, which adds to the potential contribution of investigating unique cases which otherwise might not be investigated (Burns, 2000; Patton, 2002). Punch (2005) identifies four necessary characteristics of a case study: a bounded system; a case of something; an attempt to keep the wholeness, unity and integrity; and multiple sources of data and collection methods set in a naturalistic setting. Punch’s four case study characteristics will guide this research as a case study.
The first characteristic of a case study is that it is a bounded system (Creswell, 2005; Punch, 2005) with set boundaries which automatically bind the investigation to one place or one theme or one topic as a representative of many other such sites or as an extremely atypical example for the focus of the research being undertaken (Burns, 2000). Luke (2002) problematises the idea of boundedness in light of the increasing technology which now blurs the traditional boundaries. He states that the most interesting problem in qualitative research is “figuring the boundaries of the local, the contextual and the ‘case’” (Luke, 2002, p. 209). The characteristics of the subjects under investigation in my study present them as a case in Australia where the site is a mainstream private school with a special faith character, under a unique educational system governed by a state body, which in turn is governed by a national body and an international body. The religious beliefs of the teachers are a key point in marking the boundedness of the subjects in relation to a particular religion, location, campus, administrative structure, school culture and external community. A further aspect of “boundedness” was that I investigated pedagogical practices for internationalisation at The College at a particular time.

The second characteristic of the case study is that it is a case of something (Punch, 2005). Something refers to a particular subject and within this investigation it was the pedagogical responses to internationalisation at this particular site. The third characteristic is that a thorough attempt should be made to keep the wholeness, unity and integrity of the case (Punch, 2005). The case study method is a way in which the data are organised to capture the unity of character of the social “thing” as experienced by the participants (Gall et al., 2003; Punch, 2005). The school in my study formed a collective case study through which I intended to learn more about pedagogy for internationalisation at this site from the teaching staff through their particular views, beliefs, understandings, aims and practices for internationalisation.

The research primarily involved the secondary teachers, as well as a sample of international students, administrative and support personnel. My aim was to obtain the involvement of as many participants as possible for their contribution in order to obtain a complete “picture” of internationalisation that allowed me to describe the experiences and understandings present within this case. Keeping a tight focus on the
questions being answered through this investigation ensured that the data were consistent and directed. The descriptions given of the case needed to be complete and well stated to include all dimensions, variables, factors and divisions interlinked into the picture as a whole (Gray, 2004). Burns (2000) maintains that the use of the case study approach allows an investigation to keep the wholeness and unity of the characteristics of real-life happenings. Investigating the pedagogical practices at The College as a case study provided a “detailed picture” of current understandings and practices regarding internationalisation.

The fourth characteristic of a case study outlined by Punch (2005) is that the case study approach uses multiple sources of data. This highlights the triangulation aspect of the case-study approach that allows different methods to be used to collect evidence. Multiple methods contribute to a well-roundedness in the sense of an in-depth, well-informed investigation which increases the validity of the research (Burns, 2000; O'Leary, 2004; Punch, 2005). Flick (2007) states that triangulation as a strategy in qualitative research promotes quality. Triangulation allows for various methods to enhance results and establish consistencies by investigating the same phenomenon (O'Leary, 2004). This mutual confirmation of results adds validation to the findings.

In my investigation, triangulation was applied through the use of multiple data generating methods – namely, questionnaires, focus groups, individual interviews and document analysis not only from the teachers, but also from the international students and administrative staff. Triangulation within qualitative research allows the “strengthening, enhancing and extension of the conceptual linkages of the data collected” (Berg, 2004, p. 6). It also provides multiple strategies and theories that increase the depth of understanding given to the topic (Berg, 2004; Denzin, 1989). Using case-study methodology for my investigation – as with any methodology – presented limitations that needed careful consideration and acknowledgement.
4.3.1 Case study limitations

Any research can be limited for the researcher when access is denied; however, through careful planning, full disclosure, rendered assistance and negotiation, researcher access can be gained (O’Leary, 2004). The exact details regarding my access and ensuing participation in this case study are included later in this chapter under the site and population sections. The issue of including all stakeholders on a site can be problematic owing to individual choice and cooperation (Punch, 2005). In my investigation cooperation was on a voluntary basis: I involved as many staff and international students as possible, although some did not wish to participate. I had already established strong relationships with individuals and this contributed positively to their cooperation. O’Leary (2004) points out that through careful planning and communication, participation may be encouraged.

A case study of the teachers’ experiences and understandings were the essence of what was being explored, described and ultimately presented in this research. As a result, individuals’ understandings were being portrayed and “exposed” as a group (O’Leary, 2004). The issue of “exposing” an individual’s representations was a limitation of this case study. Confidentiality was paramount throughout this research and participants were reassured of this.

Immersion in the investigation can be emotionally taxing on the researcher and participants, and care was taken to be considerate to all involved (O’Leary, 2004). Ensuring that the rights, values, desires and needs of all involved were taken into consideration (Creswell, 2003). Doing this decreased anxiety levels and encouraged a relaxing atmosphere.

4.4 The site

I chose this particular site as I am a staff member of the school, so my workplace became my investigation site. In Chapter 1, I noted the context and description of this independent faith-based school. The College began in 1966 as a primary school. A secondary school was established in 1972 along the opposite boundary and only in
1999 was it decided to amalgamate the two as a single college. The position of the school is central to the suburbs on the southern side of the city, and the grounds are extensive and well-managed. The facilities available at the school are of a high quality and are continually upgraded. The activities and programs offered at the school are well-planned and attended, and include cultural and sporting activities. The school manages and runs its own bus service with ten buses servicing widespread coverage to outlying areas. This service provides the opportunity for students from all areas south of the city to have transportation to and from school.

The College is a mainstream special-character institution with a particular religious affiliation, and falls into the category of a faith-based school. Within the school, banners, symbols and pictures designate The College as a Christian institution. The curriculum includes Bible classes, class worship and chapel periods. The College’s purpose statements are intentional and state clearly the religious ethos of the school.

4.5 Population

The sample size depends on the nature of the research and the shape and form of the data that are intended to be collected (O’Leary, 2004). The choice of population is also determined by the goals of the investigation and whether they are transferable or generalisable (Punch, 2005). This project is a case study of the teachers at a school, providing a description of beliefs, understandings and practices related to their experience of internationalisation. At the time of data-collection (late 2006 – 2009) there were 26 teachers, four administrative officers and 16 international students on the secondary campus.

4.5.1 Secondary teaching staff

This is a unique case study of a group of individuals who form a specific social and cultural group. At The College, registered teachers and administrative officers can voluntarily become part of this particular school system by freely applying for a vacant position or declining an offered position. At the time of data collection all
employed staff shared the same faith base. Using the case study as an overall strategy requires the complete involvement of both stakeholders and the researcher in the setting. At the time I held a unique position as a staff member of the school community working on the primary campus. This investigation, by nature, demanded a rich description of the understandings and practices followed by the secondary teaching staff in relation to internationalisation. The boundaries of the case study limited the research to the secondary campus, situated at a distance from the primary and day-care campus. The entire school staff at this time met twice a week for worship and on occasion for a combined staff meeting each term. The campuses essentially operated independently from each other.

Of the 30 staff members on the secondary campus, 26 were teachers, including the school Principal and Deputy Principal secondary who taught classes. The remaining four staff members were the receptionist, the accounts clerk, the overseas officer and the school secretary. All staff were invited to participate in my study in any or all forms of data collection. Of the 30 staff members, 23 agreed to participate in my research. Twenty staff completed the questionnaire, five took part in individual interviews and eighteen were involved in the focus-group sessions. Three staff who agreed to participate did not complete a questionnaire, and seven did not take part in a focus-group session or participate in an individual interview. When I followed up with these individuals on many occasions, they said that either they were too busy, still going to do it or that they would get back to me.

Throughout the time of data collection numerous staff changes occurred. The College experienced major changes in leadership, with a new Principal being appointed and a year later a new Deputy Principal for secondary who remained with the school for nine months before leaving for family reasons. A new Deputy Principal was appointed the following year. A number of staff retired during this time, with others moving interstate or accepting other work positions. My role at the school also changed as I was appointed to a leadership position on the primary campus. A total of twelve staff involved with the secondary school left The College during this period. The departures affected my research because participants who had agreed to participate and had completed questionnaires were not necessarily able to attend focus-group sessions. At the time of my data collection some staff were not
teaching or interacting with any international students; however, their past experience and understanding of the context were relevant to my investigation. Although my primary focus was on the teachers and their experience of internationalisation at The College, it was important to involve the international students in order to gain their understanding of internationalisation at The College.

**4.5.2 International students**

Contact and inquiry with the international students at the school for this study gave voice to these students’ experiences and understandings. The reason for involving the international students was to discover from their perspective what they understood the teachers to be doing to assist with internationalisation. Including these students in the research was necessary for investigating pedagogical practice and school processes through an informed framework with a view to providing details on effectiveness where it might exist, and to identify problems and how to resolve them.

Involving all sixteen enrolled international students in the research was desirable as different international students attended different subject choices. There were international students in each year-level at The College, which provided more opportunity for student feedback on staff, and student interactions with their teachers. There were subject specific teachers, year teachers and teachers who coached sports, so international students who attended these classes would have shared interests, subjects, form rooms and extracurricular activities with these staff members.

The number of international students on the secondary campus did not change during the data collection stage and all the international students were willing to take part in my research. Fourteen international students completed the international student questionnaire; fifteen were involved in the international student focus-group sessions; and one participated in an individual interview. Throughout the study, I was aware of my role as the previous ESL teacher and the need to keep the focus on the experience of internationalisation at The College. Emphasising this point was desirable as the international students needed to be made aware of their invaluable and much-needed part in contributing to the progress of the school.
The questionnaires, focus groups and individual interviews were conducted in English and all participants involved were competent in conversational English. The international students at this school had all completed an English proficiency test before they were enrolled and had a NLLIA (National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia) bandscale score of level five or above. A level five on the NLLIA bandscales indicated that the students were interacting with formal English beyond a conversational level and were beginning to cope with academic English. The enrolled international students were integrated, with support, into the mainstream at The College. Table 4.1 provides a summary of the data collectioned in the study.

Table 4.1

Summary of participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data collection method</th>
<th>international students</th>
<th>Staff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus groups</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual interviews</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Document analysis</td>
<td>From all available school documentation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total participants</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.3 Demographics of participants

Using participants’ responses from the first part of the questionnaires, I was able to create tables to identify and list the background characteristics of participants who took part in this research. Table 4.2 shows staff demographics: age range, gender, knowledge of another language, experience of another culture and time spent working at The College. Following on from this, Table 4.3 shows the international student demographics: age-range, gender, time spent in Australia and initiation of English learning.
Table 4.2
Demographic details of staff

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptor</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Years at this school</th>
<th>Bilingual</th>
<th>Lived overseas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admin1</td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin2</td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin3</td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin4</td>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin5</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin6</td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin7</td>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin8</td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher1</td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher2</td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>&gt; 25</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher3</td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher4</td>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher5</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher6</td>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher7</td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher8</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher9</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher10</td>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher11</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher12</td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher13</td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher14</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher15</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher16</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher17</td>
<td>60+</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>&gt; 30</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher18</td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher19</td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.3
Demographic details of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptor</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Years at this school</th>
<th>Home</th>
<th>Began learning English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International student1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Senior high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Senior high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>3 years ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Grade 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student6</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Junior high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Year 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Year 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student9</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Preschool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Grade 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student11</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>5 years ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>5 years ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student13</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>4 years ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Grade 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Solomon Islands</td>
<td>Primary school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International student16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Senior high school</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6 Data-collection methods

In my investigation, participation of staff and international students were needed to examine the pedagogical responses for the international program experienced by the teachers. In my earlier discussion of interpretivism and qualitative research, I mentioned the need in my research to investigate pedagogical practices for internationalisation at The College. The representations, as presented in Chapter 3, are understandings that individuals had regarding the topic under discussion. The ways of talking about a given topic presented an individual’s understanding and representation of that topic. Creating opportunities for the staff and administration to discuss this topic in depth was integral to my research. I also believed that a voice needed to be given to the international students regarding their understanding of the pedagogical practices for internationalisation which were manifested in pedagogy, support, planning and engagement within the school community. This provided an
understanding from the international students of their schooling experience, as well as the help, resources and management provided by The College and teachers in the internationalisation of this secondary school. For my investigation I generated data using questionnaires, focus groups, individual interviews and document analysis. A summary of this is provided in Table 4.4, followed by an in-depth discussion of each.

Table 4.4  
Data collection summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Site</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Secondary library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International students</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>ESL room and secondary library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus groups</td>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>Groups of about 10</td>
<td>Secondary library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International students</td>
<td>Groups of about 6-8</td>
<td>ESL room and secondary library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Office or secondary library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interviews</td>
<td>International students</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESL room and secondary library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Document analysis</td>
<td>Written records</td>
<td>From first international student enrolment to present</td>
<td>Administration office and archives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.1 Questionnaires

For my research I wanted to know about the experience that the teachers had of internationalisation at The College. Each question asked in my investigation questionnaires had a specific function in eliciting the teachers’ accounts and representations of their experience of teaching international students and the internationalisation of the school. Within my study the use of the questionnaires was twofold. Firstly, they generated research data regarding participants’ understanding of internationalisation at The College, forming part of the triangulation of my case. They also acted as a catalyst as I used the answers provided by each participant to form my decisions for group member participation within a focus group. Further details of this are provided in section 4.6.2.
According to Burton, Brundrett and Jones (2008) questionnaires should be well-formulated by the investigator ensuring that the exertion of the participant is minimal. Questionnaires provide generalised information from a cohort, whereas interviews allow for the generation of more detailed accounts.

The questionnaires developed for this investigation contain both open and closed questions. Open questions allow the respondents to use their own words and to express their opinions and understandings, while closed questions allow the respondents the opportunity to choose from the options listed within the boundaries of the instructions given (O'Leary, 2004). The questionnaire for the staff contained thirteen questions presented on two pages (Appendix C). The questionnaire for the international students had fourteen questions presented on two pages (Appendix D). Under the sub-headings 4.6.1.1 and 4.6.1.3 below I present the reasons for the choice of each question on the questionnaires.

I used questionnaires for a number of reasons: they are low cost; can be administered in a short period of time; allow individuals the opportunity to answer the questions in any order; allow the researcher to collect general data and opinions from a group of people simultaneously, and allow for easier data analysis by the researcher since each question has been asked to achieve a specific goal (Gray, 2004; O'Leary, 2004). The questionnaire responses from each participant can be placed in a table and compared. Themes can be identified and used as part of the data analysis. As stated earlier, I developed two questionnaires for this investigation – one was given to the secondary staff and the other to the international students enrolled at The College.

### 4.6.1.1 Pilot study using the questionnaires

I conducted a pilot study at the site with a group of eight Year 12 international students and one teacher who left the school at the end of 2005. This teacher spent a great deal of time with the international students in and out of class, and assisted within the school wherever possible to ensure that the school provided for the international students. In the pilot study, I administered the questionnaires and a
follow-up discussion with the participants, obtaining feedback on the instruments and the participants’ understanding of my topic of investigation.

The pilot study questionnaires were received positively by the participants, who were eager to add their points. There was active participation and willingness to share openly by the international students and teacher alike. Through discussion with these pilot participants, I was able to clarify and reword questions four, six, seven and thirteen on the questionnaire. I also modified the information sheet for minors (Appendix B). The students in the pilot study added to the list of extra-curricular activities in question seven on the international student questionnaire. The students and teacher were able to answer all the questions on the questionnaires within the time limit given.

The students in the pilot study reflected on their school experience at The College and were positive in their discussions. They spoke openly about their relationships with the teachers and especially those with whom they had formed connections. The students and teacher often spoke of the ESL teacher, and of the role this person performed in the life of the school. All were excited about my project and expressed sadness in not having the opportunity to be a formal part of the study.

4.6.1.2 Questionnaire for secondary staff

To achieve the objective of an understanding of the teachers’ representation across the secondary staff, I chose to use an in-depth questionnaire. By in-depth I mean ascertaining through the questionnaire each participant’s experience, understanding and practice regarding international students and internationalisation. The reasons for conducting the questionnaire are to generate data and enable grouping of staff members in a chosen way for focus-group sessions. As well I wanted to be able to use the information given in open discussion within the focus groups. The reference here to grouping staff in a chosen way refers to using the answers provided to place participants in a particular group with their peers which, according to Morgan, Krueger and King (1998), encourages good discussion during a focus group session.
The first seven demographic questions on the questionnaire are used to determine specific factors regarding each participant. These include age-groupings, time working at this school, use of another language, English as a native language, living overseas, current number of international students in their care and the number of years working with international students. The question relating to age assists in the formation of the focus groups where grouping individuals closer in age can encourage good discussion and provide rich data. In focus groups people of similar age tend to share more readily and become more involved in the discussion, whereas large age discrepancies discourage shared understandings (Fern, 2001; Morgan et al., 1998).

Grouping similar participants together can elicit shared experiences and create a better in-depth awareness of their understanding and practices involving international students and internationalisation. Length of service in a school has an influence on an individual’s working experience and understanding. Questions three, four and five are asked to establish whether a staff member has experienced another culture, which Youngs and Youngs (2001) find has a marked effect on how staff work with international students. Questions six and seven build on this further by identifying whether participants have experience working with international students and the timeframe over which this experience has had the opportunity to develop. Establishing staff attitudes toward international students in the questionnaire, whether positive or negative, helps eliminate conflict in the focus groups which could potentially result in the focus group not achieving the function it has been chosen for. This point of choosing a group member based on attitude might clash with the grouping of ages; particular consideration needs to be given when rephrasing questions, and special attention needs to be paid to moderation during focus-group sessions.

According to Youngs and Youngs (2001), teachers’ attitudes towards ESL students may be negative or positive and are determined by certain predictors such as the teachers’ general educational experiences, specific ESL training, personal contact with diverse cultures, prior contact with ESL students, demographic characteristics, personality and gender. Although this investigation focuses on ESL students, the relevance for my research is that all the international students come from another
culture and use English as a second or other language. Gathering information regarding staff representations of the international students through their discussion of the topic will present personal bias and understanding. I have designed the questions on the questionnaire to correspond to Youngs and Youngs’ predictors. Using these predictors in the questionnaire will allow further investigation in the focus groups, where discussion can begin with these answers (O'Leary, 2004).

Questions eight and nine are open-ended questions allowing staff to express their understanding of international students’ experience in the mainstream and to voice their contribution to internationalisation. Question ten covers the topic of pedagogy where teachers are asked if they have made changes within their classes specifically for the international students, and to give the reason/s behind the decision/s made. Question eleven covers the subject of communication with parents and guardians of the students involved. I used this question to gather individual responses before taking these answers to the focus group sessions for further discussion. Questions twelve and thirteen gather personal reflections and understandings – positive and negative – about the participant’s needs or desires in an internationalised school setting. Answers from these questionnaires were summarised and included in the focus-group sessions, where there was opportunity for clarification and elaboration.

4.6.1.3 Administering the staff questionnaire

The questionnaire was the first activity in my investigation conducted with the staff. I chose to administer this as a group activity in order to explain and describe my research to the secondary staff as a whole and to encourage colleague cooperation and participation. The questionnaire was administered in the library on the secondary campus. Berg (2004) states that the choice of potential site for conducting questionnaires, interviews and focus groups is an important decision made by the researcher. The choice of setting impacts on the various participants and affects their personal space and privacy (Fern, 2001). I was aware of the need for careful selection of the environment and the influence this would have on the participants. The staff were familiar with this environment and the impact observed was minimal,
as tables, chairs, air-conditioning and time were available for comfort while completing the questionnaire.

The time allocated for administering this questionnaire was during the last three-quarters of an hour of a secondary staff meeting. The allocation of this time was granted by the Principal and Deputy Principal, which gave me the opportunity to present my research to the group and provided the necessary time to complete the questionnaire for those who wished to participate. The time also ensured that most staff were present and the forms were generally returned directly to me. Before I began my presentation, I distributed the Queensland University of Technology participant information sheet I had developed for ethical clearance (see Appendix A). During my presentation I described my study, my need for their participation and what that entailed, the expected benefits of my investigation, the risks involved, the need for confidentiality, and the fact that their participation was voluntary and not an expectation. I was able to give direct instructions and ensure that all ethical issues and procedures were covered and the questions posed were answered for all present.

After my presentation time, those who wished to participate signed the statement of consent and brought the signed paper to me. On receipt of the signed paper, I handed the participant a questionnaire which they then completed. During the allocated time, some individuals came forward to decline participation and left. Other individuals asked for more time to decide whether they would participate and requested questionnaires to take home and read at leisure. Some individuals who chose to participate preferred to take their questionnaires home and answer them more thoroughly. Using a staff list, I was able to monitor and record decisions, follow-up on individuals still needing to make decisions and collect outstanding questionnaires. As I distributed questionnaires, I wrote the participant’s initials on the front. I explained during my presentation that the initials were for my benefit only in using the information given for my data, as well as being able to link this information to the data gathered from the same individual during the focus group sessions. After the questionnaires were analysed, they were stored in a locked filing cabinet, ensuring tight security.
While I was designing and administering the staff questionnaire, I was also developing the questionnaire for the international students. This questionnaire, although similar in length, differed in the information solicited. The details outlining the design and implementation used for the international student questionnaire are given below.

4.6.1.4 Questionnaire for international students

The questions asked on this questionnaire included demographic information and individual understandings of teacher assistance, use of English, and differences between their home country schooling and Australian schooling. Expressing individual opinion is often discouraged within certain cultures and some male-dominant cultures do not allow for female comments. As the researcher, I needed to be mindful and sensitive to these cultural aspects. The questionnaires were formulated to generate data and to provide a platform for further inquiry during the focus groups.

Questions one to seven of this questionnaire were closed questions covering age, gender, country of origin, languages spoken, length of time in Australia, beginning time of learning English and extra-curricular activities in which the international student was involved. In addition to establishing the international student’s exposure to other cultures through language, question four provided further options of questioning during the focus group sessions. An international student who speaks their native tongue, English and another language – or more languages – could potentially have had previous experience of internationalisation and the mainstream within another culture. Questions five and six assisted in determining the length of time the international student had been exposed to English and, in this particular case, Australian culture. Question seven established whether the international student was actively involved in hobbies and extra-curricular activities which are factors contributing to a sense of belonging and emotional well-being.

Question eight determined how international students utilised their time outside of school and whether they had an established routine which included homework,
assignments and planning for school the next day and beyond. Establishing who
provided guidance and control for the international student during their stay in
Australia was the focus of questions nine and ten, which assisted in understanding
the duty of care provided for these students. Questions eleven and twelve asked the
participants to identify subjects and staff they believed to be helpful and caring and
could provide evidence of staff understanding and practising internationalisation.
The answers to these questions would be further explored during the focus-group
sessions. How often an international student used English outside the classroom was
the focus of question thirteen. Their identity, sense of belonging and use of English
raised the issue of whether an international student has developed friendships and
involvement in the Australian society. In question fourteen, international students
were asked to identify differences they experienced in their schooling in Australia as
compared to their schooling in their country of origin.

To initiate and inform the international students of my project I requested a meeting
with them during one lunchtime. I handed out copies of the participant information
sheet to each student as they entered and took a seat in the secondary library. I
enlisted the help of the ESL teacher, librarian and library aid – staff well known by
the international students – to assist in the explanation of the project to individual
students. Before the meeting I briefed these staff members on what my intentions
were. During the meeting I presented the description of my research, and discussed
participation and the time this would take. I explained the benefits, risks and
confidentiality involved in participating in my project. Voluntary participation was
explained and then the students had the opportunity to ask questions and have small
group discussions with the staff where necessary. All the students were requested to
take the information home and discuss it with their guardians before signing the
statements of consent and returning them to me (see Appendix B). I emphasised that
participation was voluntary and that no consequences would result if anyone chose
not to take part. Student participants were assured that their honest responses were
sought, that the questioning was not an assessment, but rather about research where
responses were absolutely confidential. Two guardians contacted me to discuss and
clarify aspects of my project before consenting to their dependant’s participation.
The signed statements of consent needed to be obtained before the questionnaires
could be administered. Within a week, one-hundred percent participation from the international students was obtained.

4.6.1.5 Administering the international student questionnaire

The questionnaire for the international students was administered during their forty-minute ESL class. This time was chosen in consultation with the Principal and ESL teacher, as the international students were in small, familiar groups in a safe environment. This also provided a time when the international students could ask questions about the questionnaire which could be clarified by the ESL teacher, and they had sufficient time in which to complete the task. I had arranged with the library staff that any international students who required more time, or who were absent during this week, could be assisted during lunch or recess to complete this; however, all international students completed the questionnaire during their ESL class. The ESL class is a time when international students are withdrawn from the mainstream once a week for forty minutes. Thus administering the questionnaire during this time did not disrupt their academic program at the school. Administering the questionnaire this way took a week to complete, as each student comes once a week to the ESL class. Within the ESL class, the international students appeared comfortable and at ease. The ESL class has a large table, sufficient chairs, adequate lighting and air-conditioning within a quiet and user-friendly space. The ESL teacher collected the questionnaires, ensured their safekeeping and delivered them to me. See Appendix D for the international student questionnaire.

4.6.1.6 Limitations of questionnaires

For my investigation, the questionnaires were administered in group sessions directed by myself or the ESL teacher. At the end of each session all completed questionnaires were collected and secured safely to ensure confidentiality (Gray, 2004). O’Leary (2004) states that even in the case of small numbers, such as 30 participants completing a questionnaire, the results from these questionnaires can still be compared. However, in the case of my study where a small number of participants took part quantifying my data is limiting, therefore I am choose to use themes,
constructs and patterns as part of my analysis. After conducting the questionnaires, the next step of my investigation was to form and conduct the staff focus groups and the international-student focus groups.

4.6.2 Focus groups

Focus groups present a useful means of collecting data in a short time using multiple participants. They provide group discussions which produce useful insights into shared experiences and opinions on matters that are important to the participants (Morgan et al., 1998). Barbour (2007) states that focus groups are “well placed to explore people’s perspectives on issues to which they have previously given little thought” (p. 87). Puchta and Potter (2004) state that the goal of a focus group session is to elicit participants’ attitudes, perceptions, feelings and understandings. In my research this includes their experiences of internationalisation and the management of internationalisation at The College as well as their experiences of teaching international students. The focus-group process attempts to bring out the voices not normally heard (Latess, 2008). Focus groups are used to moderate the topic and, unlike individual interviews, to create concentrated conversations that might never occur elsewhere (Puchta & Potter, 2004). I used the focus groups to investigate this institutional context of The College by asking the staff and international students to comment on their understanding of internationalisation. A full list of the questions asked is included in Tables 4.5 and 4.6.

Wilkinson (1999) argues that during focus-group discussions, meanings are negotiated, identities elaborated and sense is made through social interaction of the individuals involved in the group. Individuals can recognise and identify with others in focus groups, and highlight similarities and differences through their experiences and accounts (Barbour, 2007). “All comments made during focus groups are highly dependent upon context and are contingent upon group members’ responses to others’ contributions and the dynamics of that particular group” (Barbour, 2007, p. 31). Views expressed in focus groups are extremely specific and embedded in the topic of conversation (Barbour, 2007). Morgan (1988) observes that focus groups are useful for investigating what members of the group think through their explanations.
and views expressed. Barbour (2007) notes that participants often tell stories to confirm their shared experiences and combined identity. The nature of my project requires insight into the beliefs, understandings and practices of the teachers at The College.

In my research, an opportunity was created for the staff and international students as a whole to discuss together the beliefs they have regarding internationalisation and the strategies and practices they are using to teach the international students in their classes. The fact that focus groups are moderated ensures they remain focused on the topic and gives the opportunity for all participants to be involved when they choose and to follow new ideas as they arise. Participants can also compare and contrast views and opinions and clarify their own views (Morgan et al., 1998). Pučht and Potter (2004) observe that focus groups help by providing the opportunity to understand how others think and talk about a given topic and supply the researcher with a powerful means by which to understand and interpret how and why people think and act as they do.

Focus groups are concentrated on the researcher’s topic, which is predetermined, and the participants are selected by the researcher. In my investigation, the questionnaire given to the two groups assisted in establishing the groups. Focus groups are more open-ended and less predetermined than surveys (Burns, 2000). The use of focus groups relies on exploration and discovery and understanding the topic in context. For my research, focus groups were used to engage participants in active sharing of their understandings, opinions and experiences relevant to the topic of focus. The results provided a cross-sectional description of participants’ views.

Barbour (2007) notes that a positive aspect of focus groups is that participants are not required to answer all the questions. Individuals can choose to share what they want and are not forced to answer when they do not wish to. Encouragement by other participants sharing personal revelations often results in individuals sharing more than they originally intended (Barbour, 2007). It is vital that the moderator is attentive to what is being shared and uses opportunities as they arise in the discussion to further develop participants’ sharing. A further strength of focus-group research is that the researcher is able to gain a better perspective of thoughts and ideas that
others are able to share (Latess, 2008). “Horror stories” are often presented during focus-group sessions and moderators need to listen to these and redirect the discussion away from these if they are not part of the research topic.

Rapport is important in focus groups and needs to be established with sensitivity (Barbour, 2007). In my investigation, all focus groups began with light refreshments to relax the participants and to create a friendly atmosphere. After some initial mingling where snacks and non-alcoholic drinks were provided, the participants were invited to join the researcher at a table.

Fern (2001) recommends that a rectangular table be used if participants know each other, as this type of seating encourages shared experiences. To encourage conversation, the participants need to feel secure in the environment and seating arrangements. Fern (2001) also recommends that seating around the rectangular table should be organised beforehand, as candidates who sit at the head of the table tend to lead the conversation and individuals sitting next to each other on the sides will comment to each other. Ideally, the moderator should sit where they feel they can guide the group in the best way possible, depending on the individuals involved in the focus group session (Barbour, 2007; Fern, 2001).

An individual is restrained in their behaviour and desire for privacy by their needs, aims, beliefs, preferences and rights (Fern, 2001). People determine contribution to a situation by how they are feeling, and this is influenced by their environment and audience (Berg, 2004; Fern, 2001). Ensuring that participants were in a familiar environment and with peers whom they knew and interacted with regularly created a relaxed and pleasant atmosphere in which the participants were comfortable to share.

The secondary-school library at The College was a comfortable, familiar and air-conditioned environment for the participants. It had a number of large, moveable rectangular tables available for use. I placed myself at one end of the table where I set a video camera on the bookshelf behind me. As the researcher, having my back to the camera assisted in having a visual record of all participants and their facial features, expressions and gestures. The moderators – myself and a colleague, who was the ESL teacher on the primary campus at the school – placed ourselves on
opposite sides of the table so that at any particular time, eye contact could be maintained with the speakers. I enlisted the help of library staff to operate the video camera. The primary ESL teacher volunteered to assist with moderating each focus group. As the two moderators, we used each other as a means of support during the sessions and, especially in the bigger group sessions, as a means of direction for the discussions. We planned our moderating strategies together, and devised a plan of action to involve each individual in the focus-group session. As the moderators, we came to the exercise with different backgrounds and moderating styles, which in our experience during previous meetings and discussions groups had proved complementary.

Quinn (2005) advocates using recording devices because they allow the researcher to be a good listener by being able to pay close attention to what is being said. The focus-group sessions were recorded using two small, quiet and unobtrusive MP3 players and one video recorder. These were already operating on the table before participants entered. The voice recordings allowed the voices of the people to be studied without the researcher distorting the meaning (Quinn, 2005). The two MP3 players were placed – one at each end – to capture audio clearly and assisted the researcher when transcribing. The video recorder was set up out of sight where the constant reminder of this technology operating was lessened for participants. Full disclosure of its use was given to the participants on the participation information sheet and during the introduction to the focus-group session. The video recording was used to identify speakers visually. The second moderator made notes after each staff focus-group session. The two moderators debriefed after each session and highlighted points of interest and clarified issues raised. As recommended by Barbour (2007), I transcribed all the focus-group recordings as a means of becoming more familiar with the data.

Each group session began with an introduction and explanation of the reason for the focus group. All participants knew each other and so formal introductions were unnecessary. Following Barbour (Barbour, 2007) as the researcher, I gave the assurance of anonymity and secured agreement from all group members regarding respect for confidentiality of topics shared within the focus group.
4.6.2.1 Criteria for staff focus-group placement

In this section I outline the criteria I used for the organisation of participants into focus groups. Fern (2001) observes that the larger the group, the more concentrated the shared information will be between group members. Since the aim of my research was to investigate shared understandings, large focus groups of ten staff members were established. Fern (2001) states that homogeneous groups are preferable to gather shared information, and as such the members needed to be of the same gender and world view. A world view can be associated with age, status, personality, experience and knowledge (Barbour, 2007; Fern, 2001). Same-gender grouping as a factor assists with self-disclosure in the group discussion and, according to Fern (2001), this factor has a high impact on the information gathered during a focus group session. Gender was used as a determining characteristic within my focus groups purely to encourage individuals to speak freely and to feel comfortable in sharing their understandings. Within social science research, the objective is the exploration of participants’ meanings and the ways in which these understandings are socially constructed (Barbour, 2007). The implications of this work for my study were for me to ensure that I gathered sufficient data from the participants to explore their understandings, and that I provided the participants with enough opportunities to participate in the discussions.

4.6.2.2 Conducting the staff focus groups

My research was discussed during a management-team meeting with the Principal and Deputy Principals, and appropriate timetabling and access were agreed upon. I organised and booked the secondary library for four afternoon sessions in order to hold the focus groups. The secondary staff requested that I allocate them times and days, as that seemed the easiest solution for them. I emailed my completed focus group lists and timetable to the Deputy Principal of secondary, who volunteered to present the information to the staff, confirm with all involved and advise me by email of any changes. The response I received showed many changes where staff had moved into other groups and opted for alternative days. The only consistent factor
which remained about the composition of the focus groups I had planned was the number of participants in each group.

Table 4.5
Staff focus group questions

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>How do you find working with ESL students?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>How do you perceive the school attitude towards international students?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>What is the school policy and practice towards international students?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Do you think we are fulfilling our obligation to the international students? Why or why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>How do you contribute to helping the ESL students in our school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>In the questionnaire the question was asked about challenges the international students face, do you have anything to add to that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>What strategies do you use to help the international students with these challenges?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>What contribution do you see international students making in this college?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Do you have any other comments to add?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first focus-group session was intended to have eight participants. Just before beginning, two members sent their apologies and one member did not arrive. I conducted the focus group with five participants who were relaxed together and each contributed to the topic of discussion. The second focus group session followed almost the same pattern as the first. Eight participants were scheduled to take part in the focus group; five arrived, one was ill and arranged to join the focus-group session the following week. The third focus group session of nine was only attended by eight, of whom two were participants who had missed their session the week before. After each focus group, I contacted the participants who missed the sessions to arrange for their participation in the following group session. In the fourth and final session five participants were anticipated, but only one individual attended. This resulted in me conducting this focus-group session as an individual interview.

I followed up with the participants who had missed the focus-group sessions to try to organise another opportunity; however, this was not possible because individuals said they were busy and felt they could not find the time to meet with me. Consequently, for my investigation, I conducted three focus groups for the staff with
five participants in the first, five participants in the second, and eight participants in the third, with a total of eighteen participants involved. I discuss the criteria for organising the international student focus groups in the next section. My criteria for placing international students in a particular focus group differ from the reasons given for the secondary staff placement.

4.6.2.3 Criteria for international student focus-group placement

I used small focus groups for the sessions with the international students. These groups were to include between six and eight members, thereby providing opportunity for each member to actively participate in a small-group situation. Many of the international students on-site are from Asian countries where social behaviours differ significantly from Australian western culture. Therefore, as the researcher, I needed to observe the influences that could potentially be present. My plan was to use age, gender and country of origin to determine the membership of each focus group, as this recommended by Morgan et al. (1998) to ensure the sharing of ideas and experiences. These researchers (Morgan et al., 1998) also recommend that participants with the same demographic characteristics are grouped to determine whether the different demographic groups have a different experience and understanding of the topic which in this investigation is internationalisation. I planned to group the participants into four focus groups using similar ethnic origin, age and gender as the participating characteristics.

4.6.2.4 Conducting the international student focus groups

During a management-team meeting at my study school with the Principal and Deputy Principals, my data-collection timetable was discussed and approved. It was decided that an upcoming Friday would be an ideal opportunity to conduct the focus groups with the international students because the entire school day was to be devoted to the final musical practice and no classes would be held. The recommendation was to utilise the whole of Friday conducting all the focus groups for the international students in their year-levels, since that would suit the teachers and school. These guided limitations presented by the management team did not
allow me to use my prior decisions of grouping international students according to age, gender and ethnic origin. The international students were finally grouped into three focus groups of five Year Twelve students, seven Year Eleven students and four students together from Years Eight, Nine and Ten.

Table 4.6

*International student focus group questions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>What are your feelings on your school experience in Australia? How and why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>What subjects do you enjoy and why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>What subjects do you not enjoy and why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>What aspects of your experience at school have you enjoyed?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>What are the negative aspects of your experience at school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>What has been the easiest adjustment to school in Australia?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>What has been the most difficult adjustment to school in Australia?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>If you could make changes to help you at this school what would they be, and why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Which teachers have been the most helpful and why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>What do teachers do at this school that help you with your schooling?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>How can teachers help you more?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Would more time for assignments help you? How? Why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Would you like more ESL help? Why or why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>What advice would you give a new international student coming to this school? And why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>How difficult is it to mix with the other students? And why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>How difficult is it to talk to the teachers? And why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Any suggestions or comments you want to add?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The day was a full one, moving from focus group to focus group. The sessions went well, with only one student missing the focus groups due to involvement in the school musical. This international student did not want to miss the opportunity to be involved in my research and arranged an individual interview time. The international students were happy to be involved in the focus-group sessions and appreciated the opportunity to be out of the homework and study classes they were to attend for the day. In total, sixteen international students participated in the focus groups.
4.6.2.5 Limitations of focus groups

Focus groups require a large amount of planning and can be time-consuming (Morgan et al., 1998). Morgan et al. (Morgan et al., 1998) state that sometimes conformity can be a problem depending on the questions asked and whether the moderator is able to elicit different opinions from the participants. The fact that the researcher has no previous experience with this kind of data-collection could have a negative impact on the research (O’Leary, 2004).

The results of the data generated in the focus groups are directly related to the moderator, which in this case was me. The moderator needed to have adequate, reliable support when conducting the focus group, and the support needed to be confirmed and dependable (Barbour, 2007). In my investigation, I solicited the assistance of the library staff and primary ESL teacher, who were trusted and supportive colleagues. Relying on other people meant that roles needed to be well established and expectations clearly stated. Issues that needed to be communicated well were time-schedules, questions to ask and types of comments on which to follow up, filming and voice requirements, seating, and any other information needed to ensure that a smooth operation of the focus-group session resulted.

As a researcher, I was aware of internationalisation as presented in my literature review, as well as through my work experience, and so I needed to ensure that the information given came from the participants and that I refrained from putting words into the mouths of the participants. As moderators, the ESL teacher from the primary campus and I needed to ask participants to clarify what they meant if the information was not clear or well stated. Barbour (2007) states that the attitude of the researcher is important and can have a negative effect on the focus group. As such, I needed to ensure that I had the appropriate attitude needed to conduct and moderate the focus groups.

Other needs highlighted by Morgan et al. (1998) are to ensure that participants are comfortable talking together and that there are no issues of power involved, as this may hinder the activity of a focus group, which could lead to focus groups disintegrating and the data collected becoming coloured and not a true reflection of
all the participants’ understanding. Barbour (2007) highlights the negative issue that can arise when participants may disagree and argue, and states that this could be valuable data and should not be disregarded. She continues by encouraging the moderator not to view this as negative, but to probe and invite the participants to explain why they hold such different views (Barbour, 2007). These guidelines were followed and I tried in all the focus groups to clarify meanings, allow participants the opportunity to provide feedback on the focus group transcripts and reassure them that everything would remain confidential and that their identities would be protected.

### 4.6.3 Individual interviews

My data-collection methods also included individual interviews where participants were not able to join a focus group or where further information was needed from particular individuals. This section describes individual interviews, the choices I made in conducting them and the outcomes achieved.

Interviews are conversations in which asking questions and listening is an art (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). They are used for obtaining in-depth information regarding a particular individual as to their personal beliefs, practices and understandings (Gray, 2004). During individual interviews the interviewer uses open-ended questions, as the data relies on the respondent providing honest and open answers (O'Leary, 2004). Sharkey and Layzer (2000) use this form of questioning in their research, and a number of my questions are modelled on their type of interviewing.

For my research, I used semi-structured, one-on-one, informal interviews to ensure participants were comfortable and able to talk freely (Burton & Bartlett, 2005). A semi-structured interview has some guidelines as to the direction of the interview, with some questions already being formulated to get the interview under way (Gray, 2004). Answers supplied in the questionnaires assisted the interviewer where further detail or clarification with something which was unclear was requested. Initiating this style of interviewing allowed the researcher to listen to what was being said and
to question further when needed, thus allowing for flexibility within the interview (Gray, 2004).

Individual interviews were conducted with staff and international students to clarify points from the questionnaires and focus groups on an individual basis, and to investigate areas further. Individual interviews were conducted when individuals were unwilling to be part of a focus group, were absent during the focus group sessions, did not contribute during the focus group, wished to contribute more after the focus group session or needed to clarify what was said during the focus group. The timing of individual interviews placed them after the focus-group sessions to include participants having the reasons stated earlier. Interviews were planned to be held in an appropriate place, depending on the individual involved and their preferences. The length of time for each interview was approximately one hour, and the interview was recorded using an MP3 player. After each interview the recording was transcribed and saved on the researcher’s password-protected computer. A transcript was printed using a code name for the individual to ensure confidentiality. Each interview transcript was shared with the participating individual, allowing them the opportunity to provide feedback, additional information and opinions regarding various aspects raised in the interview or to clarify issues and other points discussed.

4.6.3.1 Conducting individual interviews

When I conducted the international-student focus groups, one student was unable to attend on the day and arranged an individual interview. We met during a lunch break under the trees on the playground. I was able to record the interview on a MP3 player with little background noise. Five individual staff interviews were conducted with the ESL teacher in secondary, the Principal, the Deputy Principal of Secondary education, the school officer for international students, and the teacher who attended the focus group when no other participants arrived. Questions used for the focus-group sessions (refer to Table 4.5) were modified for use, or where appropriate the answers the participants previously gave were used as the starting point. For the administrative staff I used the following semi-structured guideline for the individual interview.
Table 4.7

Administration individual interview questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Question</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>How long have you worked at this school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Do you work directly with the international students? How, why? Or why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>How do you perceive the school attitude towards international students?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Is this attitude positive or negative? And why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>What is school policy and practice towards international students?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>How do you contribute to the school enrolling international students?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Do you think we are fulfilling our obligation to the international students? Why or why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>What do you think of our service that we provide for the international students?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Can our school improve on the service that is provided to the international students? How?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Do you have any other comments to add to our duty of care regarding the international students? What are they?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These interviews lasted about an hour in length and were all recorded using an MP3 player. I met the ESL teacher in the ESL class on the secondary campus. The Principal met with me in his office and the Deputy Principal of Secondary met with me in his office. The school officer for international students requested we meet in my office to minimise interruptions. The teacher and I met in the secondary library. I have conveyed the positive aspects of individual interviews but there are limitations in using this method of data collection.

4.6.3.2 Limitations of individual interviews

I was already acquainted with the staff and students and they were aware of my topic of investigation. They had completed the questionnaire and some had been in a focus group. As the researcher, I asked or requested follow-up interviews where needed with participants. As the interviewer, I endeavoured to have questions which were not negative in nature and did not lead the interviewee in what they said to meet my expectations (O'Leary, 2004). In each individual interview I established rapport with the interviewee and ensured that she/he was relaxed and comfortable. I had previous experience in interviewing and responding to interviewee responses.
The closing form of data collection I utilised for my research was the collection of documents. Record-keeping is a part of school proceedings and accessing the information enriched and enhanced my research.

4.6.4 Document analysis

The final data-generation tool was the collection of a document archive. Document analysis is a method of data-collection and a mode of analysis. It requires the “collection of data, a review of the said data, an interrogation and analysis of the various forms of text as a primary source of research data” (O’Leary, 2004, p. 177). The documents that were used in this inquiry were all primary documents related to internationalisation at The College. Primary documents refer to those documents which are written to reflect attitudes to issues in a particular context or time (McCulloch, 2004). Formal and informal school documents were used. Documents pertaining to internationalisation at The College included statistics, policies, school records, the admission register, marketing materials, enrolment documents, curriculum documents, examinations, assignment criteria sheets, reports, magazine articles, minutes of meetings and some electronic mailings. In my investigation I collected written documents such as books, independent inquiries such as the CRICOS feedback, and reports from the school. Historical documents also formed part of the document archive. Documents are a record of events, thoughts and understandings from a particular moment in time (Burton et al., 2008). Most documents give a snapshot in time, presenting a certain reality. Document analysis began in 2006, as soon as ethical clearance was obtained.

The analysis of the documents began with the preliminary stage of determining the authenticity of the document (McCulloch, 2004). The purpose of this stage is to determine the identity of the author and the place and date of writing in order to ensure the document is not forged and that it is the complete and correct version of the document. “In the conduct of documentary research, it is most important to be aware of and to abide by the rights, responsibilities and restrictions conferred in the prevailing legal provisions” (McCulloch, 2004, p. 48). The legal framework which
directly affected document analysis involved copyright, freedom of information and data protection. Confidentiality of information was of the utmost importance and, as the researcher, I needed to obtain permission to have access to these records. Ethical dilemmas arose because I held a certain position within the school. The correct gatekeeper, the Principal, granted permission for me to use them. NVivo was used to code information and I was able to create free nodes in this program to establish themes and any other links that could be established using these documents.

Document analysis allows past events to be scrutinised and it can assist in triangulation with other evidence (Burton et al., 2008). Within document analysis, there were two kinds of bias requiring consideration. The first involved the purpose of the author of the document, and their intention in writing the document. The second bias involved how the researcher read and drew from the document. The researcher needed to clarify terminology used at various time periods in the documents by comparing the documents with other documentation from the same time period, and in some cases clarifying with the author if they were still available. Identifying recurrent themes which emerged and following the direction given by the documents ensured that the bias encountered was monitored and did not potentially influence the analysis of the documents. The confidentiality of information and intellectual ownership of data were issues which needed to be clarified and resolved at the initial stage of the investigation.

4.6.5 Control of data collected

A database was established to keep the data generated from the interviews, focus groups, document analysis and results from the questionnaires. I transcribed each interview and focus-group session and saved it in this database. The controlled database was accessible via a password known only by me. A secure filing cabinet was used to house all questionnaire papers, video tapes, documents and other items requiring confidentiality be maintained, and which were of a sensitive nature.
4.7 Thematic analysis

The data collected through document analysis, questionnaires, focus groups and individual interviews provided rich text which was analysed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis involves moving through three phases of inquiry: “recognizing an important moment (seeing), encoding it (seeing it as something)” and then interpreting it (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 1). The means I used to achieve this interpretation of the representations and understandings shared by the participants is detailed below and shown in Figure 4.1 (Creswell, 2008).

![Figure 4.1. The qualitative process of data analysis (Creswell, 2008, p. 244)](image)

Data was collected in the form of audio-files and photocopied documents. I transcribed the audio-files into text files using the free downloadable Audacity software. The audio-files from the MP3 players were saved on my computer and then transcribed using the looping facility on Audacity. All transcribed data were saved in a folder. The text files were formatted using headings, paragraphs and essential markers for change of speaker ready for import into NVivo. A regular backup of these folders was done, and they were locked in a secure filing cabinet.
Through the process of induction I read through the data to obtain an overall awareness of the contents before assigning general codes and themes. I coded the themes which I used in data chapters five, six and seven. The process was ongoing and repeated many times during my data analysis; I simultaneously collected and analysed my data looking for major themes and patterns. By reading the data and identifying recurring similar ideas I developed a deeper understanding of the data. This step involved exploring and coding through the identification of constructs, patterns and themes which were evident in the data. These could be identified through the common topic of discussion, categories of ideas, and the development of themes from multiple perspectives (Creswell, 2005). I then proceeded to interpret the themes, patterns and constructs emerging in the analysis, drawing on theoretical understandings developed in the literature review and theory chapters.

NVivo provided a means of organising the data and assigning codes. This in turn facilitated searches of the data and allowed for quick sorting to locate specific text and words. Word documents saved as rich text format (RTF) were imported directly into NVivo with no modification and were then ready for coding, organising, linking, modelling and exploring (Bazeley, 2007). With NVivo I placed all related themes together within a “node”. In NVivo, nodes were used to store the references to the text coded in the particular topics. NVivo allowed for each document to have attributes applied to it. Attributes refer to the information that remains constant throughout the document, such as demographic information and information from questionnaires. Each time I performed an analysis I saved it as a new project in NVivo.

4.8 Trustworthiness

The trustworthiness of qualitative research is critical for the researcher who needs to demonstrate the reliability and validity of their research findings. For a case-study design to be trustworthy it needs to be transferable, confirmable, dependable and credible (Mills, Durepos, & Wiebe, 2010). Transferability relates to whether the research findings can be applied to other settings. Case studies are difficult to generalise as they are unique to a specific context and therefore external validity is
not of paramount importance (Mills et al., 2010). Providing details of how this case study was conducted allows for the replication of this investigation at another site. By providing detailed information within this investigation for readers to decide if these findings can be applied to their context contributes to the transferability of the findings.

Confirmability refers to the findings of the investigation as being truly taken from the participants and not as a result of the bias of the researcher (Patton, 2002). The researcher is an active participant in this whole investigation, as the person collecting the data, analysing it, and presenting the results and findings in the written form. Fern (2001) warns against researcher bias and encourages steps which can help the researcher reduce this tendency. Ensuring the researcher is aware of the “self” in conducting the inquiry, and continually focuses on the participants and really listens to what they are saying and the way they are saying it helps to voice the participants’ and not the researcher’s agenda (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). As the researcher, my world view will construct a certain view of reality that needs to be considered throughout the research.

There were three limitations in using thematic analysis which needed to be addressed to ensure the trustworthiness of this research: namely, the researcher’s projection, sampling, and mood and style (Boyatzis, 1998). Projection refers to attributing or reading as the researcher my characteristics, attitude, emotion, value, and more into the data. Ways of preventing this occurring involved being open throughout the investigation, establishing a coding system using participants’ words, establishing consistency of judgment that provided reliability, involving my supervisors to provide perspective and feedback with raw data, and ensuring that I remained close to the data for the development of codes and themes (Boyatzis, 1998).

Appropriate sampling through the choice of place and participants shows a sound research design resulting in good qualitative research. This was assisted by ensuring that I included a number of processes in which I reviewed the unit of analysis against the unit of coding, clarified the unit of analysis and the unit of coding, involved a number of colleagues to review the sampling plan, and established a protocol for information collection (Boyatzis, 1998).
The third limitation is the researcher’s mood and style, which applies to all qualitative research which is subjective by design. As the researcher, I experienced emotions throughout my thesis journey which could have affected my investigation and I needed to be consistently aware of my way of viewing things. Involving colleagues and my supervisors throughout this process contributed to lessening the effects of this limitation on my study.

The focus of my research was on a specific topic, and I needed to ensure that throughout the investigation – in each and every stage – including the means of achieving it remained true to the aim and purpose of my study (Fern, 2001). I needed to demonstrate that my personal interest and work role would not bias the investigation by ensuring that wherever possible, the participants were consulted to review and clarify statements and issues which were presented (Marshall & Rossman, 1999), as well as involving my supervisors to ensure that my project was an ethical study.

Dependability within qualitative research refers to how reliable the researcher is in the process of collecting and analysing the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1986; Punch, 2005). Dependability is established through credibility and because this investigation provides a thorough and full disclosure of the design and method used to gather and analyse the data my study can be replicated by future researchers. The reliability of my research has been improved by the careful and accurate transcription of the focus-group sessions and individual interviews, and the retention of the digital files and visual recordings for easy access and retrieval (Perakyla, 2004). By maintaining quality control and being methodical with the analysis procedures the quality of the data has been improved and has contributed to the reliability of my investigation.

Credibility can be ensured by providing a thorough and detailed explanation and description of how the study was constructed and investigated and by providing careful analysis of multiple sources of evidence. In my research I used triangulation of the data to clarify and verify the repeatability of interpretations (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2010). The use of multiple sources of data collection, namely
questionnaires, focus groups, individual interviews and document analysis, were used to improve the credibility of my research.

Peer debriefing was also used as a way to ensure the data were analysed rigorously (Major & Savin-Baden, 2010). My supervisory team provided constant feedback and discussion during the data-analysis process. The feedback enhanced my understanding of the data and ensured that a careful analysis was undertaken. My investigation began as a result of a need identified at The College and therefore has significance for this site, and potentially for other sites.

4.9 Research ethic

To embark on the data collection stage of my case study I needed to obtain ethical clearance. A written application for ethical clearance was obtained from Queensland University of Technology (QUT) in early 2006 and was lodged with The College once confirmation had been reached and finalised. Written permission was obtained from all participants willing to take part before data collection began in late 2006. Parental/guardian permission was obtained from participants who were minors. Each participant received an introductory letter and explanation outlining my research intentions and objectives (see Appendices A and B).

In no way were participants placed in danger or in compromising situations at any time during this study. I made it a point of issue to uphold the strict confidentiality of all the participants, ensuring that all relevant information was secure and coded to ensure anonymity. In all circumstances relating to this investigation, I did not compromise the school in any way. Even as an employee in a position of authority at the school, I upheld my obligation as the researcher to ensure that the rights, desires, values and needs of each participant were respected throughout the research (Creswell, 2003). Barbour (2007) raises ethical issues that relate to the choice of wording employed by the researcher. I was careful with my selection and used wording which would not offend any participants. I also considered the impact that participation in this investigation might have on each individual within the school. Barbour (2007) cautions that consequences of participation by individuals sharing
information has to be a consideration and assurances must be given to participants. I gave numerous assurances to participants regarding anonymity and confidentiality. Throughout my research I have tried to address all possible ethical issues and other limitations within my case study.

4.10 Chapter summary

The research design for my qualitative case-study investigation was addressed in this chapter. The site and participants were described and their selection process was explained. The use of questionnaires, focus groups, individual interviews and document analysis was explained, and the advantages and limitations of each were discussed. The use of thematic analysis of the data was explained and the ethical considerations and limitations of this investigation were presented. The trustworthiness, potential significance, ethical considerations and limitations of this research were addressed. The following chapter will present the first part of the findings.
Chapter 5: The institutional conditions that frame pedagogy for internationalisation

5.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses Research Question one: What are the institutional conditions framing pedagogical responses to internationalisation in The College? As stated earlier a social constructivist approach is being used for this investigation by constructing meaning from the data collected from the teachers, school administrators, international students and documents, of their understanding of their experiences within this school context. Of particular interest in this chapter are the institutional conditions set up for internationalisation by the management team of The College. A social constructivist approach understands that management and policy leaders have impact on, and significance for, the teaching and learning at the school. The administrative leaders on the Secondary Campus of this investigation include the Principal and Deputy Principal of the Secondary School. Three other staff members in their roles as administrative assistant/international officer, receptionist and fees officer, support these leaders. Using data generated through interviews and focus group discussions with the participants – who include the administrative officers, teachers and international students – I have identified institutional conditions that contextualise teaching for internationalisation.

Data analysis of the individual interviews, focus groups and documents revealed three key institutional conditions which impacted on teaching and learning at The College. These institutional conditions were: international student enrolment policy, administration of the international programme and The College provision for supporting teachers through professional development. In the first section I examine the data related to school policy on the enrolment of international students and its implementation and dissemination.
5.2 International student enrolment policy

The process of enrolling is the first contact between The College and the international student. As such it emerged as an appropriate place to begin examining the administrative team’s involvement with the process of internationalisation. The College has a clearly defined policy for the enrolment of international students and the documentation which needs to accompany their application, with specific procedures for administrative officers to follow. Most of the enrolment procedures are managed by the Administration Officer who is known here as Admin 1. This person gathers all personal details and previous schooling reports from the international student and their family, and manages the required English language proficiency testing which these students complete as part of their enrolment process. Prior to final acceptance, the student has an interview with the Principal and the Deputy Principal – secondary. During this interview the international student is required to provide original copies of all school and other provider reports [both overseas and local, if applicable]. (The College international student enrolment policy)

During the research interview, Admin 1 stated that more detailed background information on international students could be useful, implying that the current documentation needs to be extended:

*We need to be collecting far more on the child’s background, where they have come from, what they are here for, what their needs are, all those things I think need to be added to our enrolment process.*

Admin 1 believed that more substantive background information would help to pre-empt subsequent problems for the student and The College. She indicated problems had occurred with regards to subject choices, previous schooling, year-level completed, attendance records, behavioural issues and family issues. These were especially in relation to international students who came to The College from other local schools, implying that some international students are doing the rounds of schools as the result of possible behavioural or other problems whereby they are excluded from a school and need to find another one:
...that [more substantive background information] would reduce a lot of those problems that we are having once they are enrolled...we only got their final report, their attendance details when they left and that’s all...we were having so many problems with them because of the lack of information...Now that is part of my job, but in order to include all those... I think, it needs to be a management decision.

Admin 1’s comment that a “management decision” needed to be made on this issue indicated that she had not received instruction or been given the responsibility in relation to the process. Equally her belief was that the school leadership team had not made the decision to address this problem. She was aware that the lack of information impacted on The College and on the teachers and was problematic.

A key part of the enrolment process for international students is the completion of a school-based language proficiency assessment: Overseas students wishing to enrol in our Secondary program, will have their application processed once they have met a minimum English proficiency on the NLLIA bandscales (The College International Student Enrolment Policy).

The language assessment involves using the NLLIA bandscales, which were summarised in Section 2.5.3.1. The process as described by Admin 1 is as follows: Teacher 7 does the testing. At the moment we are looking for students with level 5...Once that is done and we have all the results that they have actually passed the examination then I can book an interview with the Principal to see them. And then he goes through all the information that is compiled on them, once that is done and he is happy with that and he is happy to offer them a place and there is a place available, then I produce an offer letter.

While Admin 1 mentioned the NLLIA bandscales entry level to The College as level 5, no teachers referred to this assessment or entry language proficiency level. The teachers seemed unaware of the language requirements applied to international students for enrolment. The process of the language proficiency assessment appears centred on one teacher, the Principal and Admin 1. During the teacher interviews, Teacher 17 commented that the enrolment process had improved in recent times and equated improvements to enrolments of students with higher proficiency levels: I
think also that our selection process must have improved a bit so that we’re not getting the dregs from another place that doesn’t want them.

His representation of students with low proficiency as “the dregs”, implies some animosity and negativity to the issues presented by low language proficiency. Admin 1 confirmed this teacher’s understanding that students had previously been accepted from other local schools with only their intensive English programme reports, and no additional academic or background information. These students did the necessary NLLIA bandscales test to qualify for entry and had an interview but no information was available concerning academic, behavioural or attendance records. Echoing Teacher 17, Teacher 10 also indicated concerns about students’ language levels and entry to The College:

*I think some of the ones we had before they really didn’t qualify to get in and somehow they managed to get in a back door…*

The excerpts from Teachers 17 and 10 indicate a mistrust in the enrolment process used previously because of failure to prevent entry to students with low language proficiency levels. These low levels were conceived as problems in some cases, hence their alignment with underhanded manipulation on the part of students. The reference to “improved a bit” implied that the enrolment process had become more stringent in preventing admission for students with low language proficiency levels, although there was a sense that there was still space for further improvement.

Information about the international student enrolment policy and implementation of an internationalised program at The College seemed to be restricted to the leadership team and administration and had not been disseminated to teachers. For example, one administration officer suggested that the enrolment policy and internationalised program as a topic itself was insufficiently discussed or communicated at The College. She linked this lack of communication with some teachers’ negative attitudes towards working with international students:

*filling the school with international students was an administration decision that wasn’t filtered through so that the [teaching] staff realised: a) the importance, b) why, c) this is what we can do, here are your resources…None of that happened and*
so I think that was why a lot of our staff had closed intentions and closed minds to catering for international students (Admin 1).

This administration officer presents the process of enrolling international students at The College as a purely administrative one, not discussed with the teachers nor negotiated with them. She suggests there is a lack of communication regarding the knowledge and understanding of the significance of enrolling international students at The College and a lack of the necessary resources, professional development or skills to assist teachers in their work with international students. In brief, it appears that internationalisation has been largely interpreted as a policy and administration effort, with little or no engagement by teachers in its implementation. Teacher involvement was seen as subsequent development which had to absorb the internationalisation initiative.

In summary the enrolment policy for internationalisation contributes to the conditions of teaching at The College because:

- although the policy is clearly defined, there is a lack of background information gathered on the part of The College on each international student and their previous pedagogical experiences;
- there is an entry language-proficiency level required for international students with which teachers are unfamiliar and/or unaware of the assessment used to determine this;
- teachers are distrustful of the enrolment process in that they may not be aware of the process; and
- teachers have not contributed to the internationalisation policy and its implementation and are largely left out of enrolment and other administrative processes.

5.3 Administration of the international programme

A key part of the school’s implementation of internationalisation is the administration of a programme for the international students. In this section I describe how the international programme is administered as this impacts on teachers
through the provision of guidance and support, and in the institutions’ expectations of the teachers. The process of enabling international students to study on a campus is a key role of the school administrative team. The administrative team directs, coordinates, supports, provides, plans, accounts for and evaluates all programs at the school. As Sergiovanni, Kelleher, McCarthy and Wirt (2004) suggest, the role is to generally inform and help to keep things functioning well for all involved in teaching and learning. At The College, the key stakeholders are the teachers, students and families. As stated earlier the school is the guardian for the enrolled international students. The title of International Officer at The College has been given to the administrative officer who handles enrolments and administrative duties. Admin 1 is responsible for all the international-student-related issues, a role which is centred on her and which she sees as having problems:

*if I am not here no-one else knows...The reason why I say this is that we could have incidents where there could be issues, we don’t know who the homestay is, all that information...*

Relying on one person in this key role is clearly an issue for her; the sole responsibility, according to her understanding, for the international students rests with just one person in the administrative team. The policy direction for the international programme is the role of the principal, although the principal is part of a leadership team.

School leaders play a pivotal role in the implementation and direction of the international programme. At The College the leaders include the Principal and Deputy Principal – secondary. As the main leader in the school, however, the Principal’s ideas, views and actions are highly influential with the staff and students. As well as administration of the international programme, they point to particular understandings of, and orientations towards, teaching and learning within a school with an international focus.

In his Principal’s Report of 17 June 2003, the Principal discusses The College’s international programme in a document which was disseminated to teachers, students and families:
While I’m well aware that the overseas (Asia) student market can be quite fickle, I was pleased to hear the following from the Chinese agent who has placed a number of students into The College this year. She deals extensively with [names other independent schools in this area] and had this to say about our College: “All of the students I have placed into your care are very happy. Some have come from prestigious private Colleges, but they feel more accepted and supported at The College. Your College has a positive and caring environment that the Chinese young people really appreciate.” It’s pleasing to hear such positive comments and our task is to ensure that such sentiments are maintained and are echoed by all students at our College.

The excerpt shows the Principal’s Report marked by references to the market, for example, “overseas (Asian) student market”, “the Chinese agent who deals extensively with (colleges)”; “the Chinese agent who has placed a number of students”. As well the report contains a high number of references to pastoral care and support: “care”, “very happy”, “accepted”, “supported”, “positive and caring environment”, “appreciate”, “positive comments”. It would appear that some key themes in the Principal’s Report relate to business on the one hand, and concerns for student support and care on the other. The business references tie into the ideas and practices of education as a market, where there is competition between providers and concerted efforts to recruit fee-paying overseas students. Education has become a commodity to be bought and sold in a competitive market place (Australian Education International, 2010; Love & Arkoudis, 2004). On the other hand, the Principal is clearly welcoming evaluations that his school is pastorally supportive of international students. The dominance of these themes might point to them being major concerns for him in relation to the internationalisation program. This position would not be at odds with much of the literature which has pointed to the commodification of education (e.g. Love & Arkoudis, 2004). As a principal, however, he also indicates ongoing interest in the welfare of students. In acknowledgement of inclusion, he extends the need for these values to all students at the school.
Inclusion as part of a school culture was a point of reference for the school leaders. For example, another administration officer, Admin 2, maintained that The College was successful in developing a caring school environment for international students: I think…they are really well looked after, that’s my perception is that the kids feel really liked, loved, cared for in the school. I think that is pretty strong.

Thirteen international students referred positively to the environment of the school, confirming The College as being supportive and caring. For example, International student 7 commented: You can see overseas students playing with Australian students, a lot. International student 10 referred to friendliness: everyone is pretty friendly. For international student 8, the size of the school was a crucial feature: you get to know everyone in here. I like small school is better. For these students, key positive features were friendliness, students playing together and knowing people as a result of the small size of The College. These comments triangulate with the school leaders’ views about the care orientation of the school. Six months prior to data collection for this research, The College International Student Committee (ISC) was formed to support the process of internationalisation at The College. The administrative leaders established this committee as a means of planning for international students. This committee was represented by the Principal, the international officer/enrolment person, the ESL teacher (secondary), the ESL teacher (primary), teacher representative (primary) and the Deputy Principal primary (myself). The role of the ISC was to review and improve the current policies and procedures pertaining to internationalisation, teaching and learning, and to assist in the communication between administration and teaching staff. On the school documentation this committee’s purpose and direction was to: provide service for the international students, strengthen the transition between the Primary and Secondary campuses in this area, change staff perception on the international students by providing information for them, investigate ways to improve internationalisation at The College (ISC, Minutes of Meeting, 14 September 2006).

The establishment of the committee indicates concern at the leadership and administrative levels of the school that there are areas of the international programme needing attention and direction, for example, “service for the international students,
change staff perception, providing information [for staff], investigate ways to improve internationalisation” (ISC, Minutes of Meeting, 14 September 2006). The committee named the following policies for the international students as lacking or needing updating: administration, pastoral care and delivery of education (ISC, Minutes of Meeting, 17 October 2006). Inherent in the committee’s concerns was the need for transitions and collaboration. Staff collaboration is a central part of ensuring that all departments and staff are planning and working on the learning experience of international students (Cheng et al., 2004).

5.3.1 **Staff collaboration in administering the international programme**

The literature identifies clearly the need to create and foster a culture of communication, collaboration and professional dialogue around the issues related to teaching international students. The participation by the school in this research project is an indication of its interest in addressing questions related to internationalisation, particularly in teaching and student learning. As well as policy statements, reports from the Principal and interviews with administrative officers, teachers were also asked about their views on the internationalisation program. A recurring perception among teachers was the lack of communication and information about the program:

*Do we have a mechanism where we keep a tab on all of this?...Surely there needs to be a mechanism...where we know what’s happening. Where we get in touch with each other, whether it’s pastoral support...academics...ESL, whatever it is, some sort of liaison so we actually know what is happening with these kids...*(Teacher 2)

Teachers questioned whether there was a process to share information regarding the international students and indicated that they were unaware of it, if it indeed existed. The three teacher focus-group discussions concluded that collaboration between staff would reduce gaps and assist in providing teachers with information about international students. They wanted more information about students (their backgrounds for example) and further knowledge of effective ESL pedagogy. Points arising from these focus-group discussions are detailed in Chapter 7. Teacher 1’s suggestion of possible action – regular meetings and discussion with other teachers,
the ESL teacher and administrative officers – indicated willingness on his part to participate in such initiatives. The opportunity afforded to teachers by this research project to openly discuss their work with international students was clearly novel for many in the group. For some it appeared to be their first opportunity to discuss international students in an organised forum, although informal discussions clearly took place between the ESL teacher and other teachers.

In summary this section has shown that the administration of the international programme is characterised by:

- expressed concerns from administration and teachers that internationalisation is insufficiently discussed, planned or communicated at The College;
- a general belief that the school community is supportive and caring of international students; and
- a perceived lack of information and sense of collaboration by teachers about the internationalisation program in terms of information about students and how they should teach in response.

Besides the administration of the international programme at The College the administrative officers also need to ensure that the international students are supported and provided for by the teachers in their mainstream schooling experience. This support and provision is specifically achieved through making cultural knowledge and cross cultural competency services available to teachers and international students as discussed in the next section.

5.3.2 Supporting international students

Providing cross cultural support for teachers and international students is a large part of internationalisation (Education Services for Overseas Students, 2008). This support needs to be on-going and requires careful planning and management by the leadership team, administrative officers and teachers. This support covers pastoral care, care of the international student out of school hours, promoting staff engagement for internationalisation and staff professional development in this area.
Such support also includes the provision of translators and interpreters, guidance and counselling, and the employment of English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers.

The data from the focus groups and individual interviews indicate that The College provided limited access to translators. There was no list of translators available to teaching staff and students. Two translators, one Korean speaker and one Mandarin speaker, were called to The College on a needs basis when required. Need was defined by the leadership team when there was a problem, such as student behavioural issues.

Guidance and counselling support is available at The College for the wider school community for two days a week. Teachers completed referral forms for students they were concerned about. It was used mostly for students with family and behavioural issues. International students could not have access to this support independently as they needed a teacher’s referral to do so. No international students used this support. According to Davis and McDaid (1992), Faltis and Wolfe (1999) and Popadiuk (2010) guidance, counselling and access to translators and interpreters are crucial provisions of cross cultural support services in the implementation of internationalisation.

One example that was offered by an administrative staff-member as an example of support was the buddy system. The system involved existing students volunteering to be a friend and support person to new students, particularly international students. Admin 1 spoke at length about the smooth transition into the school provided by the buddy system between students. She also referred to the support to students from administrators and teaching staff. She attributed this support to the building of a reputation for The College as a school that supports and cares for their international students. For her this played a key role in the internationalising of the school community and experience:

...our students are great like that. They help whether it’s local students from outside or international they help them fit in. I think students coming into our school transition nicely because they are not coming into a school where they feel threatened...
In relation to ESL teacher support, The College has provided a so-called ESL room for international students since 1994. This designated room was where ESL classes were conducted. According to The College documentation this provision was on a “user pays basis”. This indicates a focus on the financial aspect. This aspect has since changed as the user pays system has been abolished and students no longer pay extra for this service. The space is a glassed conference room in the Secondary library and contains a large table and eight chairs. The room is equipped with a whiteboard, a TV, a video machine, three computers, a filing cabinet and literacy resources. The employment of an ESL teacher on a part-time basis was intended as a resource to cater for the process of internationalisation. The management decision to appoint an ESL teacher was noted in the Minutes from the School Board 26 April 1994, after international students had been enrolled at The College for two years.

An ESL teacher is employed three days a week on the Secondary Campus at The College to assist the international students, those students on Australian student visas, domestic ESL students, and those students who are Australian residents or citizens whose first language in not English. During the three days, the teacher meets timetabled groups of students. Each group meets the teacher once per week. The timetable is arranged to impact as little as possible on the student’s in-class time and is planned for when a student’s class is at class sport or Bible class to minimise their absence from core subjects. During the three days at The College, the ESL teacher not only teaches ESL classes but also conducts language proficiency tests for new students. The teacher is also responsible for discussing the progress of ESL and international students with the teachers regarding their academic progress and welfare. Some teachers informed the ESL teacher when they gave assignments to the students or when they were experiencing difficulty with a student they perceived to be an ESL student. The ESL teacher provided further details of her role:

... I run an afternoon study group and on a Thursday I have that hour-and-a-half open to just ESL students. That’s the time when they have access to come and speak to me at any time and I am always here. So if they have assignments they can come and, you know we can work on it together.

For fifteen of the teachers, the ESL teacher’s role was as follows:
…she’s the person responsible for them. They’ve got a point of contact, somebody they know that’s really on their side and will fight their battles for them, they can have confidence in… (Teacher 17)

The ESL Teacher stays…And she will work with them and they know that she is there and she’s available out of school time. (Teacher 6)

These comments indicate a support and access dimension to the ESL teacher’s role. According to Teachers 17 and 6, she was the academic helper, advocate and point of contact for international students, for example, person responsible for them, point of contact, on their side, fight their battles for them, work with them, is there and available out of school time. These excerpts suggest that the teachers view the ESL teacher’s role more as a pastoral role focusing on the international students’ well-being, and there is not a lot of discussion about the academic needs of these students. There is little reference to concepts of “sheltered instruction” (Short, 1999) and the need for specialised academic assistance. Significantly, the teachers talk in terms of the students being “her” (the ESL teacher’s) responsibility, indicating that the teachers take little or no responsibility for the pastoral care of international students. The implication for the inclusion of international students equally into the mainstream is that it seems biased and impeded by the understanding shared by the teachers. Equally, working with the students, presumably on their academic needs, appears to be a part of the ESL teacher’s role that is assumed, not that this work is indicated explicitly in the teachers’ comments above or in any of the teacher data. Administration officer, Admin 6, provided an administration view on the role of the ESL teacher: I also think that a lot of responsibility falls on the ESL teachers to make bridges that they can’t make...

Admin 6 maintains that expecting the ESL teacher alone to connect with the international students and provide support for the students is not reasonable or achievable because of the number of international students and the limited amount of time the ESL teacher has at The College. He maintains that more than the ESL teacher is required to achieve this. This belief that ESL support is inadequate in catering for all the students’ needs is echoed by Teacher 4.
There appears to be some tension between teachers’ attitudes and expectations. At times in the data, there appears to be negativity on the part of the teachers about the withdrawal of international and ESL students from their classes for ESL support sessions. Yet there is also an awareness that the students are receiving inadequate help. There is also some hint of criticism from the administration team in relation to the attitudes of the teachers about students’ academic needs:

*But the issue here is that if the teacher is not prepared to do it inside the classroom then it needs to be dealt with outside the classroom ... I don’t believe that the child needs to pay for extra tuition elsewhere where primarily their problems are with work that’s been required of them to be done at school.* (Admin 1)

It is the “individual academic needs” that appears to be the contested issue here: a recognition of the problem, but there are different opinions as to who is responsible for responding to these individual needs and providing for these students who are part of the mainstream. The services needed by international students vary. The most obvious required is pedagogical: service associated with the students’ learning needs (Harklau, 1999; Short, 1999). The students also require services for non-academic needs: social, psychological and affective (Duff, 2001), an area which is acknowledged by The College. The main area of contention is whose responsibility it is to cater for the students’ needs, particularly their academic needs.

From the interview and focus-group data it appears that the teachers share an understanding that the responsibility for academic support is not their concern but lies with the part-time ESL teacher. This understanding indicates that individual academic support does not take place in class-time. I cover this point in more detail in Chapter 7 where I analyse the teachers’ representations of pedagogy.

In summary this section has shown that:

- The College provides limited access to translators;
- an ESL teacher is employed at The College on a part-time basis, which thus means that these students are only assisted on a part-time basis;
- the teachers talk in terms that indicate that they do not see academic support as their responsibility;
• some teachers share the understanding that the responsibility for international student welfare lies with the part-time ESL teacher; and
• some administrative officers are concerned about the lack of responsibility taken by teachers for the academic and welfare needs of international students.

5.4 The College provision for supporting teachers through professional development

The final point from my analysis of the institutional conditions that contextualise teaching at The College is the provision of a staff professional development program. Professional development is an ongoing program which institutions should provide for their teachers in order to continually provide advice, guidance, accountability and training (O’Byrne, 2001). Professional development helps to equip teachers with skills and knowledge through teacher collaboration and specialist help to prepare, plan and provide in their pedagogy for international students. In the context of this investigation, the data suggest an overall sense by teachers of inadequate knowledge and skills in respect to their teaching of international students. The issue of professional readiness to work with such students (Karathanos, 2010) with professional competence and capacity was a focus in the teacher data. What emerged from the focus groups and interviews, in the case of a significant proportion of the teachers (twelve out of nineteen), was a representation of inadequacy in the area of knowing how to teach international students.

Knowing how on earth to help them... I have no training in ESL, I find it very difficult to know really how to assist them...And I feel very frustrated in not being able to assist them. (Teacher 4)

...you know they don’t even get the question so how do you help them when they just don’t even understand what you’re asking them to do... (Teacher 15)
The teachers quoted above indicated a sense of inadequacy in teaching international students with English as a second language. Using their words, there was a sense of “frustration, exasperation and inadequacy” (Teacher 4). The “what else am I going to do?” (Teacher 16) final statement suggests a sense of resignation. The teachers’ comments indicate concerns about students’ lack of understanding and problems with English. There is repeated reference to English proficiency and links made between students’ English, student problems in class, and teacher concerns about their own lack of teaching methods for these particular students. Love and Arkoudis (2004) and Li (2004) share similar concerns expressed by teachers in their respective studies. Lack of teacher knowledge on how to construct and run an effective classroom community catering for second-language learners within the mainstream is a key concern that has been identified in research and is evident in this study. The literature presents the elements for effective teaching of students who have English as a second language to include knowledge of teaching and learning strategies, understanding second language acquisition (SLA), knowledge of the second language learner stages of development, knowledge of curriculum and knowledge of culture (Kohler, Harbon, Fischmann, McLaughlin, & Liddicoat, 2006).

It was clear that teachers perceived that they were not adequately prepared in terms of professional development or specialised training in the area of supporting ESL learners. The questionnaires conducted in the research with teachers included the question: Have you had any in-service or pre-service training related to culturally diverse students? The majority of teachers had participated in some form of professional development in the area of internationalisation, but seventeen of the nineteen teachers indicated that they would like further professional development in this area. Three teachers were not interested in further professional development in internationalisation as they indicated that they were too busy, do not work with the international students or their methods were already working well for them. Question twelve on the staff questionnaire asked: which of the following would help you most in dealing more effectively with international students? Eight topics were listed on
the questionnaire with an “other” option if staff wanted to add their own topic of interest (see Figure 5.1).

![Figure 5.1](image)

Figure 5.1. Staff response to areas requiring help

There was clearly interest among staff for more professional development. For the teaching staff there was also an interest in knowing the direction and approach that The College intended for its teaching staff. For example, Teacher 11 expressed the need for direction to get things started:

*I guess just educating the staff would probably be a start maybe, just to let everybody know this is what we want you to do.*

In recognition of the needs presented by increased enrolments of ESL international students, The College provided a full day professional development in-service for all teachers the year before this investigation commenced. The focus of the in-service
workshop was “ESL in the mainstream” and was conducted by myself and the other ESL teacher at The College at that time. When interviewed for this current project, teachers who had participated in the workshop talked positively about the experience. As well as sensitising the teachers to the experience of being a non-English-speaker, this workshop covered three main topics. The first topic was teaching strategies and the use of resources, such as pictures and objects, in the mainstream. The second topic was the challenges that ESL students face in the mainstream, such as a new school environment and all subjects being presented in English. The final topic involved suggestions and strategies for what teachers could use to assist their English as a second-language students. The workshop also provided an opportunity to discuss and inform teachers about ESL pedagogy in the mainstream classroom.

Among the administration staff, only one professional development opportunity was mentioned by Admin 1 who had attended an in-service workshop on internationalisation for administrative officers run by the state-based independent schools professional organisation.

*I went on a course last week with [names the organisation] where they were talking about all the new legislation*

Admin 6 was aware of his need for skilling in the areas of interacting and communicating with international students and referred to this three times in his response. He spoke from a personal perspective on not having a “starting point” and feeling “awkward”. Admin 1 is aware of the need for professional development in equipping teachers with the necessary skills and knowledge to teach students from diverse linguistic cultures:

*...they [the teachers] hadn’t been trained how to deal with them [the international students], they don’t know their background, they don’t know their culture and I think that’s what’s made it really, really difficult having those students in our school...I think those training sessions need to still happen regularly so that they are updated because then they become more aware and I think it’s that awareness that needs to be widened and made more available...*
This administrative officer shared the same understanding as the teachers expressed regarding their sense of inadequacy in teaching international students. In summary, this section has shown that:

- some professional development for teachers on internationalisation has taken place;
- both teaching and administration staff indicated that more culturally and pedagogically oriented professional development was needed to help them in their work with international students.

### 5.5 Chapter summary

The school leadership and administration at The College appear committed to internationalisation as a program that is both business-oriented and concerned with providing a supportive, caring environment for international students. Countries of note are China and Korea, with references to a Chinese agent in the Principal’s report and Chinese and Korean translators available in the school, albeit on a casual basis. A key point that emerged from the data was the representation by teachers of the lack of consultation and involvement with them in relation to the internationalisation initiative at The College. They wanted more information about students and their backgrounds and also more help with ways to teach students. Key concerns were students’ English language proficiency levels and their engagement in classroom practices. English language problems were linked with poor classroom performance. This point has been noted in the literature (e.g. Kettle, 2011; Love & Arkoudis, 2004).

Despite teacher concerns, many indicated that addressing students’ academic and welfare problems were primarily the domain of the ESL teacher. The ESL teacher was employed only on a part-time basis, a point noted as inadequate by an administrative officer and implied by teaching staff. The ESL teacher’s support for international students had originally been provided on a user-pays basis although this system has since been abolished. Other support services such as translators were provided on an *ad hoc* basis as they were needed. The services of translators were not available to teachers and administrative personnel. Many teachers indicated
concerns about their levels of expertise for teaching ESL students in their mainstream classes. Some referred directly to their lack of ESL expertise while others were concerned about how to engage students in their classes. In the next chapter, I move to the classroom data and offer more detailed accounts of teachers’ representations of international students in their classes.
Chapter 6: Teacher representations of international students as learners

6.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses Research Question two: How do the teachers represent the international students as learners? The representations include teachers’ understandings of students’ experiences as learners: for example, the students’ engagement with academic English and the language demands of operating in mainstream classes, culture shock, lack of guidance and support, poor time-management skills and involvement in the school community. The teachers’ views have been clustered into the following themes: knowledge of international students and building relationships; general views on student behaviours that affect learning; international students’ home-school practices that affect learning; and teacher representations of international student involvement in the school community.

6.2 Knowledge of international students and building relationships

The focus-group sessions and interviews with the teachers indicated the extent to which they had knowledge of their international students: their names, background and other demographic information, as well as their learning needs. Thirteen of the nineteen teachers stated that they did not know who the enrolled international students were: for example, Teacher 12: I don’t know who they are, I don’t know the difference...I haven’t been told if they are in my year 8...

This uncertainty by staff about who was and who was not an international student was telling. It is to be read against the importance signalled in the literature of appropriate background knowledge of students. Scarcella (1990) argues that “knowing” the student is a core principle of teaching second-language students in the mainstream context. “Knowing” involves knowledge of their background and previous experience. The comment quoted above that the teacher was unable to
identify the international students in her class as she had not been told who they were, implies that the teacher expects to be informed by The College. The fact that many teachers do not ask the students directly is quite significant and raises questions about pedagogy, interaction style and overall relationships with students.

On the teacher questionnaire, ten teachers stated that they wanted more information regarding students’ previous education experience, indicating that they did not have this information or request it. Work by Collier (1995), Li (2004) and Love and Arkoudis (2004) indicates that international students often feel that they arrive at their new school as assumed blank slates; that little interest is taken in their existing learning and educational backgrounds and experiences. Like all students in overseas educational programs, the international cohort arrives at The College with their existing educational experiences: previous schooling experiences, established knowledge, life experiences, assumptions and expectations. They are in no sense blank slates, waiting to be inscribed upon (Cummins, 1994; Ryan & Carroll, 2005). The comment by Teacher 12 earlier, sits uncomfortably against this literature. She appears to have little knowledge of her international students’ existing background experience or existing “capital”, and little sense of responsibility for investigating it. The teachers appear to expect someone else to provide them with data on their students without their active engagement in the communication process or in building relationships with their learners.

Teachers who show genuine interest in international students build closer rapport and more effective relationships (Derwing et al., 1999). Good and Brophy (2000) argue that teachers who are genuinely interested in and communicate effectively with students develop more successful, encouraging and positive relationships. These kinds of relationships support more successful teaching and learning experiences (Derwing et al., 1999; West, 1998). The data collected in the course of this project show initial fears and concerns were reduced and overridden as two teachers initiated contact and developed closer relationships with the international students in their classes.

_I actually have found out that more of them are Christian than I thought. I just made the assumption that they were all Buddhist or something, but they’re not, a lot of
them are Christian. And you find that out when you are just chatting to them...(Teacher 15)

Teacher 15’s reference to her assumption is interesting. Robertson, Line, Jones and Thomas (2000) highlight the dangers of assumptions and their capacity to hide realities.

For two of the teachers, there was a preoccupation with personality and the importance of shared interests to develop relationships with their students:

_‘And I think it does come back to personality because we all make connections with different kids in different ways. International student 5 and I get along like a house on fire, because we are both pianists and we can talk about different things...Whereas [names another student] I don’t know at all. You know, so it does come down to personality and what you know about the kids and what you take the time to find about them.’_ (Teacher 16)

The view that shared practices or individual variables such as personality determine relationships between staff and individual students indicates that somehow certain relationships are logical and preordained: if a teacher and a student share common interests or experiences, then they will inevitably know each other better. There is a sense of a normative “this is how things are” explanation working here. It follows from this teacher’s view that there is a probability that a teacher will know and get on better with some students than others. While this is possibly true on a personal level, it raises questions about the teacher’s relationship, particularly pedagogically, with students with whom he/she has little shared experience. West (1998) argues that teachers need to know “all” their students on the level of educational experience and needs, and “all” students need access to teachers and the opportunity to create communication lines and relationships with them. Grant and Gillette (2006) also argue that effective teachers have good knowledge, effective communication skills and an ethic of caring and being responsible for “all” their students.

Language, communication and relationships were areas of concern for nine of the teachers. One teacher made the following comment:
I’m not as scared of them like I used to be. I used to be scared of trying to communicate…(Teacher 15)

This teacher’s self-appraisal resonates with Reeves’ (2006) discussion about the feelings of inadequacy and incompetence on the part of teachers working with ESL students. She refers to how a lack of awareness and knowledge about second language pedagogy causes teachers to “back off” from interaction and to feel professionally “scared”. The other four teachers in the focus group session with Teacher 15 agreed with her comment, confirming their feelings of inadequacy and incompetence in building relationships and working with ESL students.

Building relationships with the international students was an issue talked about by nine of the teachers. It was often constructed as something circumstantial, meaning that it happened when certain circumstances prevailed. Teacher 10, for example, talked about a previous colleague who had had a particular interest in China and had spent time there. This colleague spoke a little Chinese (Mandarin) and through personal interest and concern built good relationships with Chinese students in the school. She shared some of her knowledge of the students of Chinese background with colleagues:

See [names previous staff member] used to find out some of these gaps too, ‘cause of her interest in China of course, but now that she’s gone we don’t have anybody quite with that level of interest so perhaps there’s more chances of having these gaps...

This teacher is obviously aware of the benefits of this kind of relationship and knowledge; his acknowledgement that this no longer happens now that the “China expert” teacher has left shows some understanding of the desirability of teachers being informed. This shows an awareness of the lack of intercultural competence and confidence.

There are some complexities revealed by the data analysis. When the data generated with international students’ was analysed in conjunction with teachers’ comments, some of the complexity of the context became evident. Two teachers in the questionnaires stated that they had intentionally decided to take a personal interest in the international students and had made an effort to get to know them. Five
international students commented positively and appreciatively on what they saw to be more open and accessible relationships with teachers than those they had experienced in their home contexts:

*International student 13: ... compared to like Japanese school, the teachers are like more friendly and like kind and close to students, like I can ask questions like really easily....*

The use of “friendly”, “kind” and “close” suggest that this particular student feels comfortable and able to ask questions and communicate with teachers at The College. The student has what Grant and Gillette (2006) describe as an “authentic” relationship with teachers, that is, this student knew her teachers and six of her teachers knew her and commented positively on their shared learning activities. However, as stated earlier, sixty-five percent of the teaching staff did not know who the international students were. The teachers showed concern but also appeared to do nothing, presenting a sense of helplessness in not knowing how to practise intercultural competence (Reeves, 2006). This sense of helplessness presents the teachers’ feelings of inadequacy and incompetence in working with ESL students.

In summary, this section has shown that:

- many of the teachers do not know the international students personally or know about their cultural backgrounds and previous educational experiences;
- there are questions about teacher agency and roles of teachers and the institution in filling gaps in teachers’ knowledge;
- there is a sense of helplessness on the part of teachers – they expressed concerns about language, cultural knowledge and pedagogies for international students;
- the teachers’ representation of these students is not shaped or guided by an awareness of the international student’s experience or needs as a L2 learner from a different educational-cultural background; and
- the international students themselves talked of a friendliness on the part of the teachers and found their relationships to be closer than those with teachers in their home countries.
6.3 General views on student behaviours that affect learning

The way that teachers represent the international students’ behaviours determines how they respond to the students as learners. The analysis of the data from the teacher interviews, focus groups and questionnaires showed three themes operating in the teachers’ representations of the student behaviours that affect learning. The themes are: stereotyping differences; student commitment to learning; and international students as ESL learners. Each of these themes is now presented in its own sub-section.

6.3.1 Stereotyping difference

The words used to describe international students highlighted behaviours that the teachers perceived as affecting the learning. Ten teachers used stereotyping, that is generalisations and terminology, to construct the international students. In the data, three of The College teachers indicated an awareness of social distance and the power of inclusion and exclusion:

*Teacher 16:* Today’s chapel will be taken...by all our international students. Like it was great to see them involved and up there, but in another way it was like...

*Teacher 15:* They were standing there in just a little group.

*Teacher 16:*... that’s them and this is us...

*Teacher 11:* Do you reckon kids would think like that?

*Teacher 16:* How could you not?

*Teacher 15:* Even not consciously, even like sub-consciously...

Teacher 11’s reference to “kids” is to the local/domestic/non-international students at the school. The teachers indicate a concern about the presentation of the students in two groups of international and non-international students. Using pronouns such as “them” and “us” may indicate staff viewing international students as different from themselves and The College, thereby creating what Holliday (2003) refers to as social distance. Social distance is created when value judgements are based on negative stereotyping of opinions. The use of negative stereotyping is usually based on opinion and not fact (Palfreyman, 2005). This discussion between staff reflects an
awareness by two of the teachers of the creating of a distance between international students and local students.

As a faith-based independent school, The College engages in activities with a religious focus. All students are expected to attend and engage in these activities. The issue of religion was a significant one and teachers’ perceptions of the students’ attitudes to the character of The College as a faith-based school were interesting. Religious Studies is a compulsory subject for all students at The College. Intentionally missing activities which formed the faith-based character of The College was seen in negative terms by Teacher 4. She interpreted the students as “putting down” The College and her belief system. Yet seven of the international students themselves acknowledged that they were Christian and actively engaged in attending church:

*I get to know like people out of school, at church as the time goes by…* (International student 14)

*…my friend from church.* (International student 10)

As already established, many teachers did not know the international students very well and as a result made assumptions about these students’ religious backgrounds. Teacher 2 stated:

The other thing is considering the nature of the school we are at...from a Chaplain point of view, whether... we expose these kids who are by and large the international ones, not Christian, I assume...unless we think God does not work in the international student’s life.

Teacher 2 stated that he had assumed most of the high school international students were not Christian. Teachers 12 and 16 made the same assumption:

*student misses the socializing that the other students have from being at church…* (Teacher 12)

*because a lot of the international students we don’t see on the weekends at church...[Asian ESL student] probably doesn’t come across this way, but he’s always involved, he’s very involved with his church and all that sort of thing. And [previous international student] and international student 5... I know it’s strange to think of him like that, hey?* (Teacher 16)
Teacher 16 expressed positive surprise that some of the international students were Christian. Teacher 15 acknowledged that she had stereotyped the international students as not being Christian:

*I actually have found out that more of them are Christian than I thought. I just made the assumption that they were all Buddhist or something, but they’re not. A lot of them are Christian. And you find that out when you are just chatting to them and they go to church on the weekend, and I’m like are you serious?*

Actively engaging in conversation with the international students had changed this teacher’s attitude and understanding. Some teachers were aware and had made the effort to get to know their students. One teacher made the following comment:

*In the past when we had those large groups that were a huge problem spiritually... they had an enormous negative influence on others in the class...and were outright negative towards it...they would make derogatory statements...in Bible study and on chapel day they would rock up in Period 2...I still have students that fit that...* (Teacher 4).

The representations by the teachers indicate a commitment to their faith and to the school and its faith-based character. They expressed negativity towards those international students whom they considered were disrespectful or disinterested in the religious side of the school. Equally, the data show that some of the teachers had reductive, stereotyping views about the students and their religious backgrounds. Asian-looking students were judged to be Buddhist – a misinformed view. It was only through engagement and interaction with the students themselves that the teachers’ views were corrected.

In the data from the teachers’ focus-groups, there is evidence of the teachers naming students whom they thought were the international students. All the students named by the teachers were of Asian background. Interestingly, none of the named students were international. Four of these named students were ESL students with Australian permanent residence visas, while two of these students were Australian citizens born in Australia. The data show a prioritising of visibility, of how students look, as a key indicator of being international, with Asian-looking students earmarked as international. There is the sense that “Asian” is “other” and not Australian or local. Internationalisation includes knowing who the international students are and not
assuming that Asian-looking students are the international students. Making assumptions and generalisations about their students often results in teachers holding negative or false expectations (Faltis & Wolfe, 1999). Limited cross-cultural competency on the part of teachers may lead to stereotyping which influences expectations of students and causes teachers to ignore the challenges for particular students (Roessingh & Kover, 2002). This excerpt from the data demonstrates another view of Asian versus international:

Researcher: The only year 8 that’s an international is international student 15.
Teacher 10: Really!
Researcher: From the Solomon Islands.
Teacher 2: You wouldn’t know that anyway.

The responses from these two teachers reveal their lack of knowledge that this student from the Solomon Islands is an international student. Teacher 2’s response indicates a level of surprise which raises questions about expectations of what an international student “is” in this teacher’s view.

The term “Asian students” is used by Teacher 9 four times in his focus-group session. In each instance he was referring to the collective group of students. Teacher 4 used this term five times to identify a group as these two extracts illustrate: we had some excellent results from a couple of the Asian students this year in athletics; and some of the things that I hear the Asian kids are doing. Teacher 11 used the term “Asian student/s” three times but self-corrected on one occasion with the term “international student” as if the term “Asian student” was a problem: I’ll try the next Asian student, or international student I should say.

Teacher 1 used the term to refer to all the ESL students and not just to the international students: What did we do earlier in the year where it was just specific with the Asian, or ESL maybe not just international? He indicated a differentiation between students, focusing on geographical background, language use, and international status. Teacher 2 used the term to differentiate between the various nationalities represented at The College from Asia: I see that, in other words say while they are the Asian students, Chinese students may still group together largely, they’re no different in the context of the whole class than any other group.
The teacher’s comments showed a degree of sensitivity to students’ backgrounds and an awareness of diversity within the class.

One teacher used a collective noun to refer to the international students as *this year’s mob* (Teacher 19) – a typically Australian collective noun, often used by Indigenous communities. The noun suggests a “generic” way of thinking about these students as different from the local students. This section has shown how the teachers have stereotyped the international students’ differences of behaviour that impact their learning at The College and made assumptions about religious backgrounds and being “Asian-looking”. As shown in the data both of these stereotyped differences represented by the teachers are not necessarily correct. The teacher representation of the international students’ behaviours continues with the teachers discussing the student commitment to learning.

### 6.3.2 Student commitment to learning

Student diligence refers to students who apply themselves to their work and are actively involved in the learning process. Fifteen of the teachers referred explicitly to the diligence, or lack of it, of the international students. Teacher 8 described the international students as:

*Ultra diligent or really avoiding, and there’s not much in the middle...*

The words “diligent” and “avoiding” are preceded by absolute modifiers, in this case “ultra” and “really”, which widen the gap further. Teacher 4 reiterated in an individual interview the same understanding as Teacher 8:

*So to me there is a real contrast, there seem to be two very distinct groups.*

This represents the international student as either an effective hard-working learner or not. Teacher 19 introduced some complexity into the binary:

*And so they are a pleasure, they work very, very hard. I’ve got others who are honest triers like... and....some others are trying to do the right thing even...who are trying to give orals to go in front of the whole class even...that’s the positive side, the*
negative side is some who do the bare minimum who try and escape work, and despite all the offers of marking drafts and whatever seem reluctant to get involved.

Positive vocabulary and expression were used by this teacher to describe the characteristics of the diligent international student. These students were represented as engaging in their work assignments immediately, and efficiently utilising feedback from teachers who were willing to provide this feedback, as soon as they could. Admin 2, who also taught some subjects, extended the representation of these students to foreground “fitting in” as a prerequisite for doing well; promptness is an integral part of this representation with a lack of punctuality equated with “not fitting in” and “not doing well”:

*It’s like we seem to have two groups. One likes to come in and just do really well, fit in really well. And then we have the other group...we just deal with them being late, they come at 11 o’clock in the day.*

This staff-member expected the international students to just “fit” in and participate actively. This understanding was presented in two individual interviews and one focus group. The teachers’ views appeared to include all the international students at The College.

For many teachers, classroom behaviour that deviated from expectations was a source of concern. Teachers in two of the focus groups and one individual interview discussed students sleeping in class as an ongoing problem they experienced with Asian students. Sleeping in class was viewed by twelve of the teachers as part of their experience of international students. The teachers held negative views of this behaviour. Teacher 9 was new to the school and remarked:

*...I get the impression in the staffroom that Asian students seem to sleep a lot in class...*

Teacher 15 made the following comment:

*They’re certainly not as bad as the few we had a couple of years ago. We had a heap of them that used to come to school to rest.*

These views were discussed openly in the staffroom. In each focus-group session, when one teacher mentioned the large international student group from the past that had slept in class, all teachers, including new teachers, appeared to know the story. Teachers 4, 10 and 19 were in other focus groups and also referred to the group:
a big improvement on what we had 3 years ago...He’s one who seems to follow that syndrome. If he’s not coping he puts his head down on the desk and falls asleep and that’s compounded by late-night efforts. He’s probably the only one of all my students who’s continuing that problem that we used to see. (Teacher 10)

The use of the word “syndrome” is often related to a disorder of some kind and may have been the teacher’s meaning here. Teacher 10 was aware that this student was not coping. The language demands relating to study are one major source of anxiety and stress, and one student appeared to respond to this stress by “switching off”...
because he couldn’t cope with it... But he’s not doing any work. And he comes to school and he’s sleeping (Teacher 10). This teacher talked about sleeping as an avoidance behaviour as a result of anxiety and stress; he commented that he “feels strongly about this”. There was recognition of a problem. Comments about students “sleeping in class” occurred quite often but were not interpreted explicitly as a sign of stress or demotivation but rather as a sign of disinterest in their learning by the student. Teacher 4 continued referring to the current students at The College and said that her solution was to wake them:
...they will sleep in class if they can. I wake them up. I don’t let them sleep...

Of the sixteen international students at The College, one was known by staff and students alike to sleep in class. Teacher 4 was the only teacher who commented on waking the students up. Students sleeping in class is clearly of great concern to the teachers who perceive this as a cultural practice which is acceptable in other cultures but not within this context. The data present the teachers as having the ability to “notice” and “describe”, but not to analyse and understand the actions of these students, demonstrating a limited knowledge and understanding of culture shock and cross cultural competency. The problem of students sleeping in class is not just with the teachers but also with the students themselves and their commitment and participation in their learning.

Portraying the international students as well behaved and silent within the classroom stereotypes these students as being reluctant to participate. This generalisation was shared and talked about openly by all the teachers at The College:
They seem to be pretty good around me, I don’t really find any major problems... (Teacher 11)
The expression of “pretty good” used by the teacher indicated that this teacher did not find “any major problems” with the international students. This understanding was shared by the staff who throughout the data referred to the international students as being learners who were quiet (Teachers 16 and 1), non-attention-seeking (Teachers 1, 8, 15 and 16) and not disruptive in class (Teachers 8 and 16). Comments like this reflected the teachers’ representation of the students’ learning approach.

It’s easy to sit up the back often or somewhere in class where they are quiet and don’t attract your attention. So it’s quite easy to at the end of the period to say goodbye, but have no other interaction or make them feel included. (Teacher 1)

This teacher’s comments show his experience and expectation of international students as quiet learners with whom he rarely interacted. Some teachers expressed the view that the students needed to initiate participation:

I think another thing that I have noticed, I don’t know if it is a cultural thing or whether it’s based on their level of understanding, but often a number of the students I have won’t ask for help. Whether it’s because they don’t understand what’s happening in class at that point in time and don’t know what to ask for or whether they don’t ask because it’s cultural, I’m not sure. (Teacher 5)

Teacher 4 shared a similar understanding as Teacher 5 where:

...they don’t participate in class discussion...

For one teacher student quietness was not such a problem because the students were seen as diligent and working hard:

I find all my international students are lovely to teach and:... sit there quietly working away. I have to really make a conscious decision to try and get across to them and check their work just as I would all the other students who have their hands up and calling out and asking questions and things like that. (Teacher 16)

For Teacher 15, however, the quietness was associated with the difficulty of subject matter being taught in the class:

...I’ve had other international students that have come to my class because the other subject is too hard, so they come to my class and they just don’t do anything...

Teachers in Western cultures generally expect their students to actively engage in small group discussions, to self-nominate to speak, to ask questions to clarify
understanding and to actively participate in class (Faltis & Wolfe, 1999; Li, 2004). According to Robertson, Line, Jones and Thomas (2000) teachers perceive reluctance by international students to participate in class discussions as a cultural issue rather than a language competence issue. The teachers appear to attribute various causes to the students’ perceived quietness and reluctance to participate in class: level of understanding, culture, fear of being visible, seating position in the room, and difficult subject matter.

According to Diaz-Rico (2004) second-language students have social and cultural identities, a knowledge of their own ability and an understanding of their identity using the second language. International students are often identified within an educational institution in terms of their linguistic ability and expectation (Nero, 2005). For the students, language is the most salient factor involved in their quietness and lack of participation in class, a point not noted by the teachers. One student had the following to say about his participation in class:

*I can’t speak English well because not good. So being very quiet in class.*

(International student 4)

International student 15 was concerned with the class response to his language proficiency:

*I don’t want everyone to laugh at me.*

Another student said that it was “hard” for her to speak up in class:

*It’s very hard to put my hand up and say, “sir, something”. It’s a bit hard for me.*

(International student 5)

International students 10 and 9 gave other reasons for remaining quiet in class:

*People may think what…and our friend do they know. If we just put our hand up you think I’m the only one who wants to know and it’s shame…* (International student 10)

*Don’t want to stop the class.* (International student 9)

A complexity was evident in the data where the international students gave language proficiency and knowledge, as well as not wanting to interrupt the class, as the reasons why they remained quiet and were reluctant to participate in class. This was in contrast to the teachers’ representations which focused on cultural aspects that distracted from the main issue of language proficiency. The teachers saw this behaviour as contributing to the students’ commitment or lack of commitment to
their learning and not as a language proficiency issue. However, language proficiency is the biggest challenge for students who are ESL learners in the mainstream.

### 6.3.3 International students as ESL learners

Another representation provided by the teachers of the international students’ behaviour that affected their learning was that of these students being second-language learners. In the staff questionnaire I asked the participants an open-ended question: *What potential challenges do international students face in this school?* Thirteen teachers expressed concern over the students’ level of understanding. The teachers clarified their use of understanding on the questionnaires as referring to student proficiency in English within the classroom, in communicating, in decoding, comprehending and making meaning of what was taking place and of expectations. One teacher stated:

…I don’t ask my international students questions because I don’t want to embarrass them if they don’t know the answer or if they can’t articulate the answer. (Teacher 16)

This identifies the issue of language proficiency in an academic environment. This teacher is aware that language proficiency could be a problem for the students in speaking in a class setting. Her awareness of embarrassment however, limits the opportunities for these students to participate and practise their English in an academic context.

Differentiating conversational English from academic English and the implications of this on student success within mainstream schooling is well researched (Brigaman, 2002; Cheng et al., 2004; Cummins & Man, 2007; Duff, 2002; Gibbons, 2006; Li, 2004; Love & Arkoudis, 2004; Reeves, 2006). As discussed in Chapter 2, ESL learners in mainstream classrooms are faced with quite different language challenges: language is more abstract, de-contextualised and has discipline-specific vocabulary. Researchers indicate that awareness and understanding of the difference between conversational English and academic English is important for both teachers and ESL students because the students may experience feelings of failure, anxiety
and loss of confidence when they encounter academic English (Burke, 2004; Carroll, 2005; Dooley, 2004).

In my investigation, seven of the teachers appeared to understand the difference between conversational English and academic English: *You know you can sit down and have a conversation with them, but when it comes to subject specific language*…(Teacher 8).

Another teacher had the following to say:

*In English, you’ve the problem with them having to contextualise something. They’ve come into an ESL situation…and they’re transported back into another time and place beyond where we are now into a different form of language and they are expected to cotton on to that too…One thing is to come to terms with English as it is spoken here conversationally in Australia, it’s another situation to take them beyond that and…understand the social mores that go on here and why they use that sort of language.* (Teacher 19)

Understanding new concepts and using appropriate language in specific contexts requires proficiency in academic English across learning areas. Teacher 2 stated that he found it difficult to explain to these students one-on-one the concepts they needed to understand for assignments and that during class discussions he left these students behind:

*I find in conversation with them, often you’re struggling to be understood on a one-to-one level about what you want with concepts, and that comes through particularly in assignments…in discussions we still leave some of them behind with…rapid English…*  
*When it comes to a more analysis based, weighing up options, explaining your decision, justifying your position type, things fall apart…* (Teacher 8)

This teacher showed an awareness of the difference between disciplinary knowledge and the demands of academic English/literacy for each discipline. Teacher 8 indicated that the students could undertake processes but found critical and analytical application a challenge. Academic English is cognitively demanding and requires problem-solving, comparing, classifying, evaluating and inferring (Williams, 2001). Teachers’ comments suggested awareness of this challenge, but concern about how
to address the issue. Teacher 16 saw English language as the medium of education as the “stumbling block”, an obstacle to learning for international students. In the responses about English, there was little from the teachers about ways to overcome the “block” or ways to help the students, or even to diagnose their language problems or levels of proficiency. For example, none of the teachers mentioned the NLLIA bandscales, the instrument developed by McKay, Hudson, Mewton and Guse (2007) which The College uses as the instrument to measure students’ English language proficiency level. Knowledge of the bandscales and their descriptors might have been useful for teachers to identify students’ proficiency levels yet the data suggest that teachers were unaware of the scales. As noted by the students themselves, language was the most challenging part of their schooling at The College. They were acutely conscious of their English proficiency levels, and the difficulties they had studying in English:

*Maths, because it’s easy and doesn’t have much English words. My worst subject is SOSE because I can’t understand those words.* (International student 4)

While the students described school as less “pressured” than in their home context, they all identified learning in English as a major difficulty:

*It’s more easy studying here, but the change to English is become harder. The homework pressure is not really hard in here, but the homework is English is make it more hard.* (International student 7)

This acknowledgement by the students of the demands of learning a language in order to study in that language, of finding it a significant challenge and needing to put in a sustained effort confirms the findings by Selinker and Gass (2008). The challenges that these students face can be intimidating and often the cause of overwhelming anxiety. The students are expected to be proficient in both spoken and written English. This puts pressure on them to cope and as the literature shows, this needs acknowledgement by teachers as well as careful and explicit language teaching support from all teachers in all subjects (Gibbons, 2002).

In summary this section has shown that the teachers’ representations of student behaviours that affect learning are characterised by:

- social distancing of the international and local students;
teachers’ assumption that the international students are not Christians which influenced and directed how the teachers directed their pedagogy for international students;

• their assumptions that all “Asian-looking” students were international students or all students that look Asian were viewed as non-Christian;

• some students were represented as engaging in their learning and actively taking part, whereas others were seen to be doing as little as possible;

• the international students being quiet and reluctant to participate within the classroom as a result of cultural differences; and

• an awareness of academic English as a challenge for the international students; yet little discussion about how to respond.

6.4 International students’ home-school practices that affect learning

The teachers’ representation of international students as learners continues with the home-school practices they see as affecting these students’ learning. Four themes emerged from my analysis of the data on the teachers’ representation of the international students’ home-school practices that affect their learning: culture shock, living arrangements, homework and extra-curricular activities, and guardianship of the international students. I begin with a discussion of the effect of culture shock.

6.4.1 Culture shock

Culture shock is noted in the literature as the most significant challenge that international students experience (Li, 2004). Culture shock refers to the social and emotional needs of the international student, at home and at school, who wants to belong, wants to succeed in their daily life, wants to please their family and wants to feel confident as an individual (Faltis & Wolfe, 1999).

Five of the teachers interviewed talked about international students being away from their regular family homes. They discussed the problem of students’ homesickness and spoke about ways they supported and helped students through their loneliness.
Some of the support was given by listening to the students and encouraging them, by connecting the students with their family, or simply by being aware:

*I said, “just do it, just ring your mum”. Her Mum rang her back. And it just brought it back to me and I asked her how long since she had seen her mum...miss their family.* (Teacher 16)

*I think that would be hard to remain motivated when you are only 17, in another country where no-one is checking up on you. To keep doing well at something that is hard.* (Teacher 15)

*They get homesick for food.* (Teacher 18)

*...but then having to cope with surviving without family...* (Teacher 1)

The above comments show awareness and understanding by some of the teachers that the international students do experience changes that are significant for teenagers away from their families and home. These teachers seem aware of culture shock and effects such as stress which contribute to the students’ school experience and learning.

The analysis shows that four teachers also referred to understanding in terms of understanding the cultural practices of the host school and wider society:

*...[drinking] water was one of his big changes...he was an international student and it was just such a big thing...and he said he wanted to keep up these good things...I mean just educating them is something we take for granted maybe the way our lifestyle is.* (Teacher 14)

Culture shock is certainly a familiar experience for international students. As a young overseas students far away from their usual social network, they may typically progress through different emotional stages. Differences in social structure, customs, interpersonal relationships, communication between home and host countries and other issues can contribute to anxiety and stress (Carroll & Ryan, 2005). The responsibility of all stakeholders within a school is to assist international students in adjusting to their new environment and lessening the effect of culture shock (Schulte et al., 2003). Four teachers revealed an awareness of cultural differences. For example:

*Identifying with things that we value in our culture, you know, in order to fit in they have to cross that cultural gap.* (Teacher 3)
Nine teachers stated that they were aware that international students experienced culture shock in their new environment. These teachers felt they did not have the knowledge and understanding to support students in relation to the experience of culture shock. Li (2004) identifies culture shock as impacting on the learning and emotional well-being of the student’s experience. The student’s experience of culture shock extends throughout their home-school practices and also involves and impacts on their living arrangements, homework and extra-curricular activities, and parental guidance and control while they study in Australia. I continue the analysis with the students’ living arrangements.

### 6.4.2 Living arrangements

According to the ESOS Act 2000, The College is the guardian of the international students and is responsible to care for their academic, personal and social needs as long as the students are enrolled in the school. Students’ living arrangements while in Australia are of concern for all internationalised institutions as this contributes to the students’ school experience and impacts their learning. The College is therefore responsible for providing the sixteen enrolled international students with a homestay. Table 6.1 provides a summary of the international students’ living arrangements as obtained from questionnaires and focus-group sessions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family</th>
<th>Homestay</th>
<th>Agent</th>
<th>Alone</th>
<th>House-sharing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the seven international students who live with their families, one lives with his parents, three live with their aunts and three live with siblings. These students speak their mother tongue outside of school with their family and follow their family routines and expectations. One student shares a house with university students and is responsible for himself with regard to food, provisions and routines. Eight students
live with a homestay family organised through The College. According to the data only eight students are under the guardianship of The College.

In the focus groups and individual interviews, teachers discussed out-of-school elements of the international students’ experience which they saw to be challenging and problematic as they impacted on the students’ learning. One area of concern appeared to be the homestay situation:

...the homestay isn’t all it should be. (Teacher 19)

Teacher 19 referred to students’ comments about their homestay – about it not being as they had expected. The focus-group discussions suggested that most teachers seemed to know little about homestays or about the nature or degree of support provided for international students by their homestay families. Teacher 4 noted concern:

...And that’s why they come to school late day after day after day. They’ve slept in, no-one’s there to wake them up, shove them off, no-one’s there to put them to bed or feed them properly...

This comment appears to place responsibility for appropriate care on the homestay family – or guardian. Alongside the students’ living arrangements teachers talked about the management of the international students’ extra-curricular activities as impacting their learning.

6.4.3 Homework and extra-curricular activities

The teachers’ comments revealed negative attitudes and concerns about students’ extra-curricular activities that impact on their learning. These include staying up late to play computer games (Teachers 9 and 10), watching TV (Teachers 1, 3, 6 and 9), going to nightclubs (Teachers 4 and 17), gambling, drinking alcohol, sleeping in and arriving late to school (Admin 2, Teachers 4, 8 and 14). Faltis and Wolfe (1999) argue that not all international students have developed the skills of autonomy and self-direction required to succeed in an overseas study context.
While some of the teachers indicated concerns about the influence of the students’ home situations on their learning experience, the students themselves present a different perspective. In their questionnaire, the international students were asked the following question – *What do you do with your time before and after school?* (question 8). Table 6.2 shows their responses.

Table 6.2

*International student before and after school activities*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Before school</th>
<th>After school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Read book</td>
<td>Study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing</td>
<td>Sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get ready for school</td>
<td>Talk to host</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watch TV</td>
<td>Homework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep</td>
<td>Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eat breakfast</td>
<td>Play computer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Go to city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relax</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest number of responses provided are noteworthy as they were for “study”, “homework” and “sport”, contradicting the teachers’ version. The responses varied between students and some gave more than one answer. I posed this question again during the focus-group sessions and most students reported spending on average two hours each school-day working on homework and assignments, although a few noted that they only worked on their schoolwork when they knew they would be in trouble at school if they did not. This suggests that the students spend some of their time before and after school doing their schoolwork. According to the international students, only one of them had been gambling and that was only on one occasion (his birthday).

All the international students reported having activities in which they were regularly involved after school, as part of the after-school programme and time management routine which was in place for them. In contradiction to teachers’ comments reported
earlier in this section, four teachers acknowledged positively that some of these students had recently taken part in the school musical production, music programme and sporting activities which were held outside of school hours. The data also revealed that teachers shared concerns about parental guidance and control of the international students as learners while they were in Australia.

### 6.4.4 Guardianship of the international students

There was a general sense of concern among all the teachers about who was primarily responsible for the international students and the impact this was having on them as learners. While studying at school in Australia these thirteen- to nineteen-year-olds may not have their usual support network to ask for guidance or receive direction from. As International student 10 shared, he sometimes needed help with his learning but did not know to whom to go. In the three teacher-focus groups and three individual-teacher interviews, teachers talked about what they considered to be a significant concern related to the students’ guidance and control:

... a lot of the students in the senior are old enough. They take it upon themselves to be their own guardian and they sign everything themselves and it’s a bit difficult ...to get anything... and who really cares in Australia about them anyway... (Teacher 19)

While The College as a registered CRICOS provider is the guardian of these students, the data reveal that the teachers were unaware of their expected contribution to this role. The lack of policy and guidance for the teachers in knowing and understanding their responsibility in providing guardianship to the students was evident in their talk. What emerged was the fact that teachers on the whole knew little about the students’ out-of-school arrangements. There seemed to be an assumption that students were all living in homestay situations and that they lacked the support and help they needed from home to guide and assist them as learners:

the homestay isn’t all it should be. And then this great amount of freedom is thrust upon them... (Teacher 19)

Teacher 19 saw the amount of freedom the international students have in Australia as a problem. The teacher’s view seemed to be that the students often come from
contexts which value strict routines for study. They now have to organise themselves with regard to their learning, something at which they have limited experience. His choice of the adjective “great” freedom suggests his concern. The verb “thrust”, when talking about how this new freedom is experienced, suggests an unwanted disruption to “normal” ways. The teacher felt that the international students do not expect this freedom when they come, they are not prepared for it, but it is forced on them and they have to decide how to manage it. In contrast, Teacher 10 felt the homestay tried to set boundaries:

*His homestay tells him to go to bed, but he doesn’t. He needs to go to bed for his own good. And he just stays up, giving up learning.*

Teacher 10 indicated that this student was not able to make these choices yet and felt that the homestay needed to be given more authority. In his view the international student was tired and unable to apply himself to his learning.

An additional point raised by Teacher 17 was the perceived lack of guidance provided by the school for these students:

*...for any kid who is here at the school, everybody needs somebody, a teacher who takes a little bit of interest in them...I think the other thing is we really have to understand what it’s like being there. Being away from home without mom and dad and maybe we would be a bit more sympathetic and not just dismiss them...*

Providing the international students with the support they need for successful adaptation to The College appears to be a concern among teachers. The international students are in the host country, usually without their parents to manage them directly, and as such they are expected to self-manage, direct and plan (Yeh & Inose, 2003). This kind of responsibility is often overwhelming and students can struggle to self-manage. The homestay family becomes an important influence in the international study experience. In all the focus groups and individual interviews the teachers agreed that they shared concerns particularly for the eight students in homestay situations. The data revealed concern about a lack of parental support and guidance.
In summary this section has shown that the teachers’ representations of the international students’ home-school practices that impact on them as learners are characterised by:

- the teachers knowing little about the international students living arrangements, or about the nature or degree of support provided for them while enrolled at The College;
- the teachers placing the responsibility for appropriate care of the international student with the homestay family or guardian;
- the teachers constructing many of the international students negatively, notably those in homestay situations; and
- the teachers expressing concern over who is responsible for the parental guidance and control of the international students while they are in Australia.

The last theme from the data on the teachers’ representations of the international students as learners is their involvement in the school community.

6.5 Teacher representations of international student involvement in the school community

An internationalised school community should welcome and care for the international student (Battistich, Schaps, Watson, Solomon, & Lewis, 2000). Adelabu (2007) found that students who feel accepted and have a sense of belonging are more likely to attend class regularly, engage in class and participate in extra-curricular activities. These students need help and encouragement in taking part in the school community and school culture, which links with cultural knowledge and understanding of the host country (Watt et al., 1996). The teachers’ representations of international student involvement in the school community include: participation in college activities, social mixing between international and domestic students, and international students as contributors to the school.
6.5.1 Participation in college activities

Nine teachers talked about students’ participation in college activities, identifying some as “having skills” in engaging others. International student 13 was judged by eight of the teachers as integrating well with other students, by participating inside and outside the classroom with students and teachers alike. Two other international students were spoken of in similar terms (International students 8 and 14). In this context, school sport was seen as an ideal way for international students to participate. The teachers talked about sport making a difference:

...playing basketball during school breaks...no longer sitting around, but actively doing some exercise... (Teacher 17)

This “success” was seen to lead on to other areas where the student was happier and more engaged in their learning (Teacher 14).

Other forms of school community involvement were also discussed. In particular, Teacher 4 noted that not all international students were sports-orientated; some girls had been stage-hands in the recent musical production while others participated in community projects that The College organised on Wednesday afternoons. This teacher commented that this was a positive change from the past when international students rarely participated in these activities. The College newsletter recorded another individual student contribution:

The crowning moment of the assembly was when talented international student ... sang a stirring rendition of “You Raise Me Up”. Sung with such passion and brilliancy, the song moved everybody deeply and was the perfect ending to an awesome form-class chapel. (The College Newsletter, 9 May 2008)

Prior to the above event the international students presented a Chapel programme at The College. The following discussion took place in one of the focus groups about this programme:

...that was really great for them to be able to get up...It was part of an introduction as to who they were...It was really good to see them up and involved. They each did a prayer in their own language and things...they are contributing to our school culture in that as a teacher I am being made more aware of their culture and the things that they do... (Teacher 16)
This excerpt shares the understanding that it is important to make everyone aware of who the international students are and to get them actively involved in school life. The concern raised was that they were not put on show but that they contributed legitimately to the school community. Four teachers shared a desire to know more about the international students and their cultural background, to see them involved and contributing to the school culture.

Three teachers presented some of the international students as beginning to take part actively in various areas of school life. Sport contributed to the successful participation of some of the male international students, with basketball-playing enabling many of them to build friendships with the domestic students. Forming these relationships is an important move for international students and is vital for their successful internationalisation experience (Li, 2004). Active participation contributes to a sense of belonging for an individual (Popadiuk, 2009). The teachers’ understanding of participation by the international students is that many are still not actively involved in the school community.

6.5.2 Social mixing between international and domestic students

International students are expected to socialise and participate in the school context (Li, 2004). Engaging with the larger school community contributes to positive attitudes towards the self and others, and to engagement in school, class work and the school community (Adelabu, 2007). The data show that 12 teachers at The College agreed with Teacher 3 who said:

*The kids want to have them...in the team ‘cause they are showing skills and the international students want to be even better than they are. And there is a spirit of co-operation...I hear kids praising one another, including the international students...*

The use of the expression, “spirit of co-operation”, by Teacher 3 indicates that the students were working together to achieve a common goal. This teacher had experienced the local students encouraging and cheering-on the international
students. The local students at The College were accepting of the international students and as Teacher 17 stated:

*They really go out of their way to encourage these kids, and mix with them, and talk to them, and spend time with them and get them involved.*

This understanding of peer acceptance was shared by thirteen teachers and was understood to contribute to the friendly atmosphere at The College. According to these teachers the local students welcomed new international students and were friendly towards them. Including and making the international students feel like they belong is the intention of The College as enunciated in the school policy. For the international students themselves, concerns related to social mixing included “topics” to talk about (International student 9) and the ways to talk “from different cultures, like different rules” (International student 13) which indicate a lack of confidence in using the language and shows a potential barrier for engagement by these students. Topics that students did not know about and could not join in the conversation about included current television programmes. International student 14 referred to culture and adaptation:

*Everything basically like I know the Australian culture more, I can get along with the people more and stuff, and yeah, English is getting better and I get to know like people out of school, at church as the time goes by, so my social life’s been good too.*

It appears that as his awareness and understanding of the Australian culture has grown so has his English proficiency and capacity to connect with people. His statement indicates agency and an interest in communicating and connecting with people in English. Developing English proficiency appears significant to these developments for him.

### 6.5.3 International students as contributors to the school

International students contribute in a number of ways to the school. In Chapter 1, I canvassed the literature on the contributions that internationalisation brings to an institution: a source of revenue; future ambassadors for the institution and the host country; addressing skill shortages in key areas; intercultural experience and competence for the Australian students; fostering global understanding; developing
skills for effective living and working in a diverse world; encouraging teachers and students to learn from each other; creating opportunities to review professional practice; and creating interdependence between students (Aulakh et al., 1997; Carroll & Ryan, 2005; Gribble, 2008; Sidhu, 2006). One contribution that was mentioned in all teacher interviews and focus group sessions was revenue – the students were repeatedly represented as a source of income. In the data eleven teachers used the word “money”, one teacher even referring to the international students as “cash cows”. This was certainly a key element which was reflected in the Principal’s report at a Board of Governance Meeting:

19 November 2002

OVERSEAS STUDENTS AT THE COLLEGE

Our College is licensed to have a total of 100 overseas students on campus...Every secondary overseas students pays an average of $10 000 for tuition fees. Even allowing for a 15% commission to the agent or consultant our College gains $8 500. We require an additional 30 students at The College for 2003 to provide a surplus that will allow for the servicing of Student Centre repayments as well as the employment of [names an individual]...Obviously this situation needs to be controlled however it will assist with our operating income and the added expenditure and repayments for 2003.

The Principal’s financial focus was one that all the teachers represented and discussed. The fact that each teacher focus group and individual interview raised the financial contribution of these students to The College highlights this as the prominent and best-known contribution. All the teachers were aware that international families make a substantial commitment financially to enrol their children:

there is a fair investment of money by the parents to get their kids here and then...having them...trained. (Teacher 19)

The general understanding represented by the teachers was that the international students contributed financially to The College. Although this financial contribution is well understood by the teachers it is surprising to note that there is poor communicating around these students’ educational needs or even who they are. Their
talk indicated a negative view of The College’s approach to internationalisation and a need for institutional change in this area.

One member of the Administrative team identified what he saw to be a key contribution:

...at a student level what they give back to the school is an international experience for the other students. I think that is invaluable because it teaches the kids here to respect other cultures, other beliefs, other perspectives...

He understood this as “invaluable” and “highly valued”; the contribution by the international students is significant and represents a core element of internationalising The College. This was not an aspect discussed by all participants. Only five staff talked about the benefits that international students brought to The College.

Teacher 16 acknowledged the international students’ contribution through their Chapel program and cultural awareness presentation. This cultural contribution was also acknowledged by Teachers 7 and 15. Admin 2 added that the international students contributed to the school through their academic achievements. The international students themselves were aware of the diversity that they brought to the school community: we can have a lot of opportunity to talk [to people from] different nationalities (International student 11).

The international students’ contribution to The College is more than financial, yet this appears to be poorly acknowledged implying that the focus of the international agenda at the school has diminished or changed over time. This mostly financial representation by teachers appeared to be a negative view; positive attributes were recognised or appreciated by five of the teachers. In summary, this section has shown that:

- the teachers represent some of the international students as engaging in the school sport and music programs, however teachers continue to represent many of these students as not being actively involved in the school community;
• the teachers view the local students as welcoming, friendly and accepting of the international students, and understand The College culture to be inclusive and friendly;
• the teachers repeatedly represent the international students as a source of revenue; and
• there is a lack of extensive discussion by the teachers of the positive dimension of internationalisation or the benefits brought by the presence of international students.

6.6 Chapter summary

Thirteen of the nineteen teachers did not know who the international students were in the school. The needs and experiences of these students as L2 learners do not appear to shape or guide the teachers as they work and interact with them. An area of note was the sense of helplessness expressed on the part of teachers about language proficiency, cultural knowledge and pedagogies in working with ESL learners, with no plan of action or practice to address these. In contrast to the teachers’ views, the international students talked of a friendliness on the part of the teachers and found their relationships to be closer than those with teachers in their home countries.

The teachers held general views on student behaviours that affected their learning. These views stereotyped the international students as Asian-looking and non-Christian, which had influenced and directed how they approached their pedagogy for the international students. Some teachers were aware of social distancing between these students and the local students. Teachers represented some of the students as engaging in their learning and actively taking part, and others as not doing this. The international students’ behaviour was also represented as being quiet and they were reluctant to participate in the classroom as a result of cultural differences, which differed from the students’ understanding of this as a result of their language proficiency. The teachers presented an awareness of academic English as a challenge for these students, but little discussion was given on how to respond or provide support for these ESL learners.
The international students’ home-school practices that the teachers represented as impacting on their learning were their living arrangements and the responsibility for appropriate care of these students outside of school hours with the homestay family or guardian. The teachers felt that these students did not take their learning seriously or manage their time well studying in Australia but the international students presented a different understanding. Teachers shared concern over who was responsible for the parental guidance and control of the international students showing that the teachers did not know their role in the guardianship process of The College.

The international students were also represented as beginning to engage in the school sport and music programs. However, many of these students are still represented by the teachers as not being actively involved in the school community. The local students were discussed by the teachers as being welcoming and accepting of the international students. They were presented as being friendly towards these students and the teachers understand The College culture to be inclusive and friendly. The international students were repeatedly represented as a source of revenue. There was a lack of extensive discussion by the teachers of the positive dimension of internationalisation or the benefits brought by the presence of international students. Overall the teachers’ representation of the international students was limited by their knowledge and low level of interaction with these students.

In Chapter 7 I continue with the representation of pedagogy at The College by presenting how the teachers have planned and provided specifically for the international student, thus adopting internationalisation.
Chapter 7: Representations of Pedagogy for internationalisation

7.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses Research Question three: How do the teachers represent their pedagogy in relation to internationalisation? In this chapter I analyse the teachers’ views about teaching international students and the students’ needs in relation to learning. I also include data from the administrative staff and international students in order to triangulate the teachers’ representations. Pedagogy for internationalisation refers to the understanding and knowledge of what teaching and learning involves for second language acquisition and ESL pedagogy in relation to international students. A teacher’s pedagogy is influenced by their understanding and expectation of their students as learners (Carroll & Ryan, 2005). I begin by discussing data from the teachers’ questionnaires, focus groups and individual interviews which provide insights into the nature of teachers’ pedagogy to support international students as second language learners at The College. The data also provide information about the extent to which teachers work consciously to optimise learning outcomes for these students. These understandings will provide a representation of the teachers’ experience and enactment of pedagogy for internationalisation. The data present the representations of pedagogy for internationalisation as a complexity: pedagogy for internationalisation and teachers not knowing how to respond pedagogically for internationalisation. I begin this chapter with the teachers’ representations of their pedagogy for internationalisation at The College.

7.2 Pedagogy for internationalisation

In considering the collected data, I looked for evidence of understandings related to SLA and to appropriate pedagogy in relation to working with L2 background users. In the questionnaires I asked the teachers, Have you instigated any changes to your mainstream classes/work to cater specifically for the international students?
Thirteen of the eighteen teachers – 65 percent of those participating – declared they had made changes to their practice, meaning that just over half had modified their teaching for these students. In order to ascertain the changes made to their pedagogy for international students the teacher questionnaire asked:

*If yes, what are the changes and why did you make them?*

Data from the focus-group sessions and individual interviews provided additional detail to that collected via the questionnaire. I present below the changes teachers reported having made to their pedagogy in order to provide better opportunities to engage and support the international students by monitoring their communication and teacher-talk used within the classroom, implementing teaching and learning strategies within the classroom, being aware of their classroom management, and making school curriculum and assessment modifications.

### 7.2.1 Communication and teacher-talk

For the teachers, the topic of “talk” was a key focus of their pedagogy. They commented mainly on the role of talk in the teaching and learning process. All the teachers spoke about their role as “talker”, suggesting a general understanding of the importance of effective oral communication. There was a clear understanding that their work involved a lot of expository talk:

Teacher 4: *I’m a speaker.*

Teacher 5: *I mean I can be inclined in class to explain a lot of things, sometimes I will talk about things.*

It would appear that some teachers understood “content” teaching to involve substantial “talk” on their part but without the required understanding that such talk had to be made comprehensible to the learners:

*As a general rule I feel that they [international students] can keep up okay, but content-based stuff where it’s a lot of verbal, verbal stuff, I feel like I leave them behind.* (Teacher 16)
In the teacher questionnaires three teachers stated that they intentionally slowed their speech within the classroom as part of their changed practice for the international students. Teacher 16 identified the need to modify her talk in this context, especially in relation to speech speed:

*I try and talk slower because I talk very fast... and I find myself deliberately thinking slower and talking slower... But I really try and make an effort to slow down...*

While this teacher described how she tried to adapt her delivery style to support her L2 speakers, the other 15 teachers appeared to note their tendency to talk rapidly but did not describe doing anything about it.

Teacher 15: *And I know I speak quick...*

On the other hand, Teacher 16 talked about trying to speak more clearly, consciously slowing down and aiming for improved clarity:

*And my mouth must articulate a lot more carefully when I’m talking...*

Of the teachers involved in the focus groups and individual interviews, five seemed unaware of the need to modify their talk in the classroom to support L2 learners. Attempts to modify speed and clarity in speech delivery were noted, and four teachers were aware of discipline-specific vocabulary which they addressed in their classes. This shows that some of the teachers at The College are aware of some of the particular communicative needs of students operating in a language that is not their first language. Other communicative needs of second language students include knowledge and understanding of local accents and academic language proficiency. Students work at different academic language proficiency levels for listening, speaking, writing and reading. In the data no mention was made by the teachers of the NLLIA band scales or their understanding of the academic listening proficiency of the international students in their classes. A core element of pedagogy is talk within the classroom, especially teacher-talk, which is used to support and meet all students and their needs (Duff, 2002). A teacher uses teacher-talk expecting their students to listen and understand. Gibbons (2002) notes that talking in the classroom is important and significant for language development and learning. From the literature we understand that modifications are vital to classroom communicative practice for international students (Dooley, 2004; Jacobsen et al., 2009). Love and
Arkoudis (2004) and Li (2004) state that mainstream teachers have limited or no experience of SLA or of constructing effective classroom speech for these learners.

The issue of effective communication and classroom talk and interaction was clearly a crucial one for the students as expressed in their focus groups. They talked about finding it difficult to understand some teachers, who seemed unaware of the challenge this posed for them; they expressed this as a “problem” for them which was not addressed by the school:

*I can’t really understand what he’s saying…I can’t really understand his class – it’s a big problem.* (International student 7)

Another student talked about a particular teacher’s delivery, describing it as “just mumbling” (International student 9); there were other comments by ten international students about the sheer amount of talk, which clearly constitutes a challenge: *they just talk and it’s pretty hard to listen to it…and it’s hard to make the written notes* (International student 13). The other three students in the focus group with International student 13 agreed with this comment. The students presented the nature and amount of teacher-talk as a problematic approach to classroom practice for them. Li (2004) found that teachers following this model disadvantaged their international students. Excessive teacher-talk is a reported problem for second-language students (Harklau, 1999). The comment about experiencing difficulty in listening and understanding presents teacher-talk as a challenge where the content, or input, is not easy to comprehend and is often presented without the aid of contextual knowledge (Krashen, 1987). Natural speech differs from written text in that it often contains slurring of word boundaries, stops and starts, digressions, assimilation and elision (Ling & Kettle, 2011) which impact on the listener. Effective classroom language involves using clear speech, slowing speech, using repetitions and pauses, and supporting the teachings through modelling and scaffolding (Dooley, 2004). Communication and teacher-talk significantly affect teaching and learning strategies.
7.2.2 Specific teaching and learning strategies

In response to the questions on the questionnaire, in the focus groups and interviews, teachers reported on the teaching strategies that they had implemented. These pedagogical changes included stressing important information, repeating concepts, modelling and scaffolding, working one-on-one, group work and peer teaching. I examine the data about each of these changes in the following sections.

7.2.2.1 Stressing important information

Three teachers in the focus groups mentioned what they saw as an effective support strategy when working with international students: “stressing important information”; and highlighting and drawing student attention to relevant and important facts. One way of doing this was by “signalling”:

...signalling too what’s most important, almost like giving a formula you know, you say, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, you have to cover that, or these are the 5 most important points and you do it in this order. (Teacher 7)

One teacher noted the effectiveness of this strategy for the international students:

I’ve found them quite good at picking up on signals, certain hints that you give them, more than a lot of the other kids. Like if you said, “I will give you a really hot tip for the exam”... If you’re saying that it’s a very hot tip that’s going to be there, that’s what they’ll do. They’re very good at that, very, very good at that. (Teacher 19)

The strategy of stressing important information has been found to align with effective ESL pedagogy (Diaz-Rico, 2004). Teacher 19 stated that international students were highly responsive to tips and strategies, particularly in relation to high-stakes exams. The repetition of “very” and “good” indicate a perception by the teacher that this was a significant strength demonstrated by the students. This listening during class for stressed information was one learning strategy teachers saw students adopting and links with the intentional teaching of listening strategies important for the students and their learning (Ling & Kettle, 2011). Equally important in terms of teaching was the explicit emphasis and “signalling” on the part
of the teachers as a means of supporting the students. A further teaching strategy implemented for the international students was that of repeating concepts.

7.2.2.2 Repeating concepts

Memorisation involves committing facts to memory for recall and reproducing them in future work and during tests or examinations. One statement confirmed that repetition was used to help students learn concepts and prepare for tests. This teacher talked about repeating and revisiting content:

*we spent five weeks going over and over and over protest songs and talking about the civil rights movement and Martin Luther King, Vietnam War and seeing lots of images of all of these things.* (Teacher 4)

Three other teachers followed this pattern of revisiting content for their students. Repeating and reinforcing concepts can be done in various ways and forms. Teachers can reword utterances, clarify statements, repeat a lesson or parts of a lesson, and use many options to strengthen understanding or review an idea or concept. Repetition is a building block for traditional pedagogy, where students are expected to listen attentively while a concept is reinforced or recycled (Gibbons, 2006). Dooley (2004) notes that effective language-classrooms make use of repetitions. Repetition assists with clarifying and rewording information for the second-language learner and provides further support for understanding of the topic. The comment from Teacher 4 indicates the use of repetition although she does not couch the practice in terms of the concepts of recycling and increased learning opportunities for the students. There were no other references in the teaching data to recycling and reinforcing concepts for international students; however, the students using memorisation was discussed by the teachers.

Thirteen teachers referred to memorisation as the main learning strategy for international students. Teachers discussed student success in subjects where recall was beneficial. One teacher explained it in the following terms:

*In accounting they can memorise this goes on this side and that goes on that side, numbers, numbers, bang, bang, bang...copying a process....*
The academic disciplines which involve recall were presented as disciplines in which the international students succeeded.

Mathematics as a discipline was presented as “easy” by all sixteen international students and was confirmed by the teachers as not being a challenge for the students. All of the international students agreed that the academic literacy demands of Mathematics were less. Also they had covered most of the Mathematical concepts in their home country already and had memorised the processes.

The international students also confirmed memorisation as the major learning strategy they used in their home country. International student 5 stated: *in Taiwan the teacher gives you all the questions that is going to be in the exam or all the stuff that you going to memorise.* This supports the statement by O’Byrne (2001) that international students often come from learning environments where memorisation and accurate reproduction are praised and hugely rewarded. Learning and knowing facts have played a major role in education. Testing in schools is still used to assess students and their learning and at The College this form of assessment was still strongly used in tests. The implication was that international students were good at memorising facts.

### 7.2.2.3 Modelling and scaffolding

Scaffolding involves an expert such as a teacher building on students’ existing knowledge to assist their learning for the purpose of promoting learner autonomy and independence in learning (Gibbons, 2002). Modelling is part of this process and refers to demonstration and the provision of examples of the expectations. It is a tool used in scaffolding to provide a starting point which the student can build on as a learning strategy (Gibbons, 2002). Four of the teachers interviewed talked explicitly about how they scaffolded their students’ learning:

*I also do a lot of editing/conferencing at home for assignments with email... And I do put a lot of effort in to help them a lot...model right for them and all of that kind of thing...* (Teacher 7)

Providing a model or example for the student was discussed by Teacher 8:
...some of the modelling things can work really well...

These teachers talked about providing feedback on assignment drafts and conferencing with their students about their progress through written and oral feedback. This provided temporary support and enabled the students to develop new understandings, new abilities and new concepts while completing tasks. As the students became more competent the teachers withdrew their support only to provide further temporary support to extend the student further with their learning (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). Both scaffolding and modelling are essential elements in SLA whereby the teacher takes a significant role in assisting and directing their students’ learning, leading to the students’ independence (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005).

Other forms of scaffolding are seen in the data where teachers have intentionally built on their students’ prior knowledge. Such examples include when Teacher 5 first established where his students were in their understanding and then built on that knowledge gradually reducing his guidance and help to the students. Seven teachers talked about other ways they tried to make the content comprehensible for their students in order to support their learning. Using the actual item or material or pictures, other texts, demonstrations, audio-visual aids, writing on the board, handouts, hand gestures, and mime were teaching-support strategies used by this group of teachers to scaffold learning for the students:

*I had to actually go and get one and show it to the students so they would know. And I think it makes you more conscious of just having a look through and seeing that your questions aren’t around something that the kids are not familiar with… I’ve got photos of rust to show to the kids. And that’s one of the other things, I make up PowerPoints with the photos so that they can see what we’re talking about. But that’s also a good thing for the other kids. So I think it’s got advantages both ways*…(Teacher 17)

Teacher 17 brought the actual item into the classroom to show the students. He was aware that he needed to provide the actual item or picture to familiarise his students with the context and content of the subject matter he was covering. Contextualising vocabulary through the use of non-verbal aids assists all students (Chen & Li, 2010),
but particularly the international students. Krashen (1987) noted that second-language learners were able to learn better when teachers provided contextual knowledge as a scaffold. He stated that SLA took place when the “input” was comprehensible for the learner. Research conducted by Dooley (2004) found that the characteristics of effective language classrooms included support for teachers’ practice through the use of nonverbal aids such as pictures, demonstrations and hand gestures. Teacher 17 provided pictures and digital images to ensure that the students knew what he was talking about. In reflecting on this he stated he did it for the international students; however all the students benefited. An international student reflected on the use of non-verbal cues and the contribution it made to his learning: ‘cause even we don’t understand what they are talking about. We can see the picture. It’s sometimes hard to understand, but we can look what’s going on…(International student 11)

Eight of the teachers stated in the questionnaires that they provided written summaries of their classes in the form of notes, PowerPoint or handouts as model answers to the class topics. There was a general understanding among teachers that providing international students with written text was helpful for them as it allowed them time to make meaning – they could re-read, look up words if they needed to, and refer to the more permanent written version. Teacher 16 wrote on the whiteboard to support her teacher-talk: 

*And I was trying to write things on the board to sort of give them visual clues...*

Interestingly, while this teacher felt they were doing the right thing by writing on the board for their international students, four international students noted that frequent writing on the board by teachers was a problem for them in regards to technique as the teacher’s script was too small. 

*...hard to see, some like Teacher 8 write so small. (International student 7)*

Discussion with the international students indicated that legibility of writing on the board, and also “running writing”, the unfamiliar orthography, was often a major challenge. Some were only familiar with the printed form of the English language so the variations in handwriting were difficult for them to decode and understand. For
this reason, the use of PowerPoint by the teachers was appreciated by the international students, as was the handing out of printed notes by teachers:

*Teacher 19 like using PowerPoint...and give us notes.* (International student 8)

*Teacher 19 gives us lots of notes...*(International student 7)

In contrast to the teachers’ view, “lots of notes” was sometimes seen as an additional problem by these students. The students felt they had to spend more time understanding these notes in their own time. International student 11 explained his frustration with too many notes:

‘cause I don’t have much vocabulary, I have to use dictionary many times...and sometimes it annoys me. I hope it’s getting better.

Another form of scaffolded and supportive teaching provided to the international students at The College was translated texts available in their first language (L1) from the library:

*...the English book which has Chinese version. The English book in the library like Pride and Prejudice, MacBeth that has the Chinese version is really good, it’s really helpful.* (International student 7)

However, availability of such translations is limited. While most of the prescribed texts for senior literature study are available in Mandarin, only one was available in Cantonese and none in Japanese. Providing L1 texts support what Krashen refers to as comprehensible input through translation.

One teacher used music and lyrics as a scaffold in her English classes to provide background context to texts with which she was working:

*And so we looked at songs, protest songs,...I played a lot of music from the sixties...And so they didn’t just have a book of poems. They actually had music to listen to and I think that made it a little bit easier and you know we talked about the background to the era and I showed them films and documentaries and things so that they were able to get a background. And I think by doing that it made it easier for them to understand...* (Teacher 4)

Another teacher talked about the use of DVDs:
DVDs help...I notice in English and you know, Bible when it’s appropriate, you use subtitles... it actually helps, helps the kids who speak English not so well, but for ESL kids in particular reading it...because often they can read it quicker than they can hear it, especially if the accent’s dodgy...English subtitles...You can do it on most DVDs now. It actually helps because the visual plus the language sort of seem to connect better... (Teacher 2)

Presenting examples for students provided them with a guideline and clarified expectations. One teacher’s response suggested she had an understanding of what was needed – what would help students – but expressed frustration with lack of time to do it:

_I would like to have more time to do conferencing. Conference writing with the kids, you know like showing them well, you’ve written it that way, but what if you were to change it like this. And then you go back and do that to the next paragraph. That kind of thing I think that would really be useful._ (Teacher 7)

While time to work individually with students was a challenge that some of the teachers could not manage, many teachers described changes they had implemented to assist the international students with their learning. These changes included providing: models and examples of work, written and oral feedback on assignment drafts, actual items in the classroom or pictures, written summaries, translated prescribed texts in the student’s first language and audio to enhance the comprehensible input. The teachers indicated techniques that were supportive and valuable practices that scaffolded learning and aligned with the literature. This action was positive and demonstrated an awareness of the need to provide pedagogically for internationalisation.

Modelling and scaffolding are forms of message abundancy allowing for repetition of key patterns, offering language-learners more chance and opportunity to understand more within the classroom (Gibbons, 2003). Although there are indications of the teachers being aware of the students’ involvement in their learning, much of the pedagogy presented is teacher focused and directed with little evidence of a constructivist view of teaching.
7.2.2.4 Working one-on-one

Spending one-on-one time with each student was a strategy utilised by five of the teachers at The College. They mentioned intentionally making one-on-one time in their classes to work with individual students in various ways:

*I normally have the questions one-on-one – very few of them will ask questions to the whole class. So I have to plan to make sure I have time to talk to them one-on-one and luckily my class fits in well with that...But in my class it was less talk from the front, more work on this activity and talk to them one-on-one or two-on-one, to help them.* (Teacher 10)

This teacher’s teaching style appeared to be more interactional and less teacher-fronted. Working one-on-one as a learning support strategy involves the teacher providing time for students on an individual basis. Eggen and Kauchak (2007) argue that important benefits result from interactive teaching where the teacher and students dialogue one-on-one and learn together. The teacher being available for students and working individually with them is an effective teaching strategy identified by Gibbons (2003) because it provides opportunity for the second-language student to access the expertise of the teacher and use the target language. Teacher 10 demonstrated some of these teaching strategies to encourage his second language learners. Teacher 16 shared her reason for implementing this teaching strategy:

*I have to really make a conscious decision to try and get across to them and check their work just as I would all the other students who have their hands up and calling out and asking questions and things like that. So that is another thing I’ve really made a conscious effort to do is to look for the quieter student, with my international students and make sure I am giving them just as much time.* (Teacher 16)

This statement suggests that the teacher saw international students as less proactive in seeking help, and showed that she was consciously trying to be inclusive and follow up by using one-on-one strategies; however, the approach is still teacher-directed. Teacher 5 showed similar understandings:
I have taken to when I have the time... I go to those students and just start helping them. Where are you up to, what are you doing? And I will help them as much as I can...

The international students confirmed the use of this teaching strategy and referred to one teacher as being particularly supportive in working one-on-one:

...he explain like to the end, right until we understand. (International student 8)

...because he is always like willing to help students even at lunch time or after school... (International student 5)

The willingness to provide this one-on-one support was clearly appreciated by the students. They also indicated that they were aware that the teacher was using his student-free time at lunch and after school to help international students. As a teaching strategy, one-on-one support allows the teacher to act more as a tutor where the interactions between the teacher and student take place at an individual level (Gibbons, 2006; Harmer, 1991).

### 7.2.2.5 Group work

Group work involves students working together in smaller groups in the classroom on tasks. Providing opportunities for international and domestic students to participate actively in group work was a change that six teachers had instituted. One teacher commented that he deliberately mixed up membership of groups for collaborative work, to ensure that the ESL students were working with domestic students:

When we break into groups for experiments, discussions and activities try not to have it all ESL students and try to make it more spread out... (Teacher 3)

Current thinking in SLA promotes learning the Target Language through using it. This sort of participation can be achieved through the use of group work. Engaging and participating in a learning activity, such as group work, supports learner-centred learning and views language as the outcome rather than the cause of development (Gibbons, 2006). Jacobsen, Eggen and Kauchak (2009) recommend that mainstream classes with culturally and linguistically diverse students should practise using small
groups and also increase the opportunities for students to use and practise their English. Dooley (2004) supports this teaching strategy for second-language learners as they are expected to negotiate and produce the Target Language as well as work in a team. Teachers who actively plan group work-time, where their students interact and consult with their peers, support a constructivist approach to learning. Group work allows students to be active participants engaging with content and using the experience for discussion with peers and teachers (Cazden, 2001). In their focus-group session the Year 12 international students spoke of the benefits of group work. International student 13 remarked:

*I want more small group and stuff like in group... I like it...*

International student 8 felt that she had more support when she presented oral presentations to a group:

*Like when you doing a group assignment, like someone stand next to you and speak out is better.*

Participating in a small group builds motivation, self-confidence and lessens anxiety, all of which are affective factors noted by Krashen (1987). Providing opportunities for second-language learners to talk with other students enhances SLA (Miller, 2003). The benefits gained from peer interaction in group work are also discussed in teachers’ discussions of peer teaching.

### 7.2.2.6 Peer teaching

Peer teaching is defined as a learner with a greater degree of knowledge assisting and directing the learning of another student. Four teachers in the focus groups talked about peer teaching in English, as well as in other languages within the mainstream classrooms. According to these teachers, international students can help each other, drawing on their own linguistic and cognitive resources:

*...if I have explained a concept and they’re not getting it, but one is. I say will you explain that in your native tongue... And then if you can get them even to try and then say it to you in English.* (Teacher 7)
Another teacher made this observation about peer teaching:
...I had some year 12 girls come and say what about this, this and this and I explained it and they were still looking at me blankly and I said you could ask [names a resident student] or somebody who I’ve seen them talk to before and who seems to be able to explain things to them. And that helps both sides... (Teacher 8)

Peer teaching was important to these teachers. Peer teaching promotes student interaction and the role of active participation, which in turn fosters a warm and inclusive atmosphere for the students which enhances their schooling (Gibbons, 2006). International students arrive in Australia with previous schooling, diverse life experiences, alternative knowledge and a different cultural perspective (Cummins, 1994; Ryan & Carroll, 2005). As a result, some students may already understand concepts in their mother-tongue from their original education. This means they are able to explain this concept to another student. Teacher 8 made the following observation:

I know as a teacher I know more now from teaching it than I ever did when I learnt the same stuff when I was a student. Having to know it well enough to tell someone else is a whole new ball game and if you can get them to do that...

The literature argues the value of “teaching” in “learning”; of consolidating understanding by having to explain something to someone else (Dooley, 2004). Martinez (2006) also supports the concept of understanding the learning and consolidating the process through teaching. The opportunity to “teach” each other, to discuss concepts in their native language, contributes to the development of academic competence (Saville-Troike, 1984; Sowden, 2003).

Traditionally teachers at The College have held the classrooms as “English only” areas, discouraging the use of students’ other languages and as a result limiting the amount of peer teaching in their own language. Some teachers have seen the advantages of peer teaching when necessary:

...I mean there are some advantages in them being together because they can natter away in Chinese or whatever and help them to plan... sometimes in the initial planning stages I don’t mind, but they know that a period or so of that and that’s about it. I try to discourage it after that... (Teacher 4)
This teacher was aware of the value of allowing the international students to plan and teach each other in their mother-tongue. The teacher and students were aware that the task needed to be completed in English; however, the teacher acknowledged the contribution translation and peer teaching brought to the academic understanding for the students (Sowden, 2003). The students were then able to plan, reflect and set the groundwork for the work, first focusing on the concepts and later on the language.

### 7.2.3 Classroom management

The data on pedagogy for internationalisation at The College showed that classroom management was always of key interest to teachers. There was discussion about classroom management among this group of teachers in relation to international students. Ten teachers in the focus-group sessions discussed maintaining “class control”. They raised this topic as a point of concern, describing how they found themselves having to focus on the loud and “problem” students, leaving little attention or time for the international students. Teacher 16 stated:

*They [the international students] get the raw end of the deal because when we start out, or when we are doing a difficult activity, we focus on the problem kids or the loud kids and the boisterous kids and they get left behind once again, you know...the international students, because they’re generally very quiet, very reserved.*

This teacher described herself as being a traditional type of teacher, and her emphasis on “control” and on “problem kids” suggested a style of teaching which may not be inclusive (Li, 2004) because she gave attention to the demanding students, missing the quieter and undemanding ones in the class. Duff (2002) and Park (2002) both note that teacher-directed pedagogy, where the students are expected to remain silent and listen while the teacher talks, limits opportunities for student interaction and action. If this model of teaching is combined with management “problems”, it is easy to see how L2 speakers can be disadvantaged as this teacher noted:

*Some slip under the radar, because they’re not dominant personality types in a larger class. They can sit there and you don’t pay them close attention because they*
are the 6 kids who aren’t demanding your attention through their behaviour and whatever. (Teacher 8)

West (1998) argues that successful learning is determined by successful teaching. In view of this, the comments regarding not paying attention to the quiet or well-behaved international students are problematic:

...It’s easy to sit up the back often or somewhere in class where they are quiet and don’t attract your attention. So it’s quite easy to at the end of the period to say goodbye, but have no other interaction or make them feel included. (Teacher 1)

These last two quotes from Teachers 8 and 1 are of relevance in relation to how the teachers in this investigation “see” the international students, as well as how they work with them. Each teacher’s approach to classroom management is shaped by their understanding, experience and confidence in relation to pedagogy (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2004). This is their “pedagogical stance” (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009). A teacher’s pedagogical stance is reflected in their classroom management which includes: the way in which they organise and manage their classroom; the discipline they implement in their classroom; the manner in which they address and make decisions regarding their classroom from the arranging of furniture; student seating, rules and procedures; and how they maintain behaviour in their classroom through the communication skills they use in dealing with problems that arise in regard to behaviour and special groups (Good & Brophy, 2000). This is influenced and directed by their teaching and learning styles (Carroll & Ryan, 2005). The teachers were open and honest in recognising that their approach was problematic and that there were behaviour issues in their classes that needed to be addressed. The teachers’ openness and honesty demonstrated trust in me as the researcher.

In Section 6.3 I presented the teachers’ representation of the international students’ behaviour as generally quiet, reserved and reluctant to participate in the classroom. In this section the teachers present these students as not exhibiting behavioural problems in the classroom, seemingly busy without demanding the teacher’s attention, ironically thereby being overlooked in the classroom by the teacher. This version of the international student aligns with that discussed in the literature in
which shows that Western teachers hold misconceptions that these students are passive, unwilling to participate in class discussions and resist teaching innovations (Kember, 2000). As shown in 6.3.2, the students stated that language proficiency, knowledge and not wanting to interrupt the class were the reasons why they were quiet and reluctant to participate.

### 7.2.4 School curriculum modifications

Planning and implementing pedagogy for internationalisation includes school curriculum modifications. The curriculum implemented at The College is determined by a government policy that was prescribed for all Queensland schools, including independent faith-based schools. By school curriculum modifications I am referring to the local differentiation and organisation of the curriculum by the teacher specifically for their learners. Harklau (1999) states that there is a need within classrooms for teachers to actively facilitate opportunities that include and recognise cultural diversity, thus promoting internationalisation. Effective teachers regularly develop their classroom level curriculum to engage all learners (West, 1998). In the data there were no discussions by the teachers of curriculum which included or recognised cultural diversity. This silence from the teachers could indicate a limited awareness or understanding of cross cultural competency.

In direct response to the question posed regarding school curriculum adjustments specifically for internationalising the following response was repeated across the teacher focus groups and individual interviews:

...we just have a one size fits all programme. (Teacher 9)

Teacher 4 expanded:

_Not specifically, no, because there’s a syllabus that I have to follow... QSA [Queensland Study Authority] tell me that it’s supposed to benefit overseas students because it makes it simpler..._ (Teacher 4)

Three teachers in response to the question on school curriculum modifications said that they provided some non-verbal teaching aids as their modifications, indicating their limited understanding of curriculum modification. There was no discussion by
the teachers of modifying subject content or concepts within the curriculum to provide for culturally diverse students. No reported modifications have been made to the school curriculum for international students. Since no modifications were reported in the data it would appear that modifications to the school curriculum were not shared or that this topic was unknown or not practised at The College as part of pedagogy for internationalisation. Together with planning and implementation of curriculum comes assessment of students.

7.2.5 Assessment

Pedagogy for internationalisation includes assessment. This is a measured and reported element of teaching and learning that provides feedback on an international student’s academic progress. In the questionnaire three teachers stated that they modified class assessment and work specifically for their L2 learners. The use of exams as the formal means of assessment practiced at The College for all year levels was discussed in each teacher focus group. Days were blocked each term as examination periods for teachers to set formal tests or assessments. Throughout each semester teachers also set assignments for their students to complete. The assessment aspects discussed by the teachers included testing what the student had memorised of the material taught and research-based assignments. Assessment practices at The College are varied and included: task-based, group, research, written and oral assessments. Teacher 17 gave the adaptations and modifications that had been implemented for exams at The College as a result of internationalisation:

…letting the kids take dictionaries into all their exams... you have to be careful that your exams don’t contain words that are out of date.

This teacher understood the need for dictionaries for the international students during exams and the need for careful consideration of wording in questions and terminology, indicating some awareness of SLA by the teacher of the role they played in internationalising a school.

Teacher 4 shared a different perspective and understanding of dictionaries being allowed into exams with international students:
...earlier this year Teacher 7 came and said ESL students are allowed to have dictionaries. Now we’ve always allowed dictionaries, but they were word-for-word dictionaries, except for English exams because we knew spelling was marked and that was fine. I had no problems with that...but that they could have normal dictionaries and they would have them in English, I found that very difficult to cope with because I have criteria that marks them for spelling and vocab...

All teachers were aware that international students were permitted to take dictionaries into their exams; however, this teacher expressed displeasure with the change in dictionaries which were no longer word-for-word translations. She reflected on the past and the way she had done things, stating that she “had no problems”. However, she was not in favour of the changes that allowed any dictionary to be used as she felt this affected her and her teaching.

As noted, exams are held at the end of each term at The College and students are graded according to the results they achieve in this form of assessment. Teacher 8’s representation of international students was that they could memorise the subject matter well and follow the set pattern – in this case, accounting. His statement reveals that he was aware of the students’ difficulty with language proficiency and the modifications to exams that had been implemented at The College for internationalisation:

_I can’t mark what you are trying to say. I know you’re trying to say that, but you need to get it down on the paper. And that’s really hard you try to give them extra time and dictionaries and sometimes it just doesn’t happen... (_Teacher 8_

Some strategies indicated earlier – extra time and the use of dictionaries – have been put into place for the international students when performing assessment tasks. According to Teacher 8 these modifications are not always practised. Teachers 8 and 4 stated that recently they provided examples of model answers to all students before assessments:

...they had model answers from other poems...which last year’s group didn’t have. And so hopefully seeing written examples of poetry analysis would also have assisted them... I have been trying to do that for every task that I’ve given them this year that they have had samples.
The international students provided evidence of assignment-based assessments, giving insight into how they approached and managed them. International student 7 said:

*Miss, do you know why I like start my assignment in the last week, because I don’t really know how to do it until my friend started it...Watch other people’s example.*

The emphasis in having a research-based assignment is on student enquiry and active participation (Gibbons, 2006). The student engages with information, learns independently and searches for answers using topical discussions with peers and teachers. International student 7 depicted a last-minute working time-frame for engaging in what was presented as an active student enquiry assessment for which the teacher provided ample time, but the international student required more direction and help. International student 7 relied on peer help through scaffolding and modelling as his experience. This was in contrast to International student 13:

*I allow some class time to work on assignments. International student 13 uses that as a forum to get a lot of feedback on her drafts. And she asks lots of one-on-one questions.* (Teacher 3)

International student 5 reflected on tasks from her home country schooling and was able to apply the differences she was experiencing in an Australian school:

*I think that the tasks we get in Taiwan will be like the teacher give you all the questions that is going to be in the exam or all the stuff that you going to memorise, everything rather than like here where the teacher give you a topic for assignments you do a lot of research on it and then you actually receive something from that task...*

This student stated that she was learning while she researched and applied the new knowledge. She continued with her understanding, stating that this form of assessment was longer, more time-consuming for her and required more work on her part, but that she found it more useful and beneficial in the long term for her learning. All the teachers and international students confirmed that assessments at The College are teacher-directed through examinations and assignment-based tasks. At The College international students are given extra time and are permitted to use
dictionaries during formal assessment. Assessment is the measure used by teacher of student learning. In contrast to the changes teachers had made to their assessment for internationalisation there was data showing that teachers did not know how to respond pedagogically for internationalisation.

7.3 Teachers not knowing how to respond pedagogically for internationalisation

In the data, evidence exists of teachers disregarding internationalisation through not providing adequate pedagogy for their international learners. On the questionnaires five teachers reported no specific changes in their teaching for international students. Further to this question on the teacher questionnaire, I asked teachers to reflect on their practice, asking:

If yes, what are the changes and why did you make them? If not, why not?

These five teachers provided no reason for this and one stated that they were not sure of what to do. The five teachers reporting no variation could align with what Love and Arkoudis (2004) presented about some of the mainstream teachers in their research being unwilling or unable to change their practice or to provide for the international student.

One teacher stated:

They should be somewhere else where they can learn their English first and then come here later on... (Teacher 10)

Teacher 10’s comment does not align with pedagogy for internationalisation and presents an unwillingness to provide for linguistically diverse students in the mainstream. It is a well-established “given”, broadly argued in the literature (Cummins, 1998; Gibbons, 2002; Hammond, 2001), that all teachers are language teachers, and that language teaching involves working in ways which serve all levels of learners’ language proficiency.

In the three teacher-focus groups and two individual interviews, statements of “putting up” with the international students were presented:
Teacher 15: ...you put up with them in your class because you just don’t know how to help them pass.

Teacher 16: ...And I felt completely useless. So yes, you do as Teacher 15 says kind of put up with them in your class...because I’m not an ESL teacher and I don’t speak their language and they aren’t proactive in coming to ask for help...

These statements of “putting up” with the international students are an acknowledgement by these teachers that they are concerned but do not know what to do. Teacher 1 added to this perception of his not knowing how to work with these students and so he did nothing to assist them. The understanding of not knowing how to cater and support them was extended further by Teacher 2 who was unsure of his role in supporting the international students:

there’s a slightly different arrangement with an overseas student who has come. The onus is still on them....but there’s an onus...on us to assist them to be successful...with their co-operation. You can’t force them to, you can’t become a surrogate parent or something...see it depends on who is responsible for the welfare of the child when they are in Australia. Is the school responsible? Is an agent responsible? Is the homestay responsible? Or is it some combination [that’s] responsible?

The four questions asked in Teacher 2’s comment show his uncertainty and hesitation in his role as teacher in a school that has internationalised. Students at The College are expected by the teachers to take responsibility. This same expectation was held for the international students. Teacher 1 shared his understanding of pedagogy for internationalisation:

I feel like they’re here, but we don’t seem to have much process to actually help them succeed. We talk about it a bit, but what do we actually do, now I’m talking from a teacher, and it’s different possibly for that room over there [indicates the ESL room]. What do we do? We definitely seem to just abandon them almost. That’s what it seems like.

Teacher 1 presents the lack of policy and guidelines for teachers at The College in regards to internationalising, as well as his lack of knowledge and understanding regarding working with culturally and linguistically diverse students. More evidence
of the difficulty experienced in teaching international students comes from a comment by Teacher 17:

... if you have too many of any one kind, it just doesn’t work. If you can dilute them it works better. We just had too many in the school as well. Too easy for them to gather and form their own little ghetto...Yeah. It would be like having say, ten disadvantaged kids with a problem in your class and you just can’t handle them. And as you all know it’s not fair on them.

This teacher, although sympathetic to the international students, suggested some significant issues which could be read as a way of talking that depersonalises internationalisation and distances staff from the students. Perhaps without intention, he used negative connotations to present the students – “gather” and “form their own little ghetto”. These comments could be read as a critical statement about how the system and teachers marginalised these students through not providing support or including them. Teacher 17, in likening the presence of international students to having disadvantaged students in a class, indicated a lack of professional expertise and pedagogical knowledge on this topic. Teacher 17 raised concerns about The College in regard to the enrolment practice and resourcing, the lack of integration of the students, and the lack of professional development for teachers. This representation also demonstrates a lack of awareness and understanding on the part of the teacher of the contribution international students bring to the classroom and the educational experience.

Later in the focus-group session this same teacher added the following comment: And we have such a multi-cultural school, they’re not that different (Teacher 17). By stating that The College was a multi-cultural school he acknowledged the cultural diversity present in the student population. However, his statement shows that he neither acknowledges nor understands the diverse needs culturally and linguistically that international students require. The international students are different and bring another cultural perspective to the learning process. Presenting the international student as “disadvantaged” does not value or respect these students or the benefits that they bring to the educational experience (Duff, 2002). This understanding contributes to the representation that the teachers do not specifically know how to provide and plan pedagogically for these students as learners.
Understanding the learner and being aware of their language proficiency level and learning support needs is an important dimension which appears to be missing from the discussion among these teachers in regards to their pedagogy. With a minimum NNLIA bandscales level five language proficiency rating the students are able to participate effectively in social and school contexts with support. The NNLIA bandscales descriptors assist teachers with tools to assist the students with their curriculum and language learning (McKay et al., 2007). This representation presents a number of the teachers as not knowing how to respond pedagogically for internationalisation, and as a result demonstrates limited cultural knowledge and cross cultural competency.

7.4 Chapter summary

The data on the representations of pedagogy for internationalisation showed thirteen teachers have modified their pedagogy to provide for the international students while five have not. Apart from the noted attempts to modify speed and clarity in speech delivery, there was minimal evidence in the data of teachers understanding the particular communicative needs of students operating in a language that is not their first language. These mainstream teachers have limited or no experience of SLA or of constructing effective classroom speech for these learners.

The pedagogical modifications that the thirteen teachers have made for internationalisation included stressing important information, repeating concepts, modelling and scaffolding, working one-on-one, group work and peer-teaching. In their classroom management these teachers reported that they often overlooked the international students as they were not displaying behavioural problems and did not often seek the teacher’s attention. The pedagogical approach at The College appears to be teacher-directed and teacher-focused. The data show no changes or modifications have been made to the school curriculum for internationalisation. Student assessment at The College includes formal testing and assignment-based tasks. During formal testing international students are allowed to use dictionaries and are given extra time. Six teachers reported that they had done nothing specific to
their pedagogy for internationalisation and teachers at The College were not exactly sure of how to respond pedagogically to internationalisation. In the next chapter I present the conclusion for this investigation providing a summary of the study, the limitations of this research and suggested recommendations for future directions of investigation.
Chapter 8: Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of this case study was to investigate the teachers’ pedagogical responses to internationalisation at a faith-based secondary school in Australia. Pedagogical responses were examined as they manifested throughout the school, within the administration, classrooms and teaching, and with the international students. Specifically the investigation addressed three key research questions:

- What are the institutional conditions framing pedagogical responses to internationalisation in The College?
- How do the teachers’ represent the international students as learners, and
- How do the teachers represent their pedagogy in relation to internationalisation?

These questions were investigated through a case study of a school known herein as The College.

In the research I adopted interpretivism and utilised qualitative methods that included questionnaires, individual interviews, focus groups and written documents in order to generate data about the teachers’ understanding of internationalisation as they experienced it at The College. The data were analysed for their emergent themes; the findings were then aligned to the research questions and these were presented in Chapters 5 – 7.

In this final chapter I begin by synthesising the findings from the data. These findings have implications for this school. My argument outlines the importance of these points as interpreted through the theory and literature. They provide the focus of how pedagogy and teaching have been organised and represented at The College through the teachers’ representations of policy and enactment. I provide recommendations for initiatives and directions for the school. I also offer insights into new directions for research and the field of school-based (faith-based)
internalisation programs. It is argued that the findings of this investigation, while specifically directed at The College, might have relevance to similar schools enrolling international students. This follows Burns’ (2000) point that case studies, while being specific accounts of particular sites and practices, still have points of relevance and resonance with similarly operating sites. The final sections of the chapter outline the limitations of the study and present some future research possibilities.

8.2 The institution and conditions for pedagogy

The institutional conditions at The College that contributed to the teachers’ knowledge and understanding of pedagogy for internationalisation were: policy implementation, school climate, professional development opportunities, and collaborative opportunities. According to Howe (2003) and Kim (2001) institutional conditions are highly influential in contributing to people’s understandings of the institution’s expectations and evaluations of them as individuals which in turn influence how people interact with each other. For the teachers at The College their experiences and understandings of internationalisation can be seen as being directed and guided by the institutional conditions specific to the school with these conditions impacting teaching and learning at The College. I have grouped my findings into four topics, namely: institutional challenges in communicating policies, school climate, planning professional development opportunities for teachers, and staff collaboration and sharing in response to internationalisation.

8.2.1 Institutional challenges in communicating policies

Policies for internationalisation at The College were initially developed by the Administrative team in 1995 and are currently in operation at the school. Cheng, Myles and Curtis (2004) recommend a school-wide programme in response to internationalisation that ensures all stakeholders work together to include international students. The achievement of a school-wide programme involves the dissemination of the plan or policy to staff by distributing the policy, holding
discussions, “selling” the proposal, negotiating and then refining the policy. The data I reported in sections 5.2 and 5.3 showed that the ESL teacher and administrative team knew and followed most of the guidelines presented in the internationalisation policies of The College. The teachers seemed unfamiliar with these policies and maintained that they were not informed about them, suggesting that the policies had not been communicated to, or discussed with, the teachers regularly or even recently by the school leaders. Sergiovanni, Kelleher, McCarthy and Wirt (2004) argue that policies provide the definitions of the expectations, norms, assumptions and beliefs underpinning practice, reform and changes such as the introduction to a programme of internationalisation, yet teachers at The College appeared to be uninformed about the these policies despite their impact on teaching and classroom practice.

According to the international student enrolment policy, a student’s background information is required as part of the enrolment process. However, the teachers in this investigation identified that little of this information had been passed on or provided for them. Previous research shows that teachers need to know the international student’s history in order to assist the student with their education (Collier, 1995; Li, 2004; Love & Arkoudis, 2004; Robertson et al., 2000; Tangen et al., 2008) and to demonstrate sound ESL pedagogy (Karathanos, 2010). Associated with this point is the understanding that teachers who are familiar and acquainted with their international students are more likely to engage and establish closer rapport and stronger relationships with these students (Carroll & Ryan, 2005; Tangen & Mergler, 2008). The lack of information for teachers at the school indicates a possible view by management that this was not ‘teacher information’ and possibly more related to administration. It also seems that the teachers did not take the initiative to find out about these students. The teachers were therefore restricted in their teaching of international students at The College because they were unfamiliar with the international students’ histories which would be of assistance to them in working with these students. It appears that internationalisation at The College is seen as an administrative and policy effort and the teachers and classroom are the subsidiary developments which have had to absorb the initiative of internationalisation with little or no input into how to proceed after enrolling these students. This has created a significant gap in the process.
The teachers’ unfamiliarity with the policies for internationalisation directly impacted their awareness and understanding of the expectations held by The College in relation to the teaching and learning of international students. Cheng, Myles and Curtis (2004) state that policy provides the guidelines for the teachers and defines their role, which in my case study was to facilitate internationalisation. I suggest that the teachers are not familiar with the international policies at The College and therefore do not know their role in relation to internationalisation.

In my investigation of the implementation of the policies I also found that teachers held certain assumptions about the administrative team’s decisions in enrolling certain international students. The teachers’ concerns indicate that they were not familiar with the criteria or process involved in enrolling an international student. The teachers perceived that those international students with limited language proficiency who had successfully gained entry into The College represented an administrative judgement failure in the enrolment process. The enrolment policy at The College is clear about the minimum language proficiency level which an international student must attain. All prospective international students complete a language proficiency assessment. My investigation shows no teachers stating the required language proficiency level needed for enrolment in any of the interviews or focus groups, possibly indicating that they were not aware of this assessment or the level of language proficiency required. Teachers, however, did discuss their students’ limited language proficiency, but gave no indication of knowledge about possible classroom solutions.

8.2.1.1 Recommendations related to institution challenges in communicating policies

In response to the findings I recommend that the Administrative team at The College disseminate the international policies to teachers by providing them with a copy of these internationalisation policies, and follow this by providing opportunity for discussion of the policies and sharing of proposals. Involvement of teachers can include the provision of information as well as collaboration whereby teachers and/or teacher representatives contribute to the development and implementation of the
policies. There appears to be a need from the administration team to communicate with the teachers about students in order to build understanding and support as the school internationalises. It would appear that the teachers need what Clegg (1996) refers to as strong direction and leadership by the administrative team.

### 8.2.2 School climate

School climate contributes to the institutional conditions that shape the programme of internationalisation. Data collected from the international students indicated that they experienced friendliness and that there is an atmosphere of inclusiveness at The College. The apparent friendliness and willingness by domestic students and teachers to assist international students suggests that the international students feel included within the school community. Although not explicitly articulated by the teachers, part of the willingness to ‘embrace’ all students might be generated by the faith-based values expected of students and staff at The College.

However, according to Magala (2005), providing an internationalised school climate requires more than an atmosphere of inclusiveness and friendship. It also means that teachers need to have cross cultural competency. Teachers demonstrate cross cultural competency when they show cultural knowledge, empathy, open-mindedness, communication skills and the knowledge and understanding of the opportunities needed to succeed in multiple and diverse environments (Brigaman, 2002; Fantini, 2000; Gibbons, 2006). According to Hoy and Miskel (2008) individuals are pivotal within social contexts as they construct understanding and contribute to the school system through their diversity of knowledge and understanding. The concerns expressed by the teachers at The College about language proficiency, academic support and their limited cultural knowledge suggest that these teachers are not familiar with the concept of cross cultural competency. Nor do they have a comprehensive or viable understanding of the international student’s experience and needs as a second language (L2) learner who comes from a different educational-cultural background. This highlights The College teachers’ needs for increased awareness, understanding and knowledge of their international students which will assist them with their pedagogy for internationalisation. These key findings of cross
cultural competency, ESL pedagogy and second language acquisition (SLA) will be discussed further in section 8.5.

The inclusion of the international student’s family forms an important part of school climate (Collier, 1995; Li, 2004) and contributes to positive relationships. Hoy and Miskel (2008) also advocate that communication with the international student’s family is important for the student and their schooling. Direct communication through telephone calls with an international student’s parents was perceived by teachers as too difficult and beyond their responsibilities. This in turn may have limited the extent to which parents were involved in The College. The findings showed some teachers supporting direct communication with the introduction of a planned event in an evening to which international students’ families were invited. In contrast to Li (2004) and Hoy and Miskel (2008) who advise direct communication between the teachers and the international student’s family, my data show no evidence of direct contact between the teachers and the parents of the international students. Nor does there appear to be any on-going plan to develop a frequency of communication with international students’ families. The literature advocates for school policy changes to include direct communication with and involvement of the international student’s family in the school and this is an area where The College could facilitate and implement such changes.

As part of the internationalised school climate, The College provides pastoral care for the international students on a needs basis. Brigaman (2002) argues that pastoral care for international students needs to be ongoing. The data presented show there was limited access to translators with no guidance or counselling support provided for the international students in their first language. According to the literature it is imperative that the school as guardian provides cross cultural support for international students in their first language (Duff, 2001; Faltis & Wolfe, 1999; Li, 2004). The cross cultural support for international students is limited at The College, which could impact on the students, their learning, school participation and relationships with colleagues and teachers. If the students are experiencing difficulties and not receiving the pastoral care needed to succeed with their learning, this in turn will affect the teachers’ response to the students and their pedagogy for the international student.
Valuing and understanding the contribution international students make to an institution is part of an internationalised school climate (Clegg, 1996; Collier, 1995; Magala, 2005). My results showed that the teachers repeatedly represented the international students mainly as a source of revenue to The College. There was a lack of extensive discussion by the teachers of the benefits brought by the presence of these students or of the positive dimension of internationalisation. The limited perspective of the contribution that international students make to The College could account for the teachers’ views of the students as needy. The dominant view of the students is that they need to receive attention from the school and that the efforts and contributions are not coming from the students. These concerns and the perceived extent of them may account for the teachers’ sense of helplessness about the explicit pedagogical moves required to assist the students and their classroom learning. There is also evidence of limited cross cultural competency being demonstrated on the part of the teachers at this site. I examine this in section 8.5.3. The results showed that the administrative team were aware of some of the problems experienced by the teachers in regard to internationalisation, but despite this awareness, there appears to be no provision of guidelines to assist and support teachers.

8.2.2.1 Recommendations related to school climate

The findings show an atmosphere of acceptance of international students at The College possibly as a result of the faith-based values practised and expected at this school. Recommendations include fostering and building on this positive school climate. Based on the findings of this research and the experiences documented in the literature, The College could benefit from providing direct access to guidance and counselling support for the international students, as well as easy avenues for these students and teachers to connect with translators if and when they need them. The school climate may also benefit from the school administration providing guidelines and assistance to support the teachers in their experience of internationalisation.
8.2.3 Planning professional development opportunities for teachers

Professional development is one way that schools can prepare and provide support for teachers working with culturally and linguistically diverse students. As noted in Chapter 2, the amount and level of professional development provided to staff working with international students reflects the commitment of school administration to internationalisation – a commitment evidenced by the time, financial support, number of staff involved and the energy allocated to this key area of professional development (Brigaman, 2002). The data showed two instances of planned professional development opportunities for staff in the area of internationalisation. The first was an all day in-service for all teachers at The College on ESL in the mainstream that was provided to staff the year before this investigation commenced. The second was a workshop about enrolling international students attended by one administrative officer. Overall, there appeared to be a lack of the necessary resources, on-going professional development opportunities and skills needed to assist teachers and administrators in working with the international students.

The findings present teachers’ views of insufficient knowledge, understanding and skills in their pedagogy with international students. As noted in section 8.2.1, internationalisation as a topic has not been discussed and fore grounded at The College as a whole. Views about misunderstanding, perceived helplessness and lack of direction are presented by the teachers. During the data collection no direct question was asked about preferred professional development opportunities in the future which might explain why there are none mentioned. The teachers, however, did indicate that culturally- and pedagogically-oriented professional development was important to assist them in their work with international students. O’Byrne (2001) states that a school needs to plan regular and on-going professional development opportunities for staff which in this investigation appear to be missing.
8.2.3.1 Recommendations for planning professional development opportunities for teachers

A beginning has been made at The College to provide professional development for staff in the area of internationalisation; however more needs to be done in this area. I recommend that The College formalise a strategic and ongoing professional development programme for teachers covering areas of pedagogical need for working with international students. Professional development topics such as ESL learning, knowledge of L2 development, and Krashen’s affective filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1987) would benefit teachers. In planning teachers’ professional development for internationalisation social constructivist insights show the importance of scaffolding teachers’ learning.

8.2.4 Staff collaboration and sharing in response to internationalisation

A further area contributing to the pedagogical conditions within the institution is that of staff collaboration in relation to international students. The results of this investigation revealed only two areas where staff were able to get together and discuss their responses and needs: (i) within the running of the school, when the ESL teacher requested it on an on-going basis; and (ii) during the focus-group sessions convened for this research study. These limited instances of staff collaboration indicate that no established culture of staff collaboration for internationalisation at The College. Formalised meetings and discussions were not a feature of the school. In order for the teachers to respond pedagogically to internationalisation they need opportunities to collaborate with other teachers and staff. It is important for management and administrative teams to take the lead in establishing a collaborative school culture (Pawlas & Oliva, 2008).

The lack of staff collaboration was identified as a problem by the teachers and as a possible explanation for the perceived problems related to the teaching of international students in the school. A positive step acknowledged by the staff was that my research was given administrative permission to be conducted. The approval suggests a willingness and recognition by the leadership team at The College of the
need for teacher collaboration and support for each other. This need could have contributed to the willingness of staff to participate in my investigation and their open and enthusiastic responses, particularly in the focus group interviews. The teachers wanted to discuss international students and ESL pedagogy.

8.2.4.1 **Recommendations for staff collaboration and sharing in response to internationalisation**

Time needs to be provided and allocated for teachers and administrative staff at The College to meet, plan, and share knowledge and strategies about effective ways to work with international students. The teachers’ responses led me to believe that there is a clear need to make collaboration more formal and regular. The institutional conditions outlined show some initiatives that align with the literature and other areas where change needs to be introduced. In the next section I present the combined picture of the international students as learners within the faith-based context of The College.

8.3 **International students as learners**

The teachers’ representations of the international students as learners reflects their awareness, understanding, knowledge, values, experiences and linguistic resources relevant to pedagogy for internationalisation (Youngs & Youngs, 2001). In order to interpret and understand the teachers’ pedagogical response to internationalisation it is important to make explicit their assumptions and understandings of the international student as learner. These assumptions and understandings of teachers shape and guide their practice of teaching and learning and their expectations of students (Carroll & Ryan, 2005). I have grouped my findings into three topics, namely: learning behaviours, identification of learners, and socialisation and academic acculturation.
8.3.1 Learning behaviours

The teachers in this study described the international students as quiet learners who are reluctant to participate in class. Robertson, Line, Jones and Thomas’ (2000) research similarly showed that teachers represented international students’ as being reluctant to participate in class. However, Roberston et al. (2000) argue that teachers do not necessarily understand the connections between student passivity and language proficiency challenges. This point appears relevant in the context of The College. Teachers rarely interacted with international students for a number of reasons: (i) they indicated that they did not want to make the students feel uncomfortable; and (ii) they did not want to embarrass the students. The teachers’ understanding that the students are passive as a result of cultural differences differs from the students’ understanding that language proficiency was their reason for quietness and reluctance to participate in class. The teachers, while well-meaning, appear generally unaware of their students’ language proficiency levels or second language acquisition stages or their relevance.

My findings identify a paradox relating to the teachers and their representations of the international students. On the one hand, the teachers represent the international students positively as not being behavioural problems within the classroom and said that they do not seek attention or disrupt classes. On the other hand, the teachers represent the international students negatively as passive and reluctant to participate. The teachers feel that these students need to initiate participation and actively engage in the class aligns with other research (Faltis & Wolfe, 1999; Li, 2004) in which it was shown that teachers expected the students to self-nominate to speak, ask questions to clarify understanding and actively participate in class. This presents another gap in the teachers’ cross-cultural knowledge and understanding of working with culturally and linguistically diverse students.

Alongside the learning behaviours of being quiet and reluctant to participate in class, the teachers represented the international students as being disinterested in their own learning. This representation suggests that the teachers could be unaware of some important indicators or signs of stress and demotivation associated with not being able to communicate in the medium of instruction (Carroll & Ryan, 2005; Li, 2004).
The teachers spoke of the international students being away from their families and possibly experiencing homesickness and culture shock. These comments were recognition that the students were away from their usual support networks and may be feeling loneliness and isolated. Carroll and Ryan (2005) advocate for teachers to identify and provide assistance to students experiencing culture shock. At The College the teachers attributed quiet behaviour to culture shock, but were unable to respond and provide support to these students.

The findings in this investigation suggest that the teachers’ representations are often guided by what they see and observe. As presented earlier, little staff collaboration takes place at The College where more teacher discussion and investigation regarding international students might contribute to a better understanding of language and the students’ needs. Nowhere in the data do the teachers accept responsibility for the learning or well-being of the international students. All the behaviours and international student involvement were represented by the teachers as the student needing to initiate requests for assistance – but never initiated by the teacher.

### 8.3.2 Identifying international students

The teachers in this study in the absence of information from administration relied heavily on the visual appearance of students to identify who were international students. It would appear they viewed all Asian-looking students as international students. This assumption by the teachers often resulted in their misrepresenting students who were Australian citizens or permanent residents. As a result, most of the teachers grouped the Asian-looking students together as international learners and had inbuilt assumptions about features such as language, classroom behaviour, learning approaches and home life. This manner of learner identification often resulted in teachers holding false or negative expectations about their students (Faltis & Wolfe, 1999).

This suggests that within the classroom the teachers’ learner identification is guided by their general assumptions of what they see and observe and not by their personal
relationships with their learners. More assumptions were made about the religious affiliations of students; many teachers assumed that Asian-looking students were Buddhist and not Christian. The data show the teachers as committed to their faith, the school and its faith-based character. Some of them took offence when international students arrived late to school on chapel morning or missed religious classes and considered the students disrespectful or disinterested in the religious side of the school. For some this perceived disinterest was attributed to the students being Buddhist and not Christian which was inaccurate and led to stereotyping. The teachers’ assumptions show a deep lack of understanding and knowledge about the student’s backgrounds and demographic details compounding the lack of responsibility for the well-being or learning of the international students.

8.3.3 Socialisation and academic acculturation

At The College, once an international student is enrolled they enter the mainstream classroom system. International students can choose to take any subject offered and participate fully in The College community. The findings show that the international students participating in the research found the school climate at The College accepting, inclusive and friendly. Some of these students, especially the boys, were involved in playing basketball at The College and were prominent members of the team. They were seen to be making an effort to be part of the school. Other students who were not as visible were seen as not trying to interact or integrate.

Even though this is the case, the teachers’ representation of the international students’ involvement in the school and community still shows a compelling expectation that the international student should “fit” in and actively participate. This finding supports other research in which it was shown that the teachers presume that the international students will socialise and participate in the school context (Li, 2004). The school context is understood as including the classroom, lunchtime gatherings and extra-curricular activities. This representation places full responsibility on the student to assimilate and blend into the current practice. This practice of expecting the students to initiate participation and to find their own way
in the school confirms research conducted by Love and Arkoudis (2004) who found similar teacher expectation of international students.

These teacher expectations of the international students represent students as a problem for which they are expected to provide their own solutions to being culturally and linguistically different. The expectation is that the responsibility lies with the student, with some assistance provided by the ESL teacher. This aligns with other research which shows that the international students were left to either “sink or swim” (Love & Arkoudis, 2004). Again, this understanding by the teachers shows limited cross cultural competency in being able to effectively interact and communicate with students from another culture showing empathy to their way of life and their linguistic, educational and personal resources.

The College provides ESL support for the international students as an ongoing service. Although the ESL teacher is there to support the international students and the teachers, the teachers view the ESL teacher as the language teacher and the person responsible for the students’ academic integration. According to Gibbons (2002) all teachers are language teachers. However, it would appear that the teachers at The College do not see that as their role. It seems that these teachers do not understand the salience of language within the subjects that they teach, or the role language plays in social interactions and identity construction.

In contrast to the negative comments from the teachers, they do nevertheless speak positively of the few international students they are aware of who have been at the school for a number of years. It appears that the teachers understand that the length of time an international student spends at an institution improves the student’s understanding and knowledge of the way things are done there. The length of time studying in English is also a contributing factor to this understanding, as well as the fact that teachers then build an academic relationship with the student and are able to work better together over time (Williams, 2001).
8.3.4 Recommendations for international students as learners

I recommend teachers engage in professional development for a better knowledge and understanding of culture shock and other factors associated with linguistic, educational, social and cultural change to help alert teachers to students needing help in the mainstream classroom context. In addition to this professional development for knowledge and understanding the teachers need to initiate assistance for the international students instead of waiting for the student to ask for help. My findings resonate with research conducted by Roessingh and Kover (2002) who recommend professional development for teachers in understanding their students and their way of life.

8.4 Teaching and classroom practice

The teaching and classroom practice at The College appears teacher focused and directed. I have grouped the teaching and classroom practice into three sub-sections, namely: curriculum, assessment and teaching strategies. I will present under each of these sub-sections the argument based on the researched data for stating that the pedagogy at The College is teacher-centred for internationalisation.

8.4.1 Curriculum

A curriculum is a set of guidelines that a school follows for its pupils inside and outside the classroom (Collins, Insley, & Soler, 2001). The teachers understand that the curriculum followed at The College is a classroom-based set of guidelines prescribed by the Queensland Study Authority of what needs to be taught. The teachers implied that these guidelines were set and that their teaching was conducted similarly. The teachers spoke of a “one shoe fits all” curriculum operating at The College. As such the school does not appear to conduct any form of curriculum modification for any of the students and it seems that all learners are taught the same curriculum. Therefore, it is plausible to conclude that the curriculum at The College
is not shaped or guided by the needs of L2-using learners such as international students.

This approach to the curriculum and its enactment at The College do not align with the literature about the need for recognition and inclusion of ethnic and linguistic diversity in the curriculum (Harklau, 1999; Short, 1999). It can be argued that the enacted curriculum at The College requires the international student to adapt, adjust, change and/or assimilate into the existing school programme. Teachers appear to hold limited cross cultural knowledge and skills to make adjustments in what is taught. The findings of the investigation suggest that the international student is not considered or involved in the curriculum planning or implementation, but is expected to blend into the existing curriculum as it is practised. Preferable, according to literature is that the international student is actively engaged in the learning process and able to contribute to the direction and construction of learning (Eggen & Kauchak, 2007; Love & Arkoudis, 2004). Schools that internationalise need to plan and practise adjustments to their programmes in order to provide support for international students (Short, 1999).

No curriculum adjustments were evident in the data. The only addition noted was that more teaching aids had been added to the same curriculum being taught within the classrooms. Curriculum leads pedagogy through planning and direction, but it seems that no on-going curriculum modifications or adjustments were made at The College in response to the diversification of the student cohort. As such it appears that the teachers followed a prescribed curriculum to which students had little input in what was learned or covered in the classroom, and which did not foster ESL pedagogy or a constructivist and collaborative approach to pedagogy.

8.4.2 Assessment

The kind of assessment used in the classroom represents the teaching and learning implemented by the teacher. At The College there is no differentiation for learners and all students complete the same assessment tasks. There is an examination policy at The College for international students which allows them the use of a bilingual
dictionary and extra time. This approach is also identified in Reeves’ research (2006) where teachers preferred to give culturally and linguistically diverse students more time to complete their work. Although there are policy provisions, not all teachers agreed on the use of dictionaries by international students during examinations as they felt these students then had an advantage over domestic students. This view suggests that the teachers regard their classrooms as a level playing-field but have little understanding about the inequity of the situation for L2 learners who are completing assessment in a second or additional language in an educational context that is high-stakes and unfamiliar.

The teachers’ overwhelming use of examinations as the formal means of assessment presents teacher-centred pedagogy as the dominant approach. This finding is not supported by ESL pedagogy which advocates a social constructivist approach to teaching, learning and assessment (Gibbons, 2002; Karathanos, 2010; Lantolf, 2006). The expectation at The College is that students will demonstrate what they have learnt and the teacher will grade their responses. This summative use of assessment appears dominant in teachers’ accounts of their assessment practice. There appears little recognition of the value of formative assessment and scaffolded input and feedback (Chen, Kettle, Klenowski, & May, in press, accepted August 29, 2012).

### 8.4.3 Teaching strategies

A teacher’s choice of the pedagogy that they practice is guided and directed by their understanding and knowledge of what they expect from their learners (Carroll & Ryan, 2005). Teacher discussions at The College revolved around individuals and student behaviour but when asked about their practice teachers appeared to find it difficult to express and explain what they did. There were limited explanations of pedagogical approaches or methods used within their classes.

As shown in 8.2.1 the international student’s prior knowledge and background do not appear to be influential for teachers at The College. The information had not been made available to them and they had not sought it. This leads me to infer that they do not have an explicit understanding of teaching which builds on what students already
know or have experienced within their previous schooling or life experience in another culture. As a result, other social worlds are not consulted or used by the teachers to further their students’ learning.

Further to knowing the student’s prior knowledge and background, the aspect of building authentic relationships with the international students does not appear strong. Effective teachers build strong relationships with their students through getting to know the students and allowing the student to get to know them (Borich, 2011). Many of the teachers do not know who the students are. Assumptions are made about international students in the absence of personal relationships. The emphasis on such relationships is starting to increase but more needs to happen at an institutional level to promote how and what to do to establish these links.

The opportunity for discussion about international students within the teacher focus groups was new and they expressed a need for more opportunities to engage in discussion and sharing. The teachers were aware of their need for assistance and guidance; in line with other research, they expressed a sense of helplessness and a need for expertise (Li, 2004; Love & Arkoudis, 2004). The teachers recognised a problem but did not know how to solve it. Overall, the teachers’ views were that they needed more expertise including knowledge and skills to respond pedagogically for internationalisation.

In some of the discussions and interviews with teachers, terminology such as scaffolding, working one-on-one and group work reflected a social constructivist approach to teaching. According to the literature, these teaching strategies provide opportunities for the international students to work with the domestic students through interaction, thereby becoming involved in the class (Dooley, 2004; Verplaetse, 1998). Although the teachers used social constructivist terminology there was no reference by them to how they actually enacted these principles in their classrooms. When they spoke of scaffolding, working one-on-one and group work they presented these activities as teacher-centred and directed.

Students who are culturally and linguistically diverse are enrolled at The College however, pedagogically there does not appear to be specific planning for these
students and little modification of classroom teaching approaches. This is despite indicators from most of the teachers in the study that they welcome professional development to assist them in effective ways to teach the curriculum, administer assessment tasks and manage the classroom for student cohorts characterised by cultural, linguistic, social and educational difference.

**8.4.4 Recommendations for teaching and classroom practice**

It would seem that the teachers are not familiar with the theory and practice of social constructivist pedagogy for second language learning. I would suggest that more guidance and professional development in this approach will contribute to the effectiveness of their teaching practice for international students who are second language learners. A fully implemented professional development programme for the teachers at The College could include the following areas:

- cross cultural competency,
- ESL pedagogy,
- working with culturally and linguistically diverse students,
- how to construct and run an effective classroom community for L2 learners in the mainstream,
- understanding SLA and the stages of language development and proficiency,
- knowledge of curriculum and classroom based curriculum modification, and knowledge of cultures (Kohler, et al., 2006).

The recommendations I have provided for this study are specific for The College. They relate directly to areas that contribute to The College teachers’ pedagogical responses to internationalisation. Although these recommendations are for my case study they can be applied to other similar institutions enrolling international students and/or institutions looking to begin an internationalised programme. These recommendations can be used to equip and prepare teachers to work with international students and improve their current pedagogical practices.
8.5 Key themes

From these previous sections four key themes have emerged which underpin and are interwoven throughout the findings. The first theme presents the teachers as ill-equipped in working with culturally and linguistically diverse students. The second key theme shows the pedagogy at The College as teacher-centred. The third key theme involves the teachers and their limited cross cultural competency in managing and responding to the diverse cultural, linguistic and educational needs of students in their classrooms as a result of the internationalisation agenda at the school. The fourth and final theme mounts a relationship between language and academic literacy. Each of these key themes is now discussed.

8.5.1 Key theme 1: Teachers are ill-equipped for internationalisation

Teacher identity for internationalisation at The College seems to be marked by a sense of being ill-equipped to meet international students’ needs. Here teacher identity refers to a constructed stance about themselves as teachers within the social context of The College in regard to internationalisation. This identity refers to their viewpoint, attitude, standing and understanding within this institution. Teachers’ views on their roles, power and responsibilities are foundational to their work (Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Reeves, 2006). The data present the teachers as trying but having no clear guidelines helping them respond to internationalisation. The teachers notice behaviours and interpret them through their limited understandings of second language acquisition and second language teaching and learning with few resources for assisting the students. The College teachers are aware that changes need to take place but it appears they do not know how to make these changes.

The teachers present themselves as helpless in working with culturally and linguistically diverse students. They feel unprepared pedagogically for providing for international students. They construct self-representations of inadequacy and an inability to engage with students. This could explain some of the teachers’ apparent disregard for the students. This aligns with Reeves’ research (2006) with secondary teachers and their feelings of inadequacy when working with ESL students in
mainstream classrooms. However, there is a difference between this investigation and Reeves’ findings in that the majority of teachers at The College are willing to take part in professional development to improve in this area of their teaching. I argue that a lack of cross-cultural understanding and knowledge about language has influenced the teachers’ concerns. I address cross cultural competency below in section 8.5.3.

Teachers’ relationships with international students at The College appear limited. The teachers do not initiate connections with international students. Communication and interaction provides individuals with information to socially construct understandings and to build on previous knowledge (Borich, 2011). It is plausible to conclude that the teachers are not actively engaging in the lives of their students. The teachers’ passive interaction with the international students might indicate that they feel the students do not understand and so they no longer try to communicate, but leave the student to manage on their own.

The data indicate that the teachers rarely draw on the international students’ home language and culture in the classroom. The impression provided by the teachers is that the international students do not contribute to the classroom in a significant way but they do present problems and challenges for teaching. These views by teachers have been identified in other research (Youngs & Youngs, 2001).

The College teachers see the international students’ academic needs as the ESL teacher’s responsibility and not theirs as class teachers. According to Gibbons (2006) all teachers are responsible for the academic needs of all their students. Another important point she makes is that all teachers are language teachers no matter what subject they teach. I would suggest that the teachers in this case study are not aware of this role. This role includes all teachers being aware of academic English through awareness and knowledge of careful and explicit language teaching in all subjects (Gibbons, 2002). It appears that the teachers at The College are not aware of this responsibility.
8.5.2 Key theme 2: Teacher-centred pedagogy

Transmission pedagogy appears to be the dominant feature within classrooms where curriculum and assessment are structured and controlled and teacher talk is excessive. Communication within the classroom appears mostly as one-way communication where the teacher is the expert and transmits the required disciplinary knowledge to the students. There is high teacher-focused management and the teaching process is teacher-centred and controlled. The teaching does not appear to be varied or differentiated. The literature advocates for social constructivist pedagogy whereby classroom activities, relationships and tasks are set up to lead students through stages of learning (Gibbons, 2002). The end goal is for students, including culturally and linguistically diverse students such as those from overseas, to become independent and self-regulated learners while gaining linguistic and cultural proficiency (Gibbons, 2002). A social constructivist approach allows for two-way communication where the learner is actively involved in the learning process (Gibbons, 2006). This means beginning with the pre-existing thresholds of the students’ knowledge and skills and guiding them to the new knowledge. Such an approach presupposes engagement with the students to identify those current thresholds. From the data there is an acknowledgement of teaching and learning problems, but no evidence of this approach or a plan of action.

In their representations of their classroom teaching, many of the teachers indicated a traditional transmission approach where students were expected to sit and listen to the teacher. This teaching strategy appears dominant at The College and leads me to believe that the pedagogy has not been modified or adjusted for internationalisation or in explicit acknowledgment of social constructivist principles. Indeed good teaching principles as identified by West (1998), Grant and Gillette (2006), and Borich (2011) have not been systematically addressed and made explicit in professional development and other forms of dissemination at The College.

As other researchers have found, the international students are expected to adjust, assimilate and blend into current practice (Love & Arkoudis, 2004; Reeves, 2006). My findings align with this research and show that the teachers view the international student as an imposition to their regular traditional teaching practice. They do not
meet the international students’ needs or know how to engage with the students in order to promote their knowledge and learning.

8.5.3 Key theme 3: Teachers and cross cultural competency

Evidence of the teachers’ limited cross cultural competency was threaded throughout the data. Cross cultural competency refers to the ability to be sensitive to and interpret another way of life and to interact and display emotional competence with people from other cultures (Magala, 2005). This is achieved through cultural knowledge and understanding of how to work effectively with diverse students through awareness, experience and knowledge of other cultures, languages and ways of living. The teachers at The College are not familiar with the policies for internationalisation and are not aware of their role in this process and so from the start they appear to demonstrate limited cross cultural competency. Little or no information on the international student’s background or previous educational experience is sought or provided for the teachers also contributing to the limited demonstration of cross cultural competency. Further indications of the teachers’ lack of cross cultural competency are evident in the limited amount of advocating they do for these students and in the minimal direct communication they have with these students to build strong classroom relationships.

Teachers who practise cross cultural competency know their international students and build a relationship with these students in order to be sensitive to their culture and to interact and interpret their way of life (Carroll & Ryan, 2005; Tangen et al., 2008). There is little evidence of this happening at The College. The teachers make assumptions about the international students, for example how they should look and what religious affiliation they have. There appears to be little understanding of supporting difference through gaining cultural knowledge, developing communication skills, or providing students with opportunities to succeed in the classroom by being informed about different ways of teaching and learning. Although immersed in mainstream classes at the school, the international students are not seen by the teachers as their responsibility. The duty of care for the international students appears minimal with limited provision of services also at
institutional level, such as translators and no counsellors for the students in their first language.

Although the school climate is friendly on an individual basis, at a class level the international student is expected to fit in and adjust to the way things are done at The College. There is little to no communication with the international students’ parents. There is a minimal presence of professional development for internationalisation including dissemination about cross-cultural difference, similarities, and effective pedagogies. Teachers with cultural knowledge and cross cultural competency are more likely to engage in effective pedagogy, integrating different modes of teaching and learning. To do this they need knowledge of their students which is not evident in this case study. A school’s pedagogical response to internationalisation should include teachers who are versed in issues relating to culture, language and teaching for diversity. The data from the study suggest that this is a gap in teachers’ pedagogical repertoires.

My findings indicate a primarily assimilationist model, in which the international student is seen as “needing” to assimilate into the prevailing order of things at the school. In this model, the student is constructed as the “problem” – the one required to adjust or change. I propose a more appropriate model of two-way movement thus promoting cross cultural competency, where the school administration caters for and adapts the school programmes for international students, and where international students as part of the school community adapt and contribute to the practices implemented.

8.5.4 Key theme 4: The relationship between language and academic literacy

It is vital to establish the relationship between language and academic literacy when working with international students who are conducting their schooling in another language. The issue of language proficiency is repeated by all the teachers working in different discipline areas. The College teachers are not familiar with the enrolment process for international students and there is an absence of teacher understanding
and knowledge of the language threshold required by the international students. This gap suggests that the teachers are not familiar with the NLLIA bandscales or second language acquisition theory as a means of planning for their classes. In conjunction with not being aware of language thresholds and utilising that information to plan their pedagogy, teachers seem unfamiliar with the international students’ background or previous educational experience. According to Carr (1999), difference is not a hindrance but rather a base on which to build and construct. It is plausible to believe, then, that the teachers at The College do not plan for, develop or construct their teaching explicitly for their students’ learning.

In the data teachers referred to the international students’ limited language proficiency. They expressed concern about the students’ language without providing a solution or acknowledging their role as the teacher of language acquisition and usage. According to Kettle (2011), teachers often conflate second language users’ language and literacy issues and blame students’ academic problems on language when, indeed teachers have a responsibility to teach and make explicit valued literacy texts and genres. Gibbons (2002) adds to this point that in the mainstream English medium classroom all teachers are literacy teachers assisting the second-language learner through academic writing, editing, reworking and constructing meaning. The international student is expected to perform at The College using Academic English in spoken and written genres. International students need informed pedagogical support from all their teachers (Selinker & Gass, 2008). Understanding language and literacy demands within the curriculum is an important dimension of teacher knowledge and pedagogical practice when working with second-language students (Gibbons, 2002; Hammond, 2001), and assists them in developing their English language proficiency. The findings indicate that these are limited or absent at The College. Overall, the teachers do not appear to be guided by the international students’ experience or needs as a L2 learner.

8.6 Link to the theoretical framework

This research involved describing teachers’ experiences of internationalisation occurring in the social context of The College. Working from an interpretivist
perspective, the teachers’ words and experiences have been interpreted in the context of second-language teaching and learning at The College. Social constructivism views knowledge as constructed within social contexts (Vygotsky, 1962). From this perspective students learn by building on their previous knowledge, a key factor for teachers in their planning and implementation of teaching and learning within their classrooms. The findings from this research show that the teachers do not know the students or the student’s background and therefore cannot implement a social constructivist approach to their teaching and learning. Further to this, the key themes that emerged in fact show a traditional teacher-centred approach to pedagogy for internationalisation. A social constructivist approach is student-focused and includes the student in the planning and implementation of teaching and learning. The focus in this study is on the needs of the teachers who are ill-equipped for internationalisation; remain teacher-centred in their pedagogy; present limited knowledge and understanding of cross cultural competency; and show little understanding of the relationship between language and academic literacy.

In the data there is little construction of internationalisation as an understanding or school-wide initiative operating at The College. There is limited teacher focus on the international student as a second language learner in the mainstream classroom. Specific planning and development for these learners such as second language pedagogy in the class is not widely evident. This case does not appear to support a social constructivist approach to pedagogy. The teachers hold the same expectations for all their students as learners and the students are assessed against the same standards. These gaps highlight opportunities for professional development in knowledge and understanding of ESL pedagogy.

This research as a whole secondary school case study provides significant findings relating to the pedagogical responses of this school to internationalisation. The pedagogical theories framing second language learners, their identity and in particular their academic English/literacy are areas in which the teachers at The College show little prominence. Implementing social constructivist pedagogy creates opportunities in the classroom for the international students to explain, describe and compare concepts to build their academic knowledge and language proficiency. This pedagogical understanding appears to be limited among the teachers who are
primarily practising transmission pedagogy. English language proficiency appears to be a central preoccupation for the teachers concerned about the international students as second language learners. The teachers are aware of gaps in their own awareness and knowledge of pedagogy for internationalisation. They want to develop their teaching approaches and methods for assisting international students and ultimately contributing to overall improvements in teaching and learning at The College. The teachers are caring and show a keen willingness to help international students, but are unsure about how to do this.

8.7 Limitations of the study

This investigation was limited to one unique site. However, the results and their meaning may be relevant and can contribute to knowledge and understanding at other similar sites. Informing administrators, teachers and other interested readers about pedagogical responses to internationalisation at a particular school can potentially assist these individuals in their own experience and workplace. The method of investigation has been provided and the reader will need to decide whether this investigation can be conducted at another site. As a qualitative investigation generalisations cannot be established because the population used was small and the research a case study, however, transferability is acceptable.

Using a case-study approach included the stakeholders’ and the researcher’s world view in the interpretation of the situation and procedures followed (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). Care needed to be taken not to generalise across staff, as it was important to establish each individual understanding and view. As the researcher, I needed to be continuously aware of bias influence resulting from selective attention to dramatic events or statements, or both, an over-reliance on informants, or any other aspects which could potentially have influenced the interpretation of the data and consequently the case study as a whole (O'Leary, 2004).

Throughout the research, I was aware that I as the researcher could influence the progress and outcomes of the investigation. I was conscious of the possible impact on data of what was being said by different people and the interpretation of these
contributions. Often this can be viewed as a limitation of an investigation (O’Leary, 2004). Each participant was involved in the situation as a worker and a human with emotions and world-views which could possibly lead to particular understandings or misunderstandings (Punch, 2005). Individuals interpret situations and happenings differently, and so I needed to take care to ensure that each person received a fair and unbiased representation (O’Leary, 2004). The use of reports and follow-up interviews that participants could clarify and comment on helped to alleviate this potential problem. Readers can obtain an understanding of a situation or experience and may find points that are relevant and applicable to their own teaching contexts and practices (O’Leary, 2004). These limitations did not present as issues for this investigation.

8.8 Future investigation possibilities

There are a number of future investigation possibilities that have arisen from this case study. This case study investigated a particular faith-based school’s pedagogical response to internationalisation. During this investigation several areas became apparent which deserve further research.

The first possible future investigation could be an action research of the response of this school to the findings from this case study. Initially researching the professional development plan available for teachers in regards to internationalisation. Extending this to include a strategic and on-going plan will provide a plan of action to improve practice or indicate further areas needing research. This could highlight changes that can be implemented in other such schools or institutions.

Another area for possible future research is to investigate the roles or allocation of roles to staff in a school that has internationalised. As the guardian of students including those living in Australia from abroad the school is responsible for their well-being and duty of care. While enrolled at the school international students are the school’s responsibility for the duration of their stay, which includes all their time in the country including out-of-school hours and holidays. The decision-making models for the distribution of staff roles and responsibilities for the guardianship of
these students would be enlightening and possibly helpful to other institutions needing to make similar decisions.

An area of significant interest as a faith-based school enrolling international students is the extent to which faith-based activities are seen as proselytising. The mission outreach of a faith-based school might include and extend to the intentional as well as the unintentional proselytising that is done, and the success of these programmes for international students who are or are not affiliated with the particular faith.

As more research is conducted, investigation of the on-going aspect of changing and updating policy for internationalisation is required. An investigation into the policy changes that have been made to the enrolment policies or other such policies related to international students in schools in Australia would be of interest to schools needing to update their policies or initiate such policies.

A future investigation that is of current interest and one which requires attention is the researching of professional development opportunities available to and utilised by secondary mainstream teachers in Australia for working with culturally and linguistically diverse students. Researching what is currently available will potentially assist in the planning and provision of topics and foci relevant to schools enrolling international students and teachers wanting to extend their professional knowledge and expertise.
References


References


Appendices

Appendix A
Participant information sheet

“A case study of the perceived effectiveness of a school’s response to the challenges of internationalisation”

Name and contact details of the researcher
Sherene Hattingh
Tel. 3347-6444    Mob. 0406381527

Description
This project is being undertaken as part of an Educational Doctorate project for Sherene Hattingh. The purpose of this project is to investigate the secondary staff members at this school regarding their perceived practices when helping overseas students in the mainstream with the challenges that they face. The research team requests your assistance in identifying the perceptions and practices that are being followed at the school regarding the overseas students and the challenges they encounter in the mainstream.

Participation
Your participation will involve a questionnaire (which should take approximately 30 minutes), 2 focus group sessions, which will be video and audio recorded, (these will take approximately one – two hours in the secondary library, for students this will be conducted during lunch and recess times, for staff this will take place after school) and possibly an individual interview for participants who miss out on the focus groups for any number of reasons i.e. absent on the day, preference for an individual interview, etc. The researcher will write a report on each focus group and individual interview which participants will be asked to read and comment on before final inclusion. These reports will be written from the transcriptions made from the video and audio recordings of the focus groups. After the contents have been transcribed the audio and video recordings will be destroyed.

Expected benefits
It is expected that this project will benefit you and potentially it may benefit the school and staff in assisting with international students and the challenges they face in mainstream.

Risks
There are no additional risks associated with your participation in this project.

Confidentiality
All comments and responses will be treated confidentially. The names of individual persons will be removed from the data in order to maintain confidentiality. Questionnaires will be numbered so the researcher can identify the responder in order to place that individual in a certain focus group. The researcher is the only person who will have access to this data throughout the investigation. Within the focus groups participants will need to adhere to strict confidential rules in order to respect each person’s contribution and all recordings, which will only be viewed by the researcher, will be destroyed once transcriptions have been made.

Voluntary participation
Your participation in this project is voluntary. If you do agree to participate, you can withdraw from participation at any time during the project without comment or penalty. Your decision to participate will in no way impact upon your current or future relationship with QUT or the school. Non-participation will not affect existing working relationships.

Questions / further information
Please contact the researcher if you require further information about the project, or to have any questions answered.

Concerns / complaints
Please contact the Research Ethics Officer on 3864 2340 or ethicscontact@qut.edu.au if you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project.
Participan Information Sheet

“A case study of the perceived effectiveness of a school’s response to the challenges of internationalisation”

Name and contact details of researcher
Sherene Hattingh
Tel. 3347-6452
Mob. 0402912101

• Statement of consent

• By signing below, you are indicating that you:
  
• have read and understood the information sheet about this project;
  
• have had any questions answered to your satisfaction;
  
• understand that if you have any additional questions you can contact the research team;
  
• understand that you are free to withdraw at any time, without comment or penalty;
  
• understand that you can contact the research team if you have any questions about the project, or the Research Ethics Officer on 3864 2340 or ethicscontact@qut.edu.au if you have concerns about the ethical conduct of the project;
  
• understand that the project will include audio and/or video recording, but that these will only be viewed by the researcher for the purpose of this study; and
  
• agree to participate in the project.

Name

________________________________________________________

Signature

________________________________________________________

Date

_____ / _____ / _____
Appendix B
Minor participant information sheet

A case study of the perceived effectiveness of a school’s response to the challenges of internationalisation

Names and contact details for the researcher
Sherene Hattingh
Tel. 3347-6444 mob. 0406381527

Description
This project is being undertaken as part of an Educational Doctorate project for Sherene Hattingh. The purpose of this project is to investigate the secondary staff members at this school regarding their perceived practices when helping overseas students in the mainstream with the challenges that they face. The research team requests your child’s assistance in identifying the perceptions and practices that are being followed at the school regarding the overseas students and the challenges they encounter in the mainstream.

Participation
Your child’s participation will involve a questionnaire (which should take approximately 30 minutes conducted during the ESL class time), 2 focus group sessions, which will be video and audio recorded, (these will take approximately one – two hours in the secondary library, for students this will be conducted during lunch and recess times) and possibly an individual interview for participants who miss out on the focus groups for any number of reasons i.e. absent on the day, preference for an individual interview, etc. The researcher will write a report on each focus group and individual interview which participants will be asked to read and comment on before final inclusion. These reports will be written from the transcriptions made from the video and audio recordings of the focus groups. After the contents have been transcribed the audio and video recordings will be destroyed.

Expected benefits
It is expected that the results of the questionnaire could potentially benefit your child, and their involvement in the project will provide information that may benefit the school and staff in assisting with international students and the challenges they face in mainstream.

Risks
There are no additional risks associated with your child’s participation in this project.

Confidentiality
All comments and responses will be treated confidentially. The names of individual persons will be removed from the data in order to maintain confidentiality. Questionnaires will be numbered so the researcher can identify the responder in order to place that individual in a certain focus group. The researcher is the only person who will have access to this data throughout the investigation. Within the focus groups participants will need to adhere to strict confidential rules in order to respect each person’s contribution and all recordings, which will only be viewed by the researcher, will be destroyed once transcriptions have been made.

Voluntary participation
Your child’s participation in this project is voluntary. If you do agree for your child to participate, he or she can withdraw from participation at any time during the study without comment or penalty. The decision to participate will in no way impact upon your child’s current or future relationship with QUT or the school.

Questions / further information
Please contact the research team if you require further information about the project, or to have any questions answered.

Concerns / complaints
Please contact the Research Ethics Officer on 3864 2340 or ethicscontact@qut.edu.au if you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project.
“A case study of the perceived effectiveness of a school’s response to the challenges of internationalisation”

Names and contact details for the researcher
Sherene Hattingh
Tel. 3347-6444  Mob. 0406381527

Statement of Parent/Guardian consent

By signing below, you are indicating that you:

- have read and understood the information sheet about this project;
- have had any questions answered to your satisfaction;
- understand that if you or your child have any additional questions you can contact the research team;
- understand that you or your child are free to withdraw at any time, without comment or penalty;
- understand that you or your child can contact the research team if there are any questions about the project, or the Research Ethics Officer on 3864 2340 or ethicscontact@qut.edu.au if they have concerns about the ethical conduct of the project;
- understand that the project will include audio and/or video recording, but that these will only be viewed by the researcher for the purpose of this study; and
- agree to your child’s participation in the project.

Name

Signature

Date

Statement of Student consent

Your parent or guardian has given their permission for you to be involved in this research project. This form is to seek your agreement to be involved.

By signing below, you are indicating that you agree to participate in the project.

Name

Signature

Date
Appendix C
Secondary staff questionnaire

Thank you for taking time to be part of this research. Please answer all the questions.

1. How long have you been teaching? _______months _______years

2. Do you speak a second language? Yes ☐ no ☐

3. Is English your native language? Yes ☐ no ☐

4. Have you ever lived overseas? Yes ☐ no ☐
   If yes, where? __________________________

5. How many international students do you currently teach? ______

6. How many years have you taught with international students in your classes? _____ years

7. Are there any possible challenges that you know of, that the international students could face in the mainstream?
   ___________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________

8. When international students do well in your classes what are some of the strategies that contribute to their success?
   ___________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________

9. Have you instigated any changes to your mainstream classes especially for the international students? Yes ☐ No ☐
   If yes, what are the changes?__________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________
10. Do you communicate with the international student families? Yes □ no □
   If yes, how? _______________________________________________________
   If no, why not? __________________________________________________

11. Have you had any in-service or pre-service training related to culturally diverse students?
    Yes □ no □
    If no, are you interested in doing some professional development in this area?
    Yes □ no □ give reasons for your answer: ____________________________
    ____________________________
    If yes, what was it about? _______________________________________
    Would you like to do more professional development in this area? Yes □ No □
    Give reasons for your answer: _________________________________
    ________________________________

12. Which of the following would help you most in dealing more effectively with
    international students (Brigaman 2002)?

    ___ better communication between parents and school
    ___ more time to adapt regular assignments
    ___ techniques on how to teach content to international students
    ___ information about cultures represented by international students
    ___ more information regarding student’s previous education experience
    ___ information on adapting to a new environment
    ___ other – (please specify)________________________________________

Thank you again.
Sherry Hattingh (Education Doctorate Candidate)
Appendix D
International student questionnaire

Thank you for taking time to be part of this research. Please answer all the questions.

1. What is your age? _________ years

2. Tick (✓) which one you are.  
   male ☐       female ☐

3. Which country are you from?  ________________________________

4. What languages do you speak?  ________________________________

5. How long have you been in Australia? _____months ________years

6. What extra-curricular (outside of school time) activities are you involved in? (tick ✓)
   ☐ Sport
   ☐ Music
   ☐ choir
   ☐ orchestra/band
   ☐ Drama
   ☐ Student organizations
   ☐ Other - ________________________________
   ☐ None  Why? ________________________________

7. What do you do with your time after and before school? _________________
   ________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________

8. Who do you live with in Australia? (tick ✓)
   ☐ Family – parents, aunt, uncle, cousin, other
   ☐ Homestay
   ☐ Agent
   ☐ Alone
   ☐ House sharing
   ☐ Other –(Where?)______________________________
9. Who monitors (watches) your homework and school progress while you are in Australia?  
______________________________________________________________________________

10. Which teachers do you like and why? __________________________
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

11. Who are your friends at school? ______________________________
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

12. Do you experience any problems/difficulties at school? Yes ☐ no ☐
If yes, what are the problems/difficulties? _______________________
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

Thank you again.

Sherry Hattingh (Education Doctorate Candidate)
Appendix E
Individual interview questions guide for international students

1. What are your feelings on your school experience in Australia? How and why?
2. What subjects do you enjoy and why?
3. What subjects do you not enjoy and why?
4. What aspects of your experience at school have you enjoyed?
5. What are the negative aspects of your experience at school?
6. What has been the easiest adjustment to school in Australia?
7. What has been the most difficult adjustment to school in Australia?
8. If you could make changes to help you at this school what would they be, and why?
9. Which teachers have been the most helpful and why?
10. What do teachers do at this school that help you with your schooling?
11. How can teachers help you more?
12. Would more time for assignments help you? How? Why not?
13. Would you like more ESL help? Why or why not?
14. What advice would you give a new international student coming to this school? And why?
15. How difficult is it to mix with the other students? And why?
16. How difficult is it to talk to the teachers? And why?
17. Any suggestions or comments you want to add?