

TEACHING THE INTERNATIONAL CLASSROOM

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Summary

The global flow of people, cultures and knowledge in a more than ever interconnected world has led to an increase in international students within universities. Lecturers are the interface between the institution and the international students and experience the effects of internationalisation in their classrooms every day. Experiences are not only related to the instruction, but also to group work and assessment. Unexpected student behaviour and interactions can be experienced as a culture shock by some teachers and can result in anxiety and uncertainty when they occur. This research focused on three questions: whether lecturers at the University of Twente experience the effects of internationalisation in their classroom; to what extent are teachers interculturally competent; and what kind of support teachers would prefer. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with lecturers and students from the University of Twente and focused on their personal experiences. The results indicate that education at the University of Twente is affected by internationalisation. Lecturers experience unexpected behaviour from students, differences in expectations and experiences concerning testing, academic skills, varying experiences in group work and level of writing. Most importantly, they experience a diversity in educational norms, values and communication. In particular, the interaction with international students can result in uncertainty and require extra effort and energy from the lecturer. Knowledge of the educational and cultural background of international students is minimal. Most lecturers have an ethnocentric response to the confrontation with international students. Ethnocentrism refers to seeing a person's own culture as central to reality, which means that they minimise and deny cultural differences between students or that they defend their own culture. Some lecturers try to adapt their teaching while others are in denial, but most commonly, lecturers minimise the effects of internationalisation. Therefore, a significant diversity exists between lecturers and their skills and actions when teaching the international classroom. Furthermore, lecturers are reserved when discussing

international students' needs and differences between diverse groups of students. Most lecturers indicated they do not have a need for further support.

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1. Project description

1.1 Problem statement

People, capital, knowledge, ideas, and cultures are now more interconnected than ever before. Societies' dependence on knowledge and the service sector has, in turn, increased the dependence on knowledge products and thereby on educated personnel (Altbach & Knight, 2007). In such a world, students can and are more prone to seek education, knowledge and experiences not only within, but also outside of their home country (Stier, 2003). The universities in this global flow have expanded their international activities and, according to Sanderson (2011), embarked on the goal of helping all students become international learners, workers and citizens. This is reflected in the increase in the international student population over recent decades (Welch, 1997; Hellstén & Prescott, 2004; Teekens, 2000) and has resulted in classrooms with a mix of nationalities, sociocultural background, linguistic skills and learning approaches. An increase of 78% in student mobility was reported between 2000 and 2011 (Carroll, 2015).

This increase of diversity in the classroom has an effect on the curriculum development, pedagogical practices, knowledge flows and the work routine of academic staff, administrators, students and teachers (Tange, 2010, p. 138). However, to date this effect has not been thoroughly analysed, creating a need for better pedagogical and practical understanding of the influence of the increase of international students (Stier, 2003; Hellstén & Prescott, 2004). Teachers and university lecturers are the interface between the international students and the institution and are placed in the core of the internationalisation process (Tange, 2010; Teekens, 2000), but their experiences, skills and personal and professional attitudes have been underexposed in academic research (Sanderson, 2011).

International students who arrive at a university have all been successful in their education to date and have met the criteria to register for the course of study they are about to

follow (Scudamore, 2013). The term “international student” refers to students who have arrived, enrolled, and are entitled to participate fully in the university and educational process. This means that they are different from other groups of non-native students such as exchange students, students on research projects and so on (Carroll, 2015). These students are studying a discipline and working towards a professional qualification.

Internationalisation has resulted in teaching staff interacting with students from unfamiliar cultural beliefs as well as expectations when they lecture (Tange, 2010). Teaching decisions are not only shaped by contextual issues such as resources and workload, but also by the student culture (Peelo & Luxon, 2009). “School performances take place within a complex sociocultural ecology and are filtered through cultural screens [that] both students and teachers bring to the classroom” (Marx & Moss, 2011, p. 36). Ideally, lecturers are able to teach each and every student equally and are also able to adapt their teaching to the needs of the students. However, according to Hofstede, this is not always the case. In a study undertaken at an international school, faculty unconsciously favoured students whose values were closer to their own (Hofstede, 1986, p. 316).

Teachers can be colour-blind to the diversity of students and only see them as individuals, not as students from diverse backgrounds, countries, race, gender or social class (Jiang, 2016). The national or cultural context influences teachers’ beliefs, motivation and emotions about teaching and also influences the understanding of what is successful learning behaviour (Klassen, et al., 2018). Furthermore, according to Tange (2010), internationalisation can be understood as a culture shock that can affect academic staff very deeply by increasing their levels of anxiety and uncertainty (Tange, 2010, p. 139). As a result of intercultural encounters in the classroom, lecturers can doubt their right to lecture and impose a learning philosophy that was developed in a Western context (Tange, 2010, p. 139). Teaching an international classroom requires lecturers to learn specific skills that cannot be expected to be

possessed (Teekens, 2000). There is a need for an international pedagogy that can support lecturers in the challenges when teaching an international classroom. Universities cannot leave the responsibility of internationalisation to individual lecturers and should therefore develop sustainable teaching practices and training opportunities for lecturers to obtain the necessary skills (Tange, 2010). There is a need for learning and professional development to meet the needs of the international classroom (Teekens, 2000).

If lecturers do not receive training or assistance, they must rely on the experiences and the cultural insights obtained in previous encounters with international students. This creates an imbalance and a knowledge gap between lecturers who have been teaching internationals for a longer time and those who are new to teaching internationals (Tange, 2010). According to Tange (2010) and Sanderson (2011), older teachers have greater experience with regard to explaining, managing student behaviour, providing intellectual stimulation and showing respect, and well-developed interpersonal skills that can assist them in teaching an international classroom. Properly designed training may help lecturers to develop intercultural teaching skills and diminish the gap between the more and less experienced teachers.

At the University of Twente, the Centre of Expertise in Learning and Teaching (CELT) specialises in supporting staff and teachers in their activities. For this purpose, CELT provides several workshops as well as training programs, including one that focuses on teaching an international classroom (University of Twente, 2018). This research was conducted in cooperation with CELT and focused on three main questions.

- To what extent do teachers who are teaching international classrooms at the University of Twente experience the effects of internationalisation that are mentioned in the literature on teaching international classrooms?
- To what extent have teachers teaching international classrooms at the University of Twente gained intercultural competences?

- Given these effects, what kind of support would be preferred by lecturers teaching international classrooms?

According to Carroll (2015) educators can look at other universities and best practices and learn lessons but they also need to be careful in applying others' solutions. She highlights that a variety of issues will be different in other (national, institutional) contexts. Therefore, the knowledge gathered in this study can help develop training or other forms of support or vision concerning specific issues in the context of the University of Twente.

1.2 Theoretical conceptual framework

Teaching an international classroom places lecturers in a highly complex situation and, as highlighted, at the interface of internationalisation. Teachers are required to deal with a diversity of students covering a variety of aspects. This diversity affects the curriculum, pedagogy, knowledge flows and work routine of academic staff and teachers (Tange, 2010, p. 138). To gain a better insight into the complex situation of the international classroom it is necessary to better understand the concepts associated with internationalisation, teaching and how they interact interculturally. Therefore, a variety of concepts associated with teaching the international classroom were initially explored. These included: What is internationalisation? How can we understand and analyse culture? What domains of teaching may be affected by an increase in international students and what are understood to be intercultural (teaching/communication) competencies? What support for lecturers is discussed in literature?

Internationalisation. First, to undertake research on the effects of internationalisation on teaching, it is important to understand what internationalisation entails. The definition of internationalisation has broadened over time to not only integrate the delivery of education to an international classroom, but also to integrate internationalisation into the purpose and function of education. According to Sanderson (2008), “*internationalisation can be defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education*” (Sanderson, 2008, p. 278). In the narrower context of this research, the focus lies on the process and effects of change that are driven by the increase in the number and proportion of non-native students in the classroom (Tange, 2010). In the theoretical program logic model (see Figure 1), the outcomes of internationalisation are placed a step beyond the outputs, which are only defined in numbers as indicators of successful internationalisation. The shaded area is one of the areas of interest in this research where the intercultural competences of lecturers is mentioned.



Figure 1: Internationalisation at institutions of higher education (Deardorff, 2006).

Culture. Internationalisation is the process of integrating an intercultural dimension into education. To understand the effects of an intercultural dimension it is necessary to examine and define culture and how this transfers to the classroom.

Culture is a very broad term and, although invisible, governs our daily lives through a shared, implicit and unconscious expectation of behaviour of not only others, but also ourselves. The interculturalist Edgar Schein describes culture as a composition of three layers. The outer layer includes the artefacts of culture: things that are easily perceived and things that can be noticed. Bicycle lanes, large windows, tall people and eating bread are examples of artefacts from Dutch culture (Nunez, Mahdi, & Popma, 2009). The second layer represents norms and values. These are written and unwritten (tacit) rules of correct and desired behaviour (Nunez, Mahdi, & Popma, 2009, p. 3) and include people's actions that are required for them to interact successfully. This framework guides our understanding and interpretation of social behaviour and the world, and is thereby highly relevant in education (Otten, 2000).

The third and inner layer comprises basic assumptions. These are abstract, invisible and learned very young. The perceptions of the world and judgements we make are shaped, but also distorted, by the basic assumptions that our own culture holds (Nunez, Mahdi, & Popma, 2009, p. 3). According to Carroll (2015), this onion model can also be applied to academia. The academic cultural onion is also built up of the three layers whereby the artefacts in learning can be a reading list, or the number of books a student needs to read. Norms and values in the academic cultural onion focus on how things should be done (e.g., how to engage in reading: is a student expected to engage in deep reading or in scanning the articles?). The third layer is hardest to understand and, according to Carroll (2015), people can adapt but not adopt the beliefs and values of others. Culture and the patterns that it includes are learned with upbringing through socialisation and create a cultural script that can guide one through life. These become

clear when there is an interaction between people (Otten, 2000). An overview of more definitions of culture can be found in Appendix A.

Hofstede defines culture as, “The collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede, 2001, p. 9), which is the most dominant explanation of behavioural differences between nations (Cronje, 2011). Furthermore, Hofstede indicates that culture can be described in five independent dimensions. 1) individualism/collectivism; 2) uncertainty/avoidance; 3) femininity/masculinity 4) power distance; and the last dimension, 5) short-term orientation and long term orientation was added later. These dimensions can be used to compare cultures and explain an individual’s behaviour in a variety of social situations, including learning and teaching in higher education with regard to the relationship and interaction between student and teacher (Dennehy, 2015; Hofstede, 1986). According to Hofstede (1986), the differences in culture related to individualism/collectivism and power distance are likely to create problems in student and teacher interactions.

Individualism/collectivism. Individualism versus collectivism is a dimension that focuses on the person and the relationship with society. In an individualistic society, people are individuals in principle and expected to look after themselves (and immediate family) and their own interests, act as individuals and thereby put themselves forward as the most important (Dennehy, 2015; Hofstede, 1986). Values that are highly accepted are independence and self-expression. The opposite of an individualistic society is a collectivist society whereby the well-being of the group and society as a whole is of greater importance (Dennehy, 2015). A person belongs to one or more groups from which they cannot detach. Individuals in a collectivist society see themselves and other members as part of a larger, extended group and protect the interests of the group and its members (Hofstede, 1986). Traditions and elders are more respected in collectivist societies (Dennehy, 2015).

In the classroom, collectivism is expressed in devotion to the lessons as teachers and lecturers are in control of the classroom. Teachers control most, if not all, class activity as students do not debate with a teacher. Learning in such a culture is valued as the most important and can earn the learner, as well as their family, social prestige. In contrast to the collectivist culture, in a more individualistic classroom, students are encouraged to show initiative and originality and are encouraged to avoid group thinking. Having an academic degree in an individualistic culture does not increase a person's social status. There is more focus on the economic worth and how to improve self-confidence (Dennehy, 2015). In the figure below, more differences in teaching and learning and the interaction between student and teacher are provided.

**Differences in Teacher/Student and Student/Student Interaction
Related to the Individualism versus Collectivism Dimension**

COLLECTIVIST SOCIETIES	INDIVIDUALIST SOCIETIES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • positive association in society with whatever is rooted in tradition¹ • the young should learn; adults cannot accept student role² • students expect to learn how to do • individual students will only speak up in class when called upon personally by the teacher • individuals will only speak up in small groups³ • large classes split socially into smaller, cohesive subgroups based on particularist criteria (e.g. ethnic affiliation) • formal harmony in learning situations should be maintained at all times (T-groups are taboo)⁴ • neither the teacher nor any student should ever be made to lose face • education is a way of gaining prestige in one's social environment and of joining a higher status group ("a ticket to a ride") • diploma certificates are important and displayed on walls • acquiring certificates, even through illegal means (cheating, corruption) is more important than acquiring competence • teachers are expected to give preferential treatment to some students (e.g. based on ethnic affiliation or on recommendation by an influential person) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • positive association in society with whatever is "new" • one is never too old to learn; "permanent education" • students expect to learn how to learn • individual students will speak up in class in response to a general invitation by the teacher • individuals will speak up in large groups • subgroupings in class vary from one situation to the next based on universalist criteria (e.g. the task "at hand") • confrontation in learning situations can be salutary; conflicts can be brought into the open • face-consciousness is weak • education is a way of improving one's economic worth and self-respect based on ability and competence • diploma certificates have little symbolic value • acquiring competence is more important than acquiring certificates • teachers are expected to be strictly impartial

Figure 2: Individualism vs collectivism in education. (Hofstede, 1986)

Uncertainty avoidance. This dimension refers to how members of a culture feel when confronted with uncertainty; to what extent they feel uncomfortable, nervous or threatened by situations they perceive as being unstructured, unclear or unpredictable and therefore try to avoid (Hofstede, 1986). When high levels of uncertainty avoidance are present in a culture, there is a desire and need for written rules and legislation, and consensus. Such a society is intolerant of deviations from the established norm. In cultures with low uncertainty avoidance, there is more tolerance of risk takers and displays of ambiguity. In a learning situation in a

society with high uncertainty avoidance, students are more likely to conform, tend to show less emotion, and value structure more (Dennehy, 2015).

Differences in Teacher/Student and Student/Student Interaction Related to the Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension	
WEAK UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE SOCIETIES	STRONG UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE SOCIETIES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • students feel comfortable in unstructured learning situations: vague objectives, broad assignments, no timetables • teachers are allowed to say "I don't know" • a good teacher uses plain language • students are rewarded for innovative approaches to problem solving • teachers are expected to suppress emotions (and so are students) • teachers interpret intellectual disagreement as a stimulating exercise • teachers seek parents' ideas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • students feel comfortable in structured learning situations: precise objectives, detailed assignments, strict timetables • teachers are expected to have all the answers • a good teacher uses academic language¹ • students are rewarded for accuracy in problem solving² • teachers are allowed to behave emotionally (and so are students) • teachers interpret intellectual disagreement as personal disloyalty • teachers consider themselves experts who cannot learn anything from lay parents—and parents agree
<p>1. Stroebe, 1976 2. Triandis, 1984</p>	

Figure 3: Uncertainty avoidance in education (Hofstede, 1986)

Femininity/masculinity. This dimension refers to stereotypes and social roles that are traditionally associated with male or female. According to Hofstede's model, a society values more female or male attributes. Societies that are more masculine value assertiveness/aggression, money and personal success more. Having ambition and being competitive are valued attributes of a person in this society. In contrast, in a feminine society greater value is placed on caring for others and having a good quality of life. In this society, modesty and humility are more valued. For instance, in a learning environment, this is noticeable when in a more masculine society students compete more and competition is encouraged and well performing students are praised (Dennehy, 2015).

**Differences in Teacher/Student and Student/Student Interaction
Related to the Masculinity versus Femininity Dimension**

FEMININE SOCIETIES	MASCULINE SOCIETIES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teachers avoid openly praising students • teachers use average student as the norm • system rewards students' social adaptation • a student's failure in school is a relatively minor accident • students admire friendliness in teachers • students practice mutual solidarity • students try to behave modestly • corporal punishment severely rejected • students choose academic subjects in view of intrinsic interest • male students may choose traditionally feminine academic subjects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teachers openly praise good students • teachers use best students as the norm • system rewards students' academic performance • a student's failure in school is a severe blow to his/her self-image and may in extreme cases lead to suicide • students admire brilliance in teachers • students compete with each other in class • students try to make themselves visible • corporal punishment occasionally considered salutary • students choose academic subjects in view of career opportunities • male students avoid traditionally feminine academic subjects

Figure 4: Masculinity vs femininity within education. (Hofstede, 1986)

Power distance. This dimension refers to the acceptance of a society with regard to the unequal distribution of power in an organisation. It describes the extent to which the less powerful accept the unequal distribution of power and to what extent they consider it to be normal. According to Hofstede, inequality exists in all cultures but the degree to which this is tolerated differs (Hofstede, 1986). In societies with high power distance, disagreements and conflicts with formal authorities is unusual. The power distance and unequal distribution of power is accepted. Learning in high power distance societies is more teacher-centred and teachers or lecturers are seen as experts and are well-respected by societies and students. In a low power distance society, disrespect towards formal figures of authority is not unusual. Unequal distribution of power is not always accepted (Dennehy, 2015).

**Differences in Teacher/Student and Student/Student Interaction
Related to the Power Distance Dimension**

SMALL POWER DISTANCE SOCIETIES	LARGE POWER DISTANCE SOCIETIES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • stress on impersonal “truth” which can in principle be obtained from any competent person • a teacher should respect the independence of his/her students • student-centered education (premium on initiative) • teacher expects students to initiate communication • teacher expects students to find their own paths • students may speak up spontaneously in class • students allowed to contradict or criticize teacher • effectiveness of learning related to amount of two-way communication in class³ • outside class, teachers are treated as equals • in teacher/student conflicts, parents are expected to side with the student • younger teachers are more liked than older teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • stress on personal “wisdom” which is transferred in the relationship with a particular teacher (guru) • a teacher merits the respect of his/her students¹ • teacher-centered education (premium on order) • students expect teacher to initiate communication • students expect teacher to outline paths to follow • students speak up in class only when invited by the teacher • teacher is never contradicted nor publicly criticized² • effectiveness of learning related to excellence of the teacher • respect for teachers is also shown outside class • in teacher/student conflicts, parents are expected to side with the teacher • older teachers are more respected than younger teachers

1. according to Confucius, “teacher” is the most respected profession in society

2. E.g. Faucheux et al, 1982

3. Revans, 1965; Jamieson and Thomas, 1974; Stubbs and Delamont, 1976

Figure 5: Power distance within education. (Hofstede, 1986)

Short-term orientation/long-term orientation. This dimension refers to the focus of people and individuals in a society; it concerns plan making. In long-term oriented societies, people engage in planning and execution of the plans, and perseverance is valued. In a more short-term oriented society, planning is of lesser importance. There is a greater emphasis and focus on short-term successes and self-gratification. With regard to learning, this can be observed in a long-term oriented society when students study hard and attribute lower grades or failing to themselves and a lack of effort (Dennehy, 2015).

Affected domains. As highlighted previously, internationalisation creates an intercultural environment where cultures and their implications for norms, behaviours and learning as we now understand them are mixed. Internationalisation thereby affects domains where activities and interaction take place, as well as in any social situation with its tacit as well as explicit cultural rules. Therefore, there are many domains within education that are affected by internationalisation. According to Peelo and Luxon, national differences cannot be overemphasised when considering policy approaches (Peelo & Luxon, 2009, p. 651). The problems with interaction between student and teacher can generally lie in the following areas:

1. “Differences in the social position of teachers and students in the two societies;
2. Differences in the relevance of the curriculum (training content) for the two societies;
3. Differences in profiles of cognitive abilities between the populations from which teacher and student are drawn;
4. Different expected patterns of teacher/student and student/student interaction” (Hofstede, 1986, p. 303).

In the following section, a short overview of the affected teaching domains that are present in the literature are provided and connected to the previously identified areas. This expansion and a better understanding of these domains is the goal of this research.

Deviant student behaviour. This domain is associated with areas 1 and 4. Cultural differences are not always easy for a lecturer to recognise or manage. Student–lecturer or student–student interactions might deviate from the expected patterns for international students (Otten, 2000; Teekens, 2000). Deviant student behaviour or requests occur when students deviate from the practices and norms established in the university. For instance, students might respond differently to the teaching methods of the lecturer than he or she would have expected. Cultural diversity can lead a student to be passive or more interactive with a teacher than

expected (Tange, 2010). There could be diverse reasons for this, including the different relative social–economic position of lecturers and students in different cultural contexts (Otten, 2000; Teekens, 2000). Another explanation could be the amount of respect there is for the teacher and the way it is shown. International students can be less free and more reluctant to ask questions, and also questioning the opinions of the teacher, who is in a position of power and authority. For instance, in Bhutan, China, India, Japan, Nepal and other Asian countries, teachers and lecturers are respected and hold highly authoritarian positions (Bista, 2011, p. 163). International students, in Western universities, more often than non-international students understand the opinion of a lecturer or a book to be the truth without question (Bista, 2011). Japanese students and female students are examples of groups in which this reluctance is more apparent (Hall, 2004).

Students who are used to a collective culture or where studying is more teacher-led might find it more difficult to transition to a more independent learning environment. Students might be accustomed to teachers fulfilling a mentor role and providing more guidance and information for students to succeed (Hall, 2004).

Diverse teaching context. Narratives or examples in the context of the country where the institution is established are not always relevant for students from other parts of the world (Tange, 2010). A foreign student cannot be expected to learn as much as a native student from an example that is developed with references to a specific national context. If approached in an appropriate way, international students can also be used as a resource for information to start a classroom discussion as they can possibly provide other cultural insights (Tange, 2010). The international classroom can then serve as a “pedagogical melting pot” whereby students experience different ideologies, views, and opinions. Students can thereby become aware of the views of others as well as their own frame of reference (Stier, 2003). This domain is related to area 2.

Academic skills. International students or students from different institutions might lack knowledge concerning the theories, testing or methodology used in the particular institute. In an internationally diverse classroom, a common ground might be absent (Tange, 2010). Learning traditions or cognitive profiles and abilities might furthermore be different for different international students (Otten, 2000; Tange, 2010). While reproduction might be asked for in one country, a more problem-based approach could be preferred in another (Tange, 2010). The development of cognitive ability is anchored in the total patterns of societies. People from different societies appear to process information and complement their knowledge with guesswork differently (Hofstede, 1986). Cognitive development is shaped by the demands of the environment people grow up in. Teaching an intercultural classroom in which some students have a different cognitive ability profile than the teacher or other students is problematic and demands another didactic approach (Hofstede, 1986). This domain is related to area 3.

Academic writing and plagiarism. According to Hall (2004) and Bista (2011), plagiarism and academic misconduct are significant reasons for concern in universities in the Western world, particularly with regard to international students. International students have been described as “persistent plagiarisers” by Western academic institutions (Hall, 2004, p. 1) as the number of instances of plagiarism is high for these students. Within these incidents, there are two types: intentional and unintentional (Bista, 2011). These refer to cases where there is inadequate knowledge and skills for proper referencing and limited understanding of plagiarism (unintended) and those who intentionally present work that is not completed by themselves. Most instances of plagiarism with international students concern the first type whereby lack of knowledge and skills lead to accidental and unintended plagiarism. There are many reasons why students plagiarise; for international students in particular, the following apply.

“1) I couldn’t keep up with the work; 2) I don’t understand what I’m expected to do to avoid plagiarism; 3) I can’t do this! I will have to copy; 4) But you said, “Work together”;

5) But paraphrasing would be disrespectful” (Hall, 2004, p. 1). Other reasons are that students were desperate right before a deadline, high expectations, or claiming the lecturer does not care (Hall, 2004). Furthermore, plagiarism is connected to students’ “Beliefs and values, personality, stress, social groups and peer pressure and situational contextual factors” (Hall, 2004, p. 1; Bista, 2011, p. 160). Cultural backgrounds and being a non-native speaker can lead to students not understanding the Western notion of plagiarism. However, if students do understand the notion of plagiarism, some might still commit it because of their attitudes or beliefs from their cultural background. These distinctions can be understood as cultural or competence-based causes for plagiarism.

Cultural traditions can be a factor in plagiarism and cannot be understood without examining the context (social, cultural, historical, economic and political) (Bista, 2011). International students simply do not have the same notion or understanding of plagiarism, and do not always understand how and why it is necessary to acknowledge the findings of others. Students also have to adapt to other or new academic values, referencing systems and citations in their new university, which might all be different from their previous experience. In some cultures, plagiarising or copying a text is not considered wrong or misconduct; it can even be seen as respect for the other author (Hall, 2004; Bista, 2011). Altering or changing the text might be seen as disrespectful. Sharing work and knowledge in a collective culture is more logical than in Western universities as knowledge is understood to be communal property (Hall, 2004).

Western universities emphasise knowledge acquisition, critically analysing, applying and manipulating information from many different sources while other cultural learning styles might not require this depth of analysis of sources. Rote learning and memorisation are still widely used in non-Western cultures (Bista, 2011). Therefore, the degree of plagiarism is lower in undergraduate students than in higher degree students because of the demand for

critical analyses and writing (Bista, 2011). It is necessary for some international students to un-learn or disregard the values and norms learned in their home country and adopt the standards of the new country, which is a difficult and complex process (Hall, 2004).

Aside from cultural understanding of plagiarism, international students might find it challenging to cite sources correctly alongside their own opinions. Separation of their own ideas, facts, and their interpretation of the facts and ideas is a challenge (Bista, 2011; Hall, 2004). Skills related to English and having to put ideas in their own words is a further challenge for a non-native speaker. “Comprehending the content of lectures, understanding subject-specific terminology, highspeed delivery of lectures, and difficulties in interpreting the English language can explain why some international students may be tempted to plagiarize” (Hall, 2004, p. 6)

Assessing and providing feedback to students needs to be fair, reliable, and efficient. Assessment is important for all students but feedback is crucial, especially for international students, as they might be unfamiliar with assessment requirements and criteria (The Higher Education Academy, 2014). Feedback is also essential for international students as it provides an opportunity to learn. It needs to be a dialogue in which the student has the opportunity to act on feedback and improve.

International students might find different demands and confusion when assessment and grading is done differently to what they are used to. Education systems vary between nations and also differ across and between disciplines as well as universities (The Higher Education Academy, 2014). In a diverse group of students, assessments can take longer and students might need more drafting, editing and review time from supervisors. In comparison to home students, the work of international students can also be more difficult to apply criteria to in determining their grade, especially when a student is not used to a certain form of expression. This also relates to language when a student’s work is structured unexpectedly and teachers struggle to

look beyond language. In particular, teachers could experience pressure when deciding on a minimal pass or a failure for international students (The Higher Education Academy, 2014).

Furthermore, since the international student body is not homogeneous, teachers are uncertain about whether to make certain adjustments for some students. Although teachers try to create assignments that provide equal opportunity for all students with regard to their past experience and understanding, some assignments might be more familiar and comfortable to perform for some student, but not others. When there is a will to compensate for those students, teachers are uncertain about how and to what extent additional information and support needs to be and is fair to provide (The Higher Education Academy, 2014).

Group work. Group work with international students is defined as, “Collaboration of two or more individuals from different (national) cultural backgrounds, who have been assigned interdependent tasks and are jointly responsible for the final results, who see themselves and are seen by others as a collective unit embedded in an academic environment and who manage their relationships within a certain educational institution” (Popov, et al., 2012, p. 303). Within group work, members can experience cultural differences and might interpret the behaviour of other group members as deviant and possibly unpleasant. For instance, a student can be blamed for a lack of initiative or lack of independence, especially if they demand more guidance and support from their lecturer concerning the assignment or expectations (Tange, 2010). These communication-related problems in group work are under-attributed to cultural diversity of the group members and over-attributed to language abilities and levels of motivation (Spencer-Oatey, Dauber, & Williams, 2014, p. 37). Supervision and cooperation within a culturally diverse group can become a difficult task because of other cultural frameworks and everything it entails. This domain is related to area 4.

According to Popov, et al. (2012), cultural difference should be taken into consideration in designing and implementing group work or collaborative forms of learning. Group work in

a multicultural setting whereby students from different nationalities and cultures work together can result in problems but can also be a positive and beneficial experience if the arising differences and similarities are well managed (Popov, et al., 2012). Challenges in a multicultural group can not only be due to cultural differences, but also to other elements of diversity such as age, gender and education. However, some challenges are unique to groups that are multicultural. Groups of the same cultural background can experience challenges related to planning, task coordination, problem solving and decision making, conflict management, adhering to timelines, and agreeing on acceptable group behaviour (Popov, et al., 2012).

Culturally diverse groups have to overcome all these problems with an additional layer of complexity caused by the diversity in culture and different frames of reference and norms. A group compiled of students from both a collectivistic and high-context culture who prefer indirect communication and students from a low-context individual culture might result in conflict. In Appendix B, a table published by Popov et. al (2012) summarises these challenges.

Group level challenges consist of group membership and group processes. Group membership refers to the diversity of the group members within the group with regard to factors such as skills, characteristics, educational backgrounds, academic attitudes, content knowledge, and social and cultural backgrounds. This diversity can help students because of the possibility of viewing a problem from a different perspective and because students have the opportunity to work with others from diverse and different backgrounds (Popov, et al., 2012). Problems related to diversity within the group can relate to differences in study strategies, priorities, social capital, cultural capital, financial background, motivation and other factors. For instance, according to research findings, female students perceive cooperation as more important than male students. Differences in ambition within the group, when a student has a lower level of motivation to contribute and perform can result in conflict with more motivated students.

Communication is one of the most important aspects in group work as it is used to organise work and cooperation. Communication is not only a challenge for multicultural groups; since there is a strong relationship between culture and communication, the communication within a multicultural group is greatly affected by culture (Popov, et al., 2012). There can be a lack of shared understanding or a discourse and disagreement on rules and norms and an underestimation of the importance of clarity. In Western culture, the communication style is direct, low-context, and can be called explicit. These communication rules and norms are part of the tacit knowledge of their culture and usually relate to short-term interpersonal connections. High-context cultures, however, use less verbal and less explicit messages and overall, provide less written and formal information (Popov, et al., 2012). Multicultural groups face many of the same challenges as monocultural groups but also face challenges related to the legitimate approach to solving these problems.

To supervise multicultural groups, it is important for supervisors and students to understand how the authority or power differentials can influence the process. High or low power distance cultures comply differently with the supervisor's guidelines, which can pose challenges. When supervising these groups, it is important for all group members to contribute and undertake action focus on the final product. A group needs explicit, mutually understood goals.

Social norms within a multicultural group can also be a cause of conflict because of diverse norms, values, interests and opinions. Furthermore, conflict is a culturally defined phenomenon as what is viewed to be a conflict in one culture is not seen as a conflict in another culture. Members of a collective culture are prone to avoiding open conflict as it might influence the group negatively in terms of relationships and cohesion. Conflicts can occur based on relationship or task. Relationship-related conflicts can occur because of dislike or lack of trust.

Conflicts related to the task can occur because of disagreement with respect to the task and can be related to deadlines or group decisions.

Leadership research suggests that cultures have a diverse perspective of leaders and leadership behaviours. Collective cultures might be more in favour of charismatic leaders while the more individualist Western culture prefers a more task-oriented leader. Free riding, or not contributing to the group work in comparison to the role of leader can also damage the group and their processes. The phenomena of free riding was found to be related to cultural background. Collective cultures value individual contributions as important for reaching their goals and every group member needs to contribute to the best of their capabilities. Thus, free riding is not accepted. In the more individualist cultures, individuals value their own work and interests and are more prone to benefit from the work of others, especially if their lack of contribution to the final goal is not noticed, and if a reward system is absent.

The attitudes towards working with a diverse group of students also differs between cultures in a number of ways. First, members of a collectivist culture are more prone to believing that diverse groups function less well because of their diversity in interests and lack of shared values. Students from individualistic cultures are more prone to believing that group work is advantageous as it is considered as an occasion for confrontation and conflicts because of different perspectives. Second, individual cultures are more focused on the self and personal goals as opposed to collective cultures, which are more focused on contributing to group success. Third, as they are more focused on personal goals, individualistic cultures do not tend to work in groups for common goals. Fourth, when working in groups, members from individualistic cultures are more likely to free-ride as their focus lies more on individual goals than group goals.

Intercultural (teaching/communication) competencies. When teachers encounter internationalisation whereby diverse domains of teaching affected, teachers need skills,

competencies and tools to teach and deal with possible problems or misunderstandings. To refer to such skills, the term “intercultural competence” is most commonly used in the literature, although there is no consensus on a single definition or around the terminology to be used (Perry & Southwell, 2011; Deardorff, 2011). In social work, the term “cultural competence” is used, while in other disciplines the terms global competence, intercultural maturity, multicultural competence, cross-cultural adaptation, intercultural sensitivity, cultural intelligence, international communication, multiculturalism, transcultural communication, cross-cultural awareness, and global citizenship are used (Deardorff, 2011, p. 66).

In this research, the term intercultural competence will be used as, according to Deardorff (2011), it applies to “anyone who interacts with those from different backgrounds, regardless of location” (Deardorff, 2011, p. 66). This definition suggests there are variety and options but most are general in their construct. This is because the definition needs to be applicable to all situations in all contexts. According to Deardorff (2006), the following was most applicable to an institution’s internationalisation: “Knowledge of others; knowledge of self; skills to interpret and relate; skills to discover and/or to interact; valuing others’ values, beliefs, and behaviors; and relativizing one’s self. Linguistic competence plays a key role” (Deardorff, 2006, p. 247). Another well rated definition is “Five components: World knowledge, foreign language proficiency, cultural empathy, approval of foreign people and cultures, ability to practice one’s profession in an international setting” (Deardorff, 2006, p. 247). The common elements in most definitions are awareness, valuing and understanding of cultural differences; experiencing other cultures; and self-awareness of one’s own culture. Cultural awareness is the common element and applies both to the culture of the other as well as their own (Deardorff, 2006). Appendix C lists components of intercultural competence that achieved 80% or higher acceptance. Only one received 100% agreement and consisted of the component “the understanding of others’ world views” (Deardorff, 2006, p. 247).

There is also a great variety of intercultural competence models and most include the ability to interact (behaviour and communication) effectively and appropriately with people from other cultures and relate this ability to four dimensions: knowledge, attitudes, skills and behaviours (Perry & Southwell, 2011; Deardorff, Assessing intercultural competence, 2011; Stone, 2006)

As illustrated in Figure 6, personal attitude is the fundamental starting point for the process of intercultural competence and the basis of a successful interaction (Deardorff, 2004). Openness, respect, valuing all cultures, curiosity, and tolerating ambiguity are fundamental to intercultural competence. The model illustrates the complexity of intercultural competence and reveals the movement from the personal to the interpersonal level. Furthermore, the model suggests that it is possible to take a “shortcut” from attitude as well as knowledge and comprehension to external outcomes. However, this route is not as effective as when the entire cycle is completed and thereby the internal outcomes are included. This also means that a person can externally behave and communicate appropriately and achieve cultural competence while not having achieved a shift in the frame of reference internally. Furthermore, it indicates that gaining cultural competence is an ongoing process and individuals may never be fully culturally competent (Deardorff, 2006). The internal outcome is described as a shift of reference towards a more ethno-relative view and refers to the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity by Bennett. Ethnorelativism is the opposite of ethnocentrism, which refers to seeing a person’s own culture as central to reality. Ethnorelativism is understanding, believing and the experience that a person’s beliefs and behaviour are just one way of organising and experiencing reality.

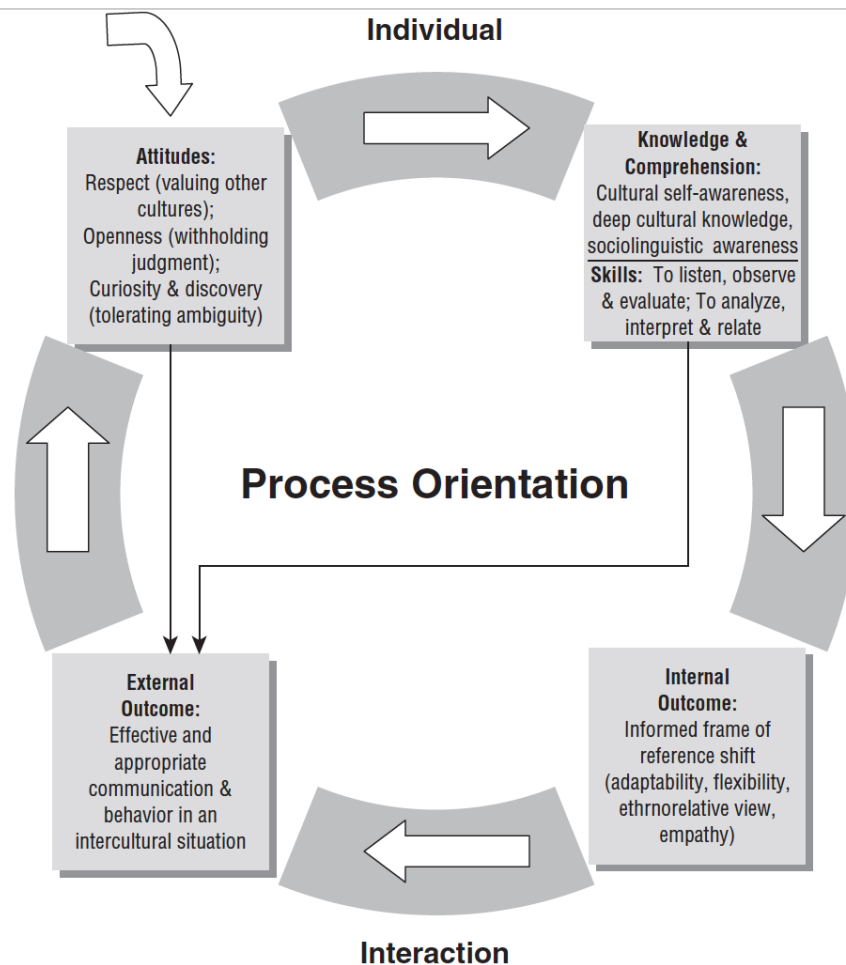


Figure 6: Process model of intercultural competence. Deardorff (2004)

Moving away from ethnocentrism towards ethnorelativism is not a simple switch. As described in Figure 7, there is a continuum of six stages or experiences (Bennett, 2004). An ethnocentric view of culture can be understood as a way of avoiding cultural difference. This can be achieved by denying the existence of the cultural difference or by defending oneself against it (Bennett, 2004) and is evident if a person isolates or separates themselves in homogeneous groups. Denial of cultural difference in a teacher is noticeable when they claim that their job is to teach a certain subject and the student just needs to learn it. Other claims are that their discipline is already international and accessible. When subjects are highly theoretical, such as physics or mathematics or a specific Western context, teachers sometimes see no need for thinking about internationalisation of their teaching or curricula. According to Carroll,

teachers of civil engineering refer to the idea that bridges fall down the same all over the world (Carroll, 2015).

The defence stage is characterised by an individual negatively evaluating cultural differences. International students can be discussed as problems while the teachers are considered to be doing well but are faced with difficult or wrong students. These teachers can refer to the idea that international students don't speak English, refuse to mix, and consistently plagiarise (Carroll, 2015). He or she might also perceive the difference as threatening in comparison to their own norm-referenced group (Cushner & Mahon, 2002).

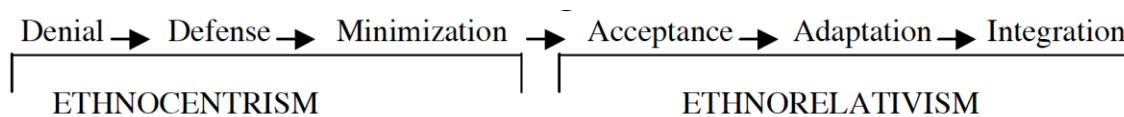


Figure 7: Model of intercultural sensitivity. Stages of development (Bennett, 2004)

The middle, minimisation of cultural differences, is a place of transition from a virulent to a more benign form and into the state of ethnorelativism (Bennett, 2004). Minimisation occurs when a person minimises or reduces the difference and the impact that these differences can have. They might focus on the commonalities of the group, which can result in minimising the importance or value of the cultural differences. This stage can be recognised when a person thinks that “everyone is alike”, which can mean “everyone is just like me”. Cushner and Mahon (2002) describe this as being colour-blind to the differences that exist between people. The integration of cultural differences into one's own identity is only achieved in some cases (Cushner & Mahon, 2002).

A person with a more ethnorelative worldview is focused on seeking cultural difference. He or she accepts the importance of the differences, adapts perspective and takes the differences into account or accepts the complete concept as a definition of identity (Bennett, 2004). Acceptance is characterised by the ability to see, recognise and appreciate the value of cultural

difference. Adaptation follows this stage and is characterised by the ability of the individual to see culture as more flexible and a growing competence to communicate across cultures. The following stage, integration, is rarely achieved as it asks people to have a multitude of frames of reference so that they can move freely within more than one culture (Cushner & Mahon, 2002). As described by Deardorff (2006), the shift towards an ethnorelative view and thereby a shift in internal outcomes is important for higher external outcomes.

Sanderson (2011) focused more specifically on university lecturers and described their role in nine clusters of qualifications. This is a statement about the knowledge, attitudes and skills that are relevant for lecturers in higher education who are involved in internationalisation.

- (1) “Have some basic knowledge of educational theory.
- (2) Incorporate internationalised content into subject material.
- (3) Have a critical appreciation of one’s own culture and its assumptions.
- (4) Have some knowledge of other countries and cultures, but a preference for being open to and appreciating other worldviews.
- (5) Use universal teaching strategies to enhance the learning experiences of all students.
- (6) Understand the way one’s academic discipline and its related profession (e.g. physiotherapy) are structured in a range of countries.
- (7) Understand the international labour market in relation to one’s academic discipline”(Sanderson, 2011).

These and some other insights are incorporated into the international competences matrix developed by the Office for International Relations at the Hanze University in Groningen, University of Applied Sciences, in collaboration with the Office for Personnel and Organisation. This matrix not only focuses on teaching the international classroom, but also includes other domains that are affected by the process of internationalisation in higher

education, such as counselling and maintaining collaborative relations with partner institutions.

The matrix is offered as a tool and insight for teachers in an international environment to stimulate awareness of the need for specific competences for working in an international context. Because of the smaller focus of this research, only the following competences are selected from the matrix and presented in Table 1 (Werf, 2012).

Task/ competence	Intercultural competences in an international context (personal)	Didactic or research competences in an international context (professional)	Competences related to different educational systems and teaching and learning styles	Competences connected with the personal academic discipline in an international context	Competences connected with the international labour market and working environment of the professional field
Teaching in English (international classroom)	Is able to articulate insights into one's own cultural background and biases and understands the complexity of culture. Interprets intercultural experiences from more than one perspective and can actively shift behaviour. Is able to actively implement one's understanding of various dimensions affecting verbal and nonverbal communication and can create shared meaning.	Has basic knowledge of the cultures represented in the group and is able to make adjustments for cultural differences in one's teaching and interaction with the group. Asks complex questions in a culturally appropriate manner and initiates and stimulates interactions with and between culturally diverse groups members.	Has a basic knowledge of differences between major educational systems across the globe and differences in teaching and learning styles, including the procedures and standards for assessing student performance. Is capable of adapting one's teaching to accommodate student audiences from different educational systems.	Is familiar with the international context and literature of his/her subject area and is capable of teaching his/her subject in an international context.	Is familiar with the main differences in the status of and requirements for the professions/jobs for which students are trained in relevant countries (qualifications needed, professional recognition, professional roles) and is able to incorporate this knowledge in one's teaching.

Table 1: Intercultural competence matrix for teacher in higher education. (Werf, 2018)

Intercultural competences training. According to Hofstede (1986), to obtain these competences and thereby overcome the difficulties of an international classroom can be

achieved in two possible ways. 1) Teach the teacher how to teach; or 2) Teach the learner how to learn. In 1986 Hofstede preferred the first option over the second, where possible, and otherwise a combination of the two (Hofstede G., 1986). For intercultural competences to be learned, trainees need to be presented with a challenge in which they are triggered to develop critical cultural awareness (Perry & Southwell, 2011). Alternative worldviews need to be explored, as does cultural self-awareness. Learning about one's own culture is essential (Hofstede, 1986). Training can enhance knowledge but, as indicated, knowledge is not enough, which suggests that behaviour and attitudes need to be targets within the training (Perry & Southwell, 2011). Furthermore, the training can provide opportunities for lecturers and staff to communicate as well as reflect on their practice and teaching (Hellstén & Prescott, 2004).

The most commonly used methods for learning intercultural competences are lectures, simulations and classroom discussions. Computers and online games are beginning to play a more important role in training (Perry & Southwell, 2011). Trainings commonly range from a few hours to over 50 hours and can be spread out over a day or period of several months.

This research. It has become clear that internationalisation in higher education creates an intercultural and diverse classroom with regard to learning and educational culture. Internationalisation is a process of integrating global dimensions in the purpose, function and delivery of education. Because of internationalisation, culture has become a variable and influential element for lecturers. Culture governs our daily lives through a shared, implicit and unconscious expectation of behaviour of not only others but also ourselves. It is a tacit element that influences our norms, values and basic assumptions, and also relates to key elements of academia and education.

The literature indicates that student behaviour, teaching context, academic skills, writing and plagiarism, and group work are affected by internationalisation. These elements and other effects of internationalisation were researched in the context of the University of

Twente. It is necessary for lecturers to obtain intercultural competences to provide optimal education to all students. The common elements in most definitions of intercultural competences are: the awareness, valuing, and understanding of cultural differences; experiencing other cultures; and self-awareness of one's own culture. They also include the ability to interact (behaviour and communication) effectively and appropriately with people from other cultures. This ability is related to four dimensions: knowledge, attitudes, skills and behaviours, of which attitude can be further divided into ethnocentric and ethnorelative attitudes.

For this research, the cultural competences of the lecturers at the University of Twente were examined. According to Hofstede (1986) it is preferable for the teacher to adapt to an international situation. Therefore, it is important for lecturers to become more aware of their own culture and frame of reference. This research aimed to discover whether this need is reflected by the lecturers at the University of Twente.

1.3 Research question

Based on the problem statement and theoretical framework, this research investigated the experiences of lecturers teaching an international classroom in the context of the following research and sub questions:

Research questions

- To what extent do teachers who are teaching international classrooms at the University of Twente experience the effects of internationalisation that are mentioned in the literature on teaching international classrooms?
- To what extent have teachers teaching international classrooms at the University of Twente gained intercultural competences?
- Given these effects, what kind of support would be preferred by lecturers teaching international classrooms?

1.4 Scientific and practical relevance

Few institutions offer lecturers formal instruction or training with regard to the skills and insights that are required for teaching an international classroom (Sanderson, 2011; Otten, 2000). Therefore, lecturers have to rely on previous experiences of culture and encounters with international students. Lecturers who have been teaching international students for a longer period of time have greater experience, which can create an imbalance between more and less experienced lecturers (Tange, 2010). Teaching experience with regard to aspects such as clarity and managing student behaviour can assist a lecturer when teaching the international classroom (Sanderson, 2011). At the University of Twente, the Centre of Expertise in Learning and Teaching (CELТ) offers training on how to teach the international classroom and can benefit from the results of this research.

According to Stier (2003), the pedagogical considerations of internationalisation and international exchange have not been thoroughly analysed. There is a need for better cultural understanding, which is reflected in pedagogy and practice between the international students and lecturers (Hellstén & Prescott, 2004). Sanderson (2011) claims there is a gap in the literature on internationalisation that specifically applies to teachers in higher education. This gap relates to teachers' knowledge about working with international curricula as well as their skills and personal and professional attitudes (Sanderson, 2011, p. 661). Academic research has mostly focused on the experiences of the international student or on the activities at the organisational level (Sanderson, 2011).

2. Research design and methods

2.1 Research design

This research uses a qualitative research approach. According to Boeije (2009), this approach is intended to describe, interpret and explain the behaviour, experiences and perceptions of the respondents (Boeije, 2009). According to Welch (1997), quantitative research is inadequate to explain intercultural research data. People ascribe meaning to their surroundings and qualitative research focuses on explaining and interpreting people's behaviour and understanding. Thus, it is not necessary to study many respondents; rather, the focus is on the many features of the respondent to create a better understanding of the unit and the respondents' experiences and behaviour. This is crucial for this research as it focuses on the personal experiences and behaviour of lecturers. Gaining a profound understanding is most important for qualitative research, not generalisation of the findings (Boeije, 2009).

2.2 Respondents

Lecturers. The respondents for this research were lecturers from the University of Twente who teach in master's programs with a higher percentage of international students. This research only focuses on master's programs as the percentage of international students in these programs is higher and includes more students from both European and non-European countries. In the 2017 undergraduate programs, 69% of all students were Dutch, 26% European, of which 18% were German, and only 5% were non-European students (University of Twente, 2017). In the 2017 master's programs at the University of Twente, 67% of the students were Dutch, 16% European, of which 8% were German, and 18% of the students were non-European, with India, China and Indonesia having the largest numbers (University of Twente, 2017). According to the Association of Universities, the student population has become more diverse

in recent years. Therefore, this study focuses on more diverse master's programs (Vernegiging Hogescholen & VSNU, 2014).

Within the range of different master's programs offered, eight were selected. The programs needed to have a minimum of 30% international students, at least 20 students needed to be enrolled in the program in 2017 and needed to consist of at least five Dutch, five European, and five non-European student. Inclusion of the non-European category was particularly valuable as, according to Carroll (2015), Asian countries, and especially China, are in the top five countries represented at universities worldwide. The following eight programs were selected on the basis of these criteria and are offered in four faculties of the University.

Faculty	Master's Program	Dutch students		European students		Non-European students		Total number of students
TNW	Chemical Engineering	50	70%	7	10%	14	20%	71
	Biomedical engineering	57	61%	24	26%	12	13%	93
EWI	Electrical engineering	28	46%	8	13%	25	41%	61
	Computer science	35	56%	17	27%	11	17%	63
ET	Mechanical engineering	94	68%	9	6%	36	26%	139
BMS	Environmental and energy management	6	17%	5	14%	24	69%	35
	Educational science and technology	40	68%	7	12%	12	20%	59
	Communication studies	39	61%	12	19%	13	20%	64

Table 2: Overview of student composition of selected master programs

To select appropriate respondents within these programs, the CELT network at the University of Twente was used to approach lecturers. The aim was to include lecturers with different levels of experience in teaching international students. The total number of lecturers interviewed for

this study was 13 and consisted of a variety of more and less experienced lecturers. A lecturer was considered to be experienced if he or she had been teaching an international classroom for 3–4 years. Furthermore, a lecturer needed to have taught the international classroom for at least a year to allow the respondent to speak from experience. When selecting the lecturers, there was a focus on an equal distribution of lecturers among the study programs.

Four faculties are included within this study. The researcher is a student of the University the lecturers represent. It was therefore important to guarantee anonymity. The recordings or transcripts will not be shared with others and the quotes were anonymised.

Students. Interviews were also conducted with eight students. This was done to complement the interviews with the lecturers. The interviews with students were not necessary to answer the research questions but were an addition, and offered an indication of the students' perspective. Students from different master's programs were approached to participate in an interview. As students experience several lecturers, sometimes across programs, on several occasions, they were able to provide different perspectives on the teaching skills of lecturers with regard to intercultural teaching. They were able to highlight aspects of teaching the teacher is not conscious of themselves and gave an overview of teacher interactions not focused on one lecturer.

2.3 Instruments

Data collection in this research was undertaken by interviews, which are powerful research instruments as they entail expression and language. In an interview, respondents can describe, explain and evaluate their experiences (Boeije, 2009). Interviews are useful for learning about the experiences of a respondent (Dunn, Interviewing, 2010). The interviews focused on the experiences and the narrative from the respondents with regard to international teaching; therefore, a semi-structured interview was preferred. However, certain topics needed to be discussed in all the interviews, of teachers as well as students. The topic list for teachers

included: student behaviour, such as participation and communication; academic skills including testing, plagiarism and academic writing; and group work. These topics were identified in the literature as being affected by an increase in international students in the classroom. Furthermore, the topic list included several questions inspired by the cultural intelligence scale developed by the Cultural Intelligence Centre in 2005 (Cultural Intelligence center, 2005).

The cultural intelligence scale is a quantitative measure and a selection of the items was taken to create the interviews. The selected questions are listed in Table 3. Selection was based on applicability in a teaching context as well as on Deardorff's (2006) model of intercultural competence. In this model, knowledge and comprehension is in accordance with the metacognitive and cognitive questions in the cultural intelligence scale. The questions concerning behaviour are in accordance with the external outcome in Deardorff's model. The motivational questions are a mix of attitude and internal outcome in Deardorff's model. Thus, all categories in Deardorff's model were included in the interviews.

Deardorff recommends assessing intercultural competences using a qualitative method such as an interview (Deardorff, 2006). An interview offered the flexibility to enquire further about the intercultural competences of teachers based on their answers. Interviews offered a more in-depth enquiry than a questionnaire. Therefore, items from the cultural intelligence scale were transformed to be used in a verbal interview. The complete cultural intelligence scale is presented in Appendix D while Appendix E presented the topic list used for interviews with the lecturers.

Factor	Question
Metacognitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me - I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions
Cognitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures - I know the rules of expressing non-verbal behaviours in other cultures - I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.
Motivational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures - I am confident that I can socialise with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me - I am sure I can deal with the stress of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.
Behavioural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I change my verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural interaction requires it. - I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations. - I change my rate of speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it. - I change my non-verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural situation requires it. - I alter my facial expression when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

Table 3: Questions selected from the cultural intelligence scale for the interviews.

The topic list for students also included academic skills, testing, plagiarism and academic writing, and group work. Furthermore, it included questions about the students' understanding of the intercultural competences and teaching qualifications of their lecturers. The interviews with the students were guided by the personal experiences of the respondents. Respondents were encouraged to elaborate on personal experiences. The complete topic list for interviews with students is presented in Appendix F.

Both topic lists were pilot tested to ensure their suitability. Based on the pilot testing, if a lecturer indicated they would not alter their behaviour, this subject was not pressed further and so not all questions concerning verbal and nonverbal communication were always asked.

2.4 Procedure

Before conducting and recording the interview, respondents were asked for consent and for permission to record the interview. Furthermore, respondents were informed of the purpose of the research and the possibility of stopping the interview at any time and to ask questions. Interviews were conducted at the University of Twente. The locations used for the interviews were semi-formal, often in an office at the University or another location that was convenient for the respondent and allowed for the interview to be recorded. The length of the interviews was between half an hour and 45 minutes and they were either voice or video recorded. An interview scheme was followed during the interview. At the end of each interview, the respondents were thanked and offered the possibility of receiving the study's final report.

2.5 Data analysis

The data analyses were carried out during and simultaneously with the interviews, which is understood to be part of grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Grounded theory is a more inductive research method than is traditionally used. Information is discovered, developed and verified in a process that allows the research to evolve and the understanding of a phenomena to emerge. The collection of data, the analyses of this data and theory thereby have a mutual and two-way relationship (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). This was done to allow for questions that emerged during the data collection to be integrated into the topic list and provided the ability to check if certain issues or situations were unique to a respondent or whether it was a more general issue (Tange, 2010).

The transcribed interviews were analysed by means of coding. The codes were established on the basis of the different themes discussed in the theoretical framework. These codes came from the literature but some were adapted and created on the basis of the data and the interviews. Codes focused on the cultural awareness of the teachers and were divided by several subcategories and sub codes. Codes included knowledge of other cultures, knowledge

of other educational systems, adaptation of teaching material or communication, and also ethnocentric or ethnorelative. Some of these codes were divided into subcategories that were more specific, such as denial, defence, minimisation, acceptance, adaptation and integration, which came forward from the literature. Parts of the interview that contained statements concerning these topics were selected and labelled with these codes. A collection of statements was created with a specific label that was a base for further analyses.

These codes were also created in relation to the support that lecturers preferred to receive. Therefore, “no support needed” was a premeditated code. Codes that emerged during the analysis were formed on the basis of notable discoveries during the research. This analysis resulted in an organised set of statements around codes and themes that were the empirical foundation for the results in this research. To preserve objectivity and guard the reliability of the data a sample, 10% of the coded material was also coded by another researcher, also known as interrater reliability.

3. Results

The discussion of the results in the following section focuses on answering three main questions.

3.1 How teaching is affected by internationalisation

As teaching is a social interaction that is influenced by implicit social norms and values, multiple domains of teaching within the University of Twente were affected by internationalisation. The student body of the University influences how and to what extent these domains are affected. Therefore, these results cannot be automatically transferred and brought into a broader applied understanding of how internationalisation has influenced teaching at other universities with an international student body. As seen in the literature, several domains of teaching could be affected by internationalisation. These domains will be reflected on in the context of the University of Twente.

Deviant student behaviour. According to Ottens and Teekens (2000), the interaction and behaviour of students might deviate from the expected patterns for international students. Based on the results of the interviews, it became clear that extreme and unpleasant deviant behaviour is not common at the University. Occasionally a student will sleep in class or a student will refuse to assist a lecturer are some examples of behaviour experienced at the University. In the quote below, a lecturer encountered unexpected behaviour of students that is based on cultural differences. The student stood up when the teacher passed their table. This is an indication of a more significant power difference in the student's country of origin. The lecturer describes how she was confronted with other societal norms by the student and that she needed to explain the local cultural norms and values to this student.

- *“A student jumps up and bows as soon as you walk by his table. He jumped up from his chair and then greeted Professor (name). I said stop. You make me very nervous. I’ve had that before, but also... a funny*

example. We have workshops and here and there you have to do things to make a model and there was a group of Indians. Fine. One of our workshop people came in the workshop and one of them was sitting on the table while the other three Indians were sweeping the floor. Why are you watching and not helping? No, I'm from a higher caste, I'm not going to do that. Well, we had to explain somethings about how things work here. He did start sweeping, though."

These experiences, although not very common, are unique for international students. This deviant or unexpected behaviour is based on the cultural norms and values of the student, which are perceived to be deviant in a Dutch context. It is clear that in some examples, such as the one above, there is a clash in cultural norms, values and behaviour. Lecturers are confronted with these behaviours and have to accept, or in the case above, explain how the student is expected to behave.

However, lecturers also stated that students, in general, can behave unexpectedly. In the quote below, a lecturer reflects on an unexpected action by one of the students and indicates that this could also have been a Dutch or Chinese student.

- *"But I mean, that could just as well have been a Dutch student. Or a Chinese. I don't see any connection with nationality."*

Other elements of diversity such as gender, education, individual characteristics, and social backgrounds can also result in miscommunication and misunderstandings. However, it is interesting that some of these interactions and incidences of deviant student behaviour at the University of Twente are, in addition to these other elements of diversity, influenced by internationalisation.

The example below is a clear indication of how culture influences lecturers and lectures at the University. The lecturer indicated that he did not understand why a student remained

seated in a class where she was not supposed to be. As is often the case in these situations of misunderstanding, the lecturer imagined that the student did not understand him correctly and repeated the instructions. Furthermore, he indicated he did not know what to do with the situation and therefore, at a certain moment chose to ignore the situation and move on.

- *“But that lady is from India or Pakistan, Bangladesh maybe, at least that corner, and she stayed put. So, I thought that she may not have understood it very well. I’m going to explain it again and then she nodded very understandingly, but she stayed put. I thought, well, she hasn’t understood it yet, I’m going to say it again. I did that a number of times, but she kept nodding kindly and she still remained seated. I thought, well, I have to continue with the lesson. I can hardly push her out of the door. But at some point, she got it and she left anyway.”*

This is a good example of the feelings and influences these encounters can create in lecturers: feelings of uncertainty, insecurity and sometimes also anxiety.

The quote below indicates that the lecturer eventually came to understand that this encounter was influenced by culture. The student’s background was in a more collective culture whereby teachers have a more respected and authoritarian position.

- *“He said that I explained something and then you dropped a silence, which made her think you were going to say something. You thought she didn’t understand and repeated it. That circle continued several times. It was a cultural difference and she apparently got it from home that as long as the teacher has not finished speaking, you stay put. In retrospect, I heard you should announce that this was the message. End of message and goodbye or something.”*

Lecturers at the University of Twente also indicated that some international students, particularly Asian students, can be somewhat passive in asking questions and interacting with other students and teachers. In the three quotes below, it is clear that this is something multiple teachers recognise and that it is transferred to multiple teaching contexts. The first quotes indicate that it is highly relevant when interacting on an individual level with students in programs where exercises need to be completed and checked. The lecturer indicated that he should be aware of some students' reluctance to acknowledge their lack of understanding.

- *“If you have someone from Korea, in Korea the distance between God and the professor is less than between the professor and the student. And if you give someone a yes–no question, the answer will always be yes, while it may be no. They dare not admit that they don’t understand something. Then you actually have to, yeah, these are actually all one-on-one things, in a classroom environment you do not notice it that much. It is especially if you are marking assignments that you have to check them carefully – if they say yes that they understand and that they also show that they understand. Because only then you can really know whether it is really the case that they understand.”*

The next quote from a different lecturer indicates not only that this is something that is of importance at an individual level, but also in a more traditional class setting when teachers give lectures. The lecturer indicated that he believes interaction between student and lecturer needs to be encouraged but that some Asian students are unfamiliar with this interaction.

- *“In some cultures, there is simply no question of that (interaction), not at all. There is no understanding that there should be interaction in an educational setting. There it is just like that; a teacher is expected to send out knowledge and it automatically lands in the minds of the students.*

We don't believe that anymore. It was the same in the Netherlands not long ago. But certainly in the Asian countries, the teacher is seen as wise and he knows all."

- *"Participating, being really active and not sitting on the side listening and nodding yes."*

The third quote, from another lecturer, explains that the overall communication with this group of students can sometimes be difficult. According to the lecturer, the volume and use of their voice makes the communication and interaction with students from China and India more difficult.

- *"But you just notice certain students from China and from India, that they are not only more reticent in the interaction, but also speak in a soft voice, which also does not always make it easy in communication, and that comes from their cultural background."*

Overall, it seems clear that lecturers at the University of Twente are confronted with unexpected and somewhat deviant student behaviour. Extreme deviances or encounters are less common but do take place and can create a feeling of doubt and anxiety for the lecturer. The different expectations concerning communication and interaction with the lecturer are more common. This was mostly recognised in students from Asian backgrounds within the University's student body. Thus, it can be concluded that area 1 (concerning the social position of teachers) and area 4 (expected patterns of interaction), as indicated by Hofstede (1986), are affected at the University of Twente.

Other unexpected behaviour that was indicated by lecturers includes the drive of international students for their education performance. Lecturers stated that some international students are highly motivated to excel in their academic education. In the quote below, a lecturer indicated that students strive for a high grade even if they have already passed the course.

- *“They really are here with a different mentality, they really want to achieve results and are less distracted by social interactions, such as a study association, for example. Sometimes you are really amazed, and that may be an example of international students that they sometimes surprise you. People who take a re-exam because they only had an eight instead of an insufficient. So, then they’re really going to try to score a nine. That’s something I have never seen with Dutch students.”*

The lecturer indicated that this is different from Dutch students who are more easily distracted.

Students indicate. Two Dutch students in particular also recognised the pattern described above in the participation and behaviour of some international students. Some students indicated that international students do not, or only on a limited basis, contribute in class. Thus, there is agreement in what both lecturers and students experience.

Diverse teaching context. At the University of Twente, respondents were aware of a group of diverse students with regard to the content they teach. In the quote below, the lecturer indicated that they found it very logical to adapt the teaching content and to include different contexts and situations.

- *“If you have a very diverse group, it makes a lot more sense to use examples from all kinds of contexts and situations and to identify other applications of the content.”*

Lecturers indicated that they not only adapted their teaching to facilitate international students, but also indicated that it is an enrichment for students to be able to see other cultural insights concerning the content of the class.

- *“I think that it also gives added value in terms of content, by looking at those differences and being able to talk more about what is or is not important or what is an underlying and how you could look at it.”*

At the University, lecturers also use international students as an information resource to start discussions. It could be easier to apply the knowledge to a broader perspective because of the presence of international students. A lecturer indicated they found it easier to do so for an international class with a higher proportion of international students as this made it more logical and easier to pay attention to the non-Dutch context.

- *“I find teaching a homogeneous group more difficult because it makes it less easy to take into account the few exceptions that are there.”*

Thus it can be concluded that internationalisation at the University of Twente influences the content and the examples used in the lectures.

Students indicate. Multiple students indicated they highly valued these different perspectives in class and that this sometimes contributes to an even better understanding. Students also stated that although lecturers try, they are sometimes not capable of coming up with examples from outside the context. In these situations, some lecturers ask international students to provide a possible example from their country or perspective.

- *“Sometimes they refer to how it happens... in the Netherlands for example, that they are trying to explain things or how it is from the Dutch perspective. And sometimes you hear people say, ‘oh, I don’t know how it is in your country, but this is how it happens here’.”*

These examples from other contexts are highly valued by international as well as Dutch students. The inclusion of international students and an international context indicates the added value of international students. Some international students noticed that some content and literature is often only taken from a Western perspective and philosophy.

- *“Although I think like the University is quite international or like I took a philosophy course that talked about philosophers from Europe and America, but not so much from Asia. But that is just for the philosophy*

course. I think like a lot of scientific articles you read are also like Western articles. I don't know how they would change that, but that's something I noticed."

Here, the experiences of both lecturers and students agree with each other.

Academic skills. When teaching an international and diverse classroom, common ground might be missing. Where a critical problem-based approach might be preferred in one country, a more reproduction-based form of education can be the norm in others (Tange, 2010). Therefore, it was of interest to discover if lecturers experience these different backgrounds and how they perceive these differences, particularly at the master's level at the University of Twente.

Lecturers at the University indicated that, although the level of international students does vary, critical thinking is often more difficult for this group. Their experience was that international students do not question the literature extensively and find it difficult to process and think critically.

- *"If I look at critical thinking, evaluating, that is something that a large part of the international students seems to have much more trouble with, or at least find it much more difficult to actually do something with it."*
- *"But the way in which they deal with the content with the assumption that it is true, that is a bit less critical."*

Even though the level of critical thinking within the group of Dutch students also varies, some lecturers indicated that the language skills of international students hinders this process.

- *"Yes, very diverse, but on the other hand, Dutch students are also very diverse, so in that sense...sometimes in terms of language that can be done a little better."*

In addition to critical thinking, content knowledge, and language skills, other research skills are sometimes difficult or unfamiliar for international students. For example, working with and analysing statistics in the social sciences, and the use of different machines and appliances in a laboratory environment are aspects that international students are not always familiar with.

- *“Something that struck me: At one point I had a graduate, from the former Eastern Bloc of Europe, who had collected data for a project and then she was ready and she asked me to explain how SPSS worked because she did not have any statistics. That was when I was surprised, that that was from the screening, that they had not noticed that.”*

Although sometimes minor, these unfamiliarities require a lecturer to be alert and too often they need to invest more time explaining what is expected to be basic knowledge and skills. In a laboratory environment, this requires a teacher to be on higher alert when performing an experiment or test.

- *“An example, very specific, is that not everyone has the same knowledge of Matlab in order to work with it. There are those who arrive here who are really just blank in that. And so actually either pick it up very quickly or have to hitch a ride with others.”*
- *“You sometimes see that students lack some practical experience. Also, when it comes to equipment or something. Sometimes there are surprises concerning glassware and equipment. That sometimes they don’t know how to put a stopper on, how to open it and in practice it turns out that you can just lift that stopper, but they may think that it is a screw thread and then they turn the cap. So those are sometimes surprises for me that you apparently have a difference in the availability of glassware and items. And therefore, sometimes students are uncomfortable in handling*

things in the lab. There is sometimes a small difference and that that is also funny. It does not lead to problems, but you do see differences in practical areas and instruments.”

Students indicate. Around 50% of the students interviewed in this research indicated that they found it difficult to adjust to the academic style and expectations at the University of Twente. Critical thinking was not directly mentioned, but ideas on how to read and process academic literature came forward as an example. The following quote indicates that some international students tend to read everything and find it difficult to distinguish between major and minor elements in literature. The quote also indicates that students do not always receive guidance from the lecturer and that tips from fellow students did help.

- *“I just read everything, sometimes it was very helpful when they, when we had to write like weekly assessments, and yeah, it was good guidance, because you focus on specific questions during reading the paper. So, it was very helpful. But yeah, I didn’t have any guidance and yeah, I don’t know, academic reading, no. I’m not sure that I learned what it means exactly. So, you can say that I received feedback from students when we worked together in groups. Sometimes they kinda provide some feedback or some tips and tricks. Like you can skip result parts if you don’t need it right now, so if you don’t need to focus on results, you can just skip it and read the introduction and conclusion. Yeah, some tips, but I am not sure if that is about academic reading.”*

This can also relate to lecturers stating that international students are more prone to reproduction than towards the application of knowledge. Based on the interviews in this research, the focus on reproduction can be explained by the background of students and also because of the limited guidance concerning how to read and interpret literature and other course

materials. The experiences of lecturers and international students concerning a difference in academic skills agree here.

Academic writing and plagiarism. Plagiarism and academic misconduct by international students at the University of Twente contradicts the literature as it is not common. Some lecturers indicated they had encountered plagiarism more commonly in international students' work than in Dutch students' work. However, this is not as common or as significant a problem as described in literature. Lecturers indicated that plagiarism by international students is likely related to pressure and stress. In the quote below, a lecturer explains that plagiarism is more common for international students and that he expects this not to be a cultural matter but one that is related to the stress some of the international students experience.

- *“That is a bit more common, I think foreign students, it is not necessarily just a cultural thing, only partly I think, but also because they are under great pressure not to lose face. There are big consequences for them if it does not work out for them, so they will sooner go into a wrong direction with that.”*

Lecturers often indicated that there is no difference between Dutch and international students.

- *“No, my only experience with plagiarism was with Dutch students.”*
- *“Yes, I think so. I don't see any differences between students.”*

With regard to international students' writing skills, lecturers explained they did not see a general lower level of ability. Lecturers indicated that, in general, the level of students varies greatly. However, they did state that some international students do deviate from structure but that often language is the most important limiting factor in writing, especially in a written assessment or paper where the language skills of some international students fall short.

Students indicate. One student indicated that they found it challenging to write papers and other assignments. Another student indicated they had never learned how to write and that

it was completely new. Therefore, international students might find it more difficult to write a paper because they lack experience. The use of APA can also be unfamiliar for international students. This unfamiliarity can result in difficulty, lower grades, and can require more investment from the international student.

- *“For me it was completely new because in Russian it is just different. We didn’t use APA style, we didn’t use structure, thus for me yeah, it was learning from the beginning I would say. So, the first one, the second one, yeah, I think some small things, yeah about structure, about how to represent your source, yeah you can say that this is about academic writing and I didn’t have experience before.”*

Testing and assessment. Although all lecturers at the University indicated they assess uniformly and fairly, an unconscious process that is related to culture does affect the assessment of students. A lecturer indicated that when students have a mother tongue that the lecturer understands, lacking skills in English might still result in a correct judgement of a particular answer on a test. The lecturer can still understand the incorrect English words and sentence structure because it is strongly linked to the Dutch language. He or she can recognise the references to the Dutch language and can still understand or better understand what is written. If a student has Chinese as their mother tongue, recognition of the Chinese sentence structure is not possible and thus it is more difficult for a lecturer to understand the answer of some international students. This process is described by one lecturer:

- *“That’s most tricky I think. The tricky part is, of course, that as a Dutchman you can read it in Dutch and English, while that is a lot more difficult for Chilean. So, all the crooked sentences that I still understand from Dutch people, I understand what they actually mean in Dutch. I don’t understand international students crooked sentences because I just*

can't understand what sentence construction in Azerbaijani actually is and what makes sense in their eyes."

While Dutch students' English writing skills may be below standard, they also have the option of answering in Dutch. Some students write their answers, or parts of their answers, in Dutch if their English is not sufficient. Some lecturers indicated that for them, the students' understanding is most important and would therefore be inclined to see it as a correct or partially correct answer. However, it is unfortunate that international students do not have this option and that they can only answer in English.

In addition to language, culture and cultural references, as indicated by Hofstede, are also factors when assessing international students' work. In particular, when teachers are in doubt if an answer is fully correct, the decision usually falls more easily in favour of Dutch students than international students. For a teacher, because of cultural references, norms, values, and shared experiences, it is easier to understand what a student intended with their answer. This effect can play a role when there is a test in the form of a written exam. The quote below explains this process.

- *"If you indeed ask a question on a test and there is an answer this is really a good answer, then I think that I understand what they want to say with Dutch students and that I therefore approve it more easily. But I try to be as strict as possible in this. I also have students who secretly put half a sentence in Dutch. I really don't know how to say it in English anymore, but it is this...., Then I think yes, you understand what it is about and that is the point."*

When deciding on a pass or a failure, lecturers at the University of Twente sometimes experience pressure in making these assessments, especially when students pay a higher admission fee. According to the lecturers, international students tend to be more eager to

graduate and to do so on time. Teachers can feel pressured by the student to increase a grade, especially when material is already graded and students come to receive feedback.

- *“It sometimes happens that students try to put pressure on you for a certain grade, but yes, you can’t do much with that, because as a teacher you also have to be able to justify your grade. So, you can try to accommodate students but you simply can’t.”*
- *“Students who come from Asia or outside of Europe, for example, pay a much higher tuition fee. So, they are generally eager to graduate quickly. That is really a clear difference. They really just want to be ready in those six months or earlier.”*
- *“So, it is more in the process and how they set it up. And I notice the attitude of Dutch students being more like, well, we’ll see.”*
- *“They put pressure. Pressure I can handle, I am not complaining. But I can feel the difference. That’s for sure. Especially with non-European students.”*

Lecturers indicated that the pressure is more often placed on them by non-European students. In these moments, teachers indicated they felt for the student and therefore sometimes experienced these moments as very difficult.

Furthermore, lecturers indicated they saw differences in educational systems reflected in some of the testing and assessment of international students. As noted above, academic traditions might be different and less focused on application and critical thinking in other universities around the world. International students also struggle in their assessments when particular tasks need to be performed.

- *“If things go wrong there, it’s that people have had a different way of learning. You learn a chapter, and you have to reproduce what is in the book. And here it is about applying and insight. You give examples, you*

get a test with a task that you have never seen before. And that is a very important difference. I had a girl here and she was from Iran, and she said yes, indeed, at home I always had very high grades, and here she got insufficient grades. It really made a difference. She works hard, she knows the material that is in the book, she can reproduce it, but applying that material in an example to really show how you can work, that she cannot. And that is an important difference. Also often, with tests, practicing is more important than memorising an entire book.”

It is clear from this quote that some international students struggle with Western academic traditions and norms and confront teachers about what to do. In addition, other forms of testing, such as multiple choice, an open book, or an oral test, are sometimes unfamiliar or difficult for international students.

- *“And some foreign students have barely had that or very differently. And then we have oral projects and exams and that is quite scary. That is in groups and you are questioned about the content.”*

Students indicate. Students indicate that sometimes the assignments are not completely clear to them and that they do not know how to approach the problem properly. However, there is a great variety between lecturers’ courses and programs. This also has to do with unfamiliarity with different kinds of assessments such as an open book exam. Some encounter these forms of testing for the first time in the master’s program at the University and, as a result, experience insecurity. Two of the interviewed international students indicated that they had expected this. They were aware that when they went go abroad, they might encounter differences and unfamiliarity.

- *“If you are going abroad, you have to be ready that it will be a bit different, so I think it was for me, it was predictable. I have to learn a bit*

more than, for example, Dutch students or European citizens in general.

So yeah, I can say that that is okay.”

International students indicated that studying abroad also provides moments to learn and to experience new ways. However, some indicated they needed more guidance in preparation for such a new form of assessment.

Feedback. When providing feedback and guidance, especially the writing process for their thesis, international students often required more support and feedback from their supervisor. Some lecturers indicated they were strict and did not to provide extra or more feedback moments in comparison to other students. However, some lecturers indicated that although the end results and level still need to be the same, the process and feedback needs to be tailored to the needs of the individual student. This cost lecturers more time and effort and increased their workload.

- *“The point is the workload. The workload is becoming a bit too much for some teachers. And if you also have to take care of some international students with some different expectation, that can be too much sometimes.”*

This difference is in accordance with the literature as it indicates that there can be uncertainty among lecturers with regard to how and to what extent additional support is needed, and also what is fair to provide for international students. The amount and form of feedback and support is now left to the discretion of the lecturer, which can result in highly variable guidance and support of students depending on their mentor. Some lecturers indicated that the additional support that students might need, should be provided by the University or faculty, not the individual lecturer.

However, it is noticeable that non-Dutch, international teachers are more inclined to provide more and individually tailored feedback to the student. This was indicated for all non-

Dutch lecturers who were interviewed for this research. This might be explained by the personal experience of being abroad and the difficulty these lecturers have experienced themselves in adjusting to a foreign context, resulting in more understanding of the process the international student is going through.

- *“Well, put it this way, maybe I could understand or I could see some problems, because I have experienced that. So, in this way, yes. Maybe I am a bit more, you could say, sensible to some problems or issues that they could have.”*

Students indicate. A majority of the students stated that the amount and quality of feedback varied significantly between lecturers. Overall, students were satisfied with the feedback they received, although they thought that sometimes it could have been more elaborate. With regard to the transfer of the feedback, some international students indicated that the feedback sometimes hurt. One student explicitly stated that this made her sad. This might be explained by the more direct style of communicating in the Netherlands.

Group work. When working in small groups, students cooperate with other students from diverse backgrounds in terms of age, gender, and education and also cultural diversity. However, in general, lecturers at the University of Twente do not take the extra dimension of interculturality into account. Some lecturers indicated that working with groups results in friction anyway and that having culturally mixed groups does not add extra friction. Therefore, lecturers do not see the need to take the intercultural dimension into account when implementing group work.

- *“But I don’t see more structural problems with foreigners. It is often also in groups that there are miscommunications. Some people have little or no commitment, and this can give some friction in the rest of*

the group. In my experience, that has nothing to do with being a foreign student.”

According to the literature, there will be friction in groups because of diversity such as age, gender and education but some challenges are unique to groups that are multicultural. Lecturers are actively involved in creating these multicultural groups and are regularly involved in the initial group formation to ensure there is a mix of international and Dutch students in the small groups. After the formation, lecturers do not guide cooperation or communication processes in the groups. Some lecturers do have regular meetings with the smaller groups but mostly focus on content and academic performance. In the quote below, a lecturer explained how the groups were composed and what method and motivations were behind this decision.

- *“And I also ask them to indicate their language. The reason that I do that is because this way I can mix groups. So that you have Dutch and foreign students in one group. That you do not have groups that are only Dutch or only foreign. Also, just in terms of language, because sometimes it is more difficult to communicate with a client in English.”*

Lecturers are actively involved in creating multicultural groups but there is no awareness around the unique challenges working in a multicultural group creates or the guidance that these groups might need. There is reference to the idea that students should be able to resolve issues among themselves. There are also some options to involve the lecturer when unworkable situations arise, but students do not involve their teacher on a regular basis.

- *“Sometimes frictions arise in groups. But in the first place, I think the students should solve it themselves in a group.”*

Furthermore, lecturers indicated that they found dealing with some of these problems challenging. There was a wish for everyone to just cooperate. Problems that arise in groups when group members do not agree about the style of work or problems around free riding.

However, lecturers did not or could not elaborate on the problems that arise in groups. According to the lecturers, these problems can be based on differences in content knowledge, and also on communication and the missing habituation of international students.

- *“Well, for example, they have a different way of working and that international students who are not so used to making group assignments. And then you notice that groups find it very difficult. And I find it difficult, because I really just want everyone to work with everyone.”*
- *“And those international groups actually find it very difficult because they have actually shared a little generic knowledge, which makes it much more difficult to think about what they are going to test. I think that this also arises from the content or from the understanding of the content, or something. And I think it is indeed also getting used to it. How do you divide the tasks? How do you communicate with each other? How do you agree to deliver certain things or something? But I must say that this is not only due to international students, but also, for example, I see the same problem with older people who are now returning to study, who have never worked with a group before.”*
- *“But I have already had a few times that students are not good at it. Not in terms of level and not in terms of working method.”*

Only a small number of lecturers indicated that they guide the cooperation processes in the smaller groups, whereby students sign a contract or complete a test and watch a movie on different characters who need to be present in a team to function well. Students get the result from this test and are required to analyse their team characteristics. Students need to reflect on their contribution to the team, their function and the need to reach agreement with the group members. Later, students and lecturers can also refer to these analyses and agreements. One program even offers the students a workshop on cultural awareness at the beginning of their

master's program because there was a desire to integrate Dutch and international students more. These are good examples of conscious guidance of the group processes in a program.

- *“And no matter what I do with them, we really focus on teamwork, so they have something where they have to make a group contract and come to agreements and they have to evaluate that as well.”*
- *“They have to do that in the beginning, they have already formed the groups, then they will carry out that analysis. And then they see how they themselves will be able to contribute, their own function in their team. And whether the team indeed has all the important functions. Or that there are certain gaps. And then they think about how to fill those gaps.”*

Apart from the initial guidance in the formation of the group, lecturers do not often actively guide the cooperation process. According to the literature, it is advised that lecturers do become involved in this process.

Students indicate. Group work is a topic that all students indicated they had some issues with. International students often referred to language, communication, ideas around the goals and cooperation problems when discussing group work. It is not uncommon for international students to be in a group where the majority of students are Dutch. Often the Dutch students switch to speaking Dutch and the international student feels excluded. He or she cannot take part in the discussion and is sometimes only included again to receive a task from the Dutch group members. Thus, communication is not only based on language. International students also indicated that it is sometimes difficult to understand each other properly, even if all members speak English.

- *“Of course, we had some difficulties with communication and with understanding each other.”*

Problems also arise within the small groups between students who have varying goals. Some strive for a higher grade than others, and keeping on schedule is often a source of conflict. International students are sometimes more motivated to strive for a higher grade than the Dutch students, which can result in friction within the group.

- *“The dynamic in the group is based on people’s attitude towards the study. So, if you have a majority Dutch group, who more likely go for the bare minimum or a six, it can create a not so comfortable environment for the international students.”*

Two international students indicated that working in a group was completely new to them and that they were not used to working and cooperating with other students. The lecturers also indicated that international students need to get used to these forms of education. However, international students indicated that they needed more guidance in these processes.

- *“’Cause you can’t assume that everybody has done teamwork. It is very common in the Netherlands, but not necessarily common in other places. People can work together but not necessarily the best way.”*
- *“We could need some kind of guidance. As I know some other students from different cultures, for them working together is rather new and yeah, I didn’t work with these people.”*

Overall, it can be concluded that working in groups is challenging for both international students and lecturers. This could be a new form of education whereby cultural and language skills also influence cooperation. Students also stated that when a group works well, it can be a real asset to them. It can provide them with inclusion in the program and a familiar group to cooperate with for the rest of the program. Therefore, it is important for lecturers to provide more opportunities for guidance and support for students while working in groups.

- *“With one of the first subjects I found a group and now we stick together and until now we do the same courses and we do the same assignments.”*

3.2 The intercultural competence of teachers

The intercultural competences of lecturers is not a static element and can change and evolve. This became clear during the interviews with lecturers and therefore no general assumption can be made on the intercultural competences of all lecturers at the University of Twente. It is a very personal matter and entails a variety of attitudes, knowledge and opinions on what a lecturer should and should not do. When looking at the process model of intercultural competence, three elements are indicated to influence the external (intercultural) communication: attitude, knowledge and comprehension, and internal outcomes.

Attitude. According to Deardorff (2004) respect, openness and curiosity are essential for interculturally competent communication. All lecturers at the University of Twente demonstrated some form of respect and openness towards international students. Their attitude towards international students was not negative and there was no negative bias towards international students. Lecturers indicated they withheld themselves from judgements concerning the cultural and academic backgrounds of international students. However, this does not mean that they value other cultures, but does imply that they often choose to be impartial.

- *“I don’t talk or judge religion anyway. No, let me say, look, I have nothing to do with religion myself, but as people with a headscarf or I don’t know what, and men don’t want to shake hands, I have no judgement about that. I’m not going to be bothered about that. Skin colour is not a theme, as is religion or cultural background or ethnicity or whatever. That is not a theme for me either.”*

Possibly because of this neutral position, curiosity was not observed often in the lecturers’ statements, neither about the educational system that students came from nor the

cultural backgrounds of international students. Lecturers were more interested in their educational specialisation and academic background. This might be explained because academic backgrounds are viewed as more objective, neutral and in some form, less personal information. It is possible the lecturers are more comfortable discovering this information. However, there is significant variety among lecturers with regard to curiosity, respect and openness and also variation in how the attitude influences the lecturers' communication.

Knowledge and comprehension. With regard to knowledge and comprehension, there was also significant variety among lecturers. Furthermore, the opportunity to gather knowledge and information differed between lecturers. The lecturers indicated they were not always aware of the cultural backgrounds of students or did not to have insights into what these backgrounds might entail. In the intercultural competence matrix, knowledge and comprehension are important elements. Knowledge of the cultures that are represented in the group is important as it enables lecturers to adjust how they teach and interact with the group. Some lecturers explained they are not able to find this information. The information lecturers can gather concerning their students' backgrounds differs greatly between programs and faculties. Some lecturers can see the name, a picture, previous education, and also the country the student comes from. Other lecturers stated they only had the opportunity to see the name of students, or only their previous education background. Others indicated that when teaching a class of over 100 students, it was impossible to acquire knowledge of all the students.

- *“No, and that’s undoable, I am not going to start that either.”*

Lecturers also stated they did not have knowledge of the different educational systems, teaching and learning styles, and assessment methods. When a student originates from Japan, lecturers do not have insights into what educational system the student comes from or what he or she might be used to. In the quote below, a lecturer indicates they are not aware of the cultural background of students.

- *“It is true that I am aware of my limited cultural framework. I find it difficult to make statements about things that apply to a situation such as in Asia. Sometimes I think that it would be nice if you knew about that, and you could say something about the application of the content in the home situation of certain students, but I don’t have that knowledge.”*

This lack of understanding of the diversity in education systems and learning styles might explain why one lecturer, who acquired knowledge on the background of their students, did not adapt lessons based on this information. Lecturers indicated they updated their lessons to include current affairs, but none of the lecturers stated that they adapted the content, style or teaching methods of lessons based on the educational or cultural background of students.

It is possible that lecturers might not know where to start. The knowledge lecturers gather on the backgrounds of students is limited and often no more than an indication of the composition of the group they will teach for a particular course.

- *“The group is also very diverse, you cannot adapt to that. I mean, if you have Americans and Russians and Chinese and Indonesians in the room, how to change? So, you try to do it your own way, and try to do it well.”*

Lecturers suggested they sometimes adjusted the lesson while teaching, particularly when there are questions on a particular topic or when the lecturer feels that something might be unclear. Furthermore, lecturers stated that they actively tried to motivate students in their lectures and thereby stimulate interactions with and between culturally diverse students. This adjustment was mostly focused on content and method and did not relate to their adjustments of verbal and non-verbal behaviour. There was no adjustment in volume, pauses or body language while teaching. However, this adaptation of communication sometimes occurred

when lecturers met with students on a one-on-one basis. In the quotes below, lecturers indicate they are aware of their style and the need to adapt it for a diversity of students.

- *“What I said earlier about my informal and direct behaviour, sometimes I have to pay attention, with all students, but especially for students with an international background I should be less direct. Otherwise they can feel very attacked, while I don’t mean it like that.”*
- *“Yeah. If I talk to Dutch or, for example, Italian students, I am more direct. If I talk to students from other countries, I try to be a bit more, let’s say, soft.”*

Internal outcomes. Lecturers at the University of Twente respond differently to the interaction and confrontation with international students. Bennett’s developmental model of intercultural sensitivity provides structure to this variety and of the six stages, denial, defence, minimisation, and acceptance can be recognised in the statements of various lecturers.

Denial. Although some lecturers at the University of Twente might see how international students interact differently, they indicated that it is not their job to guide and assist them. Rather, they stated that it is their job to teach a certain subject and the student just needs to learn. This is a clear indication of the denial stage. Some lecturers at the University indicated that their educational goals and academia are more important and that this should be the focus of the lecturer. The international students are abroad and should adjust to the new context so that they learn. Therefore, the lecturer does not have a role in guiding the students’ adaptation process. Some lecturers refer to external support services that should be responsible for helping the student so that the lecturer can do their teaching job.

- *“You study in the Netherlands, we want to explain quite a bit, we want to take some things into account, but we are not going to change...We can take things into account and understand the you react differently to things, but the Dutch way of working is important.”*

- *“But I stop those things immediately. People who speak in such a soft voice that I cannot understand them need to adapt to the culture of the Dutch classroom. They have to repeat it just as many times until they know how to speak with a good decibel so that everyone can understand, because yes, you cannot accept that.”*

In the following quote the lecturer suggest that a risk of internationalisation is that lecturers adapt their education. This lecturer feels it is important to uphold the Dutch culture, since they are teaching in the Netherlands.

- *“I myself see this as one of the risks that people with little experience do not create a standard of an international classroom but want to adapt to the cultures of people. Education is simply different in Indonesia than in an international environment. You are a teacher at a Dutch educational institution in the Netherlands, where the rules and culture apply to a Dutch study program.”*

Defence. The defence stage is indicated when lecturers are more negative about international students. They are discussed in terms of being a problem and lecturers are faced with difficult students. This is also indicated by teachers at the University of Twente, sometimes in reference to a mistake that was made in admission or blame towards a backward education system in the country the student originates from. Students might not be familiar with group work, testing, critical thinking or academic writing and therefore, they create difficulties. Therefore, the lecturers refer to the idea that the teachers are doing well but are faced with difficulty on behalf of the student. This occurs at the University of Twente and is already elaborated on in the previous chapter. At this stage it is important that it is not viewed as a difference in students or something the lecturer encounters, but as a problem belonging to the student.

- *“And last year we had a group of students from Indonesia, no from India. They entered in February, and we will not do that again...Because they do not have the knowledge. Period.”*

Minimisation. After the defence stage, the recognition of cultural differences becomes less negative and are now minimised. Minimisation is the most common stage for lecturers at the University. When a lecturer is in the minimisation stage, he or she focuses on the commonalities of the group, thereby minimising the importance or value of cultural diversity. Thinking that all students are alike is a way to minimise the differences between students. This is common at the University as lecturers often refer to the idea that there is no difference between international students and Dutch students. Quotes from the previous results chapter reveal multiple quotes where lecturers indicated they did not see or notice a difference between Dutch and international students. The idea of treating students equally might be an important motivation in this line of thinking and argumentation. However, it would be interesting to conduct follow-up research on the idea that there are no differences between Dutch and international students when focusing on specific aspects.

Acceptance. This stage is less common and is characterised by the ability to see, recognise, and appreciate the value of cultural difference. Lecturers in this phase are more aware of cultural influences and the appreciation and value of these differences and often take a somewhat more active role in teaching an international classroom.

- *“Gradually, people learn in a different way and have also graduated for this, but it can be completely different from how we do it. That is not to say that ours is perfect, but they are different, and it takes time to switch.”*

Lecturers in this stage, although possibly missing the knowledge on the educational and cultural background of students, do make an effort and actively attempt to gather the missing information on the background of the student. After gathering information, these lecturers are

more likely to adjust their teaching method and verbal and nonverbal communication. This is a personal motivation and is also reflected in the matrix as such.

- *“It is always good to delve into your students’ backgrounds. Also concerning their academic background, because you can address them in connection to your own expertise. The moment you know what kind of context they come from, and if what they learn here is related to that, then you can talk to them about it. And then, I think, that is much more effective than reading in all the cultural custom.”*

Some Dutch lecturers reflect this stage, but more often it was observed in international lecturers. Having an intercultural experience themselves and being confronted with another cultural context, international teachers are personally more aware of the cultural frame of reference. When confronted with a different culture in the Netherlands, their own cultural background and biases can become more explicit and thus, it can become easier to interpret intercultural experiences from other perspectives and shift behaviour.

- *“In my opinion, the most possible thing to do is to raise awareness. That an international classroom should be treated differently than national education in the Netherlands. That could be one of my...”*

External outcome. As indicated above, there is great variety with regard to attitudes, knowledge and internal frame of reference among the lecturers at the University of Twente. The degree of intercultural competence depends on the degree of attitudes, knowledge/comprehension and skills achieved. Even if a lecturer has an internal frame of denial, based on his/her attitude and knowledge, communication might still be effective. However, when attitude is more open, knowledge is achieved and the internal frame of reference is more ethnorelative. In such cases, it is more likely that lecturers will be more effective and culturally competent in their interactions.

Overall, it is difficult to make a general comment on the intercultural competences of all lecturers at the University. However, based on this research, some careful indications can be formulated. Lecturers are generally careful in expressing themselves about international students; they try to treat all students equally and fairly. In addition, lecturers take on a position of neutrality and minimisation and try to be unbiased. They are almost fearful of expressing themselves about some aspects of teaching international students that might indicate different treatment of some students. However, in this attempt to treat all students equally, lecturers sometimes minimise and underestimate or ignore the specific needs of some international students. This is sometimes a choice as some lecturers believe that international students are here to learn and need to adapt, which can sometimes be a less risky or difficult position.

Lecturers may invoke the argument of equality when teaching and interacting with international students, which results in not having to adapt, change and acquire knowledge. It is difficult to judge equality as something negative, but it does not necessarily create equity among students. Intercultural competences do not focus on equality; rather, they focus on effective and appropriate communication. It is a case of adjusting communication, introducing teaching methods and adjusting the transfer of knowledge, not the final academic knowledge, standards, products, or methods of a lecturer or University that need to change. It is focused on communication and the transfer of and about knowledge, standards, products and methods. This distinction might seem small, but it is of crucial importance. Some lecturers confuse changing the transfer and teaching method with changing their educational goals or view the goals as being more important. As indicated above, lecturers are inclined to minimise and focus on equality and thus neglect the special needs of international students.

Students indicate. The majority of students indicated that lecturers do not pay much attention to the multicultural classroom. Students stated that lecturers simply deliver the lecture

in English and that they do not seem to care for who the students in front of them are. International students indicated this to be an equal treatment and not really a problem.

- *“They just give the lecture and don’t care who is there. They have an equal treatment.”*
- *“Sometimes they do ask what is the background of the people in class. To see if there are civil engineers or from not a civil engineer background. That is the only thing. I am fine with it.”*

As indicated above, international students also recognise that the lecturers focus on an equal and neutral position towards their students. The focus on the backgrounds of the students is often more a focus on academic background than on any other aspect. Students stated they accepted this but also indicated they were unfamiliar with assessments and have a need for more feedback and guidance in activities such as group work.

Furthermore, one international students expressed the idea that he was the cause of the use of the English language. This indicates that lecturers are not always aware of who is in the class in front of them and this can result in an unpleasant experience for international students.

- *“Yeah. It was really funny. It was one of the first classes where the professor was not Dutch I think, but he speaks Dutch. Oh, everybody is Dutch here, do you mind if I gave the lectures in Dutch? No, hé, I am here. Come on.”*

Overall, students indicated that teachers are performing well, and that they try their best in providing good and clear education.

3.3 Support for teaching the international classroom

It seems clear that education and the lecturers at the University of Twente are affected by the increase in international students. Therefore, it is important to indicate if there is a need among the lecturers for support when teaching the international classroom.

None of the Dutch lecturers stated they required support, nor did they express the need for guidance or tips on teaching the international classroom. Some indicated they were aware of the options that already existed for support and that they did not need any more or any specific training or tips on this topic. However, international teachers expressed more enthusiasm and a lecturer explained that it would have been useful to have had a workshop or meeting where cultural differences in education were elaborated on.

- *“Yes, yes, I think that would be great. Because especially when it is the first experience. To teach international students you need to develop some skills. Because already in a population of students coming from the same country, you need to be really sensitive to the different attitude of the students. And these problems can be bigger if you need to have this sensibility toward different nationalities. And I do recognise that some colleagues don’t have it. I am not saying that Dutch or whatever, some colleagues they don’t have it.”*

It is interesting to note that international lecturers, who in general are more culturally aware, expressed a need for training and tips. The lecturer quoted above also stated that some colleagues are less sensitive to cultural differences and attitudes of students. It seems that being more culturally aware helps to become even more cultural aware.

Some lecturers suggested that training would not help them. They had to learn for themselves based on experiences to create a personal style or way to interact and deal with the international classroom.

- *“The group is also very diverse, you cannot adapt to that. I mean, if you have Americans and Russians and Chinese and Indonesians in the room, how to change? So you try to do it your own way, and try to do it well.”*

Lecturers who had already completed some teacher training had mixed reflections on its value. Some indicated that the training was full of theory and knowledge and did not provide them with a strategy or concrete steps or tips that could be used in class.

- *“But you will not get any real answer during the course. It is more of an awareness of the problem, but it is not the case that you will know afterwards that if you approach it like this... It is going well. Nobody really has a definitive good solution to that. Yes, you would see videos and when watching that you think that I would never do that. Comparing cultures for example. Bad examples are given. You can also think of that yourself that you should not do that. The problems are pointed out to you, but I can tell you, you are not given any concrete tools to use.”*

Other lecturers indicated that it resulted in a reflection on their personal style and actions and created awareness of their own actions and thereby the idea that this might not always be the best suitable communication style for all students. In the quote below, a lecturer reflected on their direct style of communication and realised it might not always be the appropriate style for all students.

- *“I did that a while ago, when I happened to get it, while I was working on my BKO, but then I got that as a tip. Because I am quite informal and I feel that I am freely accessible to students. International students often find that difficult. They are not used to that and feel somewhat firmly addressed. I try to pay more attention to addressing international students a little less directly during lectures because I got the tip that they are sometimes bothered by that. Even if you don't mean it like that.”*

The literature indicates that becoming more self-aware plays a crucial role in intercultural competence training. Alternative worldviews need to be explored and learning about the self and one's culture is important (Hofstede, 1986). Training not only provides lecturers with an opportunity to learn something, but also to communicate and reflect on their teaching (Hellstén & Prescott, 2004).

4. Conclusion

Taking the information contained in the previous chapters into consideration, it is possible to answer the research questions posed for this study.

- To what extent do teachers who are teaching international classrooms at the University of Twente experience the effects of internationalisation that are mentioned in the literature on teaching international classrooms?

It seems clear that lecturers at the University of Twente experience the effects of internationalisation that are mentioned in the literature. However, it is important to highlight that some effects are less severe than portrayed in the literature. For instance, lecturers at the University do not experience a severe culture shock as Tange (2010) describes but they do experience uncertainty. Lecturers at the University of Twente value their learning philosophy and right to lecture but do encounter effects of internationalisation.

Cases of plagiarism in connection with international students at the University of Twente are lower than suggested in the literature. This contradicts Hall's (2004) and Bista's (2011) reports on what is happening in terms of plagiarism in other Western academic institutions. Unexpected behaviour of students, differences in expectations and experiences concerning testing, academic skills, varying experiences in group work, as well as level of writing, but most importantly a diversity in educational norms, values and communication and in particular, the interaction with and between international students can sometimes result in uncertainty and requires extra effort and energy from the lecturer. According to Popov, et al. (2012) is not only a challenge because of the multicultural communication, but since there is a strong relationship between culture and communication, the communication between culturally diverse people is significantly affected by culture. For example, the communication with some students from an Asian background was deemed to be especially challenging. This is in accordance with Bista (2011), who indicates that the transition from a teacher-led to a more

independent learning environment is difficult for students who are used to a collective culture where the teacher is respected and has a highly authoritarian social position. This means that lecturers are faced with a challenge, especially when combined with knowledge and procedural gaps.

- To what extent have teachers teaching in international classrooms at the University of Twente gained intercultural competences?

When lecturers are confronted with students from multicultural backgrounds, it is important that they have gained intercultural competences so that they can communicate effectively across cultures. Deardorff defines intercultural competences as “Knowledge of others; knowledge of self; skills to interpret and relate; skills to discover and/or to interact; valuing others’ values, beliefs, and behaviors; and relativizing one’s self” (Deardorff, 2006, p. 247).

Lecturers at the University of Twente display a wide variety of these competences and responses to the effects of internationalisation. The knowledge that lecturers have concerning the background of students, cultures, and educational systems is somewhat limited. The opportunity to gather this information varies significantly between faculties and programs, and thereby the possession of this knowledge is also affected.

Internally, lecturers respond differently to interaction with international students. Bennett’s developmental model of intercultural sensitivity structures these responses and four of the six stages—denial, defence, minimisation, and acceptance—can be recognised in the statements of various lecturers at the University of Twente. Minimisation, which focuses on the commonalities of students, is the most common stage for lecturers. Lecturers minimise the importance and value of cultural diversity among their students and refer to the idea that there are no differences between them. However, in the process model of intercultural competence it is important to take an internal step towards ethnorelativism and make a shift in cultural

reference. It is not only a problem when knowledge and comprehension of cultural and educational backgrounds of students is absent, but more about a lecturer's awareness of the missing knowledge. A lecturer's self-awareness of their own cultural frame of reference, and about their choice of how to respond to this is also important. Does a lecturer have the awareness of their frame of reference and their missing knowledge? And, if so, will they decide to act on this awareness and how?

Lecturers display a wide variety of skills and actions when teaching the international classroom. They are reserved and impartial when discussing international students' needs and differences between diverse groups of students. Lecturers take on a position of neutrality, minimisation, are unprejudiced and try to be unbiased. They are almost fearful of expressing themselves about some aspects of teaching international students that might indicate a different treatment of some students. Furthermore, some lecturers confuse changing the transfer and teaching method with changing their educational goals, or view the goals as being more important. As indicated above, lecturers are inclined to minimise and focus on equality and can neglect the special needs of international students.

- Given these effects, what kind of support would be preferred by lecturers teaching international classrooms?

Most lecturers indicated that they did not have a need for further support at this moment, nor looking back to when they started. However, international lecturers, who in general are more culturally aware, expressed a need for support. Dutch lecturers are generally more inclined to reject the concept of further support. They do so based on the idea that it might not really help them or provide them with practical insights. However, reflecting on previous training indicates that some lecturers did learn and created awareness of their personal style and actions.

The rejection of further training will maintain the pattern of older, more experienced teachers having more skills in teaching the international classroom and will not limit the

existing variation between teachers. It could be an institutional obligation to take a position in these matters concerning equality and equity of students and training for their lecturers.

Broader perspective. Taking these conclusions into a broader context, it is not a natural process for lecturers and institutions to switch to an international student body. This research indicates that it is a complex process of adaptations and evolvement and that it is not as easy as switching to the English language to create an international University. It requires adaptation of the method used to deliver education. The methods, procedures and support offered to students needs to be reconsider by lecturers and faculties.

Internationalisation is “*the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education*” (Sanderson, 2008, p. 278). It is complex and includes the creation of an intercultural dimension into the education provided by the University and its lecturers. Since lecturers are the interface between the international student and the institution, they are placed in the core of the internationalisation process. It is impotent that lecturers also integrate an intercultural dimension in their education, skills, and internal frame of reference (Tange, 2010; Teekens, 2000). This is a further indication that internationalisation requires not only an institutional switch but also willingness, openness and personal development of lecturers. This research indicates that this is not a given and that lecturers are reserved, careful and almost fearful in their communication on international students. According to Sanderson (2011), the experiences, skills and personal and professional attitudes of lecturers have been underexposed in academic research (Sanderson, 2011). Therefore, this research has contributed not only by exploring the effects of internationalisation at the University of Twente, but has also contributed to academic research by focusing on the experiences of lecturers.

Within the University, these insights can be the basis of training or other structural change to improve education. However, it is important to stimulate and facilitate lecturers in

undertaking this personal development. This could possibly be done by increasing the time for personal development, availability of resources, and awareness of the importance of training among lecturers. At the University of Twente, CELT can play a key role in supporting and guiding the personal and professional development of lecturers. It can provide training, advice, lesson observations, and information and tips concerning the different learning styles and backgrounds of students. Some further recommendations are made in this research.

5. Discussion

The results from this research need to be considered in a context-specific situation. The results are not automatically transferable to other universities or teaching institutions other than the University of Twente and therefore need to be considered as a case study. Because of the specific and unique student body, some effects of internationalisation might not be present while others might be overrepresented in comparison to other institutes.

Furthermore, it is of interest that the lecturers in this research were approached by the researcher and were not obligated to participate. It was somewhat difficult to find lecturers who were willing to participate. This could have influenced the research in multiple ways. For instance, those who participated might already be more self-aware of the challenges of an intercultural classroom, or those who did not participate might find it difficult to teach an international classroom and feel insecure about discussing the topic. It could be noted that the majority of the programs at the university do not have the diversity found in the master's programs selected for this study. Therefore, it might be that the influence of internationalisation might look different or be of lesser influence in undergraduate programs.

Due to the relatively small scope and difficulty in finding lecturers, this research was not able to include a larger number of respondents. Although students were not an essential group of respondents to assist in answering the research question, a larger number of students could have contributed to the reliability of this research.

The method used in this research relied on the recollection, honesty and self-assessment of respondents. Therefore, lecturers might have given socially accepted answers or have some form of a variable or distorted image of the topics that were discussed. Respondents were asked to recall personal experiences. The recollection of these experiences can change over time and be altered in the memory or because of emotions. Unconscious processes, skills, adaptation in teaching or verbal and non-verbal language can go unseen when the lecturer is not aware of these processes. These possible adaptations did not come forward in the interviews.

6. Recommendations

Further research

Based on this research, it is recommended that follow-up research is conducted because of the limitations and the explorative nature of this current study. Some lecturers indicated that follow-up research on the differences between Dutch and international students might be of interest and provide a better understanding of the differences. The results can assist lecturers in providing suitable education and support for international students. Furthermore, it can be taken into account when discussing the ethnocentric or ethnorelative view of lecturers at the University as some lecturers indicated that there is no difference between Dutch and international students. It would then be possible to verify these statements based on context-specific research.

This research might be continued with a broader perspective and method to also include observations of lecturers. Observations could create the opportunity to also discuss specific elements or incidents, and have the possibility of including unconscious skills and processes. Furthermore, it might be advisable to include more lecturers and more students in further research. This study has focused on the master's programs at the University and does not include the

undergraduate programs. To get an indication of the University as a whole, this research needs to be expanded to also include undergraduate students and lecturers.

Practice

Taking the points of discussion into account, this research provides the basis for some recommendations for the University of Twente. As indicated in the conclusion, the University of Twente could adapt a more stimulating and facilitating attitude towards the personal development of lecturers with regard to internationalisation. This could possibly be done by increasing the time for personal development, availability of resources, and awareness of the importance of training among lecturers. Thus, the University could, if desired, also communicate a stronger vision concerning international education and intercultural competences. Issues such as equality and equity, as indicated in this research, could be addressed so that lecturers could become more aware of these issues and might experience a lower threshold in communicating about the difficulty or effects of internationalisation.

A specific element that could be better guided in the multicultural classroom is group work. Lecturers indicated they encountered problems with the small groups and also indicated that it was difficult to guide these groups. In addition, students indicated that it is sometimes difficult to work together with such a diverse group of students. According to Popov et al. (2012), cultural differences should be taken into account when designing and implementing group work and collaboration in an education context.

It is advisable to provide more guidance for lecturers, and thereby to students, on how to work with small groups. CELT can provide information or training and also assist in adapting programs. It is important that not only a plan for progression in academic learning is in place within a program, but also plan regarding the cooperation skills of students. An educational program could take this into consideration and create a structure whereby cooperation is more guided and supported in the beginning, and later in the program this becomes the responsibility

of the students. Within a master's program, a standard team-charter, team-contract, or other form can be used to structure cooperation, agree on goals, division of task, to honour commitments, and to agree on consequences if the agreements are not honoured. It is a way to align students and to think and talk about cooperation.

Furthermore, according to the results, not all lecturers have, or are aware of, the opportunities to enquire about the cultural background and educational system students originate from. The possibility to do so could potentially improve the cultural competences of lecturers, especially when these are combined with information on the educational system a student comes from. This can be done in different ways to improve the knowledge and competences of lecturers. One might think of a workshop, but also in the form of written text, animation, movie, informative email that CELT could possibly provide. However, it would be important that lecturers do not experience an obstacle in acquiring this knowledge. This information needs to be easily accessible after inquiring about the cultural backgrounds of their students and possibly with ideas and tips on how to process this in their lecture.

Following are two recommendations that can be achieved institutionally. To achieve a personal change and more cultural awareness from lecturers, a more personal change needs to occur. This is only possible when lecturers are themselves willing to do so and participate in a training or information session. However, as found in this research, in general lecturers are not willing to do this. This can come from a lack of time or other factors, including motivation or awareness. In these training and information sessions, the focus should be on knowledge and understanding of the diversity of students and backgrounds and on the creation of cultural awareness of lecturers. According to the literature, this could possibly be achieved by providing a challenge that can trigger lecturers to develop critical cultural awareness (Perry & Southwell, 2011). Learning about their own culture, and comparing it with other cultures, could stimulate cultural self-awareness (Hofstede, 1986).

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8. Appendix

A. Multiple definitions of culture

Edgar Schein:

“A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solves its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (Schein, 2004)

Mijnd Huijser:

“A group’s set of shared norms and values expressed in the behaviour of the group’s members” (Huijser, 2006).

Fons Trompenaars:

“Culture is the way in which a group of people solves problems” (Trompenaars & Turner, 1998).

Geert Hofstede: 1991

“Culture is the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede, Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviours, institutions and organizations across nations, 2001).

B. Summary of the group level challenges that appear in group work in higher education

Summary of the group-level challenges that appear to affect MCSG in higher education.

Group-level factor	Description of the challenges that appear to affect MCSG		Authors
Group membership	Members' experience and skills	Heterogeneous group composition (grouping students of a variety of age, gender and culture) Differences in content knowledge Differences in academic attitude Difference in ambitions Diverse educational backgrounds	Van den Bossche et al. (2006), Sweeney et al. (2008), Timmerman (2000), Pearce and Ravlin (1987), Sweeney and Lee (1999), Zimmerman et al. (1977), Pfaff and Huddleston (2003), Thomas et al. (2000), Summers and Volet (2008).
Group process	Communication	Students not communicating properly with fellow students and a supervisor Culturally different standards of interaction (direct vs. Indirect communication) Insufficient English language skills	Marks et al. (2000), Stevens and Campion (1994), Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1988), Gudykunst (1994), Gudykunst and Matsumoto (1996), Pitton et al. (1993), Andersen (1994), Gudykunst et al. (1996), Davison and Ward (1999), Hall (1990), Cox et al. (1991), Janssens and Brett (1997), Behfar et al. (2006), Brett (2001).
	Problem solving and decision making	The pressure to defend a group decision while not agreeing with it Culturally different styles of decision making and problem solving Culturally different styles of complying with supervisor's guidelines	Cannon-Bowers et al. (1995), Stevens and Campion (1994), Cox and Blake (1991), Cox et al. (1991), Allik and McCrae (2004), Watson et al. (2005), Kirby and Barger (1998), Matveev and Milter (2004), Hofstede (1991), Pope-Davis et al. (2003).
	Conflict management	Ineffective group work management Culturally different styles of conflict management Group conflicts Attitudinal problems such as dislike, mistrust and lack of cohesion	Doucet and Jehn (1997), Triandis (1994), Hall (1990), Jehn (1995), Anderson and Adams (1992).
	Leadership	Free-riding A low level of motivation Dominating group members	Wendt et al. (2009), House et al. (2004), Hofstede (2001), Dickson et al. (2003), Pillai and Meindl (1998), Earley (1989), Watson et al. (2002), Ingham et al. (1974), Johnson and Johnson (1984–1985), Joyce (1999), Latane et al. (1979), McCorkle et al. (1999).

Source: Popov, et al., 2012

C. Intercultural competence elements with 80% to 100% agreement among top intercultural Scholars (Deardorff, 2006, p. 249).

Intercultural Competence				
ACC	REJ	M	SD	Item
19	1	3.8	0.5	Ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes
19	1	3.6	0.8	Ability to shift frame of reference appropriately and adapt behavior to cultural context; adaptability, expandability, and flexibility of one's frame of reference/filter
19	1	3.4	0.7	Ability to identify behaviors guided by culture and engage in new behaviors in other cultures even when behaviors are unfamiliar given a person's own socialization
18	2	3.4	1.0	Behaving appropriately and effectively in intercultural situations based on one's knowledge, skills, and motivation
17	3	3.4	0.8	Ability to achieve one's goals to some degree through constructive interaction in an intercultural context
16	4	3.6	0.6	Good interpersonal skills exercised interculturally; the sending and receiving of messages that are accurate and appropriate
16	4	3.1	1.0	Transformational process toward enlightened global citizenship that involves intercultural adroitness (behavioral aspect focusing on communication skills), intercultural awareness (cognitive aspect of understanding cultural differences), and intercultural sensitivity (focus on positive emotion toward cultural difference)
Specific Components of Intercultural Competence				
ACC	REJ	M	SD	Item
20	0	3.4	0.7	Understanding others' worldviews
19	1	3.8	0.6	Cultural self-awareness and capacity for self-assessment
19	1	3.7	0.6	Adaptability and adjustment to new cultural environment
19	1	3.5	0.6	Skills to listen and observe
19	1	3.4	0.8	General openness toward intercultural learning and to people from other cultures
19	1	3.4	0.8	Ability to adapt to varying intercultural communication and learning styles

(continued)

ACC	REJ	M	SD	Item
18	2	3.8	0.4	Flexibility
18	2	3.8	0.4	Skills to analyze, interpret, and relate
18	2	3.7	0.6	Tolerating and engaging ambiguity
18	2	3.6	0.6	Deep knowledge and understanding of culture (one's own and others')
18	2	3.5	0.8	Respect for other cultures
17	3	3.5	0.9	Cross-cultural empathy
17	3	3.4	1.0	Understanding the value of cultural diversity
17	3	3.3	0.9	Understanding of role and impact of culture and the impact of situational, social, and historical contexts involved
17	3	3.2	1.0	Cognitive flexibility—ability to switch frames from etic to emic and back again
17	2	3.0	0.8	Sociolinguistic competence (awareness of relation between language and meaning in societal context)
17	3	3.0	1.1	Mindfulness
16	4	3.6	0.8	Withholding judgment
16	4	3.4	0.8	Curiosity and discovery
16	4	3.2	0.9	Learning through interaction
16	4	3.1	1.2	Ethnorelative view
16	4	2.9	0.9	Culture-specific knowledge and understanding host culture's traditions

Note: ACC = accept; REJ = reject.

D. The cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS)

The Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS)

Read each statement and select the response that best describes your capabilities.

Select the answer that BEST describes you AS YOU REALLY ARE (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree)

CQ Factor	Questionnaire Items
Metacognitive CQ:	
MC1	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.
MC2	I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MC3	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.
MC4	I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.
Cognitive CQ:	
COG1	I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.
COG2	I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.
COG3	I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.
COG4	I know the marriage systems of other cultures.
COG5	I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.
COG6	I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviors in other cultures.
Motivational CQ:	
MOT1	I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.
MOT2	I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MOT3	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.
MOT4	I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.
MOT5	I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.
Behavioral CQ:	
BEH1	I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
BEH2	I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.
BEH3	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
BEH4	I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
BEH5	I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

E. Topic list for the interview with lecturers

Opening

- **Welcome** and thank the respondent for their cooperation
- **Explain** the topic of the interview (intercultural classroom and teaching this classroom), the duration of the interview, that respondents can stop the interview at any time, the use of the information gathered in the interview. Ask for permission to record the interview.
 - o If the respondent agrees to be recorded, start the recording
- Tell the respondent that there is opportunity to ask questions if needed and the possibility to stop at any time.

Start of the interview

- Ask the respondent **to briefly introduce him/herself**. Name, function, courses the lecturer teaches, how many international students, experience in teaching and teaching international students.
- **Repeat the subject** of the interview, how teachers teach the international classroom and ask about their experiences.

Part 1 – Intercultural competence of lecturer

- When you teach a new group of students, do you **acquire knowledge of their cultural** backgrounds?
 - o Do you **feel you are aware of the cultural** values and religious beliefs of your students?
- How would you say you **interact with students from different cultures?**
- Do you **adapt your lesson or lecture preparation** based on the group of students and their cultural background?
 - o If so, what do you adapt in your preparation

- Do you **sometimes adapt your teaching** while teaching (in class)?
 - o If so, what do you adapt?

Possible topics to consider **if respondent indicates** that they adapt their teaching. Divided by non-verbal and verbal:

- To what extent do you feel you are you aware of the rules of expressing **non-verbal behaviours** in your and other cultures?
 - To what extent do you adapt or change your **body language** (non-verbal behaviour) when a situation requires it?
 - What about your facial expression? Would you say you alter your **facial expression** when an interaction requires it?
- To what extent do you adapt or change your way of **speaking (verbal behaviour)** when an intercultural class (cross-cultural interaction) requires it?
 - How do you go about using **pause and silence differently** to suit different situations?
 - Would you say that you adapt your **rate of speaking** when a situation requires it?

Part 2 – Affected domains

- How do you experience **teaching international students**?
- Do you experience **challenges or problems** teaching international students?
 - o Do you experience the **behaviour** of some students as unexpected?
 - Examples, experiences.
- What are your experiences with regard to the **academic skills** of international students?
 - o Level of students.

- What about academic **writing**?
- Have you encountered **plagiarism**?
- Critical thinking?
 - Ask for experiences, examples.
- **Testing and Assessment.** Do you notice a difference for international students?
 - How do you give **feedback** to international students?
 - Is this more difficult sometimes in comparison to students from the Netherlands?
 - Are **criteria always clear** for international students?
 - What are your experiences with **assessing (exam) international** students?
 - Do you pay special attention to international students while preparing for an assessment?
 - Scoring?
- **Group work** is often a part of courses. How do you see international students' position in these assignments?
 - Problems, problem solving, management
 - Communication
 - Members with different skills
 - Roles within groups, leadership
 - Different ambitions

Part 3 – Possible training?

- When you **first started teaching international students**, how did you **experience** this?
- Having talked about your experiences teaching international students, would you have liked to **have received any form of training** or preparation?

- What forms of support?
- **At this time**, would you like to receive any form of **training, assistance or support in teaching the international classroom?**
- **What forms of support?**
- **Duration, material, online, offline, reading or practical, in person, more general etc.**

Closing

- Ask if the respondent has anything to add.
- Is there something the researcher missed?
- If he or she has any questions.
- Thank the respondent for the interview and their participation.
- Stop the recording.

F. Topic list for the interview with students.

Opening

- Welcome and thank the respondent for their cooperation
- Explain to the respondent the topic of the interview (intercultural classroom and teaching this classroom), the duration of the interview (around 45 minutes), that respondents can stop at any time, the use of the information gathered in the interview. Explain and ask permission to record the interview. Make sure all participants respond individually.
 - If the respondents agree to be recorded, start the recording.
- Advise respondents of the possibility of asking questions if needed.
- Explain the importance of speaking one at a time, so that the recording can be transcribed successfully.

Start of the interview

- Ask all respondents to introduce themselves, name, studies, where respondents are from, how long they have been studying in the Netherlands.

Part 1 – intercultural competences of teachers

In this research, we focus on the international classroom and how to teach this classroom. Do you see teachers experiencing any difficulty? What are your (students) experiences and (possibly) do you see room for improvement?

- Do you feel that your teachers are aware of your cultural background?
 - Yes – How? In what way? When?
 - No – Why not?
 - Do you notice this awareness (or not) in lectures? Workgroups?
 - How, when?
 - What would you like your lecturer to do?

- **Part 2 – affected domains.**
- What are your experiences with regard to academic skills like reading and writing here at the UT?
 - Does your teacher assist you in writing?
 - Do you know how to read and what to do with the articles?
 - Do you receive any assistance in this?
 - Assessments
 - Do you feel you are assessed correctly?
 - Do you feel you are assessed equally?
 - Feedback
 - What are your experiences with receiving feedback?
 - More, less, constructive, useful, useless, difficult?
 - Would you like your lecturer to assist you more/less in this?
- You all study in a master's program that has international students. How do you experience working together with students from different backgrounds?
 - Do or have you experienced any problems with group work?
 - Do some teachers assist you in working together with students from different cultural backgrounds?
 - What would you like your lecturer to do to assist you when you work in groups?
- Is there anything you would like lecturers to know? Any tips possibly?
- Are there dos or don'ts?
- What might be good for teachers to practice or know before teaching an international classroom?

Closing

- Do you have anything to add?
- Do you have any questions?
- Thank the respondents for the interview and their participation.
- Stop the recording.