

Internationalisation of Higher Education Curriculum: A Case Study in Vietnam

Thi Phuong Nhi Luong

BA.TESOL (Vietnam National University), M.TESOL (The University of Melbourne),

Master of International Business (La Trobe University)

SUPERVISORS:

Associate Professor Margaret Plunkett

Associate Professor Jenene Burke

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Ethics approval to conduct research on human participants for this study was received from the Human Research and Ethics Committee (HREC) at Federation University, reference number: A15-128.

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Signed:

Date: 31/03/2019

Name: Nhi Luong

Candidate

Date: 31/03/2019

Assoc Prof Margaret Plunkett

Principal Supervisor

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Abstract

This thesis investigated how the process of internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) was perceived as taking place at a non-western university, namely Foreign Trade University (FTU) in Vietnam, through the development and offering of a number of jointly run programs, labelled Foreign Undergraduate Programs (FUPs). Two specific programs were examined, both of which were developed in partnership with two western universities – Colorado State University (FTU-CSU program) and London Metropolitan University (FTU-LMET program). These programs provide a range of opportunities for Vietnamese university students to experience an education that aims to reflect an international and therefore ‘broader’ context. The relationship between globalisation and internationalisation is explored and linked with the development of curriculum in higher education and internationalisation trends and strategies. Internationalisation of the curriculum, which is one of the internationalisation strategies employed by educational institutions, is investigated in terms of its interrelationship with student learning, the disciplines and academics.

Engeström’s (2001) third generation Activity Theory was used as the theoretical lens for analysis of the data, which was collected via a mainly qualitative case study. Two cohorts of participants provided data through 24 interviews (seven including a joint one with program leaders/course coordinators, and 17 with academics) and 34 surveys completed by academics. The interviews/survey investigated participants’ perceptions about internationalisation and particularly IoC in relation to the two programs.

Part of the significance of this study lies in the use of a number of conceptual and theoretical frameworks to extend the current body of literature beyond the main context of western higher education. An innovation in this study was the evaluation of the level of curriculum internationalisation at FTU, which was conducted using the model of curriculum internationalisation proposed by Huang (2017).

Findings suggested that program managers and course coordinators worked collaboratively with their western partners to provide programs that they perceived as worthwhile in meeting the needs of the institution and the Vietnamese government agenda for internationalisation. However, academics were not generally well informed about the broader goals relating to IoC and found it challenging to accommodate the expectations with limited resources and lack of appropriate training.

It is anticipated that the ten recommendations that emerged from the study will provide a framework to guide the process of internationalisation and in particular curriculum internationalisation in both Vietnam and other non-western settings.

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Abbreviations

ACCA – Association of Chartered Certified Accountants
ADP – Asian Development Bank
AP – Advanced Program
ASEAN – Association of Southeast Asian Nations
AT – Activity Theory
AUN – ASEAN University Network
CFA – Chartered Financial Analyst
CHAT – Cultural Historical Activity Theory
CID – Centre for International Development (at FTU)
CPA – Certified Public Accountant
CSU – Colorado State University – (United States of America)
DANIDA – Danish International Development Agency (Denmark)
ELI – Group of Entrepreneurial, Independent Businesses
EMI – English as the Medium of Instruction
FTU – Foreign Trade University (Vietnam)
FUPs – Foreign Undergraduate Programs
JICA – Japan International Cooperation Agency
JOCV – Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers
JP – Joint Program
LMET – London Metropolitan University (United Kingdom)
MOET – Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET)
PD – Professional Development
SIF – Singapore International Foundation
UNDP – United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
CSU – Colorado State University – (United States of America)
VVOB – Flemish Association for Development Cooperation and Technical Assistance (Belgium)
WUSC – World University Service of Canada

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter introduces the background and context for this study, which investigated how internationalisation of the curriculum has taken place at Foreign Trade University (FTU), in Vietnam through the development and offering of a number of jointly run programs. These programs were developed in partnership with Colorado State University (CSU) in the United States of America (USA) and London Metropolitan University (LMET) in the United Kingdom (UK). They provide a range of opportunities for Vietnamese university students to experience an education that aims to reflect an international and therefore 'broader' context. The chapter provides an overview of the educational context within Vietnam along with the aims and significance of the study. A brief explanation is provided of the personal motivation behind conducting this case study of a Vietnamese institution while living and studying in Australia. The chapter also outlines the conceptualisation of internationalisation of the curriculum that underpins the study and provides an outline of the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Preface

Globalisation and internationalisation of higher education have lately become a topic of interest not only in western countries but non-western ones as well (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Beerkens et al., 2010; de Wit, 2013; de Wit, Deca, & Hunter, 2015; Deardorff & Jones, 2012; Marginson, 2003; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a; Ziguras, 2016). The notion of cross-border education, internationalisation at home or joint programs has permeated from the West to the East as a part of the process of the globalisation and internationalisation of higher education (Becker, 2015; Beelen & Jones, 2015; J. Knight, 2015; Seeber, Cattaneo, Huisman, & Paleari, 2016; Verbik, 2015; Ziguras, 2011). Divergent strategies to internationalising higher education have been examined and proposed over the past two decades (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Byram, 2018; Leask, 2015; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a). Much research has been also conducted on internationalisation of the curriculum, one of the main strategies for internationalising higher education in western institutions such as Australia, Canada, USA and UK (de Wit et al., 2015; W. Green & Whitsed, 2015; Leask, 2013b).

It can be argued that the trends of cross-border and transnational education in both western and non-western contexts create a pressing need for research within the field of internationalisation in general and internationalisation of the curriculum in particular (de Wit, 2013; Leask, 2015; Leask & Bridge, 2013). More specifically, the continual growth in the

number of joint programs in non-western universities further highlights a need to investigate the strategies used to internationalise the curriculum in non-western settings (Robson, Almeida, & Schartner, 2017; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a; L. Tran, Phan, & Marginson, 2018). Developing an in-depth understanding of the process of internationalising the curriculum in non-western contexts may benefit non-western universities as well as western ones. Furthermore, this may lead to an improvement in the quality of affiliate programs and greater cooperation and collaboration between universities worldwide.

1.2 Aims and significance of the study

1.2.1 Aims of the study.

This study investigated the internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) at FTU in Vietnam, as a case study. It involved examining the perceptions of academics, program managers and course coordinators, who were directly involved in the process of IoC in two undergraduate business programs offered jointly by universities in the UK and USA in partnership with FTU. Through examining the perceptions of individuals who were 'at the coalface', the intention was to provide a view from the inside, to add to current understandings of the IoC process in a non western setting.

1.2.2. Significance of the study.

This study makes a significant contribution both theoretically and practically to the field of IoC. First, it provides two ways of defining IoC in non-western settings, thereby providing more contextual guidance for IoC implementation in the Vietnamese context, helping to bridge the gap in the literature relating to this context.

Second, through the use of a number of conceptual and theoretical frameworks, the current body of literature has been extended beyond the main context of western higher education. The use of different frameworks facilitates a more nuanced understanding of the actual process of IoC of transnational programs in non-western settings.

Third, within the specific Vietnamese context, examining the process of IoC implementation at FTU, a number of sociocultural issues were identified that require consideration in the development of future partnerships. In particular, insights from the findings relating to international cooperation highlighted the need for education importers such as Vietnam to become more active and culturally sensitive when adopting or adapting new norms and practices of teaching and learning.

Another contribution of the project is the insights offered into the human resource factors in a Vietnamese educational establishment undergoing organisational change. Specifically, the findings of the study showcased the process of transformation from established norms and practices (e.g. the conventional curriculum as well as the established teaching and learning practices at FTU) into a new form of activity (e.g. internationalisation of the curriculum and new approaches to teaching and learning) in a non-western context.

Finally, the outcomes of the project will provide relevant information for other higher education institutions in non-western contexts seeking appropriate strategies for internationalising their curriculum or planning to reform their faculties through internationalisation. Through identifying associated benefits, challenges and obstacles encountered in the IoC implementation process at FTU, a set of guidelines and recommendations emerged from this study that will help inform future IoC implementation, particularly for non-western tertiary institutions. Additionally, the project highlighted that IoC of transnational programs had positive transference outcomes for internationalisation at both the FTU institutional level and more broadly within Vietnam and possibly in other non-western contexts.

1.3 Context for the study

1.3.1 Overview of Vietnam and its tertiary education.

1.3.1.1 *Vietnam's geography, people, politics, religion and social aspects.*

As the midpoint in the South East Asia and Asia Pacific region, Vietnam has been regarded as the substantial hub for global development (IMF, 2018). Vietnam is situated near major international sea routes and prosperous East Asian economies (Van Arkadie & Mallon, 2004). The roughly 3,000-kilometre-long coastline provides advantages for developing tourism and fisheries, ensuring ready access to international markets (Van Arkadie & Mallon, 2004). According to the 2017 national census, Vietnam has a large population of 93.6 million people and GDP per capita has been growing significantly from 98 USD in 1990 to 2,700 USD in 2018 (IMF, 2018). This has been especially notable following the 'renovation period', referred to as *Doi Moi* or 'open door', meaning the economy was shifting away from a centrally planned economy to a market oriented one. However, with its recognition as a country with a socialist platform, Vietnam continues to be a "dynamic, highly open economy performing solidly thanks to the macroeconomic and financial stability" (IMF, 2018, p. 20).

Figure 1.1 illustrates the geographical location of Vietnam, with closest neighbours being China, Laos and Cambodia.



Figure 1.1. Map of Vietnam

Source: From “Vietnam Government.” by GraphicMaps (2018) (<https://www.graphicmaps.com/vietnam/government>). Copyright 2018 by GraphicMaps.com

Bordering a large country such as China has had an impact on social aspects of Vietnam’s development (Q. A. Dang, 2009 ; Dosch & L. Vuving, 2008; L. Tran, Marginson, Do, et al., 2014). Vietnam historically came under the influences of Taoist and Confucianist ideologies which were the systems of social and ethical philosophies emphasising the importance of education on the society (Q. A. Dang, 2009). Traditionally, teaching was considered an honourable career in Vietnamese feudal society and teachers were not only well-respected but deemed essential to progress (H. L. Pham & Fry, 2004).

Vietnam has a long tradition in terms of the development of higher education (H. L. Pham & Fry, 2004). Dating back to the tenth century, records indicate that the Ly Dynasty constructed the first university in Southeast Asia, which was named the Temple of Literature (Vũ & Marginson, 2014; Ziguras, Pham, & Chantarin, 2017). This elite university recruited

talented intellectuals for the Mandarin positions for the feudal government through different forms of examination (Thanyathip, Theera, & Pham, 2003).

Regarding religion, Buddhism is the major religion in Vietnam with the number of followers reaching more than 11 million people (HomeOffice, 2014). Buddhism has origins in many countries including China, India, Thailand, Laos and Cambodia and was introduced to Vietnam in the second century, where it developed together with Taoism, Chinese spirituality and local religions (C. T. Nguyen & Barber, 1998). Roman Catholicism is also a popular religion with more than 6.2 million Catholics (HomeOffice, 2014), having grown significantly since its infiltration in the sixteenth century, and thriving in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries through the work of Portuguese Catholic missionaries (Kamm, 1996; Keith, 2012).

Vietnam was described as an ascending dragon in a book on the country and its people by Kamm (1996), who argued that Vietnam's political mechanism was deeply committed to attaining a distinctive genre of effective economy. According to Kamm (1996), this mechanism combined the best advantages of both socialism and capitalism, bringing about a clear focus on social welfare and equal access to quality education for individuals and their families.

1.3.1.2 Tertiary education in Vietnam.

In Vietnam, education accounts for 5.7% of GDP per year and plays an important role as the cornerstone for socio-economic development (United Nations, 2018). Education in Vietnam is a state-run mechanism of public and private education systems administrated by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET). There are four levels: pre-primary, primary, secondary, and tertiary education (MOET, 2017). At the tertiary level, there are 235 universities, 215 colleges and 76 research institutes approved to provide PhD training programs in Vietnam (MOET, 2017). After the re-unification of the country in 1975, Vietnam followed the tertiary education models of the Soviet Union ranging from agriculture and forestry to pharmacy and medicine (Welch, 2010). This resulted in a number of limitations including the rigidities in curriculum development which was based on the USSR and the socialist Eastern European bloc's education system, and the overlapped management of universities which led to inconsistencies in policy-making, quality management and macro-level administration (Welch, 2010). For example, the narrow range of specialised courses available for students meant that they were not always well-equipped and flexible enough to adapt to the changing dynamics of a country in economic transition (Ziguras & Pham, 2014). Additionally, similar to the USSR in the past, several ministries like the Ministry of Health,

Ministry of Public Security and Ministry of National Defence often established and controlled their own institutions, which served their own training demands (Hayden & Lam, 2007; Ziguras & Pham, 2014). As a result, Russian was also the major foreign language being taught in the universities from 1975 to the late 1980s (M. Do & Do, 2014).

In 1986, the movement of renovation (Doi Moi) had started, and with the substantial shift from a centralised economy to a market economy, Vietnamese universities underwent a transformation of their own (A. Dang, Nguyen, & Le, 2013; L. Tran, Ngo, Nguyen, & Dang, 2017; Ziguras et al., 2017). English gradually substituted Russian as the major foreign language formally taught at schools and universities (Doan, Le, & Tran, 2018). More and more Vietnamese students also now travel abroad for their study, financed either through their own resources or through various scholarships and other financial support (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a). The Government of Vietnam has recurrently expressed its commitment to reforming the national higher education system by issuing relevant laws and regulations. For example, Resolution 14/2005/NQCP dated 02 November 2005, which was approved by the Prime Minister Phan Van Khai, introduced a framework for the 'fundamental and comprehensive' reform of the higher education system (T. Pham & London, 2010; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a). On 18 June 2012, a new Law on higher education was enacted that increased the autonomy of universities in terms of governance and management systems. In response to the changing local and global demands, the Vietnamese government has implemented various strategies regarding policy issuances. These include the 'Strategies for socio-economic development 2011-2020', 'Strategies for education development 2011-2020'; 'Education Law'; and 'Higher Education Law'. According to the Strategies for socio-economic development 2011-2020, Vietnam aimed to become a basically modernised and industrialised country by the year 2020 (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a). The proactive role of universities has been improved in relation to their autonomy especially regarding finance and internationalisation cooperation (H. Nguyen, Hamid, & Moni, 2016).

To conclude, tertiary education reflects the progress of the superstructure picture of Vietnam while it transforms the growing economy (Welch, 2010). According to Welch (2010), in the twenty-first century, higher education in Vietnam continues to be an indispensable pillar of the knowledge economy, and a key site for producing the highly skilled human resources supporting socio-economic development of the country.

1.3.2 Personal interest.

As an academic associated with FTU in Vietnam for almost two decades, I have always been interested in pursuing opportunities for bringing ideas and understandings from the wider world into my teaching.

I began working at FTU in 2000 and since then a number of opportunities have arisen enabling me to move from one post to another. Initially, I only wished to become a well-qualified English language teacher; therefore, I tried to broaden my knowledge in English pedagogy, particularly in relation to Business and Economics majors. I pursued another Bachelors' degree in Economics part-time with the hope of gaining more understanding of the business and economics fields, which undoubtedly assisted my teaching, i.e. teaching General Business English and English for specific purposes like English for Finance, Banking or Business and Economics at FTU. For the first five years, I just planned to improve both my English and business knowledge to become a good teacher of English.

The first turning point for me was when I received a scholarship from the Australian government to study a Masters' degree at the University of Melbourne in 2005. During this time, I had the opportunity to sharpen my English skills and gain a new perspective and outlook in both my professional and personal life. I was particularly influenced by one of my lecturers and a Vietnamese lecturer of English who was completing a PhD at the University of Melbourne. Those two people inspired me to think about my teaching pedagogy and practice differently. At that moment, I not only wanted to act as a good teacher of English but I was ambitious to contribute more to the development of education and training in my own country. My new teaching philosophy was underpinned by the idea that I could make a difference to the education and training in my country through making even minor but continuous changes in my own teaching. As such, I endeavoured to put all my teaching initiatives into practice. I had a sense of being a change agent in my classes where all my students were eager to learn and develop themselves for a better future. I implemented, with some adaptation, what I had learned from the Australian education system into my own teaching and learning context. I also observed and reflected on what I did in my classes and shared with my colleagues both my successes and failures. I therefore learnt and gained experience while playing an active role in changing and improving my teaching practice.

I also became more involved in the process of developing professional learning opportunities within my Faculty. As the Head of the General Business English Department in

the Faculty of English for Specific Purposes in 2007, I provided extensive support for other English teachers, especially novice ones, to develop their professional knowledge and skills. Through weekly and monthly Departmental meetings, opportunities were developed for the sharing of teaching initiatives and challenges and possible solutions.

I was still very interested in furthering my knowledge about international education so was delighted when an opportunity arose in 2011 to complete a second Masters' degree in International Business at La Trobe University in Australia. Following the completion of that degree, I was appointed as Vice Director of the Centre for International Development (CID) at FTU. I was particularly interested in this new post as it provided an opportunity for me to pursue my interest in teaching and coordinating joint training programs between our university and overseas universities. I believed that with my English knowledge, English language teaching experience and my business knowledge, I could succeed and make a contribution to new development policies and strategies within FTU, which was one of the well-regarded universities in Vietnam.

However, while I found my new role rewarding, there were also a number of challenges in relation to offering and coordinating joint training programs at CID. One particular challenge related to building the requisite English skills in students to enable them to engage in international study. I was given the task of designing English training courses for students who were required to achieve an IELTS overall score of 6.0 with no sub-band under 5.5 band score. What concerned me the most was how to achieve a balance between IELTS training, general English training and English for Specific Purposes training. Working with other English teachers, we produced English curriculum that not only focused on improving students' level of English competency but also aimed at helping students achieve the IELTS score so that they could transfer their study overseas.

Another issue I had to take into consideration was how to promote collaboration between English teachers and content teachers, who did not always work together in the most efficient way. Managing and dealing with academics from partner institutions was another challenge I encountered. It was essential that I had an understanding of western culture and working style, which was often at odds with many of the practices within my department. Another challenge related to internal competition, with many of the foreign programs within FTU competing against each other to attract students.

In summary, my research interests and the research topic proposed in this study emerged from personal experience in the development of joint training programs at FTU in general and at CID in particular. The initial ideas for my research topic originated from questions I posed to myself:

1. Could I really describe the foreign program offered through CID as international?
2. How could I improve opportunities for students in Vietnam to experience ‘internationalisation’?
3. What do the students gain from such opportunities? What does the faculty or university gain?
4. How do such programs contribute to the development of education and training in Vietnam?

1.3.3 Background.

1.3.3.1 *International cooperation in Vietnam.*

Seeking cooperation with international university partners has become a priority in Vietnam (H. Nguyen et al., 2016; P. Nguyen, Vickers, Ly, & Tran, 2016; L. Tran, Marginson, & Nguyen, 2014; L. Tran et al., 2017), as evidenced in official documents including the Higher Education Law (2012) or Decree No.73/2012/NĐ-CP of the Prime Minister. In reality, internationalisation as stated in the Strategy for Education Development for Vietnam 2011-2020 is considered to be “one of the eight initiatives fundamental for the development of Vietnamese education” (L. Tran, Marginson, & Nguyen, 2014, p. 137). As Ziguras and Pham (2016) highlight, higher education (HE) internationalisation has been regarded as a strategy for Vietnam to intensely integrate into the global economy and increase its national competitiveness via knowledge transfer and “skills from abroad” (Ziguras & Pham, 2016, p. 131).

Pursuant to the Constitution of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam in 1992, in which a number of Articles were amended and supplemented under Resolution No. 51/2001/ QH10, the Vietnamese Congress enacted the Law on Higher Education: No. 08/2012/QH13 on 18 June 2012. This law stipulates the two main objectives of international cooperation in the Vietnamese higher education system including: improving the quality of tertiary education towards a modern, and advanced higher education at both regional and global levels; offering conditions for educational institutions to obtain sustainable development; training a high

quality and skilful workforce in order to serve the nation's modernisation; and industrialisation (Article 43, Higher Education Law).

One of the major types of international cooperation between Vietnamese higher education institutions and foreign education establishments is 'joint training', according to Article 44 of the Higher Education Law. The joint training programs with foreign institutions, as specified in Article 45, are those designed by both parties: Vietnamese education institutions and their overseas university partners, which can be run entirely in Vietnam or partially in Vietnam and partially abroad. The Vietnamese government, as regulated in Article 48, issues appropriate policies to implement bilateral and multilateral agreements. This facilitates the development of higher education establishments in Vietnam under the principles of satisfying Vietnamese socio-economic development requirements, which is in line with the strategic and development planning of higher education and strengthens the management of the joint ventures and joint training with foreign universities (Article 48, Higher Education Law).

On September 26, 2012, the Prime Minister of Vietnam, Nguyen Tan Dung, issued Decree No.73/2012/NĐ-CP within the Higher Education Law. The Decree aimed to regulate cooperation and foreign investment in higher education in Vietnam. This decree identifies the types of joint training education approved for implementation. According to this decree, an international joint training program can be based on either a foreign university's program or the program designed by both a Vietnamese university and its university partner; programs can be delivered either solely in Vietnam or partly delivered in Vietnam and the remainder overseas; degrees can be granted by Vietnam or university partners or by both parties dependent on the regulations of each party (Article 6, Higher Education Law).

International integration and international cooperation are currently regarded as indispensable drivers for socio-economic development in Vietnam (Hoang, Tran, & Pham, 2018; N. Nguyen & Tran, 2018; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a). In recent years, a number of conferences and events related to international integration and international cooperation in higher education have taken place in Vietnam. For example, an event highlighting international cooperation was the 20th ceremony of the joint training MBA program between Vietnam and Belgium, which took place in May 2015. Deputy Prime Minister Vu Duc Dam once again emphasised the importance of international cooperation and joint training programs for the development of Vietnam's human resources. He stated that for sustainable

development, Vietnam must create a workforce that is ready for globalisation. He also stressed that joint training programs should be regarded as necessary solutions to improving the quality of education and training in order to meet the requirements of human resources in the new period, stating;

I would like the Ministry of Education and Training to continue promoting joint training programs with prestigious and high-quality education establishments in the world under strict regulations, for the benefits of students and the quality of education in Vietnam (Vnexpress, 15/05/2015).

Striving for cooperation with universities abroad has thus become a mission and goal for the Vietnamese government and for universities in Vietnam as a whole (M. Do & Do, 2014; Hoang et al., 2018; L. Tran, Marginson, & Nguyen, 2014). This also signifies the need for internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam (N. Nguyen & Tran, 2018; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018b; L. Tran et al., 2018). Establishing joint training programs with overseas partners serves as one of the strategies universities in Vietnam employ to both develop their international cooperation and internationalise their educational institutions (Hoang et al., 2018; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a; L. Tran et al., 2018). In these programs, universities in Vietnam and their foreign university partners are empowered to map and implement their curricula (Hoang et al., 2018; L. Tran et al., 2018), which is designed to meet the needs of stakeholders, including university partners, students, parents, local communities and society as a whole (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018b; L. Tran, Marginson, & Nguyen, 2014; L. Tran et al., 2018). There is a concerning issue, however, regarding how Vietnamese institutions internationalise their curriculum in order to achieve their educational goals and satisfy their stakeholders' needs (L. Tran et al., 2018).

1.3.3.2 Introduction to Foreign Trade University (FTU).

FTU's mission, vision and core values.

Established in 1960, FTU is one of Vietnam's prestigious universities (Trines, 2017), offering a wide range of majors and specialisations in economics, business, business administration, finance and banking as well as foreign languages (FTU, 2018d). Since its inception, FTU has made substantial inroads in terms of providing high quality human resources to the Vietnamese economy, thereby making a significant contribution to the process of industrialisation, modernisation and the global economic integration of Vietnam (FTU, 2018d).

With three campuses in Hanoi, Ho Chi Minh and Quang Ninh, FTU offers both undergraduate and graduate programs for not only local but foreign students as well; these programs are conducted in either Vietnamese, English, Japanese or French (FTU, 2018d). The official university website states that “the annual admissions test to the university is the most competitive in Vietnam” and as such “students from FTU are recognized as being active and well-qualified” (FTU, 2018d). In 2017, the number of enrolled students at FTU was reported as 14,485 (FTU, 2017).

According to the university website, through curriculum utilising the latest teaching methods and study tools, FTU provides a distinctive educational experience in an environment which “prepares students not only for the challenges of today, but for a world that has yet to be imagined” (FTU, 2018d). Civic engagement is considered an integral part of the academic activities and mission of FTU, with involvement including “undertaking community development programs to serve the needs of communities; organizing outreach programs to raise awareness and establish networks; and building partnerships with the private sector, government and civil society organizations” (FTU, 2018d). Table 1.1 sets out the mission, vision and quality statement provided by FTU on their official website.

Table 1.1

FTU’s Mission, Vision and Quality Statement

Mission	Vision	Quality Policy Statement
<p>The mission of Foreign Trade University (FTU) is to nurture talents and provide high quality human resources in the fields of economics, business, business management, finance-banking, law, technology and foreign languages; to create and transfer scientific knowledge to meet the requirements of industrialization and modernization of the country; to develop learning and research competence of the learners; to enhance work and life skills in the modern international environment.</p> <p>The university is a hub for the dissemination of scientific and professional knowledge to the business community and society and also a center for academic and cultural exchanges among nations in the world.</p>	<p>Our vision is to become a leading and highly prestigious university in Vietnam and be ranked among top 100 universities in the region with diversified training and education activities. The FTU shall include high-quality schools, research institutes, and corporations. The main campus is located in Hanoi.</p> <p>The FTU shall encompass campuses in Ho Chi Minh City, Quang Ninh province, and other major economic centres in Vietnam and campuses abroad.</p>	<p>The FTU is committed to quality through teaching, research, carrying out creative work, and fostering an intellectual culture that bridges the gap between theories and practices. The University is committed to good corporate governance, excellence, professionalism, freedom of thought in academic inquiry, responsible citizenship, creativity, innovativeness, teamwork, and adaptation to change.</p>

Source: Adapted from <http://english.ftu.edu.vn>, date: 18/12/2018

FTU's mission, vision and core values appear to be in alignment with the strategies for internationalising higher education in Vietnam as specified in the Higher Education Law (2012) or Prime Ministerial Decree No.73/2012/NĐ-CP (2012). Based on its strengths and resources, FTU strives to fulfil its education mission, i.e. to train a high quality workforce capable of working in internationally competitive environments (FTU, 2018d). It also targets improvement of its education status nationally, regionally and internationally. FTU's core values include "Quality - Effectiveness - Prestige - Professionalism - Advancement" (FTU, 2018e). It is evident that FTU's mission, vision and core values reflect the underpinning goals of academic standards, professional education and employability, which are typically key objectives for Vietnamese institutions which aim to pursue international education or HE internationalisation (Mai, 2018; L. Tran et al., 2018).

FTU's international relations, international projects and international partners.

FTU has built strong links with corporations, organisations and institutions overseas in terms of international cooperation in higher education and training, as outlined in the following section.

International relations.

FTU has established a close relationship with and receives support for student scholarships from a number of foreign companies such as Sumitomo Corporation, Kumagai Gami Company (Japan), Vina-Debon (Korea) and Hasebe Bank (FTU, 2018c). FTU also has connections with a number of international organisations, for example: UNDP; JICA, JOCV (Japan); ELI (USA); VVOB (Belgium); WUSC (Canada); DANIDA (Denmark); or SIF (Singapore), which provide support to FTU in terms of academic exchanges (FTU, 2018c).

International partners.

An expanding list of international partners are listed on the FTU website, that include partnerships with universities from countries such as the USA, Japan, China, France, Thailand, Denmark and the UK (FTU, 2018f).

International projects.

Collaboration between FTU and various international organisations worldwide has resulted in a number of international projects as outlined in Table 1.2, which have made a significant contribution to the improvement of the training and research capacity of FTU.

Table 1.2

International Projects at FTU

Project Title	In cooperation with	Year
Vietnam – Japan Human Resource Cooperation Centre (VJCC)	JICA	2000 – 2010
Improving training quality of external economics Bachelor degrees to meet demands of regional and international integration	World Bank	2001 – 2006
UNCOFIN Project (University Cooperation for internationalisation) – AUNP Programme	The European Commission	2003 – 2005
Strengthening training capacity of business administration at Foreign Trade University	World Bank	2003 – 2006
Enhancement of research capacity in international business and Vietnamese firms (VDIB project)	Denmark	2004 – 2007
The APEC Economics Integration Program (APEC – EIP project)	The Government of Canada (CIDA)	2004 – 2009
Developing integrated information system to strengthen FTU’s management, training and research capacity	World Bank	2005 – 2007
Curriculum development for an interdisciplinary M.A in Asian European management	The European Commission	2005 – 2009
Improving teaching and research capacity of key training programs at FTU to enhance flexible responsiveness to international economic integration (FTUTRIP Project)	World Bank	2007 – 2011
MUTRAP III Project on International Trade Law	EU	2009 – 2011
MUTRAP III Project on Trade Policy	EU	2009 – 2011
Regional Competence Centres for Trade Law and Policy in South Africa, Peru, Vietnam	Witwatersrand University, Mandela Institute, Universidad Catolica	2009 – 2013

Source: Adapted from FTU’s Report on International projects (2014-2015)

FTU’s foreign programs.

Like other HE institutions in Vietnam, English is used as a medium of instruction (EMI) in most joint training programs at FTU. For instance, of 43 educational programs at FTU, 19 were conducted in English in the 2015-2016 academic year (FTU, 2015). The programs instructed in English are called EMI programs and are classified into two types – domestic and foreign programs (H. Nguyen, Walkinshaw, & Pham, 2017). Within the domestic programs, EMI programs are known as High Quality programs (HQs), while the foreign programs in Vietnam are categorised into Advanced Programs (APs) and Joint Programs (JPs) (H. Nguyen et al., 2017). The Advanced Programs represent “modified versions of overseas educational programs” being “delivered under agreement with offshore (largely USA and UK) institutions” while the Joint Programs are “designed and accredited by overseas universities, and delivered at Vietnamese campuses by external staff” (H. Nguyen et al., 2017, p. 40). The foreign programs at the graduate and undergraduate level are offered to both local and international

students. At the graduate level, there are currently 10 Joint Programs while the Foreign Undergraduate Programs (FUPs) include two Advanced Programs (FTU, 2018a) and five Joint Programs (VIED, 2017). Tables 1.3 and 1.4 provide details of these programs.

Table 1.3

Advanced Programs at FTU

University partners	Country	Degree	Decision Number	Date of approval
California State University	USA	Bachelor of International Business and Finance	Decision No.523/QĐ-BGDĐT	29/01/2011
Colorado State Univeristy	USA	Bachelor of International Economics	Decision No. 1087/ QĐ-DHNT-QLKH	3/12/2009

Source: Adapted from <http://english.ftu.edu.vn>, date: 18/12/2018 and the Decisions on the establishment of Advanced Programs

Table 1.4

Joint Programs at FTU

University partners	Country	Degree	Decision number	Date of approval
Bedfordshire University	UK	Bachelor of Business Studies	5365/QĐ-BGDĐT	20/8/2008
			3333/QĐ-BGDĐT	27/8/2013
London Metropolitan University	UK	Bachelor of International Finance Services	1231/QĐ-BGDĐT	30/3/2012
Meiho University	Taiwan	Bachelor of Business Management (Finance)	338/QĐ-BGDĐT	25/01/2013
Minot State University	USA	Bachelor of International Business and Finance	3170/QĐ-BGDĐT	27/08/2014
Neils Brock Copenhagen Univeristy	Denmark	Bachelor of Finance Services	4398/QĐ-BGDĐT	01/10/2010
			6299/QĐ-BGDĐT	31/12/2014

Source: Adapted from http://icd.moet.gov.vn/Uploads/imgs/2017/03/LKDT_21.3.2017.pdf, date: 18/12/2018

FTU's foreign undergraduate programs (FUPs).

To avoid confusion, the term 'program' is differentiated from the term 'course' in this study as follows. Program refers to the overall degree or qualification, while course refers to the units, modules or subjects within that program. Additionally, in this study, the FUPs at FTU are the EMI programs including APs and JPs.

As outlined in Tables 1.3 and 1.4, there are seven FUPs currently delivered at FTU, which are joint offerings between FTU and its overseas partners. Among these FUPs, one Advanced Program and one Joint Program were selected for examination in this study. They included the Bachelor of International Economics program being co-taught between FTU and Colorado State University in the USA, which was known as the FTU-CSU program, and the Bachelor of International Finance Services program co-trained between FTU and London Metropolitan University, a UK university, which will be referred to as the FTU-LMET program.

These two programs were selected as suitable to be investigated for the purposes of the current study for a number of reasons, as they met four predetermined criteria for selection, namely the type of the program, the establishment date, the level of international convertibility or transferability, and the involvement of academics from FTU and its partners.

In terms of the type of program – both Advanced Programs and Joint Programs were offered in partnership with western universities. As shown in Tables 1.3 and 1.4, five of seven FUPs were delivered in partnership with either UK or US universities while the other two were with universities in Taiwan or Denmark. It was decided that the more common Western partners of UK and US were the most appropriate to examine. Other considerations included that the FTU-CSU program was the first Advanced Program approved to be delivered at FTU in 2009, while the FTU-LMET program was the newest Joint Program at the time of beginning this study, having been licensed in 2012. In the FTU-CSU program, a number of courses were delivered by academics from CSU while the others were instructed by FTU academics. Students in the FTU-CSU program were able to study full time at FTU or transfer to study one semester or a final year at CSU or other foreign universities (FTU, 2018a). Other programs had restrictions on transferability options and engagement with staff from partner universities so were not considered. By contrast, for the FTU-LMET program, all courses were conducted by FTU academics or invited foreign academics teaching in Vietnam. Additionally, students in the FTU-LMET program could choose to transfer to LMET university or other UK universities which had partnership agreements with FTU (CID, 2016). Thus, although the FTU-CSU and the FTU-LMET share some similarities with other joint programs, they also had some unique features making them the most suitable for examination in this study.

1.3.3.3 Overview of the two foreign undergraduate programs examined in this study.

The joint training program between FTU and Colorado State University (the FTU-CSU program).

The Advanced Program examined is the ‘American Accredited Undergraduate Program in International Economics’ co-educated by FTU and CSU. This Advanced Program, which was originally subsidised by the Vietnamese government, has been operating for 10 years. The objectives of the program are outlined in Figure 1.2.

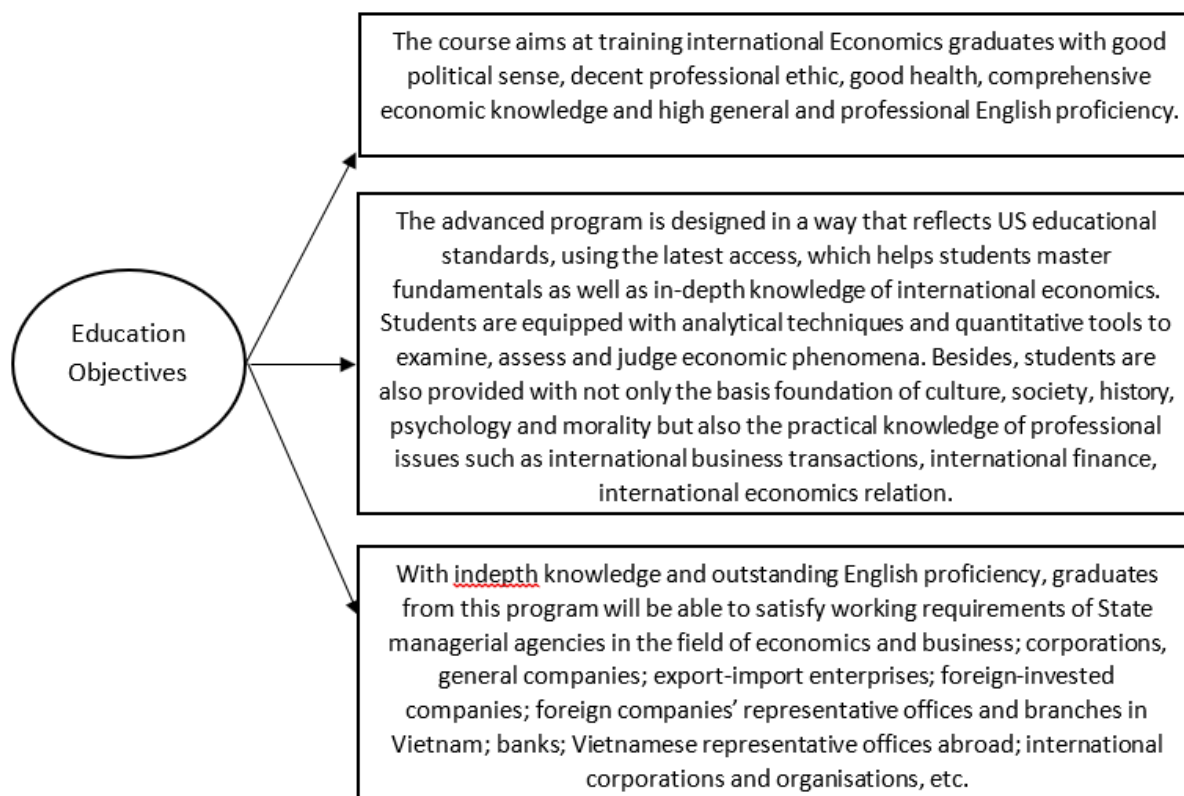


Figure 1.2. Educational objectives of the FTU-CSU program

Source: Adapted from the Framework for Tertiary Education Advanced Program issued together with Decision No. 1087 / QD-DHNT-QLKH on December 3, 2009.

The curriculum of the program was approved by the Rector of FTU, according to Decision No. 1087/QD-DHNT-QLKH dated December 3, 2009. In this program, the curriculum was designed for a full-time Bachelor's degree in Economics, majoring in international economics. The educational objectives of this program were defined in its education framework (The Framework for Tertiary Education Advanced Program issued together with Decision No. 1087 / QD-DHNT-QLKH on December 3, 2009).

The curriculum of this Advanced Program matches CSU's curriculum, providing opportunities for international convertibility, international recognition and international competition (FTU, 2018a). In terms of international convertibility, credits obtained from courses delivered at FTU are accepted "as equivalent classes at CSU or in other American

universities”; thus, this allows students to transfer to foreign universities (FTU, 2018a). International recognition means that graduates can pursue further higher education including Honours, Masters and PhDs at American universities or other HE institutions in developed nations (FTU, 2018a). Regarding international competition, graduates from this program are educated in the same way as those graduating from American universities; therefore, they can “compete successfully with students graduated from foreign countries in both Vietnam and the international labor market” (FTU, 2018a). This represents what Chen (2015) describes as articulation as a form of transnational education at FTU, which is further explored in Section 2.1.2.6.

The joint training program between FTU and London Metropolitan University (the FTU-LMET program).

The Joint Program (FTU-LMET program) examined in this study is one of the more recently established programs with a UK university, managed by the Centre of International Development (CID) at FTU since 2012. The CID was established based on Decision No.1341/QĐ-ĐHNT-TCHC of the Rector of FTU in 2010. CID’s functions and responsibilities are defined in this Decree as well as in Article 39 of the regulating principles for organisation and management at FTU. CID has responsibilities for ensuring both scientific and professional contents of the Joint Programs run at CID.

The program between FTU and LMET was approved to commence at FTU, pursuant to Decision No.1231/QĐ-BGDĐT of the Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) on 30/03/2012. The approval of the program enables student mobility and flexibility of credit transfer. Students can register to study the whole degree in Vietnam or study in Vietnam for partial credit and complete the rest of their study in the UK.

The mobility of the program and the flexibility of cooperation between FTU and LMET make this program a successful one in Vietnam (CID, 2014). The agreement on education franchise between FTU and LMET approved by MOET helps to reduce tuition costs. For example, FTU only had to transfer a small amount of tuition to LMET: 1,000 pounds per student, which was equal to 8% of tuition paid for a similar program in the UK and much lower than the tuition paid for similar joint training programs in Vietnam (CID, 2016).

Apart from the low tuition fees, academics who teach in the FTU-LMET program are highly qualified, having obtained either a Masters’ degree or PhD from an international higher education institute. Most courses in the program are delivered by senior FTU lecturers or

invited foreign lecturers. Students can choose their majors either in economics, finance or international finance after their second year. The curriculum is mapped against both FTU's and LMET's curriculum and designed to allow students to flexibly gain credits transferable to identical programs at LMET and some other of FTU's university partners in the UK (CID, 2016; FTU, 2015). This represents what Francois (2016) describes as validation as a form of transnational education at FTU, which is further explored in Section 2.1.2.6.

In summary, the two above-mentioned FUPs share similarities regarding the international convertibility; however, the level of involvement of program managers, course coordinators and academics may vary dependent upon the partnership agreement between FTU and its partners. As such, the examination of the FTU-CSU program and the FTU-LMET program revealed divergent approaches and strategies employed by academics, program managers and course coordinators when they internationalised the curriculum of jointly managed programs at FTU.

1.3.3.4 Conceptualisation of IoC for this thesis.

A full discussion of how internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) is defined or at least conceptualised around the world is provided in Chapter 2. A justification for the conceptualisation of IoC used in this thesis is also provided, but for the purposes of clarity, and to provide an early guide for the reader, the following summation explains the understanding of IoC underpinning this thesis. Basically, the definition developed by (Leask, 2009) is used, namely,

Internationalisation of the curriculum is the incorporation of an international and inter-cultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning processes and support services of a program of study.

An internationalised curriculum will engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity. It will purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens. (p. 209)

Later, Leask and Bridge (2013) developed a framework for working with IoC research, which is discussed in detail in Chapter 7. According to Stütz, Green, McAllister, and Eley (2015) this framework conceptualised curriculum according to four main aspects – first as dependent on global, national/regional, local, institutional, and disciplinary contexts; second,

as an educational process; third, as outcome oriented and inclusive of all students; and fourth, as integrating the development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Leask and Bridge (2013) also explained how IoC embraced the formal, informal, and hidden curriculum. As such, the main ideas represented in the definition and framework for IoC developed originally by Leask on her own and then later with colleagues, underpins this study.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of eight chapters. This initial chapter introduces the study, and provides a description of the research context, involving Joint Degree programs within FTU in Vietnam. Chapter 2 presents a review of the extant literature on internationalisation of the curriculum and all the associated microcosms within this broadly interpreted concept. Chapter 3 provides a discussion of the conceptual framework that informs this study, namely the third generation of Activity Theory. Chapter 4 describes and justifies the methodological framework underpinning the study, including the research design and the research methods used to investigate the perceptions and practices of the participants. Chapters 5 and 6 report the findings from the analysis of the data, with Chapter 5 reporting on data from interviews conducted with program managers and course coordinators and Chapter 6 reporting on data from surveys and interviews conducted with academics. Chapter 7 provides a discussion of these findings in light of the research questions and the literature. The final chapter, Chapter 8, concludes with a discussion of implications for FTU and other non-western university settings informed by the findings. It also includes a set of recommendations for change and practice in the field of internationalisation of the curriculum in non-western settings and suggestions for further research in the field.

1.5 Summary of Chapter 1

This chapter provided an introduction to the study through introducing the background and context of the process of internationalisation within a Vietnamese university setting, where internationalisation was being promoted through a number of Advanced and Joint Program offerings, two of which were chosen to be examined in depth. The aims and significance of the research are presented, and an explanation is provided of my personal interest in conducting this research. The following chapter presents a review of the literature deemed relevant to the context of the study, highlighting the gaps that underpinned the development of the research questions for this study.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

This chapter presents a review of literature relating to internationalisation of curriculum from both national and international perspectives. It contains an overview of the relationship between globalisation, internationalisation and internationalisation in higher education. It also reviews the link between the development of 'curriculum in higher education' and internationalisation trends and strategies. Internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) which is one of the internationalisation strategies employed by educational institutions, is investigated in terms of its interrelationship with student learning, the disciplines and academics. This chapter concludes with a summary of insights emanating from this review of the literature and also identifies existing gaps in this field of research.

2.1 Globalisation, Internationalisation and Internationalisation of higher education

The twenty first century is witness to the important influences of globalisation on nearly every aspect of life in terms of economics, politics, education and culture, communication, medicine, as well as science and technology. The relationship between globalisation and internationalisation in higher education has become a popular topic for discussion in education literature over the past thirty years (Altbach, 2004; de Wit, 2011; J. Knight, 2013). Globalisation and internationalisation are complex phenomena, with many overlapping and intertwining strands (Scott, 2005). In some circumstances, the terms globalisation and internationalisation are used interchangeably (Trahar, 2013a). Yet the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) argues that despite being "dynamically linked concepts", globalisation and internationalisation are in fact inherently different (OECD, 1999, p. 14) and should not be treated as synonymous terms (Vidovich, 2004). Indeed, some scholars affirm that the evolution of globalisation has given birth to internationalisation (L. Hanson, 2010; Jiang, 2008). Nevertheless, globalisation and the knowledge economies, as Altbach and Knight (2007) argue, have enabled mobility for both students and staff, leading to interest in and a concomitant need for internationalisation in higher education.

Though globalisation and internationalisation are considered to be distinct concepts, they are associated in terms of processes (J. Knight, 2004). In many ways, globalisation has provided a catalyst for internationalisation (E. Jackson & Huddart, 2010), with the conceptualisation of globalisation also assisting understandings of internationalisation,

through stressing the need for differentiation (Maringe, Foskett, & Woodfield, 2013). According to Maringe et al. (2013), the differentiation of internationalisation should be taken into account since they argue that “as with most educational transformations, internationalisation has been largely a theoretical and largely driven through practice” (p. 10). As such globalisation creates the preliminary dynamic for institutions to internationalise (Maringe et al., 2013).

2.1.1 Globalisation.

A number of scholars argue that globalisation should be interpreted in its plurality since it is a complex or multidimensional phenomenon with various associated debates and discussions (Altbach, 2004; Beck, 2012; de Wit, 2011; J. Knight, 2013; J. Knight & de Wit, 1997). This phenomenon results from the political, economic, social and cultural forces of the modern world (Altbach, 2004; Altbach & Knight, 2007; Arshad-Ayaz, 2008; de Wit, 2011). The drivers of globalisation encompass the increasingly powerful influence of the USA, both in political and military aspects following the post-Cold war; the dominance of the neo-liberal economic mode and forces; the improvement of cultural interaction due to the advancement of information and communication technologies; and the emergence of local identities and nationalism resulting from cultural fragmentation (Dzvimbo & Moloji, 2013).

There appears to be little doubt that globalisation possesses its own merits and associated limitations (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Benefits include greater access and speedier knowledge transformation or ease of communication in addition to the affluence of a worldwide goods and services exchange, while creating a swifter movement towards a peaceful and stable world and a trend towards a more borderless and integrated world (Steger, 2003). Nonetheless, globalisation also has its own limitations. In reality, the benefits of globalisation are not equally dispersed between rich and poor nations, which assists in the growth of western culture dominance and increasing poverty and wealth discrepancies across the world, as well as the emergence of regional disputes particularly in the developing world, and the ‘brain drain’ in less developed countries (Maringe et al., 2013).

In educational literature, there have been different approaches to understanding globalisation (Altbach, 2002; Beck, 2012; de Wit, 2011; J. Knight & de Wit, 1997; Walters, 1995). For example, some researchers typically take into account the economic dimension when defining and analysing the phenomenon (Arshad-Ayaz, 2008; R. Jones, 2013). Others

examine the sociological accounts of the nature and forces of globalisation, utilising a cultural perspective lens and taking into consideration the cultural dimension (Beck, 2012).

Furthermore, some researchers regard globalisation as an ambivalent concept with numerous implications for educational policies, pedagogies and national politics (Singh, Kenway, & Apple, 2005). Globalisation, according to those scholars, can be categorised into two main sets including “globalisation from above” and “globalisation from below” (Singh et al., 2005, p. 1). The former refers to globalising tendencies, for instance internationalisation, marketisation, universalisation, and westernisation. By contrast, the latter reflects “the unevenness and disjunctions in the practices and consequences of neo-liberal globalism”, which is concerned with “deterioration, flows, mesh-works, speed, time/space reorganisation, virtuality, the fluid, the flexible, and the new” (Singh et al., 2005, p. 1).

Globalisation is a phenomenon reflecting world-scale transformations occurring in almost all aspects of life including political, ideological, technological, economic, social and cultural (Maringe et al., 2013). As such, it has been described as encompassing “the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, [and] ideas ... across borders” with different influences on each nation depending on “a country’s individual history, traditions, culture and priorities” (J. Knight & de Wit, 1997, p. 6).

2.1.2 Internationalisation of higher education.

2.1.2.1 *The link between globalisation, internationalisation and higher education.*

Globalisation is often seen as the economic, political, and societal driver of internationalisation in higher education (Altbach, 2004), and as underpinning the transformation of higher education worldwide (Marginson, 2003). Internationalisation in higher education is thought to be a response to globalisation (Maringe et al., 2013) and has been frequently referenced in the educational literature over the last ten years (Yemini, 2014). Internationalisation benefits higher education institutions in terms of value creation, i.e. strategic and symbolic value, knowledge creation value, cultural and integrational value, or global market value (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Nonetheless, the risks associated with internationalisation in education institutions include loss of qualified people, dominance of western hegemony, and the perceived erosion of quality (Maringe et al., 2013). Furthermore, it contributes to the commodification of higher education and the persistence of inequality between global north-south universities (Alemu, 2014; Maringe et al., 2013).

In the globalised world, it could be said that higher education has become transnationally tradable, leading to growing opportunities for mobility across the board (Daquila, 2013). This trend forces governments and educational institutions in both developed and developing countries to pay attention to internationalisation, seeing it as an important regular policy issue (Beerkens, 2004; Daquila, 2013). In particular, internationalisation of higher education in some Asian countries such as China, Japan or Vietnam, is currently placed at the top of their education reform agenda (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Dolby & Rahman, 2008; N. Nguyen & Tran, 2018; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a; Trent, 2012).

The process of internationalisation of higher education, whether in developed or developing nations, is 'multi-layered' and driven by changes in patterns of competitive pressure, the regulatory environment, educational priorities and opportunities, as well as the personal responsibilities in a globalising world (Haigh, 2014). According to Haigh (2014), this process reflects the shift of universities' perspectives from the local to the global. The shift demonstrates the change from a process, which centres on values of cooperation, partnership, exchange, mutual benefits and capacity building to the process being characterised by competition, commercialisation, self-interest and status building (J. Knight, 2013). In other words, this shift is a transformation from a more cooperative model to a more competitive model (L. Wang, 2014).

In short, internationalisation is not an independent objective; however, it acts as a medium to boost capabilities of education systems (Yemini, 2014). It appears that the principal aims of internationalisation are to introduce new ideas and capabilities within the education system, broaden access to learning, improve teaching and develop capabilities of both academic and administrative staff. Internationalisation, as Yemini (2014) argues, is considered to be part of a political and economic process impacting the power relations between the developed and developing world. Similarly, internationalisation influences the link between international bodies and national authorities, affecting the interrelationship between governments and institutions as well as between different stakeholders within the system.

2.1.2.2 Defining internationalisation of higher education.

Interpretations of the term 'internationalisation of higher education' vary depending on geographical setting, national context, institutional goals and mission, as well as on

thematic conceptualisations of internationalisation (de Wit, 2002, 2011; Jones & de Wit, 2012; J. Knight, 2008, 2013; Lavankura, 2013)

It is therefore argued that a universal definition of internationalisation is unlikely (J. Knight, 2004). In reality, definitions of internationalisation in higher education vary throughout the literature. Those concerned with educational activities occurring at the institutional level refer to internationalisation as “multiple activities, programs and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation” (Arum & Van de Water, 1992, p. 202). On the other hand, researchers like J. Knight (2003), who focus on educational activities at both the institutional and national level, define internationalisation as “the process of integrating international, global and multicultural dimensions into the aims, functions and delivery of education” (p. 2).

In a report prepared for the UNESCO 2009 World Conference on Higher Education by Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley (2009), internationalisation was defined as “the variety of policies and programs that universities and governments implement to respond to globalisation” (p. 7). Globalisation was considered to be beyond the control of one actor or set of actors while internationalisation was seen as a strategy formulated and implemented by universities, governments and other actors engaging in the higher education sector in order to handle globalisation (Altbach et al., 2009).

de Wit (2011) however argues that in both the literature and practice, most of the terms used and defined only refer to a certain part of internationalisation or a particular rationale for internationalisation. Those terms are regarded as curriculum related ones (international studies, global studies, multicultural education, and intercultural education) or mobility related, for instance, study abroad, education abroad or academic mobility. In this vein, internationalisation has also been conceptualised as administrative university projects overtly involving the international flow of people, ideas and/or resources (Tadaki & Tremewan, 2013).

Due to various notions of internationalisation within higher education, de Haan (2014) concludes that ‘internationalisation’ is a “buzz word and container concept” (p. 241). Through comparing and contrasting differing interpretations of internationalisation at research universities and universities of applied science in Holland, de Haan (2014) identified 14 elements constituting the concept of internationalisation, also highlighting a number of associated misconceptions. The elements which influence the conceptualisation of

internationalisation include: (1) Student recruitment; (2) Gaining international experience/competencies/knowledge; (3) Internationalizing curricula/programs; (4) International marketing; (5) Globalization/government policy; (6) Network building; (7) Improving education/research quality; (8) A process changing universities; (9) Student and staff mobility; (10) International positioning of the institution; (11) Creating an international environment; (12) Integration into the entire organization; (13) A defining feature of higher education; (14) Peacemaking/solving global or societal problems (de Haan, 2014, p. 247). These fourteen elements provide a useful set of reference points for examining how internationalisation occurs in specific higher education contexts, such as at FTU.

2.1.2.3 Approaches to internationalisation of higher education.

The above-mentioned conceptualisations of internationalisation in higher education illustrate the complexity of 'internationalisation'. For instance, Yemini (2014) asserts that internationalisation can be examined through different lenses including social, economic, pedagogical, psychological, anthropological and political. The literature highlights the divergent approaches made towards internationalisation of higher education (J. Knight, 2004). For example, de Wit (2002) identifies four approaches that include: activity, rationale, competence and process. The rationale approach concerns the objectives and outcomes that enable graduates to become "internationally knowledgeable" and "interculturally competent" (p. 25).

Similarly, the OECD (2006) proposes four approaches to internationalisation along with different rationales. The first approach is the 'mutual understanding' approach which serves political, cultural, academic and development assistance objectives through the enhancement of academic exchange. The second approach is known as the 'skilled migration' approach and incorporates the targets of the mutual understanding approach, and dynamically aims at foreign students and scholars. The third approach is the 'revenue-generating' approach and involves profit generation from high tuition fees paid by overseas students. The fourth approach is the 'capacity-building' approach through which capacity building, in an emerging state, is facilitated by importing higher education services (OECD, 2006).

Another way of defining approaches to internationalisation of higher education is based on four generic perspectives namely: activity, competency, ethos and process (J. Knight, 2004). Alemu (2014) adds a further two approaches - the business approach and the

market approach, which had previously been described by Meek (2007) as focusing on student fees for income generation (business approach) or emphasising competition, market domination and deregulation (market approach).

With reference to the perspective of activities, internationalisation of higher education is considered by Powell (2004) to be the process of incorporating international education in the curriculum in order to enhance international cooperation, improve national security and increase economic competitiveness.

However, the competency approach is linked to the development of skills, knowledge, attitudes and values, according to Alemu (2014). It refers to a change process from a national higher education internationalisation to international higher education internationalisation, resulting in the integration of an international dimension in all aspects of its all-inclusive management in order to enhance teaching and learning quality and to attain the desired competence (Söderqvist, 2002).

When aiming at fostering a campus-based culture of internationalisation, the ethos approach will frequently be used. In adopting the ethos perspective, internationalisation of higher education institutions reflects the process of strengthening campuses' international characters based on the support from the rewarding institution (K. Hanson & Meyerson, 1995; Harari, 1992; Pickert & Turlington, 1992).

As claimed by J. Knight (1999) the integration of an international dimension into teaching, research and services represents the process approach, which researchers such as J. Knight and de Wit (1995) who support this approach define it as a method involving two major types of strategy namely: organisation and program. Organisation strategies mainly focus on policies and administrative systems while academic activities and services are at the centre of program strategies (J. Knight & de Wit, 1995).

In brief, individual HE institutions may employ one or more approaches to internationalise their own institutions. It is, therefore, of interest to examine the approaches used by FTU when it internationalised its institution and educational programs.

2.1.2.4 The rationales for internationalisation and the roles of internationalisation in higher education.

Despite the concept of internalisation being generally understood, the meaning of and underlying rationales remain vague or inconsistent across the globe (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Yang, 2002). Yet, the changing drivers of internationalisation of higher education tend to be

reflected through the interpretations of internationalisation and globalisation and their rationales (de Wit, 2011).

Educational literature illustrates the close link between the meanings of internationalisation and its rationale and role in higher education. The rationale for internationalisation implementation can be identified in economic, political, social and academic terms (de Wit, 2002, 2009; Maringe & Gibbs, 2008; Yemini, 2014). Although the dominance and importance of these rationales are likely to vary among countries or regions, economic rationales are presently thought to be more dominant, although academic rationales regarding strategic alliances, status and profile are increasing in importance (de Wit, 2011).

Numerous studies have focused on the critically important role of internationalisation in higher education institutions worldwide. Internationalisation has been found to enhance learning environments (Carroll & Ryan, 2005; Ryan & Hellmundt, 2008); support preparation of students for future roles in the globalised world (Briguglio, 2007; M. Green & Shoenberg, 2006; Leask & Carroll, 2011; Tossavainen, 2009); educate students to be global citizens (Crosling, Edwards, & Schroder, 2008; M. Green & Shoenberg, 2006; Qiang, 2003) and provide opportunities for academics in terms of professional development (PD), international mobility and collaboration (Altbach & Knight 2007; J. Knight, 2013; Trahar & Hyland, 2011).

2.1.2.5 Issues in internationalisation of higher education.

The issues regarding internationalisation of higher education include challenges for the future and the ongoing development of internationalisation such as economic profit, the use of English as the global language, curriculum internationalisation, distance education, quality assurance and control as well as the regional and national policies (Altbach & Knight, 2007) together with the influence of information and technology (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Edwards & Usher, 2008; J. Jackson, 2008). Research has been conducted into challenges and opportunities facing developing nations when pursuing internationalisation (Altbach, 2002; Jowi, 2009; J. Knight, 2013), the effects of internationalisation on students (Deardorff, 2006, 2009) or on students' development of employability skills (Jones & Killick, 2013). Scholars such as Leask and Bridge investigate the curricula (Leask, 2001) or curriculum internationalisation (Leask, 2005; Leask, 2009, Leask & Bridge, 2013). There is also research on the need for institutions to engage in internationalisation (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011) and the associated threats (J. Knight, 2013).

Furthermore, research has identified the growing significance of e-learning and opportunities for undergraduate study abroad (Coulby, 2005; Edwards & Usher, 2008; J. Jackson, 2008; Trahar, 2013a). These aspects have been seen as the result of globalisation and internationalisation as well as markers for the “de-territorializing” of education (Edwards & Usher, 2008, p. 143). Because of the development of advanced communication and technological services, the world of higher education is changing (J. Knight, 2013; Trahar, 2013a). Maringe and Woodfield (2013) argue that internationalisation in higher education becomes transformative through integrating people “from different places, their cultures and knowledge systems in ways that create added value for everyone involved” (p. 2).

In summary, there is an increasing trend towards internationalisation of higher education in many institutions throughout the world (Altbach & de Wit, 2015). In addition, there are a number of concomitant challenges and requirements. Among the issues to be discussed in the following sections, the use of English as a medium of instruction and the application of new technologies into higher education appear to have greatly influenced the process of internationalisation of higher education worldwide.

Internationalisation of higher education and the use of English as a medium of instruction.

English skills are considered a practical means of communication in our modern world (Broughton, Brumfit, Pincas, & Wilde, 2002). Over the last twenty years, English has become more predominant in the Asia Pacific region compared to other foreign languages such as French or Russian which used to be popular foreign languages (Ziguras & McBurnie, 2011a).

It is therefore argued that more effort needs to be put into raising the English competence of both teachers and students when getting involved in internationalisation and globalisation (Chapple, 2015; Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2012; Werther, Denver, Jensen, & Mees, 2014; Wiriyaichitra, 2002). According to Dearden (2014), because of its increasingly important role in our globalised world, English has become a medium of instruction in many schools and universities. A recent report presented by the British Council and Oxford University claims that instead of teaching English as a foreign language, there is a speedy growth in using English as a medium of instruction worldwide (Dearden, 2014).

According to Shahijan, Rezaei, and Preece (2016), English is used as the medium of instruction in the advanced education systems in such countries as the USA, UK, Australia, and New Zealand. Undeniably, these nations have witnessed a great increase in the number of overseas students enrolling in academic courses, instructed in English, over the last few

decades (Shahijan et al., 2016). However, other non-English speaking nations are also offering educational programs in English as well. For example in Finland and the Netherlands, universities internationalise their curriculum through the use of English as a medium of instruction to help compete with English-speaking institutions in the higher education global market (Doiz et al., 2012; Hou, Morse, Chiang, & Chen, 2013).

Universities in non-English speaking nations in the Southern hemisphere also present courses in English to attract international students who are not interested in courses provided in their local language and to enhance the English proficiency of home students (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Doiz et al. (2012) stress that obtaining a more prominent status in the international community is a critical rationale for universities adopting English as the medium of instruction. Therefore, a number of universities in countries such as China, Indonesia, Korea, Malaysia and Vietnam are progressively implementing strategies and enacting policies to promote courses conducted in English (Chapple, 2015; Jenkins, 2013). Hu (2007) suggests that attainment of leading-edge knowledge and the improvement of competitiveness in the global knowledge economy may be better achieved if English is used as a medium of instruction in education systems. Also, the adoption of English as a medium of instruction is seen as a way to advance graduates' English language skills (Hamid, Nguyen, & Baldauf, 2013) and promote graduates' career prospects (Omar, Manaf, Mohd, Kassim, & Aziz, 2012; T. Tran, 2014) as well as preparing them for work in a globalised world (Leask, 2013b).

Although there has been a fast-moving trend towards offering English-constructed courses around the globe for a number of practical reasons, satisfying and retaining the standards of international education systems has become a highly demanding task for English-medium universities (Bradford, 2013; Brown, 2014; H. Nguyen et al., 2017). Some scholars highlight issues associated with such EMI courses including English proficiency of lecturers and students, the lecture delivery speed, the use of learning materials and in-class interaction between lecturers and students (Brown, 2014; Chapple, 2015; Doiz et al., 2012).

Moreover, concerns have been raised about the quality and effectiveness of English medium instruction, including language ability of students and the inclusion of first language in English medium courses (Hellekjær, 2010; R. Wilkinson, 2013). Lack of student ability in the use of the language has been noted as a primary barrier to successful university degree completion (Doiz et al., 2012), with language deficiencies impacting on comprehension of the content of lectures (Hellekjær & Räsänen, 2010; Tsuneyoshi, 2005) as well as the terminology

used and the specialised language in professional fields (Coxhead, 2013). Consequently, some students skip classes (Webb, 2002) or others may extend their study (Tsuneyoshi, 2005).

Furthermore, Chapple (2015) questions the inclusion of instruction in first language within English medium courses, which is sometimes viewed as a way to enhance students' comprehension of content knowledge and improve pace of delivery the lecture. Concerns have been raised about how much first language should be used to facilitate students' understanding of the content, terminology in their field or choice of language for supplementary materials and textbooks provided to students (Chapple, 2015).

Teacher quality and teachers' responsibility regarding students' language development are other issues that should be taken into account when using English as a medium of instruction. According to Symon and Weinberg (2013), there is an underlying assumption that the only requirement for lecturers in English medium courses is conversion of lectures from their first language to English without any modifications or adaptations. Ultimately, the quality of such courses may be in doubt (Symon & Weinberg, 2013), including a deterioration of the education quality resulting from a lack of emphasis on the quality of the language of instruction (de Wit, 2017).

Even though non-native English lecturers are generally able to read extensively and write at length in English, this does not guarantee that they can explicate and make key concepts comprehensible to students (Barnard, 2014). For content lecturers in English medium courses, many do not perceive their role as language teachers and do not take any responsibility for their students' language proficiency (Chang, 2010; Dearden, 2014). Chang (2010) asserts that content lecturers should be more cautious about the impact of students' English language proficiency on their ability to acquire content knowledge. In English medium courses, it is important that lecturers aim to satisfy both the linguistic and content goals (Chapple, 2015).

A lack of human resources is another issue facing schools and universities when they run English medium courses. The lack of qualified teachers, as Dearden's (2014) study illustrates, is one of the more serious issues, which negatively influences teaching quality. Therefore, it can be argued that a pressing task is to find academics with both a willingness and capability of lecturing in English (Tsuneyoshi, 2005).

According to Chappel (2015), institutions are unlikely to set out clear procedures and standards for conducting a course in English. Universities often find it difficult to attain and

retain well-qualified teachers who are enthusiastic about delivering English medium courses. Furthermore, non-native English speaking academics are confronted by the added workload since preparing courses in English is seen as a double duty for them (Vu & Burns, 2014). In fact, Chapple (2015) suggests that in order to implement English medium courses successfully, pedagogical training and PD support, as well as valid compensation should be provided to academics.

Ultimately, English has retained its dominant status as the international language of technology and commerce (L. Smith, 2015) as well as the “predominant academic language” (Altbach, 2007, p. 128). Use of the English language, as Shahijan et al. (2016) affirm, represents an important trend in internationalisation.

Internationalisation of higher education and the use of technology in higher education.

IT revolution

The early 2000s witnessed the application of information and communication technology in education, bringing increased access to education (Bjarnason, 2007). As such, the dawn of globalisation and the Internet have transformed the way people gain access to information and knowledge (Finardi & Rojo, 2015). The Internet acts as a primary force for globalisation (Haigh, 2008) and as a key driver to the globalisation of knowledge and communications (Altbach, 2007). The Internet also creates new trends and unique types of education for post-modern people (Finardi & Rojo, 2015). Therefore, it can be argued that the information revolution in the twenty first century has transformed higher education and represents a vital component of internationalisation in higher education (Altbach, 2007).

Rationales for IT application in higher education

There are a number of major rationales for the application of IT in higher education. To begin with, most governments in the world have paid more attention to the increasingly important role of higher education in the move towards a knowledge economy (Bjarnason, 2007). The rise of the knowledge economy has resulted in significant growth in intellectual mobility and physical mobility in numerous nations, with more students, academics and workers moving across borders to strive for and obtain qualifications or work (Bjarnason, 2007). Alongside physical mobility, virtual mobility has also increased due to technological advances which support and enable information flow (Bjarnason, 2007).

Second, due to the decline in government funding of higher education, many universities throughout the world have sought new ways of subsidising their own institutions

through exploring new modes of education via the use of technology (Bjarnason, 2007). For governments in general and institutions in particular, the application of IT in education saves money and gains additional income to make up for public funding losses (Bjarnason, 2007).

Third, the notion of lifelong learning also influences higher education since professionals in the knowledge economy are forced to continually upgrade their knowledge and understanding in their fields as a part of their ongoing development as professionals in the field (Bjarnason, 2007). The view of lifelong learning, according to Bjarnason (2007), creates a new term, namely “borderless-ness”, which reflects the removal of the impact of geological borders as well as the borders of time and space, if technology is applied in education (p. 379). Moreover, borderless education offers lifelong learners more opportunities to pursue their learning while still employed, due to access to online courses to re-train or obtain further credentials (Bjarnason, 2007).

Fourth, according to Affricano (2005), workers are in need of developing both technological and intercultural competence in the information age. Consequently, universities need to provide their graduates with “a more multi-cultural, multi-lingual, global perspective”, which enables graduates to become “more effective employees and more effective citizens” (Affricano, 2005, p. 66). In order to enable students to join the global community, universities utilise the latest technology to connect students and faculty, and also provide sites for students to communicate in their mother tongue or in a foreign language with other students, academics and experts throughout the world (Affricano, 2005; Kintu, Zhu, & Kagambe, 2017).

[IT application in higher education and different modes of learning](#)

The application of technology within higher education has significantly increased over the last two decades (Kirkwood & Price, 2014; Price & Kirkwood, 2014). Institutions find it costly to apply technology due to the associated requirements for infrastructure, equipment and technical support staff as well as in training staff and students to use technology for teaching and learning (Kirkwood & Price, 2014). The application of IT to teaching and learning creates a number of different learning modes such as distance learning (Altbach, 2007; Altbach & Knight, 2007), online learning (Monk et al., 2010), or blended learning (Kintu et al., 2017). Each learning mode evolving from the use of technology in education provides students with different learning experiences.

Distance education

The advent of a global education marketplace leads to various types of multinational higher education initiatives like cross-border higher education projects which can be conducted via the Internet or other means of distance education (Altbach, 2007). Furthermore, the emergence of distance education across secondary and tertiary education supports students who are unable to join campus-based classes, offering study opportunities to students off campus through media and two-way communication (Altbach, 2007; Monk et al., 2010). Distance education, although not a new phenomenon, now symbolises an alternative option in higher education, which is overwhelmingly influenced by IT, which in turn is playing a critical role in shaping teaching and learning as well as impacting the administration of universities and the growth of distance education (Altbach, 2007; Altbach & Knight, 2007; Kintu et al., 2017; Monk et al., 2010).

Online-learning mode

Online learning or virtual learning has gained in popularity in recent times mainly because of affordability and accessibility (Monk et al., 2010). Virtual learning offers a new experience, which learners may not be exposed to in traditional classes, including interactive experiences (Griffith-Boyes & Aberdour, 2013). Joining a virtual classroom, provides opportunities for learners to develop their problem-solving, critical thinking and collaborative skills in addition to bringing a sense of a learning community and the opportunity for collaboration with others, thus enhancing other twenty-first century skills (Garrison, 2011; Zygouris-Coe, 2012).

Blended-learning mode

Blended learning originates from the idea of combining online and in-class learning modes. The significant growth of blended learning in higher education over the last decade, has helped diminish a number of limitations associated with online learning and face-to-face instruction (Alammary, Sheard, & Carbone, 2014; Güzer & Caner, 2014). A blended synchronous learning model proposed by Hastie, Hung, Chen, and Kinshuk (2010) represents the integration of physical and cyber classroom settings, where lecturers and students within the same class or from a number of different classes interact, communicate and collaborate. According to Hastie et al. (2010), the interconnectivity and educational collaboration have been maximised using synchronous learning technologies and pedagogies.

Virtual world

The concept of virtual worlds has also surfaced in the last decade as a way of facilitating teaching and learning in higher education (F. Wang & Burton, 2013). While there have been divergent interpretations of the term 'virtual worlds' in literature, M.W. Bell's (2008) definition appears to be the most commonly used one (Girvan, 2018). As defined by (M. W. Bell, 2008), the notion of virtual world refers to "a synchronous, persistent network of people, represented as avatars, facilitated by networked computers (p. 2).

In the literature, recent research has focused on identifying the best pedagogical approaches and designing curriculum for the application of new types of technology in education. Virtual worlds are becoming more popular and are being widely used by young users for social and entertainment purposes (Steils, Tombs, Mawer, Savin-Baden, & Wimpenny, 2015). This raises debate about the inclusion of virtual worlds in education since future students will be increasingly accustomed to this kind of technology (Steils et al., 2015). Therefore, it has been argued that virtual worlds reflect a meaningful and creative use of technology in education (F. Wang & Burton, 2013).

Virtual mobility

Virtual mobility refers to cross-border educational interactions occurring in networks supported by technology (Sweeney, 2012). Through a technology supported learning environment, learners from different countries and cultures work or study together (Bijnens, Boussemaere, & Rajagopal, 2006). In the literature, divergent terminologies are used to describe this mode of education (Villar-Onrubia & Rajpal, 2015), which has a major aim of increasing the enrichment of intercultural competence and knowledge exchange (Bijnens et al., 2006). As Villar-Onrubia and Rajpal (2015) claim, virtual mobility is considered a practical and useful way of enhancing students' international experience, intercultural competence and digital skills as well as playing a role in the implementation of internationalisation at home. While it is not a new idea to internationalise the curriculum through the adoption of online technologies, some universities have regarded the Internet as a critical tool for enhancing international experience through virtual classrooms involving participants from different countries (Villar-Onrubia & Rajpal, 2015).

In summary, Information and Communication Technology (ICT)/online learning has expanded the access to higher education and become a fundamental element of academic transformation in the twenty-first century (Yemini & Sagie, 2016). It is claimed that ICTs have

played a distinctive role in the internationalisation of higher education (Yemini & Sagie, 2016), bringing universities numerous opportunities to internationalise the curriculum (Leask, 2004), offer students new learning experiences (Steils et al., 2015) and develop the key attributes of global graduates (Villar-Onrubia & Rajpal, 2015).

2.1.2.6 Internationalisation strategies in higher education.

Although now more than two decades old, van der Wende's (1994) ideas on internationalisation strategies still resonate. He emphasised the importance of influencing education at the micro, medio and macro level. According to van der Wende (1994), the micro level refers to the teaching and learning process in the classroom, the medio level concerns the factors determining the content and methods of teaching and learning or the curriculum and the macro level consists of the definition and decision-making in terms of institutional policies and strategies.

As presented in the educational literature, a considerable effort has been made to provide an inclusive overview of the development and the use of terms related to internationalisation in higher education. For example, de Wit (2002) discusses such terms as internationalisation, international education, and comparative education while Ziguras (2011) considers the notion of 'transnational education'. Likewise, J. Knight (2013) reviews recently related terms including 'cross-border education', 'borderless education' or 'transnational education' and 'internationalisation at home'. Among those, the two concepts of cross-border education and internationalisation at home are considered part of a noteworthy development in conceptualising the term 'internationalisation' (Nilsson, 2003). J. Knight (2013) argues that they are frequently the preferred strategies used by universities in the process of internationalising their institutions.

Cross-border education.

The term cross-border education evolved from the internationalisation process and refers to different kinds of academic mobility, including mobility of people, programmes, providers, projects, and policies as well as the mobility of knowledge, values, ideas and innovation (J. Knight, 2013). Over the last decade, it has been possible to observe the emergence of a completely new group of terms that had not been actively present in the debate on the internationalisation of higher education. These are more related to the cross-border delivery of education and are seen as a consequence of the impact of globalisation on higher education. Globalisation and internationalisation could also be perceived as

underpinning the introduction of new types of education such as borderless education, education across borders, global education, offshore education or transnational education (de Wit, 2011; J. Knight, 2013; Ziguras, 2011).

These education types are promoted by governments throughout the world dependent upon each government's strategies for developing their own nations. For instance, as Ziguras (2011) asserts, numerous governments have implemented transnational education as a means for rapidly supplementing and assisting in building "the capacity of the domestic higher education systems" (p. 171). According to Ziguras and McBurnie (2011b), transnational education typically reflects "a partnership between an institution that awards the qualification (usually an Anglophone university) and a local institution" (p. 109). The awarding institutions support the local ones in terms of providing curriculum or sending academics to teach some intensive courses at the local institution's campus while other courses are delivered by local academics who follow the course materials closely (Ziguras & McBurnie, 2011b). For some partnership agreements, the "twinning" arrangement is established so that students can enrol in the first part of their program at the local institution while the rest is completed at the awarding institution (Ziguras & McBurnie, 2011b, p. 109). Transnational education, an important concept in this thesis, is defined below and is considered to have specific relevance for the two programs examined in this thesis.

Transnational education.

'Transnational education' is defined as "all types of higher education study programs, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based" (UNESCO & Council of Europe, 2003). Transnational education is also considered to be "a mainstay international development strategy" employed by higher education institutions who desire to promote "their programs offshore either through partnerships, or international campuses" (Clarke et al., 2016, p. 367).

In the literature, transnational education has been categorised into major types including articulation (Chen, 2015; Francois, 2016); validation (Francois, 2016; Hart, 2019), and international branch campus (IBC) (Altbach, 2011; Becker, 2015). According to Chen (2015), articulation refers to "systematic recognition by an institution from the degree offering country of specified courses/programs/study at an institution in another country as partial credit towards a program at the offering institution" (p. 634). As such, the FTU-CSU

program in this study represented an articulation model as students were originally enrolled with FTU (the host institution); but transferred to study at CSU (the provider institution) in order to gain a degree granted by CSU.

Validation involves the provider institution of a country signing an agreement with a host institution in other country to implement a transnational program in which the host institution “develops a program, and teaches the course” while the provider institution “assesses the curriculum and quality of the program developed by the host institution, and decides to grant degrees to students based on the results of such assessment” (Francois, 2016, p. 9). As such, the FTU-LMET program examined in this study demonstrated a validation model as FTU developed and taught the courses while LMET assessed the curriculum, teaching and assessment and monitored the quality of the program in order to grant the degree to students.

The international branch campus (IBC) (Althach, 2011, Becker, 2015) refers to provision of a program fully undertaken at “an offshore entity of a higher education institution operated by the institution or through a joint venture in which the institution is a partner” (Becker, 2015, p. 3). The degree is then awarded from the foreign institution. This model of transnational education was not examined in this thesis.

A number of critical issues related to transnational education have been highlighted in the current literature including curriculum design, quality assurance, management of transnational teaching team in terms of teaching, learning, assessment and PD for transnational educators or development of partnership and collaboration (Clarke et al., 2016; Dunn & Wallace, 2008; Keevers et al., 2014; K. Smith, 2010; Leask, 2008a; Leask, Hicks, & Kohler, 2005; McBurnie, 2008; Stella, 2006; Ziguras, 2008).

In terms of curriculum design, some scholars highlighted the need for adaptation and localisation in transnational programs to accomplish equivalence and curriculum alignment (Clarke et al., 2016; Dunn & Wallace, 2008; McBurnie, 2008; K. Smith, 2010; Stella, 2006; Ziguras, 2007, 2008). For instance, adapting, collaborating and designing culturally considered subjects is important (K. Smith, 2010), as is designing and delivering curriculum and assessment for “localized (yet) international” content and teaching approach (Dunn & Wallace, 2008, p. 249). According to Stella (2006), though transnational programs are customised to match students’ culture and learning context, they subsequently aim to provide students with ‘equivalent’ or ‘comparable’ outcomes (p. 269).

Quality assurance of transnational programs is another key issue. For instance, UNESCO and the OECD (2005) developed a code of good practice for transnational education to guide governments and providers. Transnational providers are therefore responsible for “the quality as well as the social, cultural and linguistic relevance of no matter where or how it is delivered” (UNESCO and OECD, 2005, p. 14). According to Chapman and Pyvis (2012), transnational providers have to concentrate on teaching quality and assuring good educational practice in order to succeed in transnational education. More importantly, quality assurance alongside the issue of equivalence are regarded as vital factors in the emerging transnational education field (McBurnie, 2008). Therefore, Dunn and Wallace (2008) argue that “quality assurance guidelines tend to require that transnational programs have equivalent curriculum and similar standards for both onshore and offshore cohorts” (p. 253).

Managing international teaching teams, which necessarily includes “subject coordinators, lecturers, tutors, demonstrators and assessors, ...all those teaching and assessing in the subject across all sites” (Keevers et al., 2014, p. 233), can present a range of issues. These are particularly in relation to PD needs (Clarke et al., 2016; Gribble and Ziguas, 2003; Hicks & Jarrett, 2008; Leask, 2008a; Leask et al., 2005; Ziguas, 2008) and the development of communities of practice (e.g. Clarke et al., 2016; Dunn & Wallace, 2008; Pyvis & Chapman, 2004). Hicks and Jarrett (2008) argue that PD and support offered to transnational teaching teams needs to go beyond information provision and be multi-dimensional and context sensitive. As transnational teaching teams typically include fly-in lecturers and local teaching staff, the establishment of communities of practice encourages academics to scrutinise their experiences, expertise and insights (Pyvis & Chapman, 2004). Moreover, global collegial relationships can be established for “mutually beneficial professional exchange”, even through online platforms such as email and Skype, although power dynamics can also result in tensions (Clarke et al., 2016, p. 369).

Establishing partnerships and collaboration is another critical issue being explored in the transnational education arena. As Ziguas (2008) argues, successful transnational education programs require affordability, reputability and provision of services and qualities which students value most” (p. 49). It is therefore noted that the host institution’s demonstrated capability generally influences the level of involvement of the provider institution (Ziguas, 2007). For instance, some provider institutions engage in the process of selecting and/or approving offshore teaching staff while others allow the host institution to

“appoint staff based on agreed prerequisites that are written into agreements between the institutions” (Ziguras, 2007, p. 21).

Apart from establishing partnerships with reputable partners, sustainability is enhanced through strong academic relationships between the provider and the host institution (Hart, 2019). In order to build a teaching culture that is collaborative, a number of provider institutions typically send their teaching and administrative staff to the host institution to introduce their educational culture as well as to provide the host institution with “intensive training” (Ziguras, 2007, p. 22). The collaborative bringing together of both teaching and administrative staff helps in the identification of “strengths and limitations of the curriculum design and delivery” (Clarke et al., 2016, p. 373). As such staff in all locations are able to play their part in developing the material they are teaching, as well as becoming involved in evaluation and review processes to make meaningful contributions to “the future development of adaptable curriculum materials” and reviewing any “changes to fixed curriculum materials” (Clarke et al., 2016, p. 373). Thus, researchers argue that there should be a close working relationship between the provider and host institutions not only at the level of management but at the level of teaching staff as well (Clark et al., 2016; Ziguras, 2007).

Internationalisation at home.

The globalisation and internationalisation also lead to the notion of internationalisation at home (de Wit, 2011). Internationalisation at home entails internationalisation of the curriculum, or internationalisation of the teaching and learning process, which de Wit (2011) explains, has been as relevant as the traditional focus on mobility, “both degree mobility and mobility as part of one’s home degree” (p. 242). In reality, not all students have opportunities to experience study abroad or international mobility (Trahar & Hyland, 2011). Hence, there is a call for developing international knowledge and competences for those who remain non-mobile (Crowther et al., 2000; Trahar & Hyland, 2011; Wächter, 2003). According to J. Knight (2013), internationalisation at home responds to the above-mentioned call since it targets “the development of intercultural understanding skills, language training, and comparative studies” (p. 85). It refers to the integration of “an international and intercultural dimension into curricular and extra-curricular activities” and the “relationships with local cultural community groups” (J. Knight, 2013, p. 85). More importantly, Harrison (2015) stresses that internationalisation at home is variously

epitomised to mean a curriculum which is altered to benefit international students or designed to enhance international involvement of home students.

In summary, in an increasingly globalised world, internationalisation in higher education is considered as having a significant impact on the higher education system worldwide. Consequently, most universities around the globe are making substantial efforts to develop policies and strategies for internationalisation. Various approaches to internationalisation have been used by universities including internationalising the curriculum which is also known as internationalisation at home (Edwards, Crosling, Petrovic-Lazarovic, & O'Neill, 2003; J. Knight, 2004, 2013; Leask, 2009, 2013a). The following section discusses the notion of curriculum in higher education and curriculum development *vis-à-vis* the internationalisation trends in higher education.

2.2 Curriculum in higher education

Curriculum may be one of the most important products higher education institutions provide for their customers (Barnett, Parry, & Coate, 2001); however, numerous definitions and meanings have been attributed to the term 'curriculum' in higher education settings (Barnett et al., 2001). According to O'Neill (2015), curriculum is greatly impacted by the social, physical, economic and cultural settings and these influences can be categorised into international, national, institutional and programme/discipline contexts. Those contextual layers are continually varying and distinctively depend on the programme, time, place and people involved (O'Neill, 2015). Lattuca (2007) suggests the design of curriculum no longer targets a homogeneous population, arguing that in the age of mass higher education, our views about curricula should be changed because of student diversity, mobility and the trend towards globalisation. In brief, changes in social, cultural, political and economic needs have led to the changes in educational purposes, thus influencing curricula throughout the history of higher education (Lattuca, 2007).

2.2.1 Defining curriculum.

There have been divergent views on the meaning of curriculum. For instance, Toohey (1999) defines curriculum as a process of making decisions about educational objectives and identifying best ways of accomplishing educational targets. Curriculum is also considered an educational project, which shapes identities established in three domains: knowledge, action and self (Barnett et al., 2001). In other cases, the word curriculum refers to a set of lessons in

a course or set of courses in a program in which interactions between instructors and learners occur, and through which the content of the knowledge is acquired (Lattuca, 2007).

In the literature, there are different ways of conceptualising curricula. Adamson and Morris (2014) highlight seven broad conceptions of curricula initially identified by Marsh and Willis (1995), with each conception referring to a specific educational view. These views include the classical heritage view, established knowledge view, social utility, planned learning, experienced learning, personal transformation and life experiences. Curricula based on these views show different emphases. Curricula stemming from the first two views focus on the content of what is taught. Meanwhile, curricula based on the third and fourth views are concerned with education goals. Curricula linked with the last three views concentrate on the processes of change experienced by those participating in educational activities (Adamson & Morris, 2014).

However, Lawton (1983) refers to two main ways of conceptualising curriculum as being either narrow or broad. In a narrow view of curriculum, the curriculum refers to specific taught content (the knowledge in disciplines) over the course of study. Curriculum in a broader view is related to the whole educational experience including the knowledge content, the methods of instruction, and the socio-cultural and ideological contexts in which the teaching and learning takes place (Barnett, 2000; Lawton, 1983; Print, 1987; Welikala, 2011). In this sense, curriculum is termed as “all the planned learning opportunities offered to learners by the educational institution” (Print, 1987, p. 4). It is defined by Print (1987) as “the experiences learners encounter when the curriculum is implemented” (p. 4).

In educational literature, some scholars stress the importance of educators’ understanding of curriculum and curriculum design since they believe that “our conceptions and ways of reasoning about curriculum reflect and shape how we see, think and talk about, study and act on the education” (Cornbleth, 1990, p. 12 cited in Fraser & Bosanquet, 2006, p. 282). These ways of thinking, according to Fraser and Bosanquet (2006), affect the kind of education provided to students. Their 2006 study, examining academics’ conceptions of curriculum, presents four main conceptions or understandings of curriculum. Curriculum is conceptualised as “the structure and content of a unit (subject); the structure and content of a programme of study; the students’ experience of learning; a dynamic and interactive process of teaching and learning” (Fraser & Bosanquet, 2006, p. 272).

The term 'curriculum' can be also conceptualised by taking into account the different components of curriculum. For instance, Kitano (1997) mentions four components namely content, instruction, assessment and classroom dynamics, which are evident in three levels of the course integration: exclusive, inclusive and transformed. In an 'exclusive course' the focus is on knowledge content in the discipline without supporting students' participation and the role of the teacher in the instruction of knowledge is highlighted. In an 'inclusive course', curriculum is thought to facilitate active learning and promote students' participation in the acquisition and construction of knowledge. The 'transformed course' is reflected through the curriculum, which incorporates new teaching and learning methodology, scholarship and ways of knowing and thinking. This type of curriculum is designed to enhance students' engagement in the teaching and learning process as well as encourage their shared responsibility with teachers in designing curriculum (Kitano, 1997).

Kitano (1997) argues that the nature of the discipline and the instructors' multicultural goals influence their course choice by concentrating on one or more of the four-above mentioned components and setting an educational target level (inclusive or transformed). Academics' changes in defining and designing curriculum thus depend upon theories of teaching and learning (Kitano, 1997). Thus, curriculum can be defined in relation to different ideologies and educational pedagogies.

2.2.2 Curriculum models.

The issues in curriculum design have been taken into account in terms of the challenge of curriculum design (Ryan, 2000), the inclusion of international ideas, materials and student experience (Black, 2004) and the strategies or steps for curriculum design (Haigh, 2002, 2008). The following section provides an outline of curriculum models commonly highlighted in the education literature.

According to Fraser and Bosanquet (2006), curricula can be categorised into two models, namely the product model and the process model. In the product model, the curriculum is designed to accomplish the pre-specified learning outcomes while the process model concentrates on the learning conditions and experiences of teachers and learners, viewing them as subjects instead of objects with curriculum considered a continuing social process (Fraser & Bosanquet, 2006).

However, Takagi (2015) argues that the differentiation between the two models is not clear-cut because the two models, in practice, are interconnected despite some differences.

The product model focuses on plans and intentions while activities and effects are emphasised in the process model (Neary, 2003). Though the elements of both models appear to be inclusive in most programmes, a certain type of programme may concentrate more on one than the other (O'Neill, 2015).

Alongside the breakdown of curricula into product and process models, classification has also been based on approaches to curriculum design. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) classify curriculum development in terms of technical or non-technical approaches. In the Technical-Scientific approach, curriculum serves as a useful framework for shaping the learning environment (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). This approach is considered to be logical, efficient and effective in delivering education. Meanwhile, the non-technical approach is regarded as subjective, personal and aesthetic, placing an emphasis on the learner (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). There are also other curriculum models identified in the literature such as: the experiential and social crucial models proposed by Toohey (1999), Concept Curriculum by (Erickson, 2002), the Subject-Centred or Learner-Centred Models by Ornstein and Hunkins (2004), the Problem-Based Learning model by Barrett and Moore (2005) or the Outcomes-based education (OBE) models by Biggs (1999) and Fink (2013). This reflects the diversity of views on approaches to curriculum designs in the literature, suggesting that ideology and pedagogy in teaching and learning significantly impact on the design of the curriculum (Kitano, 1997), which then impacts on how this can be effectively internationalised.

2.2.2.1 Ideology and curriculum design.

According to Pan (2015) the term 'ideology' was originally coined by Destutt de Tracy in 1796, who argued that the formation of our conceptions about the world are not shaped by God or the state, but dependent on our upbringing and experiences. In educational literature, the various conceptions of curriculum appear to stem from social ideologies, reflecting normative views and beliefs about the preferred schooling role in society, the construction of knowledge and learning, and the role of teachers and learners in the learning process (Adamson & Morris, 2014).

Adamson and Morris (2014) summarise six different ideologies influencing curriculum design and implementation as follows. First, academic rationalism is an ideology, which appears to focus on the differences among components of the curriculum instead of making cross-curricular connections. In this viewpoint, learners often take a passive role in the teaching-learning process.

The second ideology known as social and economic efficiency perceives developing human capital as the central role of education. This design of the curriculum aims to prepare responsible citizens with the necessary attributes to enable them to contribute to the economic development and the prosperity of the society. Learners also have a chance to obtain a certain level of autonomy in the teaching and learning (Adamson & Morris, 2014).

Social reconstructionism is the third ideology, viewing education as a tool for creating social change and improvement. Social issues such as social injustice, problems and inequities become the pivotal focus of the curriculum, with learners participating actively through scrutinising and exploring solutions to social problems (Adamson & Morris, 2014).

The fourth ideology is orthodoxy, which regards the principal function of education as the proliferation of a specific convention. Through the curriculum, learners are introduced to a major belief system such as a religious or a political one, but the expectation is for passive and uncritical acceptance and adherence to the advocated beliefs and practices (Adamson & Morris, 2014).

Progressivism, the fifth ideology places learners in the centre of the teaching and learning process. The learner-centred curriculum emphasises the individual's needs, interests and abilities, and is often associated with constructivist models of learning, which motivates the development of learner autonomy (Adamson & Morris, 2014).

The final ideology, known as cognitive pluralism, views the curriculum as a means of catering for multiple forms of intelligence as well as various competencies and attitudes. Learners are expected to learn in a number of diverse ways so that they are skilled to deal with the demands of ever-changing environments (Adamson & Morris, 2014).

In summary, curriculum often represents a multifaceted set of tensions and contradictions formed by ideological, historical and educational forces (A. Luke, 2008). This needs to be considered when examining internationalisation approaches used by universities such as FTU.

2.2.2.2 Ideology, academics and curriculum design.

Alongside the investigation of the link between ideology and different types of curriculum, another stream of the curriculum literature explores the influences and ideologies shaping educators' curriculum decisions (Toohey, 1999; Trowler, 1998). According to Roberts (2015) a review of literature demonstrates that what mostly influences the curriculum is the teachers' beliefs about educational aims and goals, the content knowledge and discipline,

teacher identity and the teaching and learning process. In her study, Roberts (2015) concluded that teachers' beliefs about educational purposes coincide with their beliefs about other vital influences to generate a rational alignment with curriculum decisions.

The impact of ideology on curriculum design and development shapes the ways educators define the meanings of curriculum. Yates (2009) refers to curriculum as "embracing situated enactments of teaching and learning and assessment in the classroom" as well as being "a process in which particular selections, values and ideologies of the social and cultural whole were being given a new status" (p. 18).

Education has also been linked to cultural studies and identities, through a culturally responsive pedagogy where the curriculum offers learners chances to understand their own and others culture (Wlodkowski & Ginsberg, 1995). Curriculum, in a culturally responsive pedagogy, is concerned with the respect of diversity; the inclusion of learners' motivation; the creation of a safe, inclusive, and respectful learning environment; the teaching practices across disciplines and cultures; and the promotion of justice and equity in society (Wlodkowski & Ginsberg, 1995).

Other educational socialists emphasise the role of social, cultural, political, and economic conditions and how these influence curriculum and curriculum design. These writers call for another type of pedagogy and curriculum known as 'critical pedagogy' and curriculum (Ellsworth, 1989; Freire, 1998; Giroux, 1988; Kincheloe, 2008; C. Luke & Gore, 2014; McLaren, 1998; Wink, 2005). According to critical pedagogues, curriculum should aim at endorsing students' ability to think critically about their learning context (Freire, 1998). Those with this educational ideology support a liberal education in which students are encouraged to identify their individual problems and experiences as well as the social contexts to which they are exposed (Freire, 1998; McLaren, 1998; Wink, 2005).

However, other educators claim to support 'cosmopolitanism', another ideology applicable to a 'global' education, which values the notion that "all human ethnic groups belong to a single community based on shared ethics" (Sparapani, Callejo Perez, Gould, Hillman, & Clark, 2014, p. 2). Proponents of this ideology perceive curriculum as a global concept associated with "a cosmopolitan community" (Sparapani et al., 2014, p. 2).

In summary, different ideologies lead to the development of different types of curriculum in literature. As such, it is worth considering whether there were ideological confinements for those working in the FTU programs.

2.2.3 Pedagogy and curriculum design.

Another approach in conceptualising curriculum in higher education is based on the relationship between curriculum and the divergent theories of teaching and learning or educational pedagogies. According to Dambudzo (2015), pedagogy not only refers to the way the curriculum is taught but it also concerns all the methodological aspects of learning and teaching. It appears likely that different perceptions of curriculum originated from different perspectives on teaching and learning. As the literature indicates, theories of teaching and learning have a significant influence on educational pedagogy and curriculum (Magolda, 1999). For instance, 'constructive-developmentalism' is a theory of teaching and learning, which gives birth to a constructive developmental pedagogy. In this kind of pedagogy, curriculum is designed to enable students to construct knowledge by organising and making meaning of their experiences. The students' construction of knowledge is closely associated with the context of their assumptions about knowledge and their creation of knowledge (Magolda, 1999).

The concept of linking curriculum with pedagogy was proposed by Kalantzis and Cope, (2012) who perceive education as learning, which is intentionally designed and involves learning activities and the activity sequences for knowing, together with a narrative structure for the purpose of building knowledge and knowledge making capabilities. Curriculum is seen, therefore, as a larger framework for learning related to the design of programs or course of study. It bonds "the micro-sequences of pedagogy together into the larger frameworks" of courses, subjects and disciplines (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 278).

Kalantzis and Cope (2012) describe three types of curriculum related to learning and teaching approaches including mimesis, synthesis and reflexivity. The first, "mimetic curriculum" is one in which students learn by copying, memorising facts, replicating theories and absorbing canonical knowledge (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 277). This type of curriculum could be said to have a close link with the traditional instructional approach, which views learners as passive recipients of information (Segers, Dochy, & De Corte, 1999). The second, "synthetic curriculum" allows learners to deconstruct then reconstruct knowledge and reflect their subjectivity, perspective and identity (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 277). Finally, "reflexive curriculum" educates learners to become more active knowledge makers who are able to move between different ways of knowing and be engaged in the negotiation process of curriculum design between "teacher-expert" and "learner-novice" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p.

277). This kind of curricula could also be named “co-created curricula” as proposed by scholars who favour critical pedagogy (Darder, Baltodano, & Torres, 2003; Rudduck & Fielding, 2006).

2.2.4 Different types of pedagogy and curriculum design.

Different types of pedagogy such as critical pedagogy (Ghaemi & Sadeghi, 2015), culturally responsive pedagogy (Boon & Lewthwaite, 2015) or intercultural competence pedagogy (Byram, 2008; Witte & Harden, 2011) are generally linked with differing types of curriculum design, reflecting a diversity of teaching and learning philosophies. The following sections will discuss eight different types of pedagogy in relation to curriculum design.

2.2.4.1 Critical pedagogy and curriculum design.

Although Marxism is considered as the first foundation of critical pedagogy that views socioeconomic inequality as the primary social problem (Shabani & Khorsandi, 2014), Paulo Freire (1970) is generally known as the father of critical pedagogy (Ghaemi & Sadeghi, 2015). According to Ghaemi and Sadeghi (2015), knowledge is viewed by Freire to be not neutral but influenced, and subsequently influencing the political and social relationships in society. Therefore, Ghaemi and Sadeghi (2015) assert that the pedagogy proposed by Freire includes three main principles: “1) there is no teaching without learning, 2) teaching is not just transferring knowledge, 3) teaching is a human act” (p. 245). Furthermore, it is argued that Freire viewed teachers together with their students as creators of their own knowledge and reality (Duncan-Andrade & Morrell, 2008).

2.2.4.2 Portal Pedagogy and curriculum design.

Responding to a perceived need for a more flexible, meaningful and globalised learning experience, Monk et al. (2010) developed the Portal Pedagogy approach, which provides an alternative option in education, including components of both student exchange and virtual-learning models. Monk et al. (2010) argue that the Portal Pedagogy enables geographically distant students to be connected through technology as the curriculum is designed to create a student-centred community of inquiry, not restricted by disciplines or countries. Students in this community are exposed to an international experience and meaningful shared learning experiences created by the distinctive physical and disciplinary milieu, in which they participate (Monk et al., 2010).

2.2.4.3 Culturally responsive pedagogy and curriculum design.

Another pedagogy outlined in the literature is culturally responsive pedagogy (CRP), which originates from Vygotsky's theory about the role of community (Boon & Lewthwaite, 2015). According to Boon and Lewthwaite (2015), Vygotsky argued that community played a central role in the process of "making meaning" and highlighted the dominant role of "social interaction in the development of cognition" (p. 39). CRP consists of three major dimensions: institutional, personal, and instructional (Richards, Brown, & Forde, 2007). It aims to develop skills and knowledge that are indispensable in becoming critical thinkers, with students learning to make and implement reflective decisions in both personal and social actions (Kim & Slapac, 2015).

2.2.4.4 Intercultural competence pedagogy and curriculum design.

Intercultural competence pedagogy, which is proposed by scholars such as Byram (2008) or Witte and Harden (2011) refers to a pedagogy that enables learners to get critically involved through experiential, explorative and holistic activities (Corder & U-Mackey, 2015). In other words, learners have a chance to be engaged in intercultural interactions and interactive discussions, which allow them to share their different world views and critical reflection (Deardorff, 2011). Corder and U-Mackey (2015) suggest that intercultural pedagogy reflects the engagement of international perspectives or alternative epistemic views in the curriculum. Those who support this pedagogy believe that the curriculum should involve an adaptation of teaching styles to the students' diverse learning approaches (Welikala, 2011).

2.2.4.5 The pedagogy of encounter and curriculum design.

The pedagogy of encounter brings about another form of curriculum known as a multi-perspective curriculum. This type of curriculum originates from the notion that learners are an active and diverse student group who offer multiple perspectives about knowledge making and pedagogy. Thus, multi-perspective curriculum may vary according to disciplines and participants (Welikala, 2011).

2.2.4.6 The pedagogy of a critical global education and curriculum design.

The pedagogy of a critical global education is linked with the proposal of global education (Reynolds & Chambers, 2015). According to Subedi (2010) the curriculum nurturing critical dialogue and action on global issues is called a critical global education. This type of curriculum, as Merryfield (2008) suggests, aims to enable students to understand unequal global relationships and the power and privilege through the examination of historical factors.

Based on a reflective ethical perspective, this curriculum approach provides students with opportunities to understand issues beyond the nation state and to value marginalised knowledge originating from third world traditions and perspectives (Merryfield, 2008).

2.2.4.7 Negotiated pedagogy and curriculum design.

Scholars in favour of personalised learning approaches propose a negotiated curriculum. For example, Yuksel (2010) argues that the notion of a negotiated curriculum originates from the viewpoint that students should be engaged in the curriculum design process. Indeed, they should be allowed to make choices and selection decisions in terms of curricular objectives, content knowledge, in-class learning activities, extra-curricular activities, methodology, resources, materials, and assessment procedures (Yuksel, 2010). In this context, the stakeholders including the institution, the educator and the students collaborate to design the curriculum. The activity of designing the curriculum occurs in situations such as finding a solution for a business problem in a real firm, where all stakeholders are willing to get involved in the curriculum design process and be prepared to share risks and responsibilities (Yuksel, 2010).

2.2.4.8 IT application in education: new pedagogy and liquid curricula.

Another new type of pedagogy proposed by Steils et al. (2015) relates to the notion of using virtual worlds (VWs) as a novel teaching and learning approach. Steils et al. (2015) argue that for the enhancement of learning and teaching, through educational technologies like VVs, the “liquid curricula” discussed by (Savin-Baden, 2008, p. 158) could be implemented. The development of ‘liquid curricula’, which concern standpoints and experiences of students and teachers would offer open and flexible ways of designing modules and lessons, going beyond the “open courseware and closed virtual learning environments” currently offered by many universities (Steils et al., 2015, p. 155). Within this curriculum framework learning is generated from a constellation of uncertainties, such as negotiated assessment, as well as open and flexible learning intentions (Steils et al., 2015).

In summary, the type of pedagogy utilised in an educational program influences curriculum design. It is therefore worth examining what types of pedagogy were used when developing the curriculum for the two examined programs in this study.

2.3 Curriculum development *vis-à-vis* internationalisation trends in higher education

J. Knight (2013) emphasises that although the term ‘internationalisation’ has been conceptualised in political science and governmental relations for years, the notion of

internationalisation in the education sector has been in existence since the early 1980s. Prior to this time, the favoured term used in the education field was 'international education' (J. Knight, 2004). In the 1980s, internationalisation in higher education was mainly concerned with students and academics crossing borders for high quality education and experiences (Waterval, Frambach, Driessen, & Scherpbier, 2015). The curriculum during this period was focused on the acquisition of knowledge in disciplines, together with the development of foreign language competence and academic study skills which are essential for successful education abroad (J. Knight, 2004; Waterval et al., 2015).

A decade later, internationalisation in higher education witnessed the movement across borders of programs/courses and materials or curricula (J. Lane, 2011). The proposal for global curricula or globalised curricula gained in popularity in 1990s. According to Sparapani and his associates (2014), a global curriculum currently refers to a concept associated with "a cosmopolitan community" (p. 2). Another trend in internationalisation in higher education related to social and cultural issues during the 1990s, resulting in the emergence of multicultural curriculum or intercultural curriculum in the educational literature (Wlodkowski & Ginsberg, 1995).

Internationalisation in higher education has "become more central on the agenda of international organisations and national governments, institutions of higher education" (de Wit, 2011, p. 241). However, the reality is that not all students have the chance to become exchange students and undertake courses in western countries (Trahar, 2013a) and many actually prefer to remain in their home country for the entirety of their study (Crowther et al., 2000). This trend, as some scholars argue, leads to the need for established educational institutions to internationalise their curricula, as a result of the movement from internationalisation abroad to internationalisation at home (J. Knight, 2013; Trahar, 2013a).

2.3.1 Internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC).

Similar to other aspects of globalisation, internationalising the curriculum permeates mostly from North to South (Altbach, 2007; Leask, 2015). It is argued that the growing trend toward internationalising the curriculum has brought about opportunities to re-examine the broader goals of education and to "question the increasingly reductionist employability agenda" (Clifford & Montgomery, 2014, p. 29).

In the literature, there have been numerous studies on internationalisation of institutions and the curriculum. Some scholars examine the internationalisation of specific

institutions (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) while others explore the internationalisation of the curriculum with reference to a specific discipline (Edwards et al., 2003; Svensson & Wihlborg, 2010). Some research involves empirical studies on the influence of academic staff on IoC (Leask, 2013c; Wamboye, Adekola, & Baldwin, 2014), while other studies examine the complicated process of internationalisation and the challenges facing those involved (Childress, 2010; Egron-Polak, Hudson, & Gacel-Avila, 2010; P. Knight, Tait, & Yorke, 2006; Leask & Beelen, 2010; Stohl, 2007; Wamboye et al., 2014)

2.3.1.1 Defining internationalisation of the curriculum.

Leask and Bridge (2013) argue that internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) is one of the educational responses to the globalisation phenomenon. According to Wamboye, Adekola, and Sergi (2015), internationalising academic institutions and the curriculum are seen as crucial components of any university's globalisation strategy. Universities with a strategic educational goal of educating lifelong learners, leaders, and global citizens, are likely to define internationalisation of the curriculum as inclusive of all learning experiences facilitating students' development of global and intercultural competencies (Woodruff, Martin, & O'Brien, 2015). Those learning experiences may occur on campus, in overseas study programs or in local communities through a service learning agenda or they may occur in informal settings on campus through the use of technology to connect with students and communities from different nations (Woodruff et al., 2015).

A review of literature shows that an interest in research on internationalisation of the curriculum has ranged from the exploration of the meanings of IoC, the strategies and approaches to IoC, the influence of the disciplines and academic staff on IoC and the factors influencing IoC implementation. In educational literature, terms such as international curriculum, intercultural curriculum, internationalisation of the curriculum and internationalised curriculum have elicited confusion among researchers (Dunne, 2011). According to Dunne (2011), these terms all have a close association with internationalising curriculum topics as well as the internationalisation trends over the past three decades.

International curriculum has been defined as curriculum with "an international orientation in content, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally/socially) in an international and multicultural context, and designed for domestic students as well as foreign students" (IDP Education Australia [IDP], 1995, p. 1). Intercultural curriculum, on the

other hand, is regarded as a curriculum with intercultural dimensions (Crichton & Scarino, 2007), which helps students develop intercultural competence (Dunne, 2011).

Internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) represents joining “two fuzzy, ideologically laden terms: internationalisation and curriculum” (W. Green & Whitsed, 2012, p. 150) and appears to be the most difficult to define (Leask & Beelen, 2010). According to Leask (2005), when referring to IoC, the term ‘internationalised curriculum’ is often coined. In the literature, many definitions of IoC have developed reflecting various understandings and activities with regard to the notion of internationalisation (Leask, 2005). It could be said that IoC has different meanings for different people (Leask, 2013a).

If IoC is perceived as a product, an internationalised curriculum is defined as one that “gives international and intercultural knowledge and abilities, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally, socially, emotionally) in an international and multicultural context” (Nilsson, 2003, p. 31). This type of curriculum is inclusive of both international and intercultural dimensions. Also, when IoC aims at graduate attributes as learning outcomes, an internationalised curriculum is one utilising “a wide variety of teaching and learning strategies, all carefully selected and constructed to develop graduates who as professionals and as citizens can call on a range of international perspectives” (Leask, 2005, p. 119).

Another perspective on IoC suggests it should be seen as a complex process with different objectives, functions and forms of delivery, involving three dimensions known as international, global and intercultural (J. Knight, 2004). Within this perspective, an “internationalised curriculum will engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity. It will “purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens” (Leask, 2009, p. 209). Leask (2009) refers to internationalisation of the curriculum as “the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning arrangements and support services of a program of study” (p. 209). Leask’s (2009) definition has become a heavily cited one in research on IoC, to date. According to Stütz and his colleagues (2015), this definition covers an “all-encompassing approach to curriculum internationalisation” (p. 3), a definition not exclusively referring to the inclusion of international and intercultural dimensions (Caruana, 2010; Jones & Killick, 2007; Leask, 2009; Stütz et al., 2015). An internationalised curriculum in this sense also emphasises the process of teaching and learning that brings about specific outcomes for students and

highlights students' engagement as a more active approach to IoC (Leask, 2013b; Leask & Carroll, 2011; Stütz et al., 2015). It takes into account "the formal curriculum (the syllabus and the planned experiences and activities that students undertake) as well as the informal curriculum and the hidden curriculum" (Leask & Bridge, 2013, pp. 81-82)

2.3.1.2 Different approaches to IoC.

It is a complicated and multi-faceted task to interpret and implement the internationalisation of curricula (Takagi, 2015). In the literature, many attempts have been made to develop models and typologies of the curriculum internationalisation process (Chan & Dimmock, 2008; Edwards et al., 2003; Takagi, 2015). Some models and typologies have offered a framework to measure the outcomes of the internationalisation efforts (Wamboye et al., 2015) and the process for IoC implementation (Leask & Bridge, 2013; Takagi, 2015).

For example, recent research conducted by Takagi (2015) examined the development of a framework for IoC. Takagi (2015) argues that the multi-faceted and divergent perspectives on IoC signify two distinctive notions known as 'internationalisation' and 'curriculum' and therefore proposes a conceptual framework for IoC, created through the combination of two approaches to internationalisation and two models of curriculum. In his study, Takagi (2015) combined the competition-type and cooperation-type approaches to internationalisation with the product and process curriculum models to shape the conceptual framework of IoC. The four patterns outlined within Takagi's (2015) proposed conceptual framework for IoC are described as follows.

In the Competitive-Product pattern, Takagi (2015) argues that IoC is regulated by pragmatic-based rationales for satisfying the needs of external stakeholders including governments and the market. Universities following this pattern, view the curricula and learners as "competitive products or human and economic capital" (p. 352) therefore, IoC emphasises education for the knowledge economy. While students are expected to acquire specific knowledge and skills enabling their professional development, teachers are required to outline clearly stated outcomes on course syllabi (Takagi, 2015). Educators are also responsible for instructing students to accomplish pre-specified targets through the prescriptive, rigid and linear technical procedures, which require behavioural orthodoxy and compliance (Takagi, 2015).

In the Cooperative-Process pattern, IoC is shaped by value-based rationales originating from internal visions, which predominantly focus on social, cultural and academic

cooperation (Takagi, 2015). According to Takagi (2015), internationalised curricula are seen as public goods, social and cultural capital, and cooperative processes, which cultivate intercultural exchange, networking and collaboration. In order to provide equal learning objectives and opportunities for both national and international students, the curricula are designed as one agenda. As this pattern stresses education for a global society, IoC aims to develop students' personal qualities as responsible citizens, reflecting long-term learning or a social process motivating "teachers and learners to interact, understand and empower each other" (Takagi, 2015, p. 355).

The Competitive-Process pattern is linked with IoC, which aims to develop learners' some of universities in Japan follow this pattern; IoC in such universities is promoted through the offer of English medium programmes, which provide both national and international students popular international modules. Those modules are designed to offer appropriate learning objectives and suitable matters of content to international and home students, with an aim to promote a multicultural campus and enhance the quality of both education and students. Thus, IoC implementation following this pattern does not focus on the attainment of managerial purposes (Takagi, 2015).

In summary, it would seem to be important for institutions to understand the complexity and diversity of the conceptualisations of IoC since this enables them to select appropriate approaches to internationalising the curriculum in their own contexts (Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada [AUCC], 2009). As outlined in the Chapter 1, for the purposes of this study, the definition of internationalisation of the curriculum proposed by Leask (2009) was adopted, namely:

Internationalisation of the curriculum is the incorporation of an international and inter-cultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning processes and support services of a program of study.

An internationalised curriculum will engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity. It will purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens. (p. 209)

The following section focuses on literature relating to the interrelationship of IoC with student learning, the disciplines and academics.

IoC and student learning.

Leask (2013b) claims that considerable attention has been paid to internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) and its connection to student learning. Indeed, the literature presents a range of divergent perspectives on IoC and student learning. Some narrow conceptions of IoC refer to an internationalised curriculum as one that requires international students to adjust to the expectations of western teaching and learning practices (Doherty & Singh, 2005). As a result, of this conception, Leask (2013b) suggests that numerous institutions have made substantial efforts to support international students to adapt to a new learning environment. Notably, a number of research studies undertaken in both western and non-western contexts report on international students' experience while disregarding the experience of local students (Castle & Kelly, 2004; Harman, 2005).

By contrast, those with a broader conceptual understanding of curriculum internationalisation suggest a curriculum for all students regardless of their "national, ethnic, cultural, social class/ caste or gender identities" (Haigh, 2002, p. 51). This broader conception supports living and working in "an internationalised" and "multicultural world" (Clifford, 2009b, p. 134) and prepares students to be global citizens capable of operating in a globalised world (E. Jones, 2013; Rhoads & Szelenyi, 2011; Rizvi & Lingard, 2009; Schuerholz-Lehr, 2007; Trahar, 2013a). Those who share this view argue that universities are not only responsible for educating students to become responsible citizens in culturally diverse societies but need to provide students with opportunities to develop as global-minded graduates who are prepared and able to integrate quickly into a multifarious and internationalised workplace (Diamond, Walkley, Forbes, Hughes, & Sheen, 2011). These skills are necessary due to the increasing complexity our world, such that Rajendran, Bryant, Buckley, and Jopp (2014) argue that educating students to develop a global perspective should be seen as a fundamental part of higher education.

Proponents of this notion focus on reporting both domestic and international students' perceptions of their experiences and engagement in IoC. They call for the curriculum to address the needs of both local and international students (Jones & Killick, 2013; Killick, 2006b; Leask, 2014; Sawir, 2013; Zimitat, 2008). Therefore, in order to provide both international and local students with an opportunity to be exposed to an international

experience, universities should be developing and implementing various types of IoC strategies at home or on campus, rather than only abroad (Villar-Onrubia & Rajpal, 2015). As suggested by Villar-Onrubia and Rajpal (2015), global graduates will possess discipline-specific knowledge and relevant employability skills, competency in intercultural exchanges and capability in technology use for communication and participation in distributed collaboration networks. This supports the argument expressed by Leask (2014), that an internationalised curriculum focusing on student learning is one that will “engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity and purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens” (p. 5).

Wamboye et al. (2015) indicate there are three levels that institutions should aim for in order to develop students’ international perspectives and international competence. The first level commences with arousing students’ interest in international issues, which can be achieved through the inclusion of international examples and perspectives into the curriculum. Building cross-cultural interactions among students is the second level of international competence, which can be promoted through formal and informal experiences of students on campus. The third level aims to immerse students in international settings in order to consolidate the students’ international literacy obtained from the two previous levels. At this level, students are able to function successfully in a new international professional setting, while still being attached to their home culture (Wamboye et al., 2015).

According to Leask (2014), an internationalised curriculum is a product - the end point, which focuses on the dynamic participation of students in the learning process in order to systematically and purposefully develop international and intercultural learning outcomes. The means used to achieve the above-mentioned end point is known as the process of internationalisation of the curriculum. In this sense, it refers to teaching, learning, assessment and content, which Leask (2014) defines as “the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching, learning, and assessment arrangements and support services of a program of study” (p. 5). In brief, both learning outcomes and learning inputs are taken into account in the process of IoC.

An internationalised curriculum focusing on student learning contains two distinctive characteristics (Leask, 2014). The first characteristic, defined by Leask (2014), is that learning will take place within “the context of the different cultures and practices of knowing, doing, and being in the disciplines”, while the second relates to the faculty without the experience,

skills, or knowledge essential for internationalising the curriculum, who “will be supported by expert facilitators in the process of defining intended internationalised learning outcomes and assisting all students to achieve them” (p. 6).

Proponents of a curriculum for all students generally explore such pedagogical issues as the development of both formal, informal and hidden/latent curriculum (Banks, 2001; Daniel, 2001; Jones & Killick, 2007; Leask & Bridge, 2013; LeBlanc, 2007). A focus on examining the inclusion of intercultural dimensions and intercultural learning in IoC has been taken by many current researchers (Beelen, 2007; Deardorff, 2006; Dunne, 2009; Edwards et al., 2003; Fitch & Desai, 2012; Killick, 2006a). However, other research has focused on the importance of preparing students to become global citizens through IoC (Haigh, 2014; L. Hanson, 2010; Leask, 2008b; Trahar, 2013a). Furthermore, the issues of developing graduate attributes as learning outcomes in an internationalised curriculum have been investigated (W. Green & Whitsed, 2012; Jones & Killick, 2007; Leask, Jones, & Killick, 2013) as has student engagement in IoC (Breit, Obijiofor, & Fitzgerald, 2013; Leask & Carroll, 2011).

Although there have been various interpretations of IoC, the emphasis on student learning appears to be the focus of the curriculum internationalisation process, with the emphasis on student learning, the disciplines and academic staff placed at the centre of IoC (Leask, 2014; Leask & Bridge, 2013).

IoC in different disciplines.

Internationalisation has a significant influence on the higher education agenda at an institutional level. As such, it seems to be increasingly important to understand the meaning of this term in specific disciplines due to the changeability between different disciplines in their inclination to pursue internationalisation objectives (Clifford, 2009a).

Over the last twenty years, much debate has arisen over the concepts of internationalisation/globalisation and their association with the curriculum internationalisation in different disciplinary contexts (Becher & Trowler, 2001; Clifford, 2009b; Leask, 2013c). According to Zimitat (2008), curriculum internationalisation does not just involve changes in content but also entails pedagogical changes enabling students to develop critical skills to facilitate their understanding of the forces shaping their discipline as well as enabling them to challenge conventional viewpoints.

It is argued that disciplinarity wields substantial power and impact upon the organisation and construction of knowledge (Klein, Fleck, & Wolfe, 1993). The disciplines are

regarded as the foundation of knowledge; thus, Leask and Bridge (2013) claim that the knowledge in and across disciplines is at the centre of IoC. However, others argue that little attention has been paid to examining the meanings of IoC in practice as well as the implementation and assessment of IoC within individual disciplines (Clifford, 2009b) or in particular levels within programs (Edwards et al., 2003). A number of studies have scrutinised the influence of isolated experiences of students, mostly disengaged from study programs, on learning (Leask, 2013b). Other researchers propose that the IoC should be conceived, approached and described at the disciplinary level since specific disciplines may require a particular approach to IoC (de Wit, 2011; Leask & Beelen, 2010).

There have been a number of studies on IoC in different disciplines. Some research is based on the early work of Becher (1989) that initially categorised disciplines into 4 main groups: “hard-pure,” “soft-pure,” “hard-applied,” and “soft-applied” (p. 10). Becher (1994) argues that discipline groups were seen as global communities, each of which possesses a unique culture, their own perception of the world, and their own ways of shaping or coping with the world. Therefore, some disciplines are more ‘open’ to internationalisation than others (Clifford, 2009b; Stohl, 2007). Some disciplines also “adopt a relatively narrow focus” without the presence of “intercultural and international perspectives, conceptualisations and data” (Bartell, 2003, p. 49).

Other research findings illustrate that “hard-pure” disciplines including chemistry and mathematics are less involved with IoC (Agnew, 2013; Clifford, 2009b). It would seem likely that the disciplines influence academic staff’s perceptions of IoC as well as their pedagogical practice (Clifford, 2009b; Sawir, 2011). Studies investigating strategies for the development of detailed curriculum internationalisation in programs such as Engineering (Bourn & Neal, 2008) and Medicine (L. Hanson, 2010) propose the notion of ‘de-westernisation of curriculum’ in disciplines like Tourism (Breit et al., 2013).

Though there have been a number of studies on IoC in different disciplines, the literature indicates that internationalising curriculum is most prevalent in economics and business disciplines (van der Wende, 1996) and in the schools of business and commerce (Crosling et al., 2008; Crosling & Martin, 2005; Edwards et al., 2003). Indeed, business schools tend to play a fundamental role in equipping students with an appropriate global mindset, knowledge base and skills (Kedia, Harveston, & Bhagat, 2001) so that their students can deal with the challenges of engaging in an increasingly globalised world (Hor & Matawie, 2006).

As a consequence, the need for an internationalised curriculum in business schools has come to be an inescapable trend (Crosling et al., 2008).

Research on IoC in the business disciplines presents topics such as the approach to internationalising marketing curriculum (Tyagi, 2001); the inclusion of intercultural dimensions in business curriculum and ways of assessing levels of intercultural elements (Edwards et al., 2003). Relationships between organisational change and curriculum internationalisation processes and the discipline-based teams' responses to the curriculum internationalisation (Crosling et al., 2008) have been investigated as have enablers and blockers relating to internationalising business curriculum (Leask, 2013c).

There is little doubt that the disciplines have played an important part in IoC. However, (Leask, 2013c) also highlights the interaction between disciplinary perspectives within the institutional, national and global settings where IoC is being implemented. Recent studies also echo the close link between disciplines and IoC (Leask, 2013c; Leask & Bridge, 2013; Stütz et al., 2015) highlighting the interactions and indicating how the contextual layers influence IoC in western contexts.

IoC and academic staff.

The roles of academics in IoC implementation

Academics are as “the core players in learning, teaching and assessment processes” (Trahar, 2013b, p. 12). As such there is some consensus in the literature on the critical role of academic staff in the process of internationalisation in higher education in general and in curriculum internationalisation in particular (M. Bell, 2004; Breit et al., 2013; Leask & Bridge, 2013; Stohl, 2007). Stohl (2007) claims, “if we want to internationalise the university, we have to internationalise the faculty” (p. 368). His argument implicitly refers to the indispensable part of academics in any educational institutions aiming at internationalisation. Academics in such institutions should be “proactive” and become “the initiators of curriculum internationalisation” (Trahar, 2013b, p. 16). They, together with academic coordinators, define and manage the curriculum. With little doubt, their engagement in the process of IoC within their disciplinary and institutional settings is of great importance (Childress, 2010; J. Daniels, 2013; Leask & Beelen, 2010; Leask & Bridge, 2013).

Research on IoC and academic staff has flourished for nearly twenty years, with various themes or research topics being investigated. Some investigations have explored how academics and university leaders perceive and experience IoC and challenges faced when

internationalising their curriculum (M. Bell, 2004; Crosling et al., 2008; LeBlanc, 2007; Schuerholz-Lehr, Caws, Van Gyn, & Preece, 2007). Other research examines how academics' understanding of IoC is shaped by their disciplines (Clifford, 2009b; Leask & Bridge, 2013)

Researchers have investigated strategies for assisting academic staff to conceptualise internationalisation and IoC and the approaches to motivate academics to change their teaching practice in order to become more involved in the IoC process (Childress, 2010; P. Knight et al., 2006; Leask & Beelen, 2010). Recently, Woodruff et al. (2015) examined the IoC at their institution in the US, which had a principal goal of focusing on the "internationalization of the academic self" based on the work of (Sanderson, 2008, p. 276) Their research raises issues regarding academics and their influences on the internationalisation of the curriculum. According to Woodruff et.al, (2015), these issues include the skills, knowledge, and attitudes possessed by academics as they teach, the values and biases academics bring to the construction of curricula and the teaching methods or the ways academics go about improving the "academic self" and further internationalising students' experiences (p. 63).

However, although internationalisation directs curriculum change, most academics are unprepared and untrained for involvement in internationalisation (Haigh, 2008). Some academics find it hard to define the link between their subject and internationalisation unless they receive support relevant to their teaching contexts (Villar-Onrubia & Rajpal, 2015). In some cases, academics' resistance to "changing the purpose, content and methodology of teaching" (Maringe, 2010, p. 27) leads to a perception that curriculum internationalisation is not a top priority of many institutions. Therefore, as Egron-Polak and Hudson (2014) argue, a major challenge facing many universities is to provide academics with relevant and targeted PD in order to enable them to integrate international and intercultural components into their teaching as a part of the IoC process.

The range of topics in the research on IoC and academic staff covers concerns or issues about perceptions and attitudes towards IoC, implementation challenges and factors influencing implementation of IoC. However, the majority of this research has been conducted in western settings, namely Australia, USA and UK (Jones & Killick, 2013). For instance, M. Bell (2004) conducted research in an Australian university in order to identify academics' perceptions and their attitudes towards IoC and how it influenced their acceptance or rejection of an internationalised curriculum and curriculum design. Another

study examined how academic staff of an Australian university, with campuses in Australia, Malaysia and South Africa, conceptualised IoC and explored ways to encourage academics to engage with the discourse (Clifford, 2009b). Breit et al. (2013) also researched a small group of Australian academics' engagement in the process of making explicit meaning of IoC in their particular disciplinary and institutional context.

The challenges facing academics in the process on IoC have been discussed for at least two decades. It is argued that the diversity of students' cultural backgrounds raised both educational issues and challenges for academics endeavouring to satisfy the needs of various student groups from divergent cultural origins (Biggs, 1997). Student diversity, as highlighted in Joseph's work (2012), informs academics' pedagogical practices of curriculum internationalisation. His findings highlight cultural and pedagogical issues confronting academics during the course of knowledge production (Joseph, 2012). Apart from assisting students to augment their cross-cultural understanding, a challenging task for educators is to enable both domestic and international students' develop the knowledge, skills, and values which support them "to successfully engage with others in an increasingly interconnected and interdependent world" (Van Gyn, Schuerholz-Lehr, Caws, & Preece, 2009, p. 26) and to become "professionals and citizens of the world", being able "to live and work effectively in a rapidly changing and increasingly connected global society" (Leask, 2011, p. 10) .

According to Caruana and Spurling (2007), producing global citizens has become one of the most challenging missions for almost all educational institutions worldwide. In order to achieve this mission, they argue that academics play a crucial role. Universities will only produce global citizens if academics are also global citizens. Cogan and Grossman (2009) support this view and stress that many school teachers may not have international knowledge and it is hard to teach if there is a lack of global perspectives in curriculum national standards. They argue that cooperation with others and problem-solving skills are rated as the most important citizen characteristics by academics, many of which can be obtained out of school (Cogan & Grossman, 2009).

To sum up, the first factor influencing academics' implementation of IoC is the role of the academics. Research suggests that academics often have 'blurry' views on the meaning of IoC within their disciplinary and institutional settings and even think IoC is not part of their business (P. Knight et al., 2006; Stohl, 2007). Academics show their resistance to "changing the purpose, content and methodology of teaching" (Maringe, 2010, p. 27). If they are aware

of or interested in IoC, they may lack skills, knowledge and attitudes essential for successful implementation of IoC (Childress, 2010). Academic staff with cultural backgrounds and experiences in non-western contexts may have experienced a teacher centred approach to teaching and learning and are likely to encounter difficulties in adjusting to a more student-centred approach (Ziguras, 1999; Evans & Treganza 2002 cited in Dobos, 2011). This in turn may become a hindrance for them in internationalising their curriculum. Academics without experience in international teaching and learning contexts, may “find it hard to see their own society from the viewpoint of an outsider” (Bodycott & Walker, 2000, p. 92), limiting their intercultural understanding and thus affecting their IoC implementation. It is therefore argued that the specific qualities of the academic disciplines should be taken into account if institutions are engaged in internationalisation (Agnew, 2013).

[IoC, academics and disciplines](#)

The discipline is another aspect influencing academics’ pursuing IoC. M. Bell (2004) and Van Gyn et al. (2009) share the view that academics’ being embedded within the disciplines leads to an effective design and implementation of meaningful IoC. The discipline is considered to be a core contextual layer influencing both academics and the implementation of IoC (Leask & Bridge, 2013). In conjunction with the discipline, the context in which IoC occurs is also a factor affecting the academics’ execution of IoC. Leask and Bridge (2013) claim that the institutional, regional, national and global context within which the program takes place should be taken into consideration as part of the process of IoC. The rapid change in all contexts makes the task of curriculum internationalisation unlikely to be ever completed (Leask, 2013a; Leask & Bridge, 2013). This perspective on IoC indicates curriculum being conceptualised as dependent on disciplinary, institutional, local, national/regional and global contexts (Leask & Bridge, 2013; Stütz et al., 2015). The proponents of this perspective see IoC as an educational process, as outcome oriented and inclusive of all students. IoC therefore integrates the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes, which embraces the formal, informal and hidden curriculum (Leask & Bridge, 2013; Stütz et al., 2015). Wamboye et al. (2014) examined the internationalisation of business and economics curriculum in a number of US universities, focusing on the academics’ perspectives on curriculum internationalisation, the approaches they used, and the challenges faced in the process. As presented in their study, most academics incorporated some international dimensions into their curriculum and course content. However, when implementing IoC at

their institutions, a number of blockers were identified including, academics' lack of proper international experiences, students' resistance to an internationalised curriculum and the expense of internationalisation (Wamboye et al., 2014).

2.3.2 Insights from reviewing the literature on IoC and identification of gaps.

As a result of this review of the literature, a number of gaps in our current understandings have emerged, which require further research in order to gain a more insightful perspective into IoC.

First, the studies on IoC, vis-à-vis the disciplines, provide divergent perspectives on the critical influences of disciplines on IoC implementation, especially in the business and economics disciplines. Nonetheless, the majority of research has been undertaken in western settings. Furthermore, there is a lack of empirical evidence for the efficiency of an internationalised curriculum (Harrison, 2015).

Second, it is apparent that more research should be conducted on identifying the new models inclusive of both Asian and Western cultural perspectives in transnational programmes that take into account the sociocultural contexts of both the awarding institutions and the home countries.

Third, substantial research has been conducted examining the relationship between IoC and academics in both western and non-western contexts. Academics are placed at the heart of the IoC process, influencing the implementation of IoC and having a significant impact on the discipline, which is one of the contextual layers affecting IoC. Despite a few studies examining the contextual layers influencing IoC in western contexts, no research has been conducted in non-western settings on the interrelationship between academic staff, their disciplines and the different layers of curriculum. Also, there have been few studies on academics' influences on IoC implementation in non-western settings. These findings are consistent with a call for research on IoC conducted in non-western contexts proposed by Leask and Bridge (2013), namely that "Similar research undertaken in different contexts (regional, national, institutional, and disciplinary) would provide further insights into the meaning of internationalisation of the curriculum in different contexts" (pp. 115-116).

2.4 Research Questions

In response to the gaps identified in current understandings in relation to IoC, particularly in non-western tertiary education settings, the following research question was designed to help address the identified gaps:

How is IoC implemented by a Vietnamese university which offers foreign undergraduate programs (FUPs) in partnership with western universities?

In order to answer the main question, five sub-questions were devised, namely:

1. How is IoC perceived by the management team and academics in FUPs?
2. What contextual layers impacting IoC are perceived by management personnel and academics?
3. In what ways do management personnel and academics internationalise FUPs?
4. What enablers and blockers of IoC are perceived by management personnel and academics in FUPs?
5. In what ways, if any, does the offering of FUPs impact on the internationalisation of the university?

It is worth noting that although one of the programs chosen to be examined was an Advanced Program and the other a Joint Program, they both fitted under the heading of FUPs, so this terminology was used for the research questions to broaden their applicability.

2.5 Summary of Chapter 2

In this chapter, the literature on internationalisation of the curriculum from both national and international perspectives is reviewed with regard to the relationship between globalisation, internationalisation and internationalisation in higher education. A critique of the current literature, linking the development of 'curriculum in higher education' and internationalisation trends and strategies, is also presented. As a major strategy for internationalisation used by tertiary institutions is to internationalise their curriculum, this is explored and discussed in relation to student learning, the disciplines and academics. The chapter finally summarises a number of insights deriving from this review of the literature and outlines several existing gaps in this field of research, which led to the emergence of the research questions for the current study. In the next two chapters, the design of the study is presented through an outline of the conceptual framework and the research methodology developed to address the research questions.

Chapter 3: Conceptual Framework

This chapter presents the conceptual framework that was designed for the current study, specifically focusing on examining the issue of IoC. It explores issues associated with the research process and underpinning research paradigm including the ontological and epistemological aspects, all of which require consideration in the design process. Based on the ontological and epistemological assumptions specified, a number of possible relevant theories, which were considered as suitable theoretical lens for conducting this study, are also discussed. The decision to use a combination of Activity Theory and the Theory of Expansive Learning as the theoretical lens for the current study is presented and justified in this chapter.

3.1 Research process

In order to examine the IoC issues identified from the literature review in the previous chapter, Grix's model (2002, p. 180) was used as a means to illustrate the research process for the current study in terms of the methodology and research methods. Grix (2002) adapted this model from Hay (2002), and it is useful in showing the directional and logical relationship between the key components of this research.

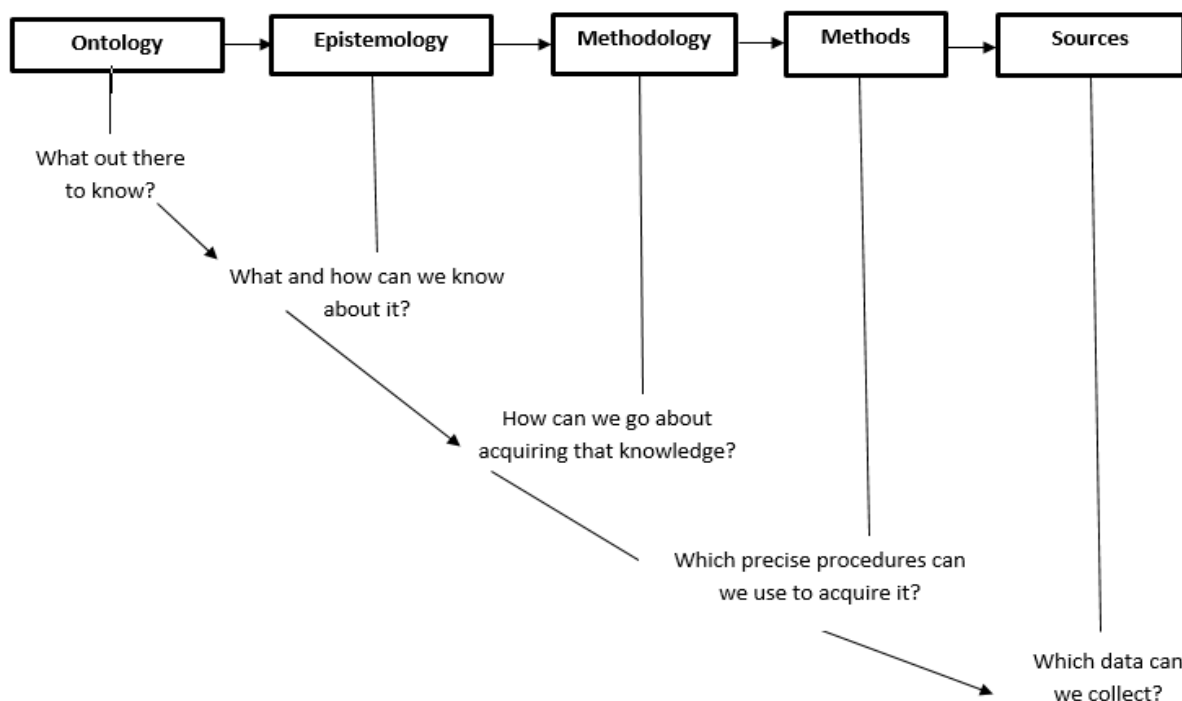


Figure 3.1. The interrelationship between the building blocks of research

Source: Reprinted from "The research process model" by Grix, 2002, p. 180. Copyright 2002 by Hay.

In this model researchers are required to understand how a specific worldview influences the entire research process (Grix, 2002). Creswell (2015) argues that the researchers' worldview represents both their ontology and epistemology, such that they implicitly or explicitly adhere to a worldview or a paradigm when conducting research. In the following section, different worldviews or paradigms underpinning research are presented and reviewed.

3.2 Research paradigms

3.2.1 Definitions.

Worldview refers to “a basic set of beliefs that guide action” (Guba, 1990, p. 17). The term ‘paradigm’ was initially coined by Kuhn (1962) as “a worldview reflecting the beliefs of scientists” (Mertens, 2012, p. 255).

In the literature, there has been a range of definitions of paradigm. For instance, Guba and Lincoln (1994) define a paradigm as a worldview, through which an individual defines the nature of the world, his/her position in that world as well as the range of possible connections with that world. A paradigm, therefore, reflects a set of beliefs or values guiding researchers to conduct a study (Guba, 1990; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Other researchers define a paradigm as a worldview which reflects both philosophical and socio-political issues (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Scholars like Morgan (2014) refer to paradigms as social worlds “where research communities exert a powerful influence over” the beliefs they accept as “meaningful” and the actions they consider to be “appropriate” (p. 1048).

Although there have been divergent definitions of paradigms, Morgan (2007) reviews four basic denotations of paradigm, which represents shared belief systems affecting the type of knowledge inquiry and data interpretation. Morgan (2007) classifies paradigms in the following way: First, paradigm is most popularly defined as worldviews, which mainly emphasises the researcher's perceptions of the nature of research. Second, paradigm refers to epistemological stances and distinctive belief systems, such that views on the nature of knowledge and the appropriate ways of constructing knowledge lead to different paradigms such as realism and constructivism. Third, paradigm is regarded as shared beliefs within a community of researchers who hold a shared view on the types of questions that are most meaningful as well as the most appropriate procedures for addressing the examined questions. The final version refers to paradigms as model examples, which act as “exemplars”, guiding how to conduct research in a given field (Morgan, 2007, p. 53).

3.2.2 Different types of worldviews/paradigms.

While different ways of classifying worldviews or paradigms exist in the literature, Creswell's (2013) categorisation appears to be widely accepted. He divides worldviews into four different types including post-positivism, constructivism, advocacy/participatory, and pragmatism (Creswell, 2013).

Post-positivist researchers believe that the world exists apart from people's understanding of it (Morgan, 2014). According to Creswell (2013), this worldview is sometimes known as the scientific method and referred to as positivism/post-positivism or empirical science. For post-positivists, their philosophical assumptions represent the "deterministic philosophy" (Creswell, 2013, p. 7). As Creswell (2013) asserts, post-positivist researchers assume that "causes probably determine effects or outcomes" (p. 7); therefore, post-positivists' examination of the research problem indicates the need for classifying and measuring the causes affecting the outcomes (Creswell, 2013). From positivists' viewpoints, reality is objectively present in the outside world, therefore using a positivist lens, researchers construct knowledge through "careful observation and measurement of the objective reality" (Creswell, 2013, p. 7).

With respect to constructivism, Creswell (2013) states that social constructivists typically aim to investigate the views of participants on an examined situation and their ways of constructing the meanings of that situation through discussions or interactions with other persons. As such, participants' subjective meanings are formed through social and historical negotiation, which results from individual viewpoints, from interactions with others and from "historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals' lives" (Creswell, 2013, p. 8). The specific setting in which people live and work becomes a focus in order for constructivist researchers to understand individuals' historical and cultural contexts (Creswell, 2013). Creswell (2013) claims that together with research participants' views, researchers take into account their philosophical positions as well as their own personal, cultural and historical experiences, which ultimately influence their interpretation of participants' views and perceptions of the world.

Researchers holding an advocacy participatory worldview assume that "research inquiry needs to be intertwined with politics and a political agenda" (Creswell, 2013, p. 9). With this worldview, researchers develop "an action agenda for reform" through which participants' lives, participants' living and working institutions as well as researchers' lives

may be transformed (Creswell, 2013, p. 9). Researchers with this worldview are often concerned with the needs of marginalised or disenfranchised groups and individuals and may use theoretical perspectives such as Feminism, Critical Theory or Queer Theory in order to examine their research problem with respect to who is to be studied and what changes are required (Creswell, 2013).

In terms of the pragmatic worldview, Creswell (2013) claims that pragmatism does not belong to “any one system of philosophy and reality” (p. 11). Pragmatism is often associated with mixed methods research, which “opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis” (Creswell, 2013, p. 11). It is important that the different paradigms or worldviews are understood when preparing to conduct research, particularly when exploring the philosophical assumptions held when addressing the proposed research question(s). Therefore, the next section provides a discussion of the ontological and epistemological assumptions underpinning the research in this thesis.

3.3 Ontology and epistemology

3.3.1 The importance of understanding ontological and epistemological assumptions.

According to Campbell (2015), the 1990s were a time of much debate on the ontological and epistemological assumptions. In the literature, a number of researchers stress the importance of understanding the philosophical assumptions in terms of ontology and epistemology (Bracken, 2010; Campbell, 2015; Crotty, 1998; Scotland, 2012).

As Grix (2002) argues, it is important to have “a clear and transparent knowledge of the ontological and epistemological assumptions” (p. 176) underlying any research, to ensure understanding of interrelationships of major elements such as methodology and methods. Moreover, it enables researchers to understand other researchers’ positions and defend their own (Grix, 2002). Similarly, Campbell (2015) emphasises the importance of researchers using specific ontological and epistemological lenses to help with decisions about theoretical perspectives and conceptual frameworks or paradigms to provide theoretical control of their research. Theoretical control is regarded as key to effective research since it brings out the “significant aspects of the research for the reader and those affected by the results and analysis” (Campbell, 2015, p. 7).

3.3.2 What is ontology?

Numerous definitions of the term 'ontology' exist in the literature. Crotty (1998) defines ontology as "the study of being", which involves "what kind of world we are investigating, with the nature of existence, with the structure of reality as such" (p. 128). Blaikie (2000) refers to ontology as philosophical assumptions about "what we believe constitutes social reality" (p. 8).

In brief, ontology refers to the philosophical study of the nature of reality (E. Jackson, 2013). According to Guarino and his associates, the term 'ontology' has different meaning to different communities (Guarino, Oberle, & Staab, 2009). This occurs since different research communities originate from principally different cultural settings (Grix, 2002); therefore, there have been divergent conceptions of the reality and different assumptions underpinning researchers' particular approaches to social inquiry (Grix, 2002). For example, ontology in educational research involves "the philosophical study of the nature of educational reality and how there may be different perceptions of what is known" (E. Jackson, 2013, p. 52).

Practically, it is important to consider philosophical assumptions and researcher positionality in order to decide methodological approaches within research (E. Jackson, 2013). For example, researchers can hold ontological positions with respect to objectivist perspectives or constructivist ones (Grix, 2002). According to Bryman (2001), objectivism reflects "an ontological position that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors" (p. 16). If researchers hold the view of "an external, independent reality", their ontological position is "objectivist" (Bryman, 2001 p. 16). According to Sikes (2004) if their ontological assumption is "that knowledge is real, objective and out there in the world to be captured, researchers can observe, measure and quantify it" (p. 21). Therefore, for objectivist researchers, they find a quantitative approach appropriate to "an objective and measurable study" (E. Jackson, 2013, p. 52).

By contrast, constructivism represents an opposing ontological position which "asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors" (Bryman, 2001 p. 17). Bryman (2001) argues that the construction of social phenomena and categories results from the social interaction and the constant reconstruction of those social phenomena and categories. Therefore, those holding a constructivist stance will see reality as "an experienced, constructed reality based on social or individual human conception" (E. Jackson, 2013, p. 52). When they assume that knowledge

is “experiential, personal and subjective, they will have to ask questions of the people involved” (E. Jackson, 2013, p. 52). In practice, constructivist researchers typically use a qualitative or a mixed methods approach to conduct subjective and interpretative studies (E. Jackson, 2013).

In summary, ontology is often mistakenly mixed with epistemology, with an assumption that the former merely serves as a part of the latter yet ontology serves as a starting point of any research, followed by epistemological assumptions and then methodological aspects (Grix, 2002). Researchers need to have a clear ontological framework in order to add the credibility to their research, and to assure a match exists between their methodological choice and their ontological perspective, to justify their choice of methodology and methods used to collect and analyse data (E. Jackson, 2013).

3.3.3 What is epistemology?

According to Healy and Perry (2000) while ontology is the reality investigated by researchers, epistemology involves “the relationship between that reality and the researcher” (p. 119). As Grix (2002) states, ontology is concerned with “what we may know”, whereas, epistemology involves “how we come to know what we know” (Grix, 2002, p. 177). In other words, epistemology means “a way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know” (Crotty, 2003, p. 3).

In reality, epistemology concerns the philosophical study of knowledge, focusing on “knowledge, its nature, and range of scope” (Campbell, 2015, p. 6). Therefore, E. Jackson (2013) argues that when searching for new knowledge, the epistemological position of researchers provides guidance in methodological decision making, which links directly to “the strength of the claim to new knowledge” (E. Jackson, 2013, p. 53).

Epistemology involves the nature and forms of knowledge (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011); thus, epistemological assumptions involve the ways of creating, acquiring and communicating knowledge (Scotland, 2012). There are two epistemological positions originating from the perspectives: “positivism” and “interpretivism” (Grix, 2002, p. 178). For researchers holding a positivist stance, the use of the “methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond” tend to be supported (Bryman, 2001, p. 12). On the other hand, researchers in favour of interpretivism take into account “the differences between people and the objects of the natural sciences” so they believe that social research aims to “grasp the subjective meaning of social action” (Bryman, 2001, p. 13).

In brief, thinking is shaped by specific cultural and social norms and bounds, therefore, researchers have different approaches to inquiry and make different choices as a result, which can lead to divergent views of the same social phenomena (Grix, 2002).

3.3.4 Ontological and epistemological assumptions underpinning this study.

Internationalisation of the curriculum can be viewed as an activity undertaken by certain groups of educators in a specific teaching and learning context. Those educators themselves or together with others are implementing an activity for a specific purpose, which is influenced by both historical and cultural factors in that setting. In the current study, IoC is also considered to be a new kind of activity, specifically representing a new form of learning among educators who involve themselves in internationalising their curriculum. This represents a new type of learning among educators who are transforming their practice and adapting to a new teaching and learning environment with different requirements and conditions.

This viewpoint fits within a paradigm of relativist knowledge using a constructivist epistemological stance. This supports acceptance of multiple realities and understandings of a phenomenon or a reality, which are subjectively co-created by both respondents and researchers through the use of “a naturalistic (in the natural world) set of methodological procedures” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 13). According to Patton (2015), constructivists examine how multiple realities are constructed by different groups of people and the implications of their reality constructions for their lives and their interactions with others. As such, the notion of “truth” is seen as “a matter of shared meanings and consensus among a group of people” (Patton, 2015, p. 121). This means that all rational statements about reality are influenced by one’s worldview, which is not exclusively “determined by empirical or sense of data about the world” (Patton, 2015, p. 122). The principles of credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability, which help to validate constructivist research will be used as triangulation strategies in the current project (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Patton, 2015).

3.3.5 Conceptual framework.

The ontological and epistemological assumptions discussed above helped in the decision making for the conceptual framework chosen for use in the current study. According to E. Jackson (2013), a conceptual framework consisting of positionality, relationality, ontology and epistemology helps researchers to make methodological decisions appropriate to address the research questions. By enunciating and mitigating the conceptual framework,

researchers can strengthen the rigor of their research with respect to the ethical dimensions, reliability and validity and the credibility of the research results (E. Jackson, 2013).

With the above-mentioned philosophical assumptions, the following interpretive framework was considered to suit the current research project. Table 3.1, which is presented on the following page, summarises different types of interpretive frameworks in conjunction with their associated philosophical beliefs (Creswell, 2013, pp. 36-37).

The interpretive social constructivism framework outlined in Table 3.1 appeared to be the most appropriate match for the current research project. The need for understanding “how individuals make meaning of their social world” is emphasised in such an approach, as the social world is “created through social interactions of individuals with the world around them” (Hesse-Biber, 2010, p. 104). In the following sections, possible social constructivist theories, which fits with the ontological and epistemological assumptions previously discussed, are outlined.

3.3.6 Discussion of possible theories for a theoretical lens for this study.

A number of theoretical frameworks could have been suitable for exploring IoC as proposed in the current study. For instance, Mezirow’s (1997) Transformative Learning Theory, Actor-Network Theory (Law, 1999), Activity Theory (Engeström, 1987) and the Theory of Expansive Learning (Engeström, 2001) were all considered.

Mezirow (1997) defines transformative learning as “the effecting change in a *frame of reference*” (p. 5). He argues that the frames of references represent the structures of assumptions enabling us to grasp our experiences. These frames intentionally form and delineate our expectations, perceptions, cognition, and feelings, thus bounding our “line of action” and subsequently allowing us intuitively to change from “one specific activity (mental or behavioural) to another” (Mezirow, 1997, p. 5). From the perspective of Transformation Theory, the nature of adult learning involves a combination of “ideal conditions for its full realization” which probably function as principles for assessing “the quality of adult education” and “the socio-political conditions” enabling or hindering learning (Mezirow, 1997, p. 11).

Table 3.1

Interpretive frameworks and Associated Philosophical Beliefs

Interpretive Frameworks	Ontological Beliefs (the nature of reality)	Epistemological Beliefs (how reality is known)	Axiological Beliefs (role of values)	Methodological Beliefs (approach to inquiry)
Post-positivism	A single reality exists beyond ourselves, "out there." Researcher may not be able to understand it or get to it because of lack of absolutes.	Reality can only be approximated, but it is constructed through research and statistics. Interaction with research subjects is kept to a minimum. Validity comes from peers, not participants.	Researcher's biases need to be controlled and not expressed in a study.	Use of scientific method and writing. Object of research is to create new knowledge. Method is important. Deductive methods are important, such as testing theories, specifying important variables, making group comparisons.
Social constructivism	Multiple realities are constructed through our lived experiences and interactions with others.	Reality is co-constructed between the researcher and the researched and shaped by individual experiences.	Individual values are honoured, and are negotiated among individuals.	More of a literary style of writing used. Use of an inductive method of emergent ideas (through consensus) obtained through methods such as interviewing, observing and analysis of texts.
Transformative/ Postmodern	Participation between researcher and communities/ individuals being studied. Often a subjective-objective reality emerges.	Co-created findings with multiple ways of knowing.	Respect for indigenous values; values need to be problematized and interrogated.	Use of collaborative processes of research; political participation encouraged; questioning of methods; highlighting issues and concerns.
Pragmatism	Reality is what is useful, is practical, and "works."	Reality is known through using many tools of research that reflect both deductive (objective) evidence and inductive (subjective) evidence.	Values are discussed because of the way that knowledge reflects the researchers' and participants' views.	The research process involves both quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection and analysis.
Critical, Race, Feminist, Queer, Disabilities	Reality is based on power and identity struggles. Privilege or oppression based on race or ethnicity, class, gender, mental abilities, sexual preference.	Reality is known through the study of social structures, freedom and oppression, power, and control. Reality can be changed through research.	Diversity of values is emphasised within the standpoint of various communities.	Start with assumptions of power and identity struggles, document them and call for action and change.

Source: Adapted from "Interpretive frameworks and Associated Philosophical Beliefs" by Creswell, 2013, pp. 36-37. Copyright 2011 by Lincoln, Y. S., Lynham, S. A., & Guba, E. G.

Although this current study, to a certain extent, explores how academics, program managers and course coordinators learn to internationalise their courses, its major aim was not to examine the transformative learning of those educators. More specifically, this study did not aim to investigate how those educators transform their frames of reference through critical reflection of assumptions or how they validate their contested beliefs through discourse and take action on their reflective insights (Mezirow, 1997).

Actor-Network Theory (ANT) refers to a “ruthless application of *semiotics*”, which is used to explain how entities are formed and obtain their characters as a consequence of their relations with other entities (Law, 1999, p. 3). According to Law (1999), ANT involves semiotic relationality, examining how elements in a network are defined and formed in relation to one another. ANT also takes into account different kinds of actors including human and otherwise, emphasising the agency of both human and non-human actors within a network (Law, 2008). Furthermore, ANT focuses on “performativity” which creates durability and fixity (Law, 1999, p. 4). The notion of “space” and “scale” are also taken into consideration when using ANT to explore “how it is that networks extend themselves and translate distant actors” (Law, 2008, p. 146).

One aspect that makes ANT unsuitable for the current research is that this study does not view non-human actors such as artifacts as agents in the process of internationalising the curriculum; yet, they are tools being used by humans rather than taking their agency in the process of internationalising the curriculum. In the current study, academics, program managers and course coordinators used the artifacts (non-human actors) to internationalise the programs.

In summary, Mezirow’s (1997) Transformative Learning Theory and Actor-Network Theory (Law, 1999), were not considered to be the most suitable theoretical frameworks for the current study. The next section discusses two other theories: Activity Theory and the Theory of Expansive Learning, which take their roots from Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT).

3.3.7 An historical review of Activity Theory.

Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT), which is also known in the abbreviated form of Activity Theory (AT), was initially proposed by a group of Russian psychologists including Vygotsky, Leont’ev and Luria in 1920s and 1930s through their work at the University of Helsinki. According to Engeström (1999a), this theory takes into account the dialectical link

between the individual and social structure, where the analysis of consciousness development, within practical social activity, becomes a focus for activity theorists (H. Daniels, 2008). Activity theorists emphasise the psychological effects of activities as well as the social situations and structures being created from the human activity (H. Daniels, 2008). As Engeström (1999a) claims, human activity is infinitely “multifaceted, mobile and rich” (p. 20) in terms of both content and form. While Sannino, Daniels, and Gutiérrez (2009) point out that it is activities that shape people’s lives as their skills, personalities and consciousness are developed through activities. In addition, human activity helps to change social conditions, solve contradictions, create new cultural artifacts, and produce new forms of life and the ego (Sannino et al., 2009).

In short, Activity Theory offers a cultural-historical approach to understanding and transforming human life through human activity. So, what are the historical sources that the AT is based on and how have the different generations of AT been developed to date?

3.3.7.1 The roots of Activity Theory.

Engeström (2014) asserts that AT originated from three pivotal historical sources namely: the classical German philosophy work of Kant and Hegel, the writings of Marx and Engels, and the work of the revolutionary Russian cultural-historical psychologists, namely Vygotsky, Leont’ev, and Luria.

The work of Marx, however, is considered to be the primary philosophical root of AT (Engeström, 1999a, 2014). Under the materialist view, Marx interprets Hegel’s conceptualisation of self-creation through labour as the essence of humankind. According to Engeström (1999a), this interpretation refers to the notion that human nature resides not only in each human being but is also found “in the movement between the inside and outside, that is the worlds of artifact use and artifact creation” (p. 5).

Marx’s ideas about labour, work and activity presented in his *Theses on Feuerbach* guides the work of some leading activist theorists such as Vygotsky and Leont’ev (Engeström, 1999a, 2014). Although Marx viewed labour and work in some circumstances of capitalist societies as alienated activity (Engeström, 1999a), he proposed that individual activity and individual consciousness stem from collective activity (Lektorsky, 2009). Therefore, Engeström (1999a) proclaims that Marx’s deliberate elucidation of the ‘activity’ concept serves as the departure point for AT.

Through his analysis of capitalism, Marx developed some invaluable analytical instruments including the notion of commodity as “a contradictory unit of use value and exchange value” (Engeström, 1999a, p. 5). It is thus argued that the dialectical concept of commodity is of great importance for analysing the contradictory motives of human activities and the human psyche (Engeström, 1999a).

Despite being a vital theoretical root, Marx’s work is commonly omitted from discussions about AT mainly due to political and ideological reasons (Engeström, 1999a). However, a careful and critical analysis of Marx’s work should be a part of the study of the appropriation and innovative development of the fundamental theoretical concepts of AT (Engeström, 1999a).

In brief, Marx’s view on human activity and human consciousness originating from collective activity matches with the ontological and epistemological assumptions of this study. The use of a constructivist epistemological stance in this study implies that internationalising the curriculum, one kind of human activity, was implemented by specific groups of educators in a particular teaching and learning context. Therefore, this activity could not be solely an individual activity and there should be some interactions between individuals who are involved in the process of internationalising the curriculum.

3.3.7.2 The first generation of Activity Theory.

Lev Vygotsky is well known as a revolutionary Russian psychologist pioneering a cultural-historical approach to understanding and transforming human life. Vygotsky and his colleagues Luria and Leont’ev formulated an innovative theoretical concept of action, introducing “the concept of artifact-mediated and object-oriented action” based on the belief that individual human beings do not respond directly to their surroundings (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 18).

Vygotsky, whose elaboration of the Theory of Cultural Mediation derived from primary ideas of Marx (Engeström, 1999a; Lektorsky, 2009), established a foundation for “all contemporary variants of activity theory” (Lektorsky, 2009, p. 77). Therefore, the first generation of AT represents the legacy of Vygotsky’s concept of mediation (H. Daniels, 2008; Engeström, 1999a, 2014)

According to Vygotsky (1978), human action mirrors a triangular structure in which cultural artifacts including tools and signs mediate the correlation between human agent and objects in the environment. However, the conceptual differentiation between activity and

action is not illustrated in Vygotsky's original model (Engeström, 2001). The triangle presented by Vygotsky (1978, p. 40) was later visualised by (Engeström, 1987) as a simplified model of mediated *action*. Vygotsky's model of mediated action and the modified model representing the first generation of activity are illustrated as follows in Figure 3.2.

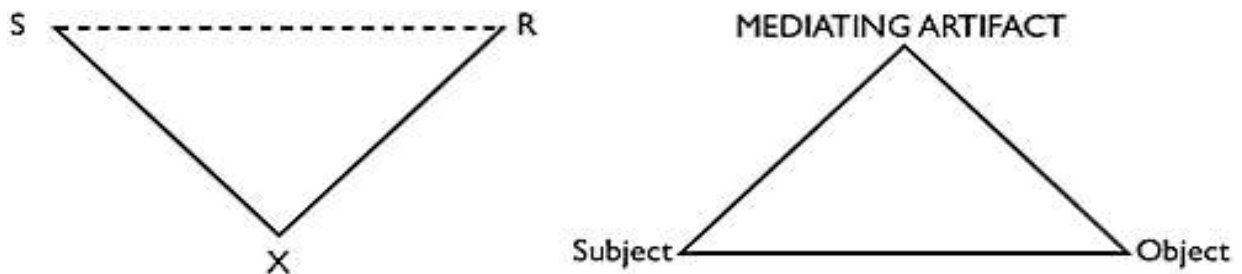


Figure 3.2. Vygotsky's model of mediated act and its common reformulation

Source: From "Expansive Learning at Work: Toward an activity theoretical reconceptualization" by Engeström, 2001, *Journal of Education and Work*, 14:1, p. 134. Copyright 2001 by Taylor & Francis Ltd.

Figure 3.2 presents Vygotsky's (1978) eminent triangular model showing the conditioned direct link between stimulus (S) and response (R) which is transcended by 'a complex, mediated act' (p. 40). Figure 3.2 also represents common reformation of Vygotsky's idea of cultural mediation of actions which indicates the triad of subject, object, and mediating artifact (Engeström, 2001).

In short, Vygotsky's idea of cultural mediation of actions reflects the social constructivist view indicating that the construction of multiple realities is made through human lived experiences and interactions with others. The interpretive social constructivism framework used in this study coincides with Vygotsky's Theory of Cultural Mediation of Actions. Based on Vygotsky's Theory of Cultural Mediation of Actions, internationalising the curriculum can be viewed as an activity occurring in the environment (i.e. a teaching and learning context) where human agent uses cultural artifacts such as tools and signs to internationalise the curriculum.

3.3.7.3 The second generation of Activity Theory.

An in-depth analysis of Leont'ev's work reveals that the concept of mediation by signs and subject-subject relations definitely plays a crucial part in his theory (Engeström, 1999a). Through his work, not only does Leont'ev show his legacy of Vygotsky's idea of *mediation*, but he also contributes to the development of Activity Theory when differentiating *activity* from actions (Engeström, 2001). The concept of *activity* formulated by Leont'ev stems from Marx's

idea of labour or production of use values, reflecting “the paradigmatic model of human object-oriented activity” (Engeström, 1999a, p. 18). According to Leont’ev (1981), labour refers to a process being mediated not only by tools but also by social aspects. In other words, labour or production of values is “performed in conditions of joint, collective activity” (Engeström & Miettinen, 1999, p. 4). Leon’ev elaborates the concept of object and goal as well as stressing the centrality of the object with regards to the analysis of motivation (Leont’ev, 1978, cited in Engeström, 1999a). He claims that activities are differentiated by their objects and because of the transformation of the object or goal, and the components of the activity system which are incorporated (H. Daniels, 2008).

In his three-level model of activity, Leont’ev (1981) distinguishes between collective activity, individual action and operation. Collective activity placed in the upper most level is directed by an object-related motive. Individual (or group) action lies in the middle level, which is mediated by a goal. Automatic operations found at the bottom level are mediated by the conditions and tools of action at hand (Engeström, 1999a). Figure 3.3 displays the hierarchical levels of an activity illustrated by Kuutti (1995) and can be used to describe Leont’ev’s differentiation of collective activity, individual action and operation.

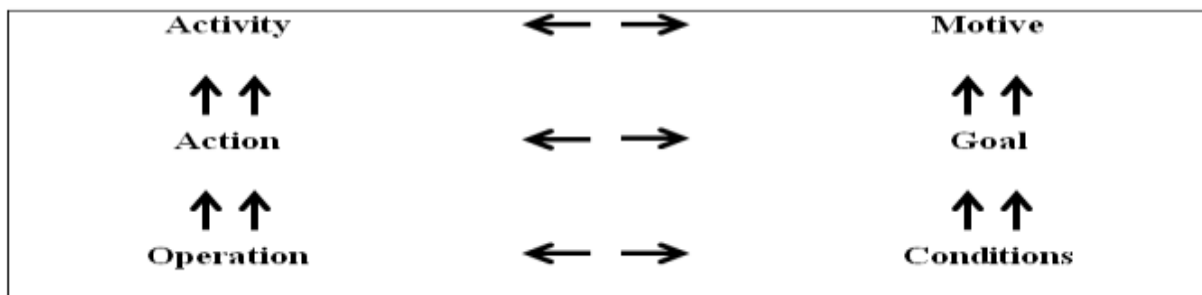


Figure 3.3. The hierarchical levels of an activity

Source: From “Activity Theory as a potential framework for human computer interaction research” by Kuutti, K. (1995). In B. Nardi (Ed.), *Context and Consciousness: Activity Theory and Human Computer Interaction*, pp.17-44. Cambridge: MIT Press. Copyright 1995 by MIT Press.

Engeström (1999a) claims that Leont’ev and his immediate collaborators did not comprehensively analyse and model the systemic structure of activity as Leont’ev’s work did not reveal how to develop and expand the triangular model of action so as to illustrate “the structure of a collective activity system” (p. 25). In reality, Leont’ev never graphically expanded Vygotsky’s original model into a model of a collective activity system (Engeström, 2001). However, Leont’ev is considered to have made a significant contribution to the development of AT through his conceptualisation of activity, based on his reconstruction of

the emergence of division of labour (Engeström, 1999a, 2001). According to Engeström (1999a), the “breakthrough to the concept of activity by distinguishing between collective activity and individual action” enables the development of the triangular model of activity into which other human beings and social relations are integrated (p. 7). Engeström (1987), as outlined in Figure 3.4, depicted the second generation of AT based on Leont’ev’s work.

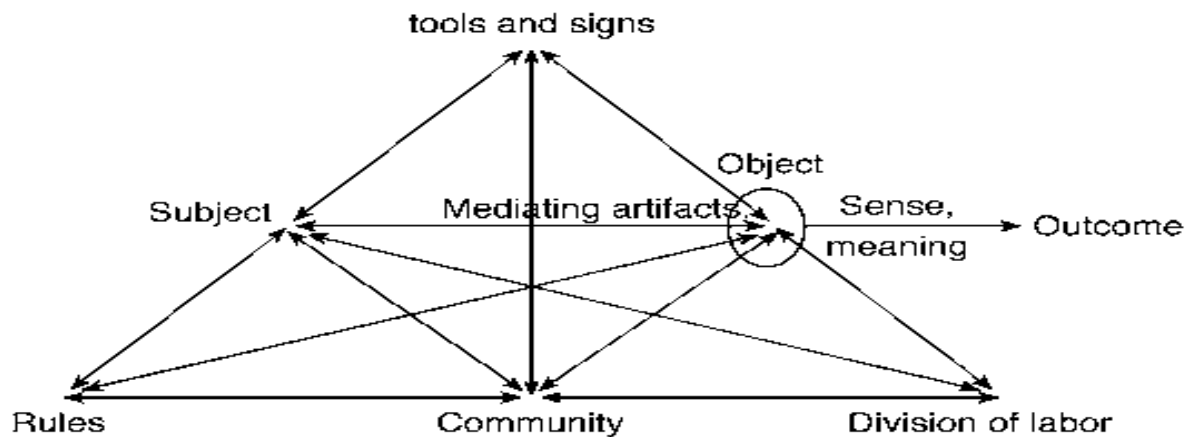


Figure 3.4 The structure of a human activity system

Source: From “Expansive Learning at Work: Toward an activity theoretical reconceptualization” by Engeström, Y. (2001). *Journal of Education and Work*, 14:1, p. 135. Copyright 1987 by Taylor & Francis Ltd.

Figure 3.4 illustrates an expansion of the first generation of AT which consists of only three elements: subject, object, and mediating artifact. The other three components added into the new model of the activity system include rules, community and division of labour. Not only does the model exemplify the societal/collective components of an activity system through the components of rules, community, division of labour, but it also calls for the analysis of the interactions among those components. In this model, the object is depicted with the help of an oval. This denotes that object-oriented actions are, overtly or obliquely, typified by uncertainty, surprise, explanation, sense creation and potential for transformation (Engeström, 1987, 1999a). The second generation of activity, according to (Engeström, 1999a), stresses the importance of contradictions within activity systems as the motivating force of change and development.

3.3.7.4 The third generation of Activity Theory.

Engeström’s work represents his legacy and the extension of the work of Vygotsky and Leont’ev, which concerns the demanding social challenges of transformation and learning in work practices (Sannino et al., 2009). Engeström developed the triangle model of activity by

expanding the unit of analysis to incorporate relations between multiple activity systems. This model symbolises the third generation of Activity Theory (Engeström, 1987, 2001, 2014).

Engeström (2001) claims that third generation AT came into existence thanks to crucial developments in such conceptual ideas as Bakhtin’s (1981, 1986) ideas on dialogicality, Russell’s (1997) notions of activity networks, and Latour’s (1993) Actor-Network Theory. Third generation AT is also based on the concept of boundary crossing proposed by (Engeström, 1995) These developments opened the door for the formation of the third generation of AT (Engeström, 1995, 2001). Engeström’s model initiates conceptual tools to understand dialogue, multiple perspectives and voices, and networks of interacting activity systems (Engeström, 1999a, 2001, 2014) . His expansion of the basic model into one with a minimum of two interacting activity systems gives birth to the third generation of activity which is presented in Figure 3.5 (Engeström, 2001).

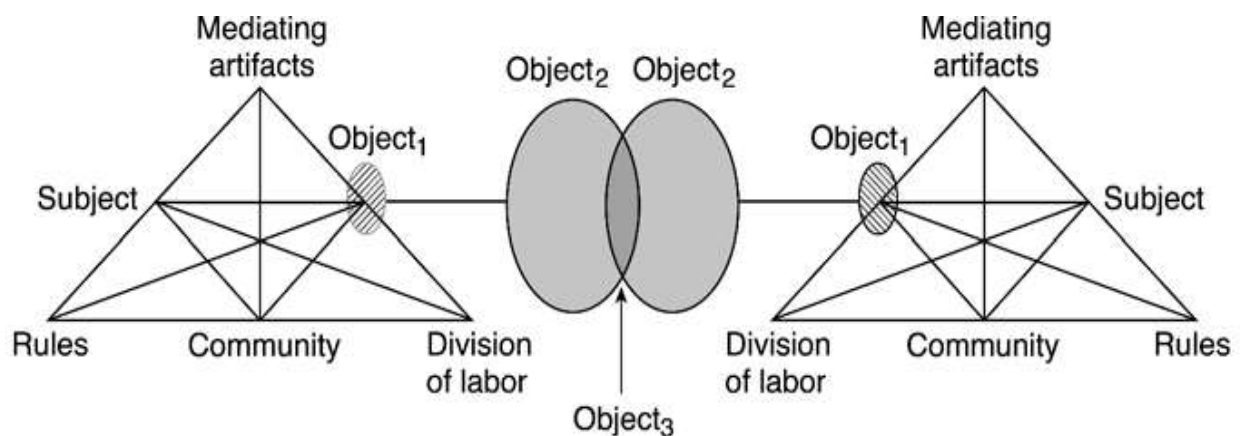


Figure 3.5. Two interacting activity systems as minimal model for the third generation of Activity Theory. Source: From “Expansive Learning at Work: Toward an activity theoretical reconceptualization” by Engeström, Y. (2001). *Journal of Education and Work*, 14:1, p. 136. Copyright 2001 by Taylor & Francis Ltd.

As illustrated in Figure 3.5, the object changes from an object initially being impermeable ‘raw material’ (Object 1) to a collectively meaningful object, created by the activity system (Object 2), to a potentially shared or jointly created object (Object 3). The object of activity is “a moving target” which is different from “conscious short-term goals” (Engeström, 2001, p. 136).

According to Engeström (2005), his model reveals a new concept of activity and an innovative understanding of its structure. He defines activity as a collective process and collectivity as the main feature of activity. Lektorsky (2009) refers to collective activity as a

system which should be examined alongside other activity systems and construed as multi-voiced “including a community of multiple points of view, traditions, interests, and interactions between participants” (p. 79). Engeström’s work particularly emphasises the central role of contradictions as causes of change and development of activity systems, arguing that changes and contradictions are seen as the “motive force of change and development” (Engeström, 1999a, p. 6). Furthermore, he indicates that evolution results from the transition and reorganisation within and between activity systems.

To sum up, the three generations of AT have been developed owing to the legacy of the three key historical sources including the classical German philosophy work of Kant and Hegel, the writings of Marx and Engels, and the work of some predominant cultural-historical psychologists like Vygotsky, Leont’ev, and Luria. According to Engeström (1999a), the first generation of AT typically originates from Vygotsky’s idea of cultural mediation of actions; meanwhile, the second generation of AT is based on the work of Leont’ev which differentiates between collective activity and individual actions. Unlike the first generation of AT, the second generation of AT emphasises the contradictions within activity systems as it views contradictions as an inspiring driver of change and development (Engeström, 1999a). The third generation of AT provides a model with conceptual tools to understand dialogue, multiple perspectives and voices, and networks of interacting activity systems (Engeström, 1999a). This model allows to explore the demanding social challenges of transformation and learning in work practices (Sannino et al., 2009).

Reviewing these theories reveals that the three theories could be used as a theoretical lens for this study as the research is conducted under a constructivist epistemological stance. Under the interpretive social constructivism framework proposed in this thesis, the first and second generations of AT are applicable, to a certain extent. For example, if using the second generation of AT, the researcher can examine one interacting activity system (i.e. internationalising the curriculum). Particularly, the involvement of the subject (e.g. an academic, a course coordinator or a program manager) in the activity of internationalising the curriculum is reflected through the tools the subject uses, the rules regulating the subject’s actions, interactions between the subject and others involved in the process as well as the assigned roles of the subject and others within this system. Additionally, there might be some contradictions and tensions arising during the process of internationalising the curriculum, which is viewed as a motivating driver of change and development.

It can be said that these above-mentioned issues partially link to the current research project. However, this study also aims to explore dialogue, multiple perspectives and voices in the activity of internationalising the curriculum as well as to investigate social challenges of transformation in the process of internationalising the curriculum. The use of third generation of AT is thus considered to be more appropriate since it helps to achieve the research goal mentioned in this thesis. In reality, the third generation of AT reflects Engeström's legacy and the extension of the work of Vygotsky and Leont'ev (Sannino et al., 2009). The third generation of AT model consists of a minimum of two interacting activity systems, which allows the researcher to investigate the activity of internationalising the curriculum at two different levels: internationalising the curriculum at course level and internationalising the curriculum at program level. Therefore, more discussion about the third generation of AT will be provided and the use of this theory as a theoretical lens for this study will be further explained in the subsequent sections.

3.3.7.5 Third generation of Activity Theory: components, three main relationships and five principles.

The six components of third generation Activity Theory.

Subject

In the activity system, Engeström (1999a, 2014) argues that the subject is understood as the individual or sub-group whose agency is considered to be a unit for analysis. According to Engeström (1999a, 2014), there is always heterogeneity and multi-voicedness as the subject constructs the object in an activity system. This means that because of their different histories and positions in the division of labour, different subjects may use some diverse, partly coinciding and contradictory ways of constructing the object and the other components of the activity. The subject constructs the object in an activity system; as a result of the subject's constructed, need-related capacity, the object becomes a stimulating driver shaping and directing activity as well as regulating the horizon of possible goals and actions (Engeström, 1999a).

Objects

When an entity satisfies a human need, it turns into an object of activity (Engeström, 1999b). Engeström (1999b) argues that in an activity system, the object not only directs the activity but is also merged and converted into outcomes owing to the mediation of physical and symbolic, external and internal instruments. He differentiates objects from goals as he claims "goals are attached to specific actions" (1999b, p. 381). He affirms that the object of

activity carries collective meanings and motives with it due to its cultural and historical evolution (Engeström, 2000a).

Artifacts

The mediating artifacts, as Engeström (1999b) defines, represent tools and signs as well as both external tools and internal depictions such as psychological models. Engeström (1999b) classifies four types of artifacts. The first one deals with the *what* aspect which is used to categorise and define objects. The *How* aspect guides and directs processes and procedures on, within, or between objects. The *Why* aspect is used to analyse and elucidate the possessions and the actions of objects. The last aspect *where*, is used to envisage “the future state or potential development of objects, including institutions and social systems” (pp. 381-382).

Rules

In an activity system, rules are defined as the explicit and implicit regulations, norms and conventions (Engeström, 1999a). According to Engeström (1999a), rules serve as drivers of actions and interactions within the activity system; however, rules may be questioned, reinterpreted and turned into new tools and objects. Engeström (1996) notes that the transition from rules to new tools and objects occurs since the nodes of the activity continuously move. This transition denotes a transformation within the activity system, being a cycle of possible movement from the initial object to an outcome, then to an instrument and probably later to a rule. Subsequently, rules may become new tools and objects if being questioned or reinterpreted (Engeström, 1996).

Community

The community is formed by multiple individuals and/or sub-groups of people sharing the identical general object. According to Engeström (1999a), people who belong to one community construct themselves as distinctive from those in other communities.

Division of Labour

The division of labour denotes not only the tasks horizontally assigned among community members but the vertical division of power and status between these members (Engeström, 1999a). The division of labour in an activity therefore constructs diverse positions for participants. In an activity system, the participants possess their own divergent histories; meanwhile, the activity system itself conveys multiple stratum and elements of history carved in its artifacts, rules and conventions (Engeström, 1999a).

The three main relationships in the activity system.

According to Engeström (1987), the systemic AT model involves three mutual relationships between subject, object and community. First, the relationship between subject and object is mediated by tools. Tools can be material ones or tools for thinking, which are used in the transformation process. Another relationship is the one between subject and community being mediated by rules that contain both explicit and implicit norms, conventions and social relations within a community. Finally, it is the relationship between object and community that is mediated by the division of labour. Division of labour designates the explicit and implicit organization of a community with regards to the transformation process of the object into the outcome (Engeström, 1987).

Five principles of Activity Theory.

Engeström (1999a, 2001) summarises AT by outlining five principles. The first is that the primary unit of analysis is a collective, artifact-mediated and object-oriented activity system that is examined in its network relations to other activity systems. In the activity system, such units of analysis as goal-directed individual and group actions, as well as automatic operations, are fairly independent but subordinate; they are ultimately comprehensible “only when interpreted against the background of entire activity systems” (Engeström, 2001, p. 136). Hence, activity systems are said to be understood and reproduced through the construction of actions and operations (Engeström, 2001).

The second principle refers to the multi-voicedness of activity systems. In an activity system, there is always an interconnection between multiple viewpoints, traditions and interests. The multi-voicedness of an activity system is created by the participants with their own diverse histories and through the activity system with multiple historical layers and strands incised in its artifacts, rules and conventions. This multi-voicedness, which upsurges exponentially in networks of interacting activity systems, leads to both tension and innovation, challenging actions of change and negotiation (Engeström, 2001).

The third principle is historicity. According to Engeström (2001), activity systems are formed and transformed over prolonged periods of time. Only can the problems and potentials of activity systems be understood in relations to their own history. The analysis of history needs to be associated with the local history of the activity and its objects. It also needs to link with the history of theoretical ideas and tools which have formed the activity (Engeström, 2001).

The fourth principle stresses the central role of contradictions as sources of change and development. Engeström (2001) differentiates contradictions from problems or conflicts and argues that contradictions are “historically accumulating structural tensions within and between activity systems” (p. 137). The primary contradiction of activities, according to Engeström (2001), indicates the contradiction of use and exchange value that permeates all integral elements of the central activity. The secondary contradiction occurs if an activity system espouses a new component from the outside that conflicts with the old element. Such contradictions yield disturbances and conflicts as well as creating endeavours to change the activity. The third type of contradiction is known as a tertiary contradiction happening when an external object tries to supersede an existing object within an activity system. Engeström (2001) also mentions the quaternary contradictions envisioned in the networks of activity system, which represent contradictions between the central activity and its neighbour activities in their interaction.

The fifth principle refers to the possibility of expansive transformations in activity systems. Engeström (2001) states that activity systems transcend through somewhat lengthy cycles of qualitative transformations. When there is an intensification of contradictions, in an activity system, individual subjects commence to question and to deviate from the activity system’s established norms. An expansive transformation is therefore achieved through the reconceptualisation of the object and motive of the activity so as to include a drastically broader range of possibilities than in the earlier mode of the activity (Engeström, 2001).

In summary, based on the above discussion, it is noted that when using the third generation of AT as a theoretical lens for this study, six major components of the activity system should be taken into account and each component is regarded as a unit for analysis. Moreover, these six components should be linked together based on the three mutual relationships between subject, object and community. Apparently, the relationship between subject and object, the relationship between subject and community as well as the relationship between object and community are mediated by tools, rules and the division of labour, correspondingly. Finally, the five principles of AT also need to be considered when the third generation of AT is used as a theoretical lens for this research project. Some justifications for the use of the third generation of AT in this research project therefore will be provided in the following section.

3.3.7.6 Justifications for the use of the third generation of Activity Theory in this study.

The third generation of AT was used to analyse the activity of internationalising the curriculum of the two FUPs: Program 1 (between Foreign Trade University and Colorado State University) and Program 2 (between Foreign Trade University and London Metropolitan University). Therefore, internationalising the curriculum of each program represented a network of activity systems known as the 'internationalising curriculum' activity systems.

Three characteristics make AT well suited for the current study. First, AT is intensely contextual and concerned with grasping historically specific local practices, their objects, mediating artifacts, and social organisation (Cole & Engeström, 1993). In detail, internationalising curriculum at FTU was examined through its specific local practices (e.g. in a university in a non-western context or non-western teaching and learning approaches), its objects (internationalising curriculum at program level and at course level), mediating artifacts (including both tools and signs for internationalising the curriculum) and social organisation (rules and division of labour in the 'internationalising curriculum' activity system).

Secondly, the third generation of AT was used to provide an in-depth understanding of the interaction between the six components in the 'internationalising curriculum' activity systems and how these components influenced IoC in a non-western university. The analyses of IoC in these activity systems were guided by five principles of AT (Engeström, 1999a, 2001).

Based on the first principle of AT, the activity of internationalising the curriculum was the primary unit of analysis, which was a collective, artifact-mediated and objected-oriented activity system. The 'internationalising curriculum' activity system was explored in its networks relations to other activity systems. This means, in the current study, the network of the 'internationalising curriculum' activity system consists of two activity systems namely 'internationalising curriculum at program level' and 'internationalising curriculum at course level'.

The second principle is that in the network of 'internationalising curriculum' activity system, the multi-voicedness of this system was formed by the participants (i.e. program managers, course coordinators, and academics) who had their own diverse histories. The multi-voicedness of the system was also created through the participants' use of artifacts and the rules and conventions that mediated the activity of internationalising the curriculum. The

multi-voicedness eventually led to contradictions and tension which served as motivating driver of change and development.

The third principle relates to historicity. Based on this principle, the problems and potentials of the 'internationalising curriculum' activity system were explored alongside its own history. This means the analysis of history is linked with the local history of the 'internationalising curriculum' activity (i.e. the history of internationalising the curriculum at a specific teaching and learning context). Also, the history analysis was associated with the objects and the tools forming the activity of internationalising the curriculum.

The fourth principle refers to contradictions that were considered to be sources of change and development. In the 'internationalising curriculum' activity system, some issues needed to be identified such as the type(s) of contradictions or the contradiction of use and exchange value which infused all vital components of the 'internationalising the curriculum' activity system. Other aspects also had to be examined including the contradiction happening when a new element from the outside conflicts with the old component or the tertiary contradiction occurring if an external object attempts to displace a current object within the 'internationalising curriculum' activity system.

The fifth principle concerns the possibility of expansive transformations in the 'internationalising curriculum' activity systems. The expansive transformation happens if individual subjects (e.g. a program manager, a course coordinator or an academic) start to question and depart from the conventional rules of the 'internationalising curriculum' activity system. Particularly, the use of AT allowed the analysis of how program managers, course coordinators and academics used and created tools for transforming their initial objects (internationalising curriculum at program level and at course level) to a collectively meaningful object (incorporating the international and intercultural dimension into the curriculum) to a potentially shared or jointly created object (developing students' global awareness, international perspectives, and intercultural competence).

Finally, AT is a developmental theory focusing on clarifying and affecting qualitative transformation of human practices over time (Engeström, 1999b). In this sense, using this theory for analysis, the IoC strategies used at FTU can be explained. This unveils the process of transforming from established norms and practices (e.g. the conventional curriculum as well as the established teaching and learning practices at FTU) into a new form of activity (internationalising the curriculum or new approaches to teaching and learning) through the

subjects' reconceptualisation of the object and motive of the activity. When the subjects reconceptualised the object and motive of internationalising the curriculum, they got involved in a new kind of learning. The new type of learning, as defined by Engeström (1999b) refers to expansive learning. The Theory of Expansive Learning was therefore used to explore how the subjects including program managers, course coordinators and academics engage in this learning process. A review of the Theory of Expansive Learning and some justifications for the use of the theory in this study will be provided in the next part.

3.3.8 Theory of Expansive Learning.

3.3.8.1 Defining the Theory of Expansive Learning.

The Theory of Expansive Learning implies the formation of new knowledge and new practices for a newly emergent activity (Engeström, 1999b). This kind of learning, as Engeström (2014) argues, refers to "a new type of learning, which emerges as practitioners struggle through development transformation in their activity systems, moving across collective zones of proximal development" (p. 9). The emergence of the Theory of Expansive Learning helps to address the issue of how people can transform themselves when they transform their states (Mezirow, 1997; Yamazumi, 2009).

The Theory of Expansive Learning emphasises the importance of communities as learners, together with culture creation and change, horizontal movement and hybridisation, and the formation of theoretical concepts (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). In expansive learning, a new object and concept for their collective activity is constructed by learners who subsequently put the new object and concept in practice (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). The construction of new activities, and the acquisition of the required knowledge and skills, are progressively merged in expansive learning activity (Engeström, 1999a; Engeström & Sannino, 2010). Engeström (1987, 1999b) also argues that the process of expansive learning should be regarded as the construction and resolution of successively emerging tensions and contradictions in an intricate system which involves the *object* or *objects*, the mediating *artifacts*, and the participants' *perspectives* (Engeström, 1999b, p. 385). The term 'perspective' is understood as a further expansion of concepts that connect activity systems together as well as link to structures and dynamics of power and privilege. Perspective, in this sense, relates to the notion of agency in Marx's work, the human's capability of grasping the contexts of their activities and the transformation of their practice alongside those contexts (Holland & Reeves, 1996).

Engeström and Sannino (2010) state that the Theory of Expansive Learning presently develops “its analyses both up and down, outward and inward” (p. 1). In the up and outward direction, the theory investigates expansive learning either in fields or networks of interrelated activity systems together with partly shared and regularly debated objects of the systems. In the down and inward direction, it takes into account such issues as subjectivity, experiencing, personal sense, emotion, embodiment, identity, and moral commitment.

3.3.8.2 Theoretical roots of the concept of expansive learning.

According to Engeström and Sannino (2010), the Theory of Expansive Learning originates from foundational ideas proposed by four leading Russian cultural-historical theorists namely: Lev Vygotsky, Aleksei Nikolajevitch Leont’ev, Evald Il’enkov, and Vasily Davydov. However, the conceptual basis of the Theory of Expansive Learning not only depends upon six ideas initiated by these Russian scholars but also on the work of Bateson and Bakhtin as well (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). It is claimed that the six ideas initiated by the four above-mentioned theorists help to form the Theory of Expansive Learning (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). The first idea is Leont’ev’s (1981) differentiation between action and activity as a result of the emergence of division of labour within a community. Expansive learning is therefore seen as movement from actions to activity (Engeström & Sannino, 2010).

The second is Vygotsky’s conceptualisation of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). This refers to learning and development at the level of individual activity, which is then redefined to imply learning and development at the level of collective activities in the Theory of Expansive Learning (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). In expansive learning, the ZPD is interpreted as “the space for expansive transition from actions to activity” (Engeström, 2000b, p. 152).

The third is related to the object-oriented theory. Based on this theory, the object represents both impermeable raw material and the future-oriented motive of the activity. Motives and motivations are not only found inside individual subjects but in the object that is transformed and expanded as well. Expansive learning is argued to be “a process of material transformation of vital relations” (Engeström & Sannino, 2010, p. 4).

The fourth is Il’enkov’s dialectical concept of contradiction, which also plays a critical part in the development of AT (Engeström, 1999a, 2001; Engeström & Sannino, 2010). In reality, Il’enkov’s idea of dialectical contradiction directs the work of Engeström (Engeström,

1987, 1999a). The Theory of Expansive Learning proposed by Engeström (1987) considers contradictions to be historically emerging tensions being able to be identified and resolved in an actual activity system; contradictions are seen as the drivers of transformation. In an activity system, the object is at all times internally contradictory; thus, the internal contradictions enable the object to be “a moving, motivating and future-generating target” (Engeström & Sannino, 2010, pp. 4-5).

The fifth is Davydov’s (1990) theory of learning activity originating from Il’enkov’s conceptualisation of dialectics, which shows the dialectical method of ascending from the abstract to the concrete achieved through specific epistemic or learning actions (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). The dialectical method helps researchers to understand the essence of an object. The logical development of the object and its historical construction through the emergence and resolution of its inner contradictions are traced back to and reproduced by researchers’ use of this approach (Engeström & Sannino, 2010).

It is said that the Theory of Expansive Learning draws on Davydov’s idea of the dialectics of ascending from the abstract to the concrete (Engeström, 2001). The theory provides an approach to understanding the essence of an object by theoretically tracing and replicating the logical development of the object and “its historical formation through the emergence and resolution of its inner contradictions” (Engeström, 1999b, p. 382). According to Engeström (2014), while the ideal-typical sequence of learning activity, proposed by (Davydov, 1988), includes six learning actions occurring within the school and the classroom settings, the idea of epistemic actions in Theory of Expansive Learning is formed and further developed in order to grasp the challenges of learning at work (Engeström, 2014).

The six is the idea of mediation proposed by Vygotsky and his associates. This idea also sets a foundation for the Theory of Expansive Learning. Vygotsky (1978) argues that the essence of human psychological functioning is mediated by means of cultural tools and signs. The mediation of action by cultural tools and signs indicates the subjects’ agency, their capability of changing the world and their own behaviour, which then becomes a central focus of AT (Engeström & Sannino, 2010).

Apart from employing the ideas initiated by some Russian activity theorists, the Theory of Expansive Learning is also shaped by both Bateson’s (1972) idea of three-learning levels and Bakhtin’s (1982) idea of multi voicedness (Engeström & Sannino, 2010).

Bateson's notion of a Learning III level and his conceptualisation of double bind are seen as another theoretical crux of the Theory of Expansive Learning (Engeström, 2001). Bateson's (1972) categorisation of three levels of learning creates groundwork for the development of the Theory of Expansive Learning (Engeström, 2001). According to Bateson (1972), Learning I illustrates the acquisition of the correct responses in the given context, while Learning II refers to learning of the deep-rooted behavioural rules and patterns specific to the context itself. However, Learning II creates a double bind that happens when individuals cannot deal with the inherent dilemma; consequently, they neither resolve it nor opt out of the situation. This can lead to Learning III where individuals begin querying the sense and meaning of the context and to construct a broader alternate context (Bateson, 1972).

In the Theory of Expansive Learning, while Bateson's Learning III level is ultimately identical to expansive learning activity, his idea of a double bind is interpreted as a societal, socially indispensable dilemma not being solved through distinctively specific actions but through joint collaborative actions which can create an historically innovative form of activity (Engeström, 1987). Engeström (2001) claims that although Bateson's proposal of Learning III is stimulating, it does not represent an expounded theory. Bateson's conceptualisation of Learning III is therefore further developed into a systematic framework by Engeström (1987). The Theory of Expansive Learning proposed by Engeström (1987) regards Learning III as learning activity with its own distinctive actions and tools. The entire activity system being engaged by learners is considered to be the object of expansive learning activity. Engeström (2001) affirms that expansive learning activity creates culturally new activity patterns and expansive learning at work forms new practices of work activity.

Finally, the Theory of Expansive Learning, shaped by Bakhtin's (1982) idea of multi-voicedness, indicates the need to analyse all contradictory and complementary voices of the different groups and the layers in the activity system (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). Expansive learning thus represents an integrally multi-voiced process of discussion, dialogue and orchestration (Engeström & Sannino, 2010).

In summary, the Theory of Expansive Learning stems from the theoretical ideas of four dominant Russian cultural-historical theorists and the work of Bateson and Bakhtin. This theory helps to explain a type of learning activity at a workplace. According to Engeström (2001), through expansive learning at work, culturally new activity patterns are created and

new practices of work activity are formed. So, what key issues should be taken into account when using the Theory of Expansive Learning to explore learning at a workplace? The next section presents key terms and issues relating to the Theory of Expansive Learning.

3.3.8.3 Defining key terms in the Theory of Expansive Learning.

Expansion

Engeström and Sannino (2010) state that “the theory of expansive learning must rely on its own metaphor: expansion” (p. 2). Expansion is defined as a form of learning which “transcends linear and sociospatial dimensions of individual and short-lived actions” (Engeström, 1987, p. 210). Expansion is thought to result from a process of changing from current individual actions to a new collective activity. The switch from action to activity is seen as expansive when there is an objective transformation of the actions per se and when subjects recognise contradictions in their existing activity compared to a new form of activity (Engeström, 1987). Although expansion signifies qualitative change and reorganisation of the object, it does not show an unanticipated interruption with the existing object or a complete replacement of the current object with an entirely new one. It is stated that expansion not only transcends but maintains former layers of the object as well (Engeström, Puonti, & Seppänen, 2003).

The cycle of expansive learning.

The expansive cycle commences as the individual subjects question the established practice, which progressively turns into a collective movement or practice. There is a link between the Theory of Expansive Learning and Latour’s Actor Network Theory because both theories consider innovations to be a step-by-step production of new forms of collaborative practice (Engeström, 1999b). In an expansive learning cycle, there is a transformation from the early simple idea into an intricate object or an innovative practice form. Meanwhile, the cycle creates new theoretical concepts which is concrete in systemic richness and multiple manifestations (Engeström, 1999b).

Engeström (1987, 2001) asserts that ascending from the abstract to the concrete is attained through specific epistemic or learning actions that together create an expansive cycle or spiral. In other words, an expansive cycle includes an ideal-typical sequence of learning actions (Engeström, 2014). Engeström (1987, 2014) describes the sequence of epistemic actions as questioning, analysing, modelling, examining, implementing and reflecting.

The first action is called *questioning*. Questioning, criticising, or rejecting some aspects of the established practice and existing knowledge is the first action taking place in the expansive learning cycle (Engeström, 2014). *Analysing* the situation is the second action, which concerns psychological, discursive, or practical change of the circumstance so as to identify causes or explanatory instruments. There are two types of analysis namely *historical-genetic* and *actual-empirical* (Engeström, 2014, p. xxi). While *historical-genetic* analysis aims to explain the circumstance by tracing its initiation and development, *actual-empirical* analysis focuses on explaining the circumstance by visualising its internal systemic associations (Engeström, 2014). *Modelling*, as Engeström (2014) claims, is the third action, which targets creating an unambiguous, simplified model of new idea, explaining and offering a solution to the challenging situation. According to Engeström (2014), *examining* the model is the fourth action that refers to the management, operation and experiment of the model so as to exclusively understand the dynamics, potential and drawbacks of the model. *Implementing* the model is the fifth action (Engeström, 2014), which physically forms the model through pragmatic applications, enhancements, and conceptual extensions. *Reflecting* on and evaluating the process is the sixth action, while *consolidating* its outcomes into a new, stable form of practice is the seventh action (Engeström, 2014).

Boundary-crossing, knotworking, cognitive trails and labor power.

Apart from grasping the concepts of expansion and the cycle of expansive learning, terms such as boundary-crossing, knotworking, cognitive trails and labor power should also be taken into account in order to gain a thorough understanding of the Theory of Expansive Learning to guide the coding and the analysis of collected data.

Boundary-crossing

Engeström (1999b) calls for the “exploration of the concept of boundary crossing to analyse the unfolding of object-oriented cooperative activity of several actors, focusing on tools and means of construction of boundary objects in concrete work process” (p. 391). The notion of boundary-crossing serves as a potential medium of theorising how new professional practices might be created through collaboration between workers from different professional backgrounds (Engeström, Engeström, & Kerosuo, 2003). In his later work, Engeström (2006) argues that the boundaries are created in complex networks of activity system when subjects attempt to develop and create new working practices as well as new ways of being. Therefore, he seeks to theorise and understand what might be happening if

subjects cross such boundaries. Engeström's conceptualisation of the term boundary-crossing facilitates the understanding of how professional expertise develops within and between activity systems (H. Daniels, 2008). Professional expertise can be understood to develop vertically and horizontally based on either conventional notions of professional expertise or the concept of boundary-crossing (H. Daniels, 2008). Standard concepts of professional expertise entail a vertical model, indicating the development of practitioners' competence over time in terms of their acquisition of new professional knowledge or their upward movement in their own expertise. On the contrary, the notion of boundary-crossing advocates the idea of expertise development resulting from practitioners' horizontal collaboration across sectors (H. Daniels, 2008).

Knotworking

Knotworking is defined as the "construction of constantly changing combinations of people and artifacts over lengthy trajectories of time and widely distributed in space" (Y. Engeström, R. Engeström, & Kerosuo & Vahaaho, p. 345). According to Yamazumi (2009), "Knotworking" is seen as an evolving form of collaborative work (p. 215). It refers to partly unprepared practices of intense cooperation between partners who are not tightly connected but getting involved in resolving problems as well as swiftly proposing solutions if required by their common object. In knotworking, authority and control are not fixedly assigned among participants (Yamazumi, 2009).

According to Engeström (2004) expansive learning is dialogical; therefore, it not only assists to tie knots between different activity systems but also identifies a shared perspective through sideways movement which uses the existing knowledge and practitioners' experiences, as well as their visions for the future (Engeström, 2004). Through boundary zones practitioners express their multiple alternatives and challenge the accepted concepts by using their own experienced concepts. Practitioners also get engaged in debates to create a new negotiated model of activity (Engeström, Pasanen, Toiviainen, & Haavisto, 2005).

Cognitive trails

Drawing on Cussins' (1992) theory of cognitive trails, which stresses the role of cognitive trails as guides for future action, Engeström (2006) affirms that these are persistently generated and reproduced in the flow of each individual's experiences. Cognitive trails therefore refer to a form of personified cognition produced by individuals' movement

through space and time. They specify the landscape where individuals have acted, and their actions function as a medium to facilitate future action.

Labour power

H. Daniels et al. (2007) propose that boundary-crossing, knotworking and cognitive trails serve as means for reconstructing collective labour power. As H. Daniels (2008) argues, the quality of collaboration between labour powers within activity systems and between related activity systems is part of Engeström's idea of expansive learning at the workplace and his analytic emphasis on the second and third generations of AT.

Engeström (1987) views the reformulation of problems and creation of new tools for resolving these problems as part of expansive learning. The continuing creation of new problem-solving tools empowers subjects to change the all-inclusive activity system, which potentially construct, or change and magnify the objects of the activity (Engeström, 1987).

In summary, when using the Theory of Expansive Learning, some key aspects need to be examined to gain an insight into a form of learning at a particular workplace. These aspects include the notion of expansion, the expansive learning cycle, the idea of boundary-crossing, knotworking and cognitive trails as well as labour power. These are discussed in the next section which provides a justification for the use of the Theory of Expansive Learning as a suitable theoretical lens for the current study.

3.3.8.4 Justifications for the use of the Theory of Expansive Learning in this study.

FTU together with its university partners are delivering FUPs at FTU in Vietnam, which differ from the conventional programs offered by FTU as they are conducted in English and the curricula of the programs are co-constructed or mapped by both FTU and its university partners. The educators including program managers, course coordinators and academics from FTU and its university partners are therefore taking part in the process of internationalising the curricula of these specific programs.

As Engeström (2001) argues, people and organisations are always in the process of learning something unstable, even undefined or "understood ahead of time" (p. 137). In reality, internationalising the curriculum of the programs is a form of activity that the educators learn at the workplace. In other words, IoC is literally being learnt while it is being created in these programs at FTU. Therefore, the use of the Theory of Expansive Learning provides an insightful understanding of this learning process for a number of reasons.

First, new knowledge of and practices for internationalising the curriculum are constructed by the educators involved in the process of developing the curriculum for each program offered. These educators put the internationalisation of the curriculum into practice. When constructing the activity of internationalising the curriculum as well as acquiring knowledge and skills for completing this activity, educators are engaging in an expansive learning process. This process relates to the educators' resolution of continually evolving tensions and contradictions in the "internationalising curriculum" activity system. Based on their own perspectives, they use mediating artifacts to construct the object or objects (i.e. internationalising curriculum at program level or course level). This reflects their ability of understanding the contexts of internationalising the curriculum and transforming their practice in conjunction with these contexts.

Second, the terms 'expansion' and 'the expansive learning cycle' need to be discussed when using the Theory of Expansive Learning. Based on Engeström's (1987) definition of expansion, in this study, expansion occurs when educators transform their individual actions of internationalising the curriculum to a new collective activity of internationalising curriculum at program level or course level. The expansion also happens when educators identify contradictions in their current activity of internationalising the curriculum.

When educators start questioning the existing practice of internationalising curriculum, the expansive learning cycles begins. This cycle involves a sequence of learning actions with regard to the IoC, first questioning the current practice, then analysing the IoC situation before providing a model to explain and offer a solution to the challenging situation. After examining and implementing the model, they reflect on and evaluate the process of IoC. Finally, they consolidate the outcomes of the model to create a new, stable practice of internationalising curriculum.

Undergoing this expansive learning cycle may enhance the educators' professional expertise. When examining how educators' professional expertise develops within and between the 'internationalising curriculum' activity systems, the idea of boundary-crossing is taken into consideration. The activity of internationalising curriculum could be seen as a new professional practice being created through collaboration between educators like program managers, course coordinators and academics from different professional backgrounds.

In order to internationalise the curriculum, educators engage in an evolving form of collaborative work, known as "knotworking" (Yamazumi, 2009, p. 215). Educators may

express their different strategies for internationalising the curriculum and challenge the established perceptions of IoC by incorporating their own perspectives. They also may engage in discussion to develop a new negotiated model of internationalising curriculum. All of the educators' future actions specified in the model of internationalising curriculum result from the educators' cognitive trails. Eventually, collective labour power is reconstructed thanks to the quality of collaboration among educators engaging in the 'internationalising curriculum' activity system. In brief, the matrix for analysis of expansive learning proposed by Engeström (2001) was used to investigate how educators engage in the expansive learning process with regard to all the associated components.

3.4 Summary of Chapter 3

This chapter provided an overview of the conceptual framework underpinning the study design used to answer the research questions that emerged from the review of the literature presented in Chapter 2. Key aspects of the research process were presented including the importance of well-defined ontological and epistemological perspectives that align with the both the theoretical lens chosen to underpin the research design and the methods used to collect and analyse data. In the process of providing a justification for the conceptual framework that was determined as most appropriate for answering the research questions associated with the current study, a number of possible theories were examined. The decision to use Activity Theory (AT) in conjunction with the Theory of Expansive Learning as the theoretical lens was justified and the synergy between the two was explained, illustrating the design as a good fit for the current study. The complexity of internationalising curriculum at FTU required a complex design framework, as it is not only a collective, cultural and object-oriented activity within the network of activity systems, but it also represents a new form of learning at work among program managers, course coordinators and academics from both FTU and its university partners. The next chapter outlines the research methodology used to interrogate the research questions in this study.

Chapter 4: Methodology

This chapter presents the research methodology used to gather and analyse the data in order to answer the research questions relating to internationalisation of the curriculum at FTU in Vietnam. It outlines and justifies the use of a mainly qualitative approach (with one component of the study utilising a mixed methods approach) as appropriate for gathering and analysing data from staff members at FTU. It also explains why case study was deemed suitable as the framework for the study design, prior to describing the research process employed for the study including the methods used to collect and analyse the data. Finally, ethical considerations associated with the study are discussed.

4.1 Research methodology

Research methodology is concerned with a general approach to scientific inquiry, which indicates the preferences underpinning the process of research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Methodology incorporates the strategy or plan of action, which involves addressing questions such as “why, what, from where, when and how data is collected and analysed” (Scotland, 2012, p. 9). Strategies of inquiry refer to the kinds of qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods designs or models that are drawn on to gather empirical evidence to address the research questions (Creswell, 2013; McMillan & Shumacher, 2010). As previously discussed in Chapter 3, an interpretive approach was used in the current study, which is suitable for either a qualitative or a mixed methods design (Hesse-Biber, 2010).

4.1.1 Study design.

Most data in the current study were collected via the qualitative method of semi-structured interviews. There were two participant groups in the study - Group 1 comprised program managers and course coordinators involved in the management and development at either course or program level of the two FUPs (FTU-CSU and FTU-LMET programs). Group 2 comprised academics teaching in the two programs. Each group of participants provided qualitative data through participation in semi-structured interviews, but Group 2 also included the provision of quantitative data through completion of a survey. It was not appropriate to use surveys for Group 1 as there were only a small number of participants and therefore the data would not be able to be used for any viable quantitative analysis. As it turned out, the number of surveys completed for Group 2 was not as large as anticipated and therefore did not permit more than basic descriptive statistical analysis to be conducted.

However, the surveys did provide a basis for selecting the smaller sample of Group 2 participants for interviewing, thereby fulfilling one of the broader aims of a mixed methods approach as described by Morgan (2014), being elaborated on in the next section.

4.1.2 Qualitative component.

The interpretive social constructivist framework underpinning the design of the current study, focused on using an “inductive method of emergent ideas” (Creswell, 2013, p. 36). According to Kervin and his associates (2006) qualitative research is concerned with words and seeks to make sense of social phenomena happening in real-world settings, through exploring the experiences of participants including their feelings and ideas (Kervin, Vialle, Herrington, & Okely, 2006).

Some of the main characteristics of qualitative or naturalistic paradigm identified by Patton (2015) guided the current study. The intention was to gain in-depth, holistic, contextually sensitive understandings of a phenomenon, within a real-world setting. Being engaged and acknowledging subjectivity, the value-laden nature of participants’ responses and reflexivity were important considerations. Furthermore, it was also important to study and document diversity and natural variation in the world through the selection of strategic cases and the purposeful sampling of rich information. Looking for themes and patterns was the primary analytical strategy used for data analysis to illuminate human diversity through seeking patterns in that diversity (Patton, 2015).

4.1.3 Mixed methods component.

Much research today utilises a combination of approaches combining quantitative data such as statistical trends with the qualitative data such as stories and personal experiences (Creswell, 2015). In practice, some research problems will be addressed more thoroughly with the use of both quantitative and qualitative data. These problems typically require a mixed methods research approach, which together with collecting, analysing, and interpreting both quantitative and qualitative data, requires integration of conclusions reached from analysing such data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

Edmonds and Kennedy (2013) explain the characteristics of participant-selection design as identical to the explanatory sequential design proposed by (Creswell, 2015). This design is also similar to the preliminary quantitative input design described by Morgan (2014). Those research designs represent a sequential mixed method design as defined by Hesse-Biber (2010). In the current study, a preliminary quantitative input design (Morgan, 2014),

was used with qualitative strategies forming the core research method; and quantitative methods used for gathering preliminary quantitative inputs for one set of participants – the academics.

4.1.4 Justification for using the combined design in this study.

A number of factors influence the choice of a specific research design, including the research problem, the researcher's worldview, research strategies, research methods, the researcher's personal experience and the intended audience of the research (Creswell, 2015). Taking these factors into consideration, it was determined that both broad and deeper level data where possible, was required in order to effectively answer the main research question, namely,

How is IoC implemented by a Vietnamese university which offers foreign undergraduate programs (FUPs) in partnership with western universities?

As previously explained, data was collected from the two participant groups in slightly different ways. The smaller pool of program managers and course coordinators making up Group 1 precluded the need for a survey to gather a broader set of data or to determine a sampling strategy for interviews. However, as there was a larger pool of academics making up Group 2, the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods enabled a broader set of data to be collected and provided an opportunity for using the survey as a means of identifying participants to recruit for the qualitative component (Creswell, 2015). The data from the two participant groups was collected and analysed in order to answer the following five sub-questions:

1. How is IoC perceived by the management team and academics in FUPs?
2. What contextual layers impacting IoC are perceived by management personnel and academics?
3. In what ways do management personnel and academics internationalise FUPs?
4. What enablers and blockers of IoC are perceived by management personnel and academics in FUPs?
5. In what ways, if any, does the offering of FUPs impact on the internationalisation of the university?

A number of possible mixed methods designs could have been employed to address such questions. For instance, Creswell (2015) categorises mixed methods research design into five general types including convergent designs, embedded designs, exploratory designs,

explanatory designs and multiphase iterative designs. On the other hand, Morgan (2014) classifies mixed methods research design based on the “sequential priorities model” (p. 86), explaining that when sequential contributions are viewed as a motivation for mixed methods research, the research design is based on two vital principles namely sequencing and prioritising. The four research designs in the sequential priorities model are illustrated in Table 4.1. Sequencing refers to research designs which employ the supplementary method as an input to the core method or as an extension of the core method, while prioritising refers to research designs which connect a core method with an additional method (Morgan, 2014). The flexibility of Morgan’s (2014) design offered an appropriate framework for the mixture of methods used in the current study for Group 2 participants.

Table 4.1

Sequential Priorities Designs for Integrating Qualitative and Quantitative Methods

	Core methods	Preliminary	Sequence Follow-up
Priority	Quantitative	<i>Qual -> QUANT</i> (Preliminary Qualitative Input)	<i>QUANT -> qual</i> (Follow-up Qualitative extension)
	Qualitative	<i>Quant -> QUAL</i> (Preliminary Quantitative Input)	<i>QUAL -> quant</i> (Follow-up Quantitative extension)

Source: Adapted from “The Sequential Priorities Model,” by Morgan, D. L. (2014). *Integrating Qualitative and Quantitative Method: A Pragmatic Approach*, p.86. Copyright 2014 SAGE Publications

The preliminary quantitative input design was chosen for the current study because the breadth of the preliminary, quantitative methods was seen as a contribution to the depth of the core, qualitative method. More specifically, the use of quantitative method as a supplementary one in the preliminary stage enabled the selection of appropriate data sources, which obviously enhanced the effectiveness of the core qualitative method in this research project. Within this design, “predetermined criteria” was created to enable systematic research through a larger database of potential cases (Morgan, 2014, p. 93). In the core qualitative study, the procedure for choosing data sources depends on two features: “the tendency to rely on small *Ns* and the emphasis on purposive selection” (Morgan, 2014, p. 124). Relying on small *Ns* means it is critical to locate appropriate sources in order to dig deeply into a small number of data rich sources (Morgan, 2014). Preliminary quantitative method therefore supports the choice of appropriate individuals or cases for examination.

Additionally, purposive selection in qualitative research involves the identification of particular types of research informants or cases that match with the sort of data researchers need. Preliminary quantitative methods thus enable data sources to be located on a purposive selection principle (Morgan, 2014).

In the current research project, issues such as generalisability and representativeness were not regarded as key for selecting data sources. Rather qualitative methods enabled the examination of a well-specified phenomenon in depth within a specific social context.

In preliminary quantitative designs, the needs of the core method are initially addressed (Morgan, 2014). In the current study, interviews formed the core method enabling detailed in-depth data to be collected from a small number of well-selected sources. Using a quantitative method in the form of surveys at the preliminary stage for Group 2 enabled a larger number of possible data sources to be examined for suitability as participants in the core qualitative part.

A number of qualitative inquiry approaches including narrative research, phenomenology, ethnography and grounded theory were considered for the purposes of the current study; however, case study was determined as the most appropriate framework for the methodological study design. In the next section, case study is briefly explained and justifications provided for its application to the current study.

4.1.5 Case study research.

4.1.5.1 *Definition and main features of case study research.*

Definition.

Yin (2014) defines case study research as an empirical inquiry, which aims to examine a contemporary phenomenon. The phenomenon, also called the 'case', is studied in depth and within its real world setting, particularly when it is not evident where the boundaries are between context and phenomenon (Yin, 2013). As such, case study involves the study of a 'particular' (Stake, 1995) or a 'single instance' (Creswell, 2014). It concentrates on one aspect, which is examined in detail (Thomas, 2011). According to Stake (1995) case study involves "the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances" (p. xi). Case study is particularly suitable for answering 'how' and 'why' questions relating to events over which the researcher has "little or no control" (Yin, 2014 p. 14). Case study also provides an avenue for research using more

than one method (Thomas, 2011), as it lends itself to both qualitative and quantitative methods (Cohen et al., 2011).

Whilst case studies have strength in terms of reality and are able to provide a holistic picture of research, they also have limitations (Flyvbjerg, 2004 ; Nisbet & Watt, 1984; Stake, 2005; Tight, 2010; Yin, 2014), including the risk of observer bias and subjectivity (Yin, 2014). Lack of generalisability, whereby results may not be more broadly transferable, is another concern often raised in regard to case study (Cohen et al., 2011; Flyvbjerg, 2004 ; Thomas, 2011). However, as Cohen et al. (2011) argue, the trend is now towards analytical rather than statistical generalisation for case study research. Thus, rather than inferring experimental results more generally through repetition, case studies can be used to generalise a broader theory which is then tested through other cases (Cohen et al., 2011). Generalisability in social research is not clear cut anyway and should not be seen as a requirement of 'good' research, since social research, by its very nature, is not generalisable in the same way as experimental research (Thomas, 2011; Yin, 2014). Using the process of IoC at FTU as a case study meant that while the results might not be directly generalisable to other similar settings, theories and recommendations developed from the research could still provide useful guidance for other similar settings and in regard to further research.

Features and types of case study research.

Yin (2014) identifies three typical features of case study research. First, it is used to deal with contexts where the number of variables exceed the data points; second, it counts on diverse sources of evidence, with data being triangulated; and third, any theoretical propositions in a case study, will guide the collection and analysis of data (Yin, 2014).

There are also different types of case study research (Tarrant, Rubin, & Stoner, 2014). Yin (2014) classifies case studies as either explanatory, exploratory or descriptive. Explanatory case study clarifies how and why some conditions occur, exploratory case study aims to ascertain research questions or procedures to be employed in a subsequent research study, while descriptive case study aims at describing a phenomenon in its real life situation (Yin, 2014). The current case study could be described as both explanatory and descriptive as a relativist perspective was used as a lens to describe and explain the internationalisation of higher education curriculum in a non-western teaching and learning context. Thus, as discussed in Section 3.3.4, the interpretive social constructivism framework was employed in this thesis. Moreover, both Activity Theory (AT) and the Theory of Expansive Learning were

used as theoretical lens since the synergy between the two, as explained in Section 3.3.6, illustrated the design as a good fit for the current study. In reality, the phenomenon of ‘internationalising curriculum’ was viewed as an activity that is a cultural, historical, object-oriented activity within a network of an activity system. This kind of activity not only depended upon its contextual layers but also its participants and the researcher as an observer.

4.1.5.2 Rationale and application of case study in the current study.

In the current case study, IoC was the subject or case, within the context of FTU, with the IoC implemented by program managers, course coordinators and academics in FUPs between FTU and its university partners, specifically examined.

The overarching question underpinning the current study was framed as a ‘how’ question, lending itself to a case study as a means of framing a suitable design for gaining the appropriate data. Boundaries are important in case studies (Stake, 2005) and in the current study the two programs offered through FTU and its partner providers in the UK and USA served as boundaries as did the specific time frame between 2015-2017 (see Figure 4.1).

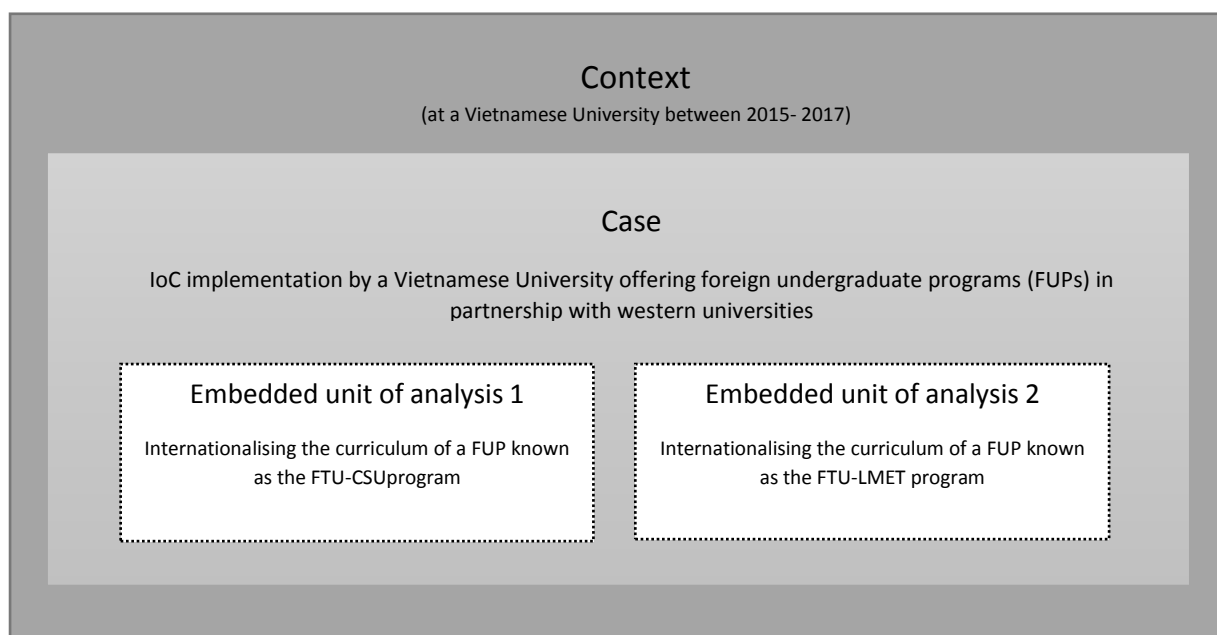


Figure 4.1. Case study design for the project

Source: Adapted from “Basic Types of Designs for Case Studies,” by Yin, R.K. (2012). *Application of Case Study Research*, p.8. Copyright 2012 SAGE Publications

As outlined in Figure 4.1, the main unit of analysis in the study is the *Case* referring to ‘IoC implementation by a Vietnamese university offering FUPs in partnership with western

universities'. This is a holistic case with two embedded subcases (Yin, 2012) and units of analysis, namely:

- Internationalising the curriculum of a FUP known as the FTU-CSU program
- Internationalising the curriculum of a FUP known as the FTU-LMET program

Although generalisability is often a limitation of case study, and the findings from the current case study are not generalisable to all situations of IoC in tertiary institutions, it still provided a valuable approach for examining the particular setting in detail, with the possibility that explanatory insights could help create theory for other similar settings.

Use of a case study strategy for this current project provided an opportunity for the adoption of a combination of qualitative and mixed methods for data collection and analysis, enabling triangulation of data from various sources (Creswell & Clark, 2011; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This data triangulation provided a rich array of data in order to answer the research questions.

4.1.6 Cross-cultural research.

Any form of cross-cultural research requires consideration and understanding of the cultural mores of the community in which the research is taking place (Papadopoulos & Lees, 2002). Historical, social, religious and political mores all need to be considered (Hall & Kulig, 2004). Methodologically, this study involved consideration of a number of cross-cultural aspects, particularly with regard to language considerations. This is because the data was collected in Vietnam, and although all participants were involved in joint training programs with English speaking countries, there was a concern that some participants may have felt more comfortable being provided with the opportunity to present their views in their first language, namely Vietnamese. While most participants would be expected to have a reasonably high level of English competence due to their involvement in the FUPs, this does not necessarily mean they would be comfortable being interviewed about their perceptions in English, particularly when the topic is about internationalisation. It could be perceived as presumptive to expect that the idea of internationalisation only went one way – would it be unreasonable to expect that Australian research be internationalised to take into account the country where it is being conducted? For this reason, the decision was made to offer the choice of completing surveys and interviews in either Vietnamese or English.

Further concerns that are often raised in relation to cross-cultural research involve researchers having a shared cultural background with participants, which has been noted as

both a benefit and a potential limitation. Liamputtong (2008), for example, suggests a shared cultural background reduces potential linguistic barriers while Bishop (2005) argues that it can lead to bias in questioning. In the current study, the cultural and linguistic background shared by myself, as the researcher, and the participants, meant it was important to ensure that professional expert advice was sought in relation to data collection and analysis.

In terms of language, the instruments used in the study were adapted from instruments used in other existing studies that had been mainly conducted in Western countries. The survey was self-designed but included adaptations of questions from two main sources: (1) a questionnaire regarding IoC designed by Bennett and Kane (2011) and (2) the list of strategies for IoC proposed by Griffith University (Barker, 2011). The interview questions were also designed to tap into ideas that were prevalent in the related literature. It was therefore important that all questions used for the purpose of data collection were culturally relevant and comprehensible while still maintaining the intent and meaning of the original sources (Sperber, 2004).

As this study was conducted in Vietnam, all survey scales and the interview questions were adapted and prepared in English and then translated into Vietnamese (Harkness & Schoua-Glusberg, 1998). Translating data gathering tools developed in another culture can be methodologically challenging due to linguistic and cultural differences (Hilton & Skrutkowski, 2002; Rode, 2005; Sousa & Rojjanasrirat, 2011). It is important to examine the meaning of the questions and items of the survey in the original and translated versions for consistency (Rode, 2005) and to enhance reliability and validity (Gjersing, Caplehorn, & Clausen, 2010; Rode, 2005).

Translation and adaptation of instruments for use in another culture and language requires guidance and support from experts. In the current study, the instruments were initially developed in English with the assistance of my PhD supervisors and then translated into Vietnamese. The accuracy of the translation was provided by two colleagues at FTU who were fluent in both English and Vietnamese and experienced in the field of cross-cultural research, particularly in relation to symmetrical translation whereby the translated instrument is relevant to the target population, but also conceptually equivalent to the original language (Peters & Passchier, 2006). Once the translation was completed, the survey items and interview questions were piloted with a group of Vietnamese colleagues to ensure that they were understandable and that they were asking what they were meant to. In

particular, pilot participants were asked to evaluate the instructions, items and the response format of the survey and interview questions in order to establish clarity and to detect misleading or confusing items (Gjersing et al., 2010; Sousa & Rojjanasrirat, 2011). Feedback from the participants in the small pilot study highlighted a few issues related to the content of the questions, which resulted in some rewording and deletion of a couple of questions. This was particularly important in relation to some of the survey items, to ensure they were culturally relevant while maintaining the intent and meaning of the original version of those items (Sperber, 2004).

In this study, the transcripts were written and prepared for analysis in Vietnamese, while the emergent themes and sub-themes were translated into English. The two FTU colleagues who had assessed the original translation of the interview and survey questions also assisted with the translation and back-translation (from the original to the target language and vice versa) of a sample of the interview transcripts after analysis (Chen & Boore, 2010; Regmi, Naidoo, & Pilkington, 2010). The following section outlines how the research was conducted.

4.2 Research methods.

4.2.1 Overview of research methods.

The term research methods can be defined in different ways, either as specific strategies for conducting research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009), or more specifically, the techniques and procedures for collecting and analysing data (Crotty, 1998). In the current study both quantitative and qualitative data was collected. For Group 1 participants, all data was collected qualitatively via interviews. For Group 2 participants, a preliminary quantitative input design was used with surveys providing input to the core qualitative method that utilised interviews. The next section outlines the processes used to collect and analyse the data, beginning with sampling.

4.2.2 Sampling.

Fowler (2013) highlights the three fundamental aspects of sample selection for survey research, including the sample frame, the probability sampling procedures and the precision of sample estimates. With respect to the sample frame, researchers are required to identify the set of people that have a chance of selection through the use of a specific sampling approach (Fowler, 2013).

Sampling approaches can be split into two main categories namely probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling refers to the random selection of the sample from the overall population while non-probability sampling refers to purposeful selection of the sample from the overall population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). When dealing with selection of samples, the final aspect researchers should consider is the precision of sample estimates, which is affected by the details of the sample design, its size and the specific procedures used for selecting units (Fowler, 2013). Sampling schemes include simple random sampling, systematic sampling or stratified sampling, each of which has some effect on the precision of sample estimates (Fowler, 2013).

The sampling procedure used in the current study was based on the preliminary quantitative input design; therefore, simple random sampling was used for the survey and then purposeful sampling for the interviews. The next section outlines the process of data collection and analysis, which involved two separate phases.

4.2.3 Quantitative component.

The following section outlines the quantitative component of the research, which involved surveys completed by academics, serving as a means for participant selection in the core qualitative section, but also as a way of providing an overall view of the research problem, to further guide the design of the qualitative component.

4.2.3.1 Selection of groups and participants.

The participants for the survey were all academics in the two FUPs. Ethics approval was obtained from both Federation University Australia and FTU to conduct the study at the FTU campus in Vietnam. Academics teaching in the FTU-CSU and FTU-LMET programs were invited to participate in the project via email. After obtaining permission from the President of FTU to conduct the research, an email was designed and sent to coordinators of the two programs, who were then asked if they would be willing to send an email to academics from FTU, CSU and LMET. It was conducted in this way as only program coordinators had full and up to date email lists for academics. The email included an invitation to participate in the research project and provided a brief explanation of the objectives and a link to the LimeSurvey online survey (Appendix 1). The exact number of academics who received invitations to complete surveys is not known but if all academics teaching in the two programs had been contacted, this would have resulted in more than a hundred survey responses,

which would have enabled a deeper level of statistical analysis; instead 46 surveys were received, of which 34 were valid for inclusion.

The survey explored academics' (a) experience in tertiary education and international education; (b) perceptions of internationalisation at FTU; (c) perceptions of and experience in IoC; (d) perceptions of employability issues in tertiary education; and (e) perceptions of key characteristics of intercultural competence.

The quantitative data collected from the survey was coded and exported to an SPSS file but due to the small number of participants involved, mainly descriptive statistical analysis was conducted. The survey also provided a set of participants for the interviews. The selection criteria used to determine suitable interview participants was dependent upon the information provided in responses to Part C of the survey, namely perceptions of and experience in IoC as it was deemed important to involve participants with such actual experience. In terms of non-FTU academics, who were teaching into the programs through their association with CSU or LMET, as none completed the survey, meeting of the criteria was determined via email correspondence. Academics were invited to complete the survey online after being informed about the nature of the study and as an ethical aid, a "click to accept" button was added for participants to indicate their consent to participate (Kraut et al., 2004).

4.2.3.2 Participants.

Altogether 46 FTU academics attempted the survey, with 34 completing it and 12 partially completing it. Only the completed surveys were analysed. The content of the survey related to Business courses only, as that was where the FUPs were situated at FTU. Nine respondents did not provide their contact details, indicating that they were not interested in participating in interviews. This meant that 25 academics provided details so that they could be contacted for interviews, with 17 meeting the selection criteria (explained in Section 4.2.4.3), however two of these were not available during the time of the interviews. This left 15 FTU academics but no academics from CSU or LMET as none had completed the survey. However, after further email contact inviting participation, two who met the criteria of IoC experience, agreed to participate in interviews, which meant there was one representative from each of the CSU and LMET programs, bringing the total number of interviewees to 17.

4.2.3.3 Quantitative data collection.

Surveys as a research instrument.

Surveys provide an easily administered way of collecting deductive-objective-generalised data. Subsequently, researchers make inferences about a particular population from the sample's responses (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). In a preliminary quantitative design, surveys produce equivalent results and fairly large samples, which can serve as a preliminary step for researchers to identify potential participants for a qualitative study. However, surveys also have limitations such as low return rates, misleading responses due to literacy levels, or the irrelevance of content items (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016); therefore, it is important to ensure surveys are well designed and suitable for the context in which they are to be used.

The design and implementation of the survey.

Survey content depends on the reasons behind administration of a survey instrument (Morgan, 2014). In the current study, the surveys were used to gather information about potential participants for the qualitative part of the study and as a way of gathering a large amount of broad data related to the IoC of the two FUPs from the perspective of academics. It was not considered worthwhile to employ a survey for program leaders or course coordinators as there were only small numbers involved, which limited the value of the data.

The survey used in the current study was designed and adapted based on two main sources: (1) A questionnaire regarding IoC designed by Bennett and Kane (2011) and (2) the list of strategies for IoC proposed by Griffith University (Barker, 2011). By using these reference sources, questions were able to be specified in advance (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). The survey included four main sections together with an introduction (Appendix 2). As the survey was online, participants were provided with an introduction to explain the purposes of the survey and instructions for completing. Section one included demographic questions about the respondents such as gender and work experience. The other three sections included content questions which examined the respondents' opinion, attitudes and knowledge about internationalisation and internationalisation of the curriculum.

The survey was inclusive of components adapted from the list of strategies for IoC proposed by Griffith University (Barker, 2011); however, the survey items in this study were mainly adapted from the questionnaire designed by Bennet and Kane (2011) who conducted a survey on the factors influencing the "the speed, extent, and intensity of a business school's internationalization efforts" in the UK (Bennett & Kane, 2011, p. 351). The original version of

the survey was refined after discussions with four senior managers involved in internationalisation activities of two UK universities, and ended up covering such aspects as general information about internationalisation activities, drivers, employability issues, intensity of internationalisation and internationalisation approaches. The survey was completed by 65 of the 142 business schools in UK universities, thereby providing a reliable reference point for designing survey items in this study (Bennett & Kane, 2011)

According to Graziano and Raulin (2013), participants' responses to questions about opinions and attitudes are subjective and divergent; with no right or wrong answer. The surveys were distributed to academics, many of whom were mainly non-native English speakers. Therefore, there was a chance that respondents' reading and writing skills could lead to misinterpretation of one or more questions, thus misleading their responses (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). In order to deal with this issue, the survey was designed in a bilingual language format so that participants could choose their preferred language for completing the survey. Another issue to be considered was the likelihood of a low return rate when the questionnaires are circulated by mail or e-mail (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016), which was certainly an issue in the current study, at least in relation to the academics who were not based at FTU, but rather at CSU or LMET.

Anonymity often assists participants to provide honest answers in survey situations, but often anonymity is not possible, such as when follow-up interviews are involved which require contact details, as was the case in the current study. However, participants had a choice and only needed to provide contact details if they wished to participate further.

The aim of the survey was to collect descriptive data regarding participants' educational and professional background and their perceptions of IoC. The survey data was collected online via Lime Survey, which took participants between 20 to 30 minutes to complete, either in English or Vietnamese.

4.2.3.4 Quantitative data analysis.

Researchers undergo the same procedure for analysing either quantitative or qualitative data, including preparing the data for analysis, exploring the data, analysing the data, representing the analysis, and validating the data (Creswell & Clark, 2007). In terms of the current study, each of those steps were followed as outlined in the next section.

Preparing the data for analysis.

The survey results were provided in LimeSurvey. Data was examined for outliers and a small amount of cleaning occurred before numeric values were assigned to each response. Recoding and computing were completed using the statistical program SPSS 21.0. In addition, a codebook including variables, their definitions, and the variable numbers for each was developed.

When exploring the data, trends and distributions were examined through a visual exploration of a descriptive analysis including the mean, standard deviation, and variance of responses to each item (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

Analysing the data is concerned with investigating the database to address the research questions or hypotheses. Therefore, there are multiple levels of analysis in both quantitative and qualitative analysis (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The choice of statistical test needs to reflect the type of questions being asked, but as the number of surveys completed in the current study was not large enough to warrant higher-level statistical analysis, only descriptive analysis was conducted. Figures and tables were used to present quantitative results in a visual form to illustrate the trends and distributions of data.

Although there are some differences in validity aspects in quantitative and qualitative research, validity functions as an indispensable element for ensuring the quality of the data and the results (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Despite having several meanings, the term validity is basically concerned with methodological soundness or appropriateness specifically in relation to a valid test and a valid research design (Graziano & Raulin, 2013). A test is considered to be valid if it “measures what it is supposed to measure”; while, a research design is valid when it “tests what it is supposed to test” (Graziano & Raulin, 2013, p. 179). While establishing reliability and validity are important in studies which involve quantitative components, the nature and extent of the quantitative component also needs to be considered, as small quantitative samples impact significantly on the type of analysis that can be conducted, as was the case in the current study.

Reliability and validity considerations.

Reliability is considered a key aspect in measurement, which principally refers to consistency over time and internally (Punch & Oancea, 2014). As only 34 valid survey responses were completed by academics teaching in the two programs, the type of statistical analysis initially considered for the survey had to be revised. As such, the need for meeting

the set of conditions generally required for higher level statistical analysis were no longer a requirement and the data from the surveys mainly provided a layer of descriptive detail.

Validity is another central concept in quality of measurement (Punch & Oancea, 2014), specifically in relation to content validity, criteria-related validity, and construct validity (Creswell & Clark, 2007). In the current study, the survey was adapted from two main sources. The content items related to IoC issues such as perceptions of IoC or strategies for IoC implementation were documented in the work of Bennett and Kane (2011) as well as Griffith University (Barker, 2011). As such key aspects of IoC were included to address the content validity. Using a previously validated questionnaire also enabled consideration of “reviews of instruments or reports on the validity and reliability of scores taken earlier from the instruments” (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p. 133), which relate to criterion-related validity. Concurrent validity was assisted through the selected sample having some experience in international education while construct validity was aided through the use of mixed methods, at least in relation to the data provided by the academics making up Group 2 participants.

Possible forms of bias considered in the current study included sampling bias, instrumentation bias and response bias. With regard to sampling bias, any aspects yielding a non-representative sample of the population is seen as sampling bias (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Online interviews or internet-based surveys potentially contain bias since these types of studies can eliminate individuals with limited computer literacy and access to the internet (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). This was not an issue in the current study as all participants possessed basic computer skills. Instrumentation bias involves the use of a specific research instrument which affects the collected data in some aspects because some important aspects might be excluded and other less relevant ones included by default (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). In the current study, reference sources were used for designing the questionnaires in order to deal with this issue, as mentioned previously on page 108. Response bias occurs when participants provide inaccurate descriptions of their thoughts, beliefs, and experiences (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016), which can happen when surveys call for self-reports. This can be accidental or intentional, particularly when respondents have to recall past events or if there is an unequal power relationship between the researcher and participants (Wheelan, 2013). Follow-up interviews with a sample of the survey participants provided an opportunity for clarification of any issues that may have resulted in any form of bias.

4.2.4 Qualitative component.

The qualitative component of the research consisted of interviews to investigate the perceptions of program managers, course coordinators and academics in relation to IoC of FUPs at FTU in Vietnam. For Group 2 participants, the interviews followed the survey which made up the quantitative component.

4.2.4.1 Sampling.

Sampling for qualitative data collection often involves purposeful selection of participants to help researchers grasp deeper understandings of the key issues being investigated. There are a number of options for selecting participants for the second phase in a two-phase research project (McMillan & Shumacher, 2010). As previously discussed, academics who were interviewed were purposively chosen from the pool of survey participants, while program leaders and course coordinators were chosen from a smaller pool and included those who agreed to participate and made themselves available for interviews.

4.2.4.2 Selection of groups and participants.

Two main strategies were used for sample selection for the interviews. The first was to select participants who volunteered to participate in the follow up interviews. The collection of quantitative data helped provide ideas for probing that would be useful in interviews. This meant that the list of the volunteers was scrutinised to ensure that a range of views were included in the interviews, with features such as availability, and perceptions of and experience in IoC taken into account when finalising the list of interview participants. The second strategy was critical sampling, which is used to select individuals based on specific individual cases or criteria (Creswell, 2015). The academics who were chosen to participate in interviews had to meet criteria which is explained in the next section.

Program manager and course coordinator sample.

In order to examine the IoC at both program and course levels, eight people in leadership/management were invited to participate in this research. These were people who worked either as program managers and/or course coordinators in the two examined programs. From FTU, there were three personnel working as program managers, with two co-managing the FTU-CSU program and one managing the FTU-LMET program. They had been responsible for overseeing the programs since their launch. Two other FTU personnel were assigned as course coordinators for each program. From CSU, one person was appointed to work as both a program manager and course coordinator. From LMET, one was the program

manager and the other was the course coordinator. These program managers and/or course coordinators from FTU, CSU and LMET were recruited as they were in charge of managing the programs when this study was conducted at FTU. All agreed to participate in this study when being invited. As such, there were eight program managers and/or course coordinators participating in this study as members of Group 1. The details are outlined in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Group 1 Participants: Program managers and course coordinators

Programs	University partners	Number of representative program managers/ course coordinators	Total no. of participants
FTU-CSU program	FTU	Two personnel co-managing the program at program level (two program managers) One personnel managing the program at course level (one course coordinator)	3
	CSU	One personnel managing the program at both program and course level (one program manager/course coordinator)	1
FTU-LMET program	FTU	One personnel managing the program at program level (one program manager) One personnel managing the program at course level (one course coordinator)	2
	LMET	Two personnel co-managing the program at both program and course level (two program managers/course coordinators)	2

Academic sample.

Academics from FTU were selected as participants in the interviews based on criteria that included their willingness to participate and involvement in IoC in courses within the two FUPs. Fifteen FTU academics were selected for the follow-up interviews in this research, which was a representative sample. The representative sample of academics was selected following analysis of the survey data using the above criteria.

As indicated in the approved ethics application the study was only conducted at the FTU campus. Therefore, the academics from CSU and LMET were invited to participate in the study when they were on FTU campus. This purposeful sampling was also influenced by the participants' willingness to participate in the study as well as their availability and teaching schedule at FTU during the period of data collection. In this study, two academics (one

academic from CSU and the other from LMET) agreed to participate in the interviews. The selection of academics from FTU, CSU and LMET for interviewing is summarised in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

The selection of academics from FTU, CSU and LMET for interviewing

Academics	No. of academics lecturing in FTU-CSU program/FTU-LMET program	Total no. of participants
FTU academics	Three academics lecturing in both FTU-CSU and FTU-LMET programs	3
	Three academics lecturing in FTU-CSU program only	3
	Three academics lecturing in FTU-LMET program only	3
	Three English teachers lecturing Business introductory courses in both FTU-CSU and FTU-LMET programs	3
	Three academics teaching English courses in both FTU-CSU and FTU-LMET programs	3
CSU academic	One CSU academic	1
LMET academic	One LMET academic	1

4.2.4.3. Qualitative data collection.

Interviews as research instruments.

Interviews were used as the main instrument to collect qualitative data in the current study. Patton (2015) outlines twelve contrasting interview approaches grounded in different qualitative inquiry traditions, including social constructionist interviewing, which was deemed appropriate for the current study. According to Koro-Ljungberg (2008), social constructionist interviews refer to “dialogical performances, social meaning-making acts, and co-facilitated knowledge exchanges” (p. 430). This interview approach is used for investigating the experiences of people in specific phenomena which, through dialogue, are co-constructed (Koro-Ljungberg, 2008). Within such a structure, open-endedness is valuable as it allows researchers the chance to explore the research participants’ additional interests and perceptions (Morgan, 2014). Patton (2015) suggests there are three basic techniques for collecting qualitative data through open-ended interviews including the informal conversational interview, the interview guide and the standardised open-ended interview. For the current study, questions had been formulated to ensure that the data required to answer the research questions was obtained, so an interview guide was created prior to

interviews with program managers, course coordinators and academics. The interview focus (i.e. issues related to IoC) was predetermined; therefore, all relevant issues were covered through using the guide as a checklist during the interview. The design and implementation of the interviews is explained in the next sections.

The design and implementation of interviews.

Separate interview guides were created for the interviews with each of the three groups: program managers, course coordinators and academics. The guide for interviewing program managers focused on their perceptions of IoC, the strategies used for internationalising the curriculum at the program level, and associated challenges. The guide for course coordinators was similar with a focus on IoC at the course level. For academic participants, questions focused on participants' work experience in education, their perceptions of IoC and its' implementation in their courses, enablers or blockers facing them when internationalising their teaching courses and ways of enhancing IoC implementation in their teaching and learning contexts. These guides are included as Appendix 3.1 & 3.2, Appendix 4.1 & 4.2, and Appendix 5.1 & 5.2.

Interviews with program managers, course-coordinators and academics were conducted mainly face-to-face in Vietnam over the period of time from September 2015 to December 2016. The interviews with the two academics from CSU and LMET were conducted via skype as they were not in Vietnam at the time of the interview. The interviews lasted between 30 to 45 minutes. All participants were informed that they could select a pseudonym instead of using their own name during the interview; however, none chose a pseudonym, so instead a system of letters and numbers was devised to describe participants. This involved the letters PM and numbers 1-8 to identify the program managers/course coordinators who were interviewed. The letters AC and numbers 1-36 were used to identify the entire group of academics who participated (the 34 who completed surveys and 2 non-FTU academics who were only interviewed). This system of identification for the academics will become clearer upon reading Chapter 6, where it is more fully explained. Interviews were then transcribed verbatim, translated from Vietnamese into English if required and reviewed for accuracy.

4.2.4.4 Qualitative data analysis.

The procedure for analysing qualitative data was similar to the one for quantitative data, involving a number of stages.

Preparing the data for analysis.

Interview data were transcribed in a personal computer with the use of DSS Player Pro Transcription software. This software facilitated transcription of MP3 audio files into a Microsoft Word document. All the transcriptions in Vietnamese were translated into English and samples of translated versions were sent to FTU colleagues for accuracy checking, as previously explained. Finally, all the qualitative data were entered into a qualitative data analysis software program called NVivo 11.

The data was initially explored by reading through with an aim to gain an overall understanding of the database. This involved recording preliminary thoughts by writing short memos in the margins of translated transcripts, to help identify broader categories of data in terms of codes and themes (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Analytic induction was utilised as it provided a way of systematically examining cases for similarities to develop ideas (Punch & Oancea, 2014). The data analysis involved three main components: data reduction, data display, and drawing and verifying conclusions (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Data reduction.

The principal goal of data reduction is to maintain information while reducing extraneous data (Punch & Oancea, 2014). The process of data reduction recurrently took place throughout the analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In the initial stage, data was edited, segmented and summarised before being divided into meaningful analytical units. In order to segment the data, a classification system, known as typology, was developed. Typology refers to classifying according to a set of characteristics. In the next stage, data reduction involved coding and memoing as well as identifying themes, clusters and patterns. The use of descriptive codes enabled storing and retrieving of information while pattern or thematic codes provided a way of summarising data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). It is important to create unambiguous links between data indicators and codes, i.e. conceptual labels given to the data, to support inter-coder reliability (Punch & Oancea, 2014). In the current study data was coded through dividing the text into small units and assigning a label to each through the use of Nvivo 11 software program. This enabled retrieval and organising of codes into a visual, creating diagrams to see the relationships among units and identification of text segments containing multiple codes (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

Memoing serves as a useful means of recording generated ideas through reflective notes that capture emerging patterns or themes in the data (Johnson & Christensen, 2014).

In the current study, memoing enabled emerging ideas to be tracked during the interpretive process of qualitative analysis, which helped in recording of insights.

Data reduction occurred through conceptualising to develop abstract concepts in the subsequent stages (Punch & Oancea, 2014). It helped in the development of abstract concepts through theme matching and explanation building. In order to achieve this goal, data reduction in the current study was based on the theoretical framework using the third generation of AT and the Theory of Expansive Learning, as the theoretical lenses (Creswell, 2015). In the next section, this is explained in more detail.

Using the third generation of Activity Theory as a theoretical lens.

Third generation AT was used to provide an in-depth understanding of the interaction between components in the activity systems and how these components influenced IoC in a non-western university. The analyses of IoC in these activity systems were guided by five principles of AT summarised by Engeström (1999a, 2001). The two models of the activity systems examined in this thesis are depicted in Figures 4.2 and 4.3.

Program 1: American Accredited Undergraduate Program in International Economics

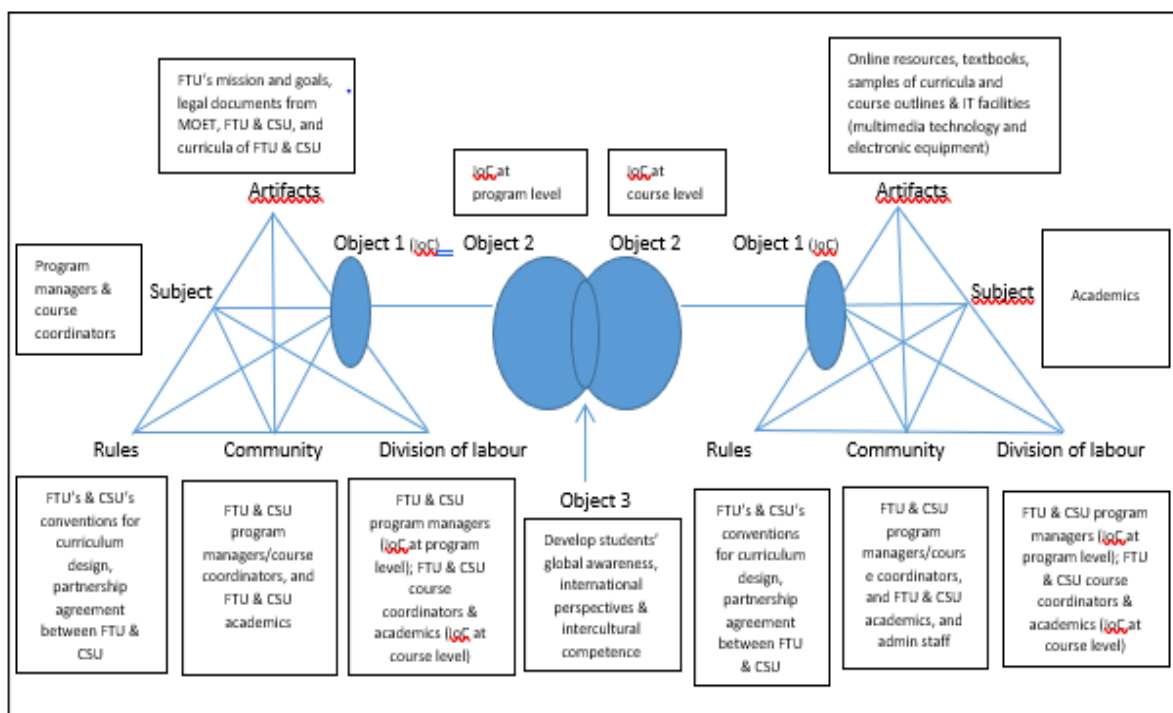


Figure 4.2. A network of 'Internationalising curriculum' activity system (Internationalising curriculum of the undergraduate program in International Economics)

Program 2: UK Accredited Undergraduate Program in International Finance

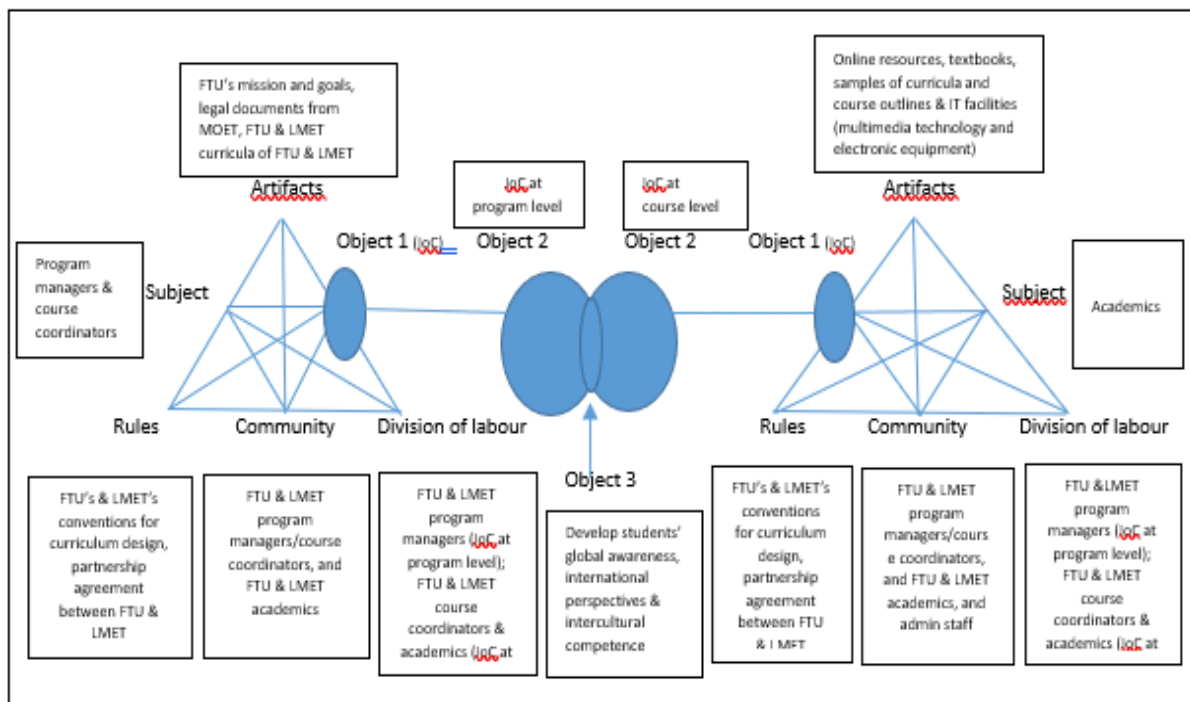


Figure 4.3. A network of 'Internationalising curriculum' activity system (Internationalising curriculum of the undergraduate program in International Finance)

Using the Theory of Expansive Learning as an analytical tool.

In order to examine how participants engaged in the expansive learning process, the matrix for analysis of expansive learning proposed by Engeström (2001) was used (Figure 4.4).

	Activity system as unit of analysis	Multi-voicedness	Historicity	Contradictions	Expansive cycles
Who are learning?					
Why do they learn?					
What do they learn?					
How do they learn?					

Figure 4.4. Matrix for the analysis of expansive learning

Source: From "Expansive Learning at Work: Toward an activity theoretical reconceptualization" by Engeström, 2001, *Journal of Education and Work*, 14(1), p.153. Copyright 2001 by Taylor & Francis Ltd.

The use of the two above-mentioned theoretical frameworks enabled implementation of the stages of data reduction. Data coding involved the examination of the content of the participants' responses and the arrangement of those responses by colour coding related to frequency/repetition and theme. For thematic analysis, a thematic examination was conducted to assure reliability and validity of the results. After identifying patterns, a comparison of results was made and all patterns were classified into themes to integrate them with the preliminary quantitative data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

In order to ensure the integrity of qualitative research, three elements appear to be particularly important, according to Patton (2002). First, rigorous fieldwork methods that yield high quality data. Second, the creditability of the researcher, which depends on factors such as experience, track record, training and presentation. Third, a belief in or appreciation of the intrinsic value of qualitative or naturalistic inquiry. The next section details the various approaches used to meet the important elements to ensure research integrity of qualitative research within a case study framework.

Credibility (Internal Validity).

Internal validity is concerned with establishing causal relationships (Johnson & Christensen, 2014), which can be challenging in explanatory case studies (Yin, 2014). The internal validity of the current study was first assured by the use of multiple data sources and multiple methods, at least in relation to the academic participants. Pattern matching and explanation building also served as a means of establishing internal validity, as did reporting of disconfirming evidence, i.e. cases that provide evidence that might disconfirm expectations and generalisations (Creswell & Clark, 2007; Johnson & Christensen, 2014).

Peer debriefing occurred throughout the study, which helped to establish credibility. This involved regular discussion of the research and in particular the findings, during research forums and conference presentations, in an effort to find and correct any issues in data collection or interpretation (Rubin & Babbie, 2008).

Member checking also assisted credibility, as participants were provided with the opportunity to review transcripts prior to analysis (Stake, 2005). All participants were offered their transcripts to review following the initial transcription and prior to being translated into English as suggested by (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012). However, only a small sample actually returned these with their comments. It was assumed those who did not return the transcripts

were satisfied that the content was an accurate, and as such credible, representation of the interview (Netanda, 2012).

Transferability (External Validity).

External validity relates to generalisability, which is not a general purpose of most qualitative research (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). However, according to Yin (2014), external validity in case studies can be addressed through defining domains for generalisation of findings or the degree to which findings may be transferable. In the current case this relates to what Stake (1995) calls naturalistic generalisation, or generalisation dependent upon the basis of similarity. As such, the findings of this study could serve as a reference point for other studies involving similar people and contexts (Johnson & Christensen, 2014).

To aid transferability, sufficient description of a research context is required in order for judgments to be formed (Oleinik, 2011) about the transferability of the results to their particular contexts (Houghton, Casey, Shaw, & Murphy, 2013). In the current study, the context was made clear through the use of thick descriptions and excerpts of raw data that included direct participant quotes (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013) and similar questions were asked of the two different participant groups to provide different perspectives of the same phenomena, as a form of cross-case analysis (Huberman, Miles, & Saldana, 2013). Transferability was also aided through the systematic use of rules and procedures for data coding and analysis, as previously explained (Huberman et al., 2013).

Dependability (Reliability).

Reliability refers to the notion that whether the operations of a study such as the data collection procedures yield the same results if they are repeated (Yin, 2014). Therefore, minimising the errors and biases in a study through using a case study protocol and a case study database can assist reliability (Yin, 2014). In the current study, a protocol to conduct the case study was explained in the research design section, which contained the procedures and guidelines for conducting this study. A case study database was also developed through the use of two software systems namely SPSS 21.0 and Nvivo 11, which allowed organisation and documentation of the data collected. Documentation was collected and collated as a chain of evidence or audit trail (Nordness, Epstein, Cullinan, & Pierce, 2014).

Confirmability (Objectivity).

Confirmability in case study research is assisted through multiple sources of evidence (triangulation), creation of a chain of evidence, external review and transparency (Lincoln &

Guba, 1985; Yin, 2014). Record keeping is important, so that recorded interviews, transcriptions, notes and memos form a chain of evidence available for checking if necessary (Christie, Rowe, Perry, & Chamard, 2000). In the current study, systematic procedures were followed including regular meetings with supervisors and strict record keeping.

In order to reduce the subjectivity of the researcher, epistemological positions need to be made clear, and research needs to be conducted in a manner consistent with that position, and findings presented in a way that allows for appropriate evaluation (Madill, Jordan, & Shirley, 2000). Maddill et al. (2000) describe three major epistemological positions including “realist, contextual constructionist, and radical constructionist” (p. 2). As discussed in Section 3.3.4, a paradigm of relativist knowledge using a constructivist epistemological stance underpinned the current research project, with both realist and contextualist stances employed.

With regard to the realist framework, triangulation was utilised to assess the trustworthiness of the qualitative analysis, particularly through the use of different research methods, sources, and theories to evaluate the reliability of findings (Flick, 1991; Tindall, 1994). As Brink (1991) argues, maximising the objectivity of research is associated with producing reliable findings, referring to the consistency, stability, and repeatability of findings, with convergence providing evidence of accuracy and objectivity (Madill et al., 2000).

A constructivist stance in the current research was demonstrated through examination of “the relationship between accounts and the situations in which they were produced” (Madill et al., 2000, p. 10). As such, the analysis of the findings exhibited a contextualist view through accepting the inevitability of “personal and cultural perspectives in research projects” (Madill et al., 2000, p. 10). As Madill et al. (2000) argue, contextualist stances enable “the empathy provided by a shared humanity and common cultural understanding” acting as a bridge “between researcher and participant and a valuable analytic resource” (p. 10). They highlight that the aim of triangulation within the contextualist stance is “completeness not convergence” (Madill et al., 2000, p. 12). The incorporation of two epistemological stances in the current study maximised objectivity and facilitated the demonstration of “how researchers can provide complementary pictures of a phenomenon” (Madill et al., 2000, p. 12).

4.2.4.5 Integration of the quantitative and qualitative data.

Creswell (2015) identifies four approaches to integrating quantitative and qualitative data, including: (1) merging two databases together, (2) explaining the data, (3) building of the data and (4) embedding of the data. These ways of integration originate from the four mixed methods designs categorised by (Creswell, 2015). As discussed previously, the research design of this study was a preliminary quantitative input design, which was identical to an explanatory sequential design proposed by (Creswell, 2015). Therefore, explanation of the data was used as a major approach to integrating two data sets in the current study. This explaining approach is typically found in an explanatory sequential design in which qualitative data are utilised to explain the results of the quantitative data (Creswell, 2015). A follow-up joint display of results was used in order to show the integration of quantitative and qualitative data. Using this type of display illustrated by Creswell (2015), two sources of data were entered into a table. According to Creswell (2015) the table describes the quantitative results in the first column, the qualitative follow-up findings in the second column, and the use of the qualitative findings to explain the quantitative results in the final column. This table provides a review on how the qualitative data help to explain the quantitative results (Creswell, 2015).

The integration of quantitative and qualitative data enabled the research questions to be addressed. These questions suggested that there were five major analytical themes in this case study including: respondents'/participants' perceptions of IoC, the influences of contextual layers on IoC, the strategies to incorporate international and intercultural dimensions into the curriculum, identification of enablers and blockers of IoC implementation as well as the strategies used to deal with IoC challenges. In this case study, the IoC conceptual framework (Leask & Bridge, 2013), the third generation of AT (Engeström, 2001) and the Theory of Expansive Learning (Engeström, 2014) were all used to provide the theoretical framework for analysis. The five analytical themes in this case study linked to the theoretical frameworks are presented in Figure 4.5.

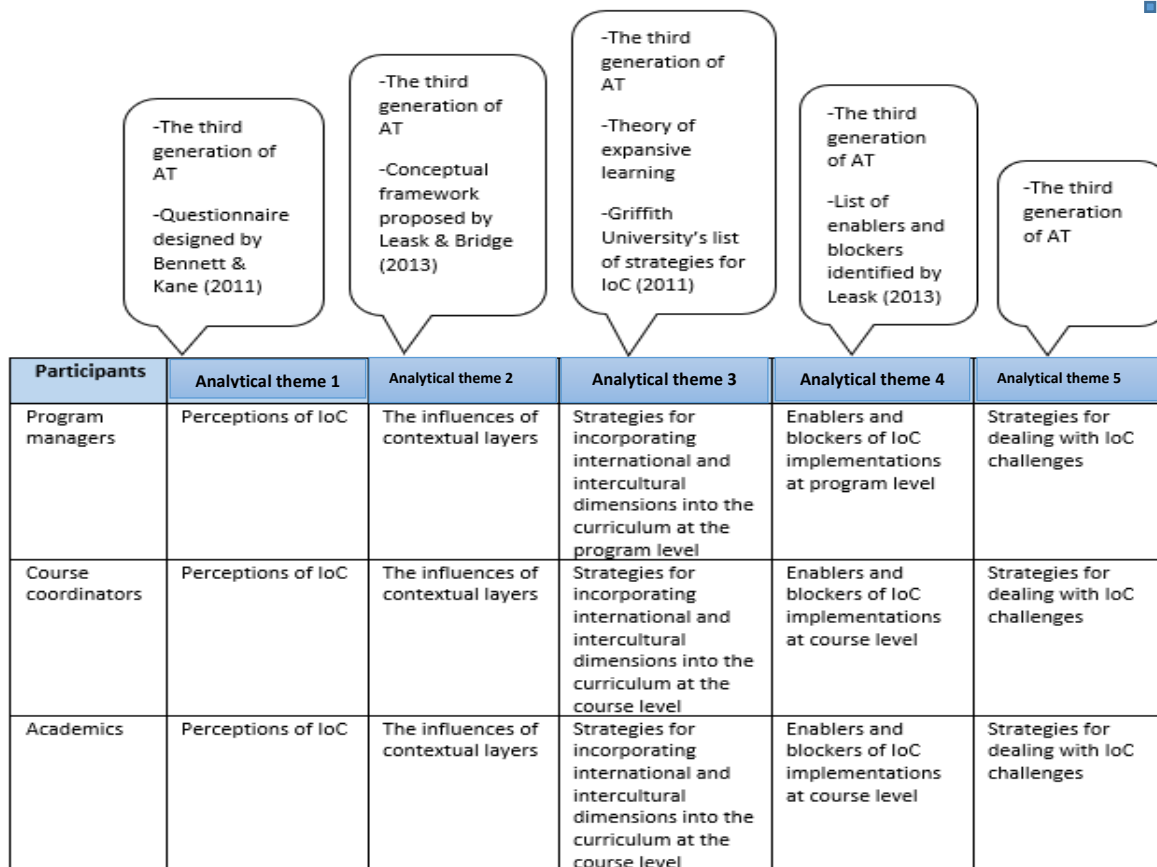


Figure 4.5. Five analytic themes and their connections to the IoC conceptual framework, Activity Theory and the Theory of Expansive Learning

In summary, the integration of quantitative and qualitative data in this study enabled the explanation of the two embedded units of analysis within the theoretical framework proposed in this thesis. The two embedded units of analysis: (1) internationalising the curriculum of the FTU-CSU program and (2) internationalising the curriculum of the FTU-LMET program were explained in relation to the five major analytical themes emerging from the data collection and analysis.

4.2.5 Considerations of ethical issues.

According to Isreal and Hay (2006), ethical issues need to be considered when conducting any form of research, particularly in relation to protecting research participants. It is important that researchers build trust with their participants to enhance the reliability of the research and avoid misconduct and impropriety that may influence their organisations or institutions (Israel & Hay, 2006).

Prior to beginning the current research project, ethics approval was received from the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) at Federation University Australia and the Internal

Review Board for Research at FTU, which required seeking permission from the President of FTU (Appendix 6 & Appendix 7). This permission was sought and received (Appendix 7).

This research was designed to gain an in-depth understanding of human activity in a specific cultural and historical context. As such, a number of ethical considerations required careful consideration. While there may not have been any direct benefits to participants through involvement in the study, often a therapeutic effect may occur through knowledge that they are assisting with understandings of their own context or through achieving self-knowledge and self-reflection (Schwandt, 1990).

An important consideration was that as I shared a cultural background with most of the participants and had taught in the LMET program, there was a need to ensure that my own personal interpretations did not bias the research and also that there was no power or unequal relationship involved. As I was no longer working for FTU at the time of conducting the research, which was made clear in the Plain Language Information Statements (PLIS), there was no reason for any participant to be concerned about their involvement in the study. However, in some ways because of my previous connections, the research could have been described as insider research (Barbour, 2008; Greene, 2014). While insider research has the potential to limit objectivity, a number of steps were taken to ensure that possible issues including subjectivity, confidentiality and potential bias were addressed. All participants were reassured that confidentiality was a high priority as was the independence of the study. Although the use of pseudonyms was offered to all interviewees, none chose this option and were comfortable with use of their names. While less personal, it was deemed important to protect identities and therefore the identification system of combined letters and numbers was chosen for both survey and interview participants.

Being an insider can also be advantageous to a researcher, as it generally involves them having a prior understanding of the environment where the research is being conducted and greater accessibility to participants which would be more difficult for an outsider to attain (Greene, 2014). This was certainly the case in the current study, with added benefits of participants not having to explain aspects with which an outsider researcher may not have been familiar and being able to provide data in their first language (Vietnamese).

Cross-cultural research has a number of specific aspects that need to be considered in any research study, as covered in an earlier part of this chapter, but overall, ethical issues were carefully considered and every endeavour was made to conduct research that was

ethical as outlined in The National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) (NHMRC, 2018).

4.3 Summary of Chapter 4

In this chapter the research methodology used for this study was described and discussed. The nature and use of a combined approach of mainly qualitative methods, but with one component of mixed methods for collecting and analysing data, was explained and justified. The process for the selection of research participants for the two groups was outlined, the method of collecting data from the two participant groups was explained and finally the process of data collection and analysis was discussed. The final part of the chapter involved an explanation of how the ethical aspects associated with conducting his study were dealt with. In the next two chapters, the research findings from the analysis of the data collected from the two participant groups are presented. In Chapter 5, findings from the interviews conducted with program managers and course coordinators are presented, while in Chapter 6 findings from the surveys and interviews conducted with academics are provided.

Chapter 5: Presentation of findings relating to program managers and course coordinators

This chapter presents the research findings and initial discussion related to the implementation of IoC at FTU through the offering of the FUPs with western universities from the perspective of program managers and course coordinators. This chapter specifically addresses the five research sub-questions from the perspective of program managers and course coordinators, namely:

1. How is IoC perceived by program managers and course coordinators in FUPs?
2. What contextual layers impacting IoC are perceived by program managers and course coordinators?
3. In what ways do program managers and course coordinators internationalise FUPs?
4. What enablers and blockers of IoC are perceived by program managers and course coordinators in FUPs?
5. In what ways, if any, does the offering of FUPs impact on the internationalisation of the university?

5.1 Research design

These questions were pursued through interview only, rather than by survey and interview as with the academic participants, which is covered in the next chapter. Due to the small number of potential candidates, any data provided via a survey would have been of limited value for quantitative analysis. As such, semi-structured interviews were conducted either in English or Vietnamese dependent upon the preference of each interviewee. The interviews were transcribed and those conducted in Vietnamese were subsequently translated into English. As described and justified in Chapter 4, the translation of all instruments and data was conducted with rigorous checks in place. The direct data from participants is presented in the form of quotes which are indented and in a smaller font to differentiate them from quotes from the literature. Quotation marks are not used, as while translations were checked for accuracy by experts, the quotes presented are, in effect, not the exact words of participants. While PM6, PM7 and PM8 were interviewed in English and thus did not require any translation, it was decided for consistency, to present all the interview data in the same format, both in this chapter and in Chapter 6. The process for

recruiting the participants and conducting interviews is explained in the next section, building on the detail presented in Chapter 4.

5.2 Recruitment of participants for this phase of research

5.2.1 Description of participant recruitment process.

Emails were sent to the administrative offices of the two FUPs at FTU campus, explaining the objectives of the research with an attached approval letter signed by the president of FTU. This was a courtesy to inform Faculty Heads of the research project. Emails inviting participation were then sent to a representative group of program managers and course coordinators from FTU, CSU and LMET, derived from their contact details displayed on the FTU website.

In consultation with my PhD supervisors, a representative sample of the management structure was determined and eight people (three males and five females) were invited and agreed to participate in the interviews. The group comprised three FTU program managers, two FTU course coordinators, two LMET program managers/course coordinators and one CSU program manager/course coordinator. The gender balance was representative of the group overall as there were more females than males working in management roles for these programs.

In terms of timing and mode, four interviews with five FTU program managers and/or course coordinators were conducted face to face in Vietnamese at FTU during late 2015 as two participants (PM2 & PM3) chose to do a joint interview due to their time constraints. Meanwhile, the two interviews with a CSU program manager/course coordinator (PM8) and a LMET program manager/course coordinator (PM6) were conducted via skype and in English; the interview with the other LMET program manager/course coordinator (PM7) was conducted face to face in English at FTU during late 2016.

5.2.2 Summary of participant profiles.

Although not all the interviewees were program managers, the identifier PM was used for all eight to identify them as a group. It was acknowledged by participants that their roles as described would make them identifiable and all agreed to be known by their actual names but it was decided to use alphabetical/numeric identifiers to maintain consistency with the other participant groups. This information is summarised in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

List of program managers and/or course coordinators participating in the research

ID	Gender	Role	Position descriptions
PM1	Male	FTU-LMET program manager	FTU personnel managing FTU/LMET program
PM2	Female	FTU-CSU program manager 1 (Co-manages the program)	FTU personnel co-managing FTU/CSU program
PM3	Female	FTU-CSU program manager 2 (Co-manages the program)	FTU personnel co- managing FTU/CSU program
PM4	Female	FTU-LMET course coordinator	FTU personnel coordinating a course in FTU/ LMET program
PM5	Female	FTU-CSU course coordinator	FTU personnel coordinating a course in FTU/ CSU program
PM6	Female	LMET-FTU program manager/ course coordinator 1 (Co-manages the program)	LMET personnel co-managing and course coordinating in FTU/LMET program
PM7	Male	LMET-FTU program manager/ course coordinator 2 (Co-manages the program)	LMET personnel co-managing and course coordinating in FTU/LMET program
PM8	Male	CSU-FTU program manager/ course coordinator	CSU personnel co-managing and course coordinating in FTU/CSU program

5.3 Research findings

The program managers' and course coordinators' perceptions regarding internationalisation were examined in relation to rationales for and approaches to IoC and participants' associated roles and experience in IoC. In general, the same questions were asked of the eight participants during the interviews although some responses reflected the different positions of program management compared to course coordination. The word 'faculty' was used during interview responses, referring to the body managing the FUPs; meanwhile, the word 'university' or 'institution' was used interchangeably to refer to a tertiary institute in Vietnam.

The interviews basically sought information about IoC at FTU from a management perspective – from program managers and course coordinators. The themes and sub-themes emerging from the analysis of interview data included following topics:

- The program managers' and course coordinators' perceptions of IoC

- The contextual layers of IoC
- Strategies for IoC
- Enablers or blockers of IoC
- Impacts of the offering of FUPs on FTU’s internationalisation

As such, the structure of this chapter follows presentation of the main themes and sub-themes emerging from the analysis of the detailed responses of participants. These themes are included in Table 5.2 and then explored in more detail in the sections that follow. It should be noted that PM1 had also held the position of Vice Chancellor of FTU so his interview provided a level of information that was very detailed and possibly more informed than the other participants.

Table 5.2

Themes and sub-themes emerging from interviews with program leaders/course coordinators

Themes	Sub-themes	
Perceptions of IoC	Rationale for IoC	Meeting needs of a globalised world Furthering Government reform agenda Financial benefits
	Approaches to internationalisation	Utilising English as a medium of Instruction Developing standardised and modularised courses Developing international courses to enhance academic standards, professional education and graduate employability
	Participants’ roles and experience in IoC	Determining suitability of program offerings Finding suitable partners Developing programs/courses to meet internationalisation objectives
Contextual layers of IoC	Global	Recognising and accommodating global influences
	National/regional	Being impacted by the economic setting Promoting national agenda Accommodating regional influences and trends
	Local Institutional	Adapting to market trends FTU’s internal strengths and resources FTU’s external support and resources FTU’s partnership and collaboration

Table 5.2 (Cont.)

Themes and sub-themes emerging from interviews with program leaders/course coordinators

Themes	Sub-themes		
Strategies for internationalisation and internationalising the curriculum	Curriculum development	Curriculum mapping	
	Teaching and learning	Integration of international, cultural and local dimensions into teaching and learning	
	Assessment methods	Assessment requirements and implementation	
	Quality assurance	Monitoring quality of teaching and learning by FTU	
		Monitoring quality of teaching and learning by CSU	
Monitoring quality of teaching and learning by LMET			
Enablers	Support and services for students	Provision of specifically designed extra-curricular activities for students	
	Support and services for academics	Provision of tailored support for academics	
	Societal	Satisfying a new need for education products and services	
Blockers	Economic	Financial support from Government	
		Increased revenue from fees	
	Policy/Institutional	Strict legal regulations for licencing and running joint programs Suitable courses to meet program requirements Managing transnational teaching team	
Impacts of the offering of FUPs on FTU's internationalisation	Infrastructural	Financial capacity and managing finance related issues	
		Appropriate resources/equipment Adequately trained staff – administrative and academic	
	Societal	Acceptance and recognition of programs Cultural differences in transnational education	
Impacts of the offering of FUPs on FTU's internationalisation	Mobility and transferability	Enhancing student mobility Improving international convertibility Enhancing program mobility	
	Internationalisation at home	Promoting international student exchange Offering onshore students' opportunities to experience international education Creating international teaching and learning environment on campus	

5.3.1 The program managers and course coordinators' perceptions of IoC.

Initial interview questions sought program managers' and course coordinators' perceptions of IoC. The main sub-themes including rationale for and approaches to internationalisation, as well as participants' roles and experience in IoC that emerged from the interviews, are discussed within each section that follows.

5.3.1.1. Rationales for internationalisation.

Management perceived the introduction of FUPs generally as a way of meeting the needs of an increasingly globalised world, of which they agreed Vietnam needed to be a part. Participants outlined the reasons for introducing different types of FUPs that enabled Vietnamese tertiary students and academics to experience internationalisation to varying degrees. Generally, they did not differentiate between internationalisation at the program offering level and at the curriculum level, as most saw these as intertwined and co-dependent.

Participants discussed the Advanced Program (FTU-CSU) and the other form of Joint Program offered (FTU-LMET) quite separately. A fuller explanation of the operations of each program is covered in Chapter 1. Interviewees such as PM2 pointed out that the Advanced Program, in particular, fitted the objectives of the Vietnamese government's policy for higher education reform and innovation:

...the government's policy is very big, and they see the need for international programs...in reality, the government has invested, for example, in the Advanced Program about 27 billion VND. (PM2)

However, this could be due to the fact that the Advanced Program was the springboard for international education opportunities and was actually government funded. In 2008, the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) had promoted the concept of an Advanced Program and 20 universities, including FTU had been approved to offer such programs. FTU was accepted to offer an Advanced Program in Economics through the Faculty of Economics and International Business in partnership with CSU, as mentioned by PM3:

The Advanced Program at FTU matches the objectives of MOET such as developing internationally-recognised programs at top universities in Vietnam. (PM3)

Promoting internationalisation was raised by all participants as a major rationale for introducing programs. As the Advanced Program was delivered by academics at both FTU and CSU, a certain degree of internationalisation was perceived as being built in, according to PM8:

...the most obvious thing is that each cohort of students is taught in courses by our faculty members. We teach the courses here the same way as at CSU. So, the first level of internationalisation is simply that American courses are taught at FTU. (PM8)

However, the FTU-LMET program operated slightly differently and was not funded by MOET. It enabled students to study all courses at FTU or join in a transfer program with several study options that allowed students first to study at FTU and then transfer to FTU's university partner(s) to study the rest of their courses. For this type of Joint Program, regardless of the study locations, the degree would be granted by FTU's university partner. PM4 spoke about the flexibility and opportunities provided by this program:

This program is one of the three models of developing international programs at FTU. The main feature and objective of this program is to increase the flexibility of the program, helping the students and bringing them more opportunities to exchange and transfer to other universities. (PM4)

PM4 further perceived the FTU-LMET program as a popular option for promoting internationalisation at FTU, despite the need to self-fund:

Delivering joint programs is one way of internationalising our offerings. Although the Advanced Programs were the first to do this, other joint programs have been developed which receive no financial support from MOET. (PM4)

Financial considerations associated with offering FUPs was raised by PM1, who pointed out that while internationalisation may have cost students, institutions actually benefitted financially:

At the time of promoting international education, tuition fees for a program taught in Vietnamese was 2.2 million - equivalent to \$100 per student. However, when the school offered programs delivered in English, tuition fees increased from \$300, to \$500 then to \$1,000 per student. This brought more financial resources to FTU, motivating a move towards international education. (PM1)

All participants perceived the introduction of FUPs to be of value in promoting internationalisation of education in Vietnam. The program managers, particularly those associated with the CSU program also suggested that financial advantages were a potential driver for introducing such programs, subsequently enhancing the internationalisation of the university.

5.3.1.2 Approaches to internationalisation.

Participants revealed that FTU had its own approaches to internationalising its programs and internationalisation more broadly. To internationalise its institution, FTU initially launched programs in which English was used as the Medium of Instruction (EMI). It also developed standardised and modularised courses to aid international recognition. Moreover, FTU aimed to develop FUPs to enhance academic standards, professional education and graduate employability.

English as a medium of instruction.

English was officially used as a medium of instruction at FTU in 2007 when the school initially implemented a new program taught in English. This subsequently created a foundation for the development of FUPs at FTU, according to PM1:

In 2006, I started to work at FTU. At that time, the school launched a new local program conducted in English only. It had a small number of students, just 45 students. This led to the development of joint programs in subsequent years. (PM1)

Delivering courses in English also opened up opportunities for inviting academics from abroad, with expertise in internationalisation, to come and teach courses and share with FTU effective strategies for internationalising courses, as mentioned by PM8:

We can come here and teach our courses and try to show how our courses are internationalised. And our FTU colleagues, can use that information if they want. (PM8)

According to PM1, standardised programs at FTU, especially EMI programs, brought a rise in the number of courses instructed by academics from FTU's university partners:

In that process, standardised programs were developed and the courses delivered in English by foreign partners at FTU have increased. (PM1)

The use of English as the medium of instruction was perceived as an important component of any jointly taught program, which is more evident in other sections of this chapter.

Developing standardised and modularised courses.

PM1 explained that another internationalisation approach involved development of standardised and modularised courses which paralleled those offered by overseas universities, and enabled students at any stage of their study at FTU, to transfer to study abroad. According to PM1, FTU systematically created standardised and modularised courses in not only FUPs but also other programs known as *High Quality Programs* or domestic programs:

...FTU's biggest success is the standardisation and modularisation of courses ... our programs were modularised and standardised with the equivalent of three credits as compared with the US, 7.5 against the European and 15 against the UK and Australia ... Courses at FTU can now be straightforwardly compared with those offered in other nations and students can be accepted to do one plus three [1+3], two plus two [2+2], or three plus one [3+1] programs. (PM1)

When developing the programs inclusive of standardised and modularised courses, the selection of transferable courses became a focus. This enabled students to obtain credit transfer if they transferred to study abroad, as explained by PM4:

With the purpose of developing a program transferrable to overseas programs... We aim to develop a program which includes not only transferrable but also allows students to get maximum credit transfer for courses they study in the program. (PM4)

The selection of courses in each module was also of importance to ensure students received credit transfer. PM5 explained that when developing the curriculum for a particular Joint Program, there was a need for understanding the module construction and the specific requirements for each individual subject belonging to each module:

According to the requirements of the program, there are 120 credits and the total number of credits is not a prerequisite for acceptance. There are many different components. For example, one module will include general courses for all majors; another module will contain different courses and have specific requirements specified for each subject. (PM5)

Insights into the importance of developing standardised courses were provided by PM1 and PM4 in particular. They pointed out that standardisation provided ready recognition of international equivalence to enhance credit transferability for FTU students.

Developing FUPs to enhance academic standards, professional education and graduate employability.

There were three main drivers for developing the FUPs at FTU, but each was also a national education objective - the need to improve academic standards, provide a higher level of professional education and enhance graduate employability.

Regarding improvement of academic standards, internationalising the curriculum enabled FTU to develop internationally recognised programs, which was part of the education innovation process in Vietnam. A number of participants highlighted the importance of achieving international recognition:

FTU targets that its international programs are accepted by overseas universities so that FTU students can get credit transfer if they apply to study in programs abroad. (PM1)

Moreover, FTU internationalised the curriculum of the FUPs with a focus on professional education, designing and developing the curriculum to be compatible with those of professionally recognised programs:

FTU's joint training programs are developed to meet professional standards, enabling students to seek the best possible job opportunities. The current programs are designed and developed to match standard professional programs such as ACCA, CFA or CPA. (PM1)

In terms of graduate employability, the need for collaboration between institutions and local partners was also highlighted. This enabled the development of required professional skills for students to be ready for employment, according to PM7:

We work with local partners to find the best ways of ensuring those outcomes are met from local environment, local examples and what is right for the local student population. (PM7)

To increase graduate employability, industry linkages need to be made to link education and training with practice through engaging industry experts in the process:

Training must be linked with practice. This means enterprises are invited to engage in teaching at FTU and students get placement to do their internship at companies. (PM1)

In short, there was a shared view among interviewees that the two FUPs were designed and developed to enhance academic standards, facilitate professional education and increase graduate employability.

5.3.1.3 Participants' roles and experience in IoC.

Only a few participants provided accounts of their personal involvement in IoC. Some mentioned their involvement in developing transnational courses while others highlighted their engagement as program leaders in taking into account all stakeholders' needs when internationalising FUPs. For instance, PM8 outlined his personal experiences as a course coordinator managing transnational programs:

I usually teach the first-year students. But I am also the course coordinator ... so I always cover things such as planning and teacher assignments and agreements between the two universities. Also, I host FTU teachers at CSU. (PM8)

On the other hand, PM1 discussed his personal experience from the perspective of a program leader who engaged in internationalising the curriculum to meet the needs of different stakeholders:

When developing such programs, I base them on the learners' needs, the school and employers. Subsequently, training objectives and learning outcomes are set in order to meet the school's

requirements. Next, a curriculum framework and detailed syllabus are designed in reference with other universities around the globe. (PM1)

When discussing their involvement in managing FUPs, some interviewees also provided insightful reflections on the process of developing and implementing FUPs at FTU. For instance, MP3 mentioned:

... we focus on professional aspects such as finding partners, selecting programs, preparing teacher resources and sending teachers overseas for training. Then, we collaborate to design the program, the syllabus and the content of courses. In the first few years of running the program, the Advanced Program was instructed mostly by overseas professors. While lecturing at FTU campus, our teachers worked as associates and then were sent to the US to learn how to deliver the course. Our teachers are then handed over the teaching from CSU's academics. (PM3)

In summary, the process of developing FUPs at FTU reflected the process of 'program mobility' (J. Knight, 2012) in which the awarding institutions like CSU or LMET promoted their programs on offshore campuses where they collaborated with the host university (FTU) to design, develop and implement the programs. There was a know-how transfer between the awarding and host institution, occurring when the teaching of programs was either entirely instructed or gradually taken over by academics from the host university. This signifies the current trends in transnational education throughout the globe (J. Knight, 2012).

5.3.2 The program managers and course coordinators' perceptions of the contextual layers influencing IoC.

As Leask and Bridge (2013) highlight the importance of considering the contextual layers affecting IoC such as the global, regional, national, local and institutional context, it was decided to ask managers and coordinators about this aspect. The interviews revealed that the impacts of those contexts on the development and operation of the two FUPs at FTU were at different levels, with the institutional context considered the most influential factor.

5.3.2.1 Global context.

In an increasingly globalised world, the trend for international cooperation and integration occurs in almost all aspects of life (Knight, 2008). This forces countries to emphasise international education with the aim of enhancing student mobility and flexibility (Leask, 2014). Universities from the north and the south have become more open to international education and have sought educational cooperation opportunities (Tran et.al, 2018). Global contexts therefore were discussed by a number of participants:

The global context affects how we see our courses evolve...there's a natural sense that a degree from ten years ago needs to be different and global events affect that. (PM7)

Some also mentioned the impact of global trends on international education such as the widespread use of the Internet:

... the Internet changes the concept of education worldwide. Blended learning allows students to relearn what they haven't mastered from online resources. The global context creates changes in learning environments ... enabling FTU to catch up with the global trend. (PM1)

In brief, globalisation and the development of the Internet were considered to be global contexts influencing IoC implementation at FTU.

5.3.2.2 National and regional context.

The national context was discussed in terms of affecting the development of international education in general and the establishment of joint training programs in particular, such as the two FUPs. The economic setting and the need for innovation in tertiary education were perceived as particular drivers for Vietnam developing such programs. Moreover, the need to prepare students to work in a global business environment provides an impetus for universities like FTU to engage in international education, as explained by PM4:

Vietnam currently has a great number of overseas partners; therefore, the business environment has become more and more open, not closed as it used to be. As a result, there is a need of students being prepared and able to join in that business environment. (PM4)

A number of interviewees discussed how changes in the regional context played a part in shaping the design of the courses offered by universities. International education cooperation not only occurs among the countries in the same region, but also between those from different regions. Therefore, as argued by PM7, when establishing partnerships with an institution from a different region, the differences in the regional contexts should be considered:

We need to make sure our courses keep up with that regional process while working with partners in other regions with their own dynamic processes that will affect them. (PM7)

According to PM1, there has been a significant shift in the trend of international education cooperation in regions outside the European Union such as Asia. Over the last decade, promotion of English medium instruction (EMI) programs has become a common trend among Asian nations and been supported by governments, as detailed by PM1:

Over the last 10 years, the Japanese government has provided great support to promote training programs in English, enhancing international cooperation and Japanese institutions

that participate in international education have been greatly supported by the government.

(PM1)

Therefore, contexts that were perceived as impacting curriculum internationalisation at FTU included the Vietnamese economic setting, Vietnam's need for innovation of tertiary education, and the regional trend of international education cooperation.

5.3.2.3 Local context.

The local context was seen as being influenced by market-oriented trends in education, government policy in HE internationalisation and local government support. Although some interviewees mentioned the impact of the local context on IoC implementation at FTU (PM1, PM2, PM4, PM8), only one course coordinator highlighted this factor leading to the development of programs like FUPs. MP4 mentioned:

... when the education market changes, universities will be forced to change their products...

Because the economic environment now is integrated, people in that environment are required to be adaptable and create adaptable products. (PM4)

The establishment of FUPs was seen as a response to market need or local societal demand for new education products, i.e. international programs being delivered entirely in Vietnam or offering opportunities for students to transfer their courses overseas.

5.3.2.4 Institutional context.

The institutional context was commonly mentioned by the program managers and course coordinators as a critical factor affecting IoC at FTU. Interviewees highlighted FTU's internal strengths and resources, external support and partnerships.

FTU's internal strengths and resources.

A number of interviewees perceived FTU as possessing strengths that supported its capacity to offer internationalised education including: a solid reputation in the education field; the existence of EMI programs prior to developing the FUPs; capable academics; and, available teaching and learning resources.

All participants acknowledged the reputation of FTU as a destination for students who wanted to participate in international education. For instance, PM1 stated:

FTU is a very prestigious university and FTU students' study very well. They want to join in international programs. (PM1)

The existence of EMI programs at FTU also contributed to developing the FUPs. As PM4 pointed out, the introduction of English as a medium of instruction in the *High Quality*

Program at FTU created a foundation for the development of the FUPs. This program was developed with reference to the overseas curriculum and teaching materials:

The 'High Quality Program' began in 2006-2007 and was delivered in English... the curriculum and syllabus couldn't be the same as those delivered in Vietnamese. The courses conducted in English were developed with reference to curriculum from overseas and the teaching materials were also from abroad. (PM4)

To be able to implement EMI programs, FTU required adequate human resources for managing and delivering EMI programs. The academics at FTU were perceived as playing a critical role in the process of internationalising FTU. PM3 highlighted the importance of academic capacity, saying:

...in order to have a good program, the academics play a very important role. For the FTU academics, they are seen as elite academics in Vietnam. (PM3)

Also, FTU had to demonstrate to their partners that they had the capacity to offer 'internationalised' programs. Requirements differed though for the two FUPs in terms of assessing the facilities and resources, available support or funding. For instance, PM6 explained that LMET staff visited FTU and made a determination about the capacity to deliver a joint program:

We come out to inspect the premises and one part of my role is to do a site visit report. Do you have a library? Do you have students, classrooms, and academic staff? (PM6)

In summary, FTU was thought to possess internal strengths enabling the offering of internationalised programs. These strengths included its educational reputation, the implementation of EMI programs prior to developing the FUPs, its academics, and resources available for teaching and learning.

External support and resources.

External support and resources were also perceived by some research participants as supporting internationalisation at FTU. The financial support from such an organisation as the World Bank or the collaboration with FTU's partners were considered to facilitate the internationalisation at FTU. For instance, PM1 highlighted the support FTU received from World Bank, saying:

Three million USD! ...this provided the motivation and resourcing to implement targets: sending academics to study overseas and management personnel to obtain management experience abroad. Almost all academics have engaged in teacher professional programs and attended either short or full courses to enhance their knowledge and skills. (PM1)

The aid from international organisations like the World Bank alongside the Vietnamese government's support enabled the development of FUPs, which was seen as a part of the IoC process at FTU. For instance, the FTU-CSU program received funding from the government to provide facilities and training resources, which even included textbooks for the initial cohorts, according to PM2:

...students in the first few cohorts which got much funding from the government ...there was some funding to buy training resources ...textbooks were given to students. (PM2)

The collaboration and interaction through partnerships with such universities as CSU or LMET were also noted to impact on internationalisation at FTU. To internationalise its educational programs, key issues in partnership were mentioned by interviewees, including: (1) finding appropriate partners (2) establishing mutually beneficial and collaborative partnerships (3) partners' support in terms of human resources or teaching and learning resources.

Regarding partner seeking, PM6 emphasised the need for finding partners with expertise and understanding of the international context as well as being able to deliver the courses:

...the partners we decide to work with also have to demonstrate expertise to teach the program and understand the international contexts. We have staff that studied in the UK and understand what we are doing because we are clear that we are offering a UK degree. (PM6)

The importance of mutually beneficial and collaborative partnerships was acknowledged by all interviewees. PM1 highlighted the importance of understanding potential challenges so that partnership agreements were mutually beneficial. For example, tuition fees were often an issue that had to be negotiated and worked through in partnership agreements:

Our partners are aware of that problem and often in the process of negotiating, they target a win-win outcome. If tuition fees are low, they will have a large scale and their total revenue is high. And with high tuition fees, the number of students is small, so their total revenue is low. We often reach the final conclusion that the fees should be reasonable ... the two institutions finally found a common voice. (PM1)

The support from partners was considered important for the development of FUPs. Such support as providing the curriculum, sending academics to teach at FTU, offering teacher training programs to FTU academics, or providing resources for teaching and training were

outlined by interviewees. There was also discussion of collaboration among program managers, course coordinators and academics to ensure that everyone was familiar with the requirements for teaching in FUPs. For example, PM4 explained the collaboration with FTU academics in the LMET program:

Academics who are new to our courses are provided with the course syllabus and content so that they can develop suitable course outlines. For those who deliver the final year course based on the LMET program, at the beginning of the semester, academics are required to develop the course syllabus and seek approval from LMET. (PM4)

Similarly, there was collaboration among academics teaching in FTU-CSU program. While some FTU academics were sent to CSU to be trained, others interacted with fly-in CSU academics delivering the courses at FTU campus. FTU and fly-in CSU academics shared teaching tasks, according to PM2:

...the number of academics sent to be trained overseas is quite large. However, for each cohort, there are eight fly-in professors from CSU, so not all teaching tasks are done by academics in Vietnam. (PM2)

Also, seminars or workshops regarding professional exchange activities were conducted while fly-in academics from CSU were teaching at FTU campus. PM3 noted:

During the time the overseas professors teach in the program, some professional exchange activities occur between them and our teachers. Normally, after they return to their country, they still keep in touch and have professional exchange if required ... overseas professors also participate in seminars and workshops with the faculty and subject divisions. (PM3)

Not only did FTU receive support from its partners regarding PD, it also received support for teaching and learning resources. For instance, CSU provided access to their learning resources to FTU students, as PM5 explained:

The university partner allows students to register to use learning resources. The students in this program are more advantaged than those in domestic programs since the program has its own funding to buy reference books for the courses taught in the program. (PM5)

Likewise, PM6 explained that FTU academics teaching in the FTU-LMET program could access teaching materials or request materials they required:

...the lecturers can actually access some of our materials which are readily available, so they can come on to our websites and access all the materials. (PM6)

Indeed, the support obtained through partnerships enabled FTU to invest in its human resources, provide PD for academics and offer them opportunities to become part of transnational teaching teams.

5.3.3 The program managers and course coordinators' strategies for IoC.

Interviewees discussed strategies for internationalising the curriculum of FUPs in relation to: (1) curriculum mapping; (2) integration of international, cultural and local dimensions into teaching and learning (3) assessment methods; (4) provision of specifically designed extra-curricular activities for students; (5) provision of tailored support for academics; and (6) quality assurance.

5.3.3.1 Curriculum mapping.

The idea of 'importing the program' from university partners to internationalise the curriculum was discussed by interviewees. However, PM5 clarified the use of the phrase 'importing' in relation to the curriculum mapping process, as the term implied the use of the curriculum without change or any curriculum mapping; while in reality FTU and its partners, collaborated to develop the program through the curriculum mapping process:

During the mapping process, we put priority on that because our university partner does not want us to use the words 'importing the program' ... For them, if we import the program, we have to entirely follow the program provided. In reality, they develop the program with us.
(PM5)

According to PM1, FTU generally did not find curriculum mapping an issue as programs delivered at FTU included more courses and training time than those offered by partners. PM1 admitted that it could be an issue if FTU had to map the whole study year for a scheduled program, however this issue was generally dealt with through university partners arranging courses for FTU students to cover any learning gaps when transferring:

Most of our university partners accept that students can study those courses when enrolling to study the rest of the program course at our partners' campus overseas. (PM1)

Also, it was highlighted that curriculum alignment and equivalence were taken into account when developing FUPs:

When designing the program, we have to check what courses meet the requirements and what courses we are interested in and have strength for teaching... In reality, it has taken some time to adjust and make changes to meet all the requirements of both institutions. (PM5)

While mapping the curriculum provided a way of ensuring FTU met the requirements set by their partners, it was obviously challenging as there was not perfect alignment between

institutions and this had to be dealt with at the institutional level. Issues in transnational education such as the notion of equivalence, curriculum alignment and localisation of content were all raised by interviewees and are discussed in other sections in this chapter.

5.3.3.2 Integration of international, cultural and local dimensions into the teaching and learning.

The inclusion of international, cultural and local aspects into the teaching and learning content was discussed as a strategy for internationalising the curriculum of the two FUPs.

Some respondents perceived the integration of international content into a course as dependent upon the course being taught as well as the academics' and students' international experience and perspectives. Particular courses were perceived as being easier targets for internationalisation, according to PM8:

It's easier for some courses than the others. For my course, *Introduction to Micro-Economics...* it's quite easy that I can change all my examples to be international. (PM8)

While there was acknowledgement by participants of the need for inclusion of international dimensions into the teaching and learning content in the two programs, the context was also considered important, with some courses/programs/settings lending themselves more readily to integration of international components. Therefore, some interviewees highlighted that internationalisation had to be contextually relevant:

So, we can say there are some legal elements to modules but there is no point in using UK law if you will never live in the UK. It's not applicable. You need to look into your law, your regulations because that is what you are operating with. I mean other courses are quite easy to do it in. (PM6)

Alongside incorporating international content, the integration of a cultural dimension into FUPs was perceived by a number of participants as depending on the influence of the courses being taught as well as the understanding of and experience in cultural difference. For example, PM5 highlighted the importance for students majoring in economics and social science, of mastering not only economics knowledge but the cultural elements impacting economics. As such, the inclusion of cultural content into such courses was a necessity when developing these programs:

... though students are majoring in economics and social science, they still have to study world history and literature, sociology and psychology. Therefore, these courses or aspects, for instance American English literature, are included in the program. Or regarding world history, students focus on learning Western history; they can see how cultural aspects influence economics, etc. - providing students with knowledge of social aspects and economics combined together. (PM5)

Some participants discussed how cultural elements and intercultural differences were not only incorporated into the teaching and learning content but also introduced through daily interaction between academics and students. Understanding cultural differences enabled academics to guide their students to develop culturally appropriate behaviour in different classroom contexts. Particularly, in the courses instructed by fly-in academics, students had an opportunity to understand the academic culture of the overseas university in which they had applied to study:

...before they go to CSU, they have seven or eight CSU courses with CSU professors, so they have an idea of how the American courses are taught. And from the variety professors, they can also see ways that different professors teach different courses. And we also try to be a bit clear about what may be differences in academic culture. (PM8)

It appeared that the cultural dimension was understood as needing to go beyond content and encompassing actual experiences also, which is why the physical involvement of academics from partner institutes was perceived as valuable.

Apart from the inclusion of cultural content, some participants mentioned the appropriate incorporation of local dimensions into the programs. They argued that students in these programs used international books to learn international courses; thus, there should be a combination of international content and Vietnamese aspects in their courses. For instance, PM5 highlighted:

When we introduce international courses in Vietnam by using international books, we have to add some Vietnamese aspects. This means that we introduce the international standards together with combining what we have in Vietnam. (PM5)

Interviewees acknowledged the need for incorporating not only international and cultural but also local components into the programs and for some specific courses, the inclusion of local content was particularly important. However, a number of respondents asserted that there was a mutual agreement between FTU and its university partners regarding the degree of localising the curriculum content, i.e. the level of integrating local dimensions into the curriculum. For instance, the need for allowing university partners to embed local contexts into the FTU-LMET program was mentioned. PM6 explained that while approval for changes was required, integration of local content was encouraged:

So, what we do, we actually say that you can deliver our courses, but you need to localise these a little bit for your own area. So, what can you have access to? Which bank can you have access

to? So, though we give the ... UK experience, we actually also ask you to localise it for your own needs. (PM6)

The need for embedding local content or localising the curriculum of the FUPs at FTU was highlighted by not only program managers and/or course coordinators from FTU but from CSU and LMET as well. However, the level of localisation of the curriculum depended upon the partnership agreement.

5.3.3.3 Assessment methods.

The changes in the assessment methods utilised in the two FUPs, to some extent, mirrored the IoC. It was acknowledged that the requirements for assessment activities and the involvement of FTU's university partners in the teaching and assessment differed between the two FUPs. For example, in the FTU-LMET program, the assessment was considered a medium for both to check whether students were achieving the learning outcomes required in the courses. PM7 explained that while assessment methods might vary, course learning outcomes could not be changed and LMET needed to be kept informed of any teaching or assessment changes:

The assessment can be varied but we need to agree what assessment is going to be. And we'll have problems with our regulators in English if people change without telling us. (PM7)

The assessment tools, if developed by FTU, were reviewed and approved by LMET. For instance, both the assignment questions designed by FTU and the samples of students' completed assessments were required to be sent to LMET for, not only the internal but also, external examiners to approve. PM6 mentioned the stringent moderation processes in place:

When FTU teachers write the assignment questions in the exams, we check them ...Especially, the Head of School will have a look. And they will send them to the external examiners for approval as well. When the students have done the exams and assignments, we ask for samples to be sent to us. And again, we send them to the external examiner to approve. (PM6)

By contrast, in the FTU-CSU program, FTU had more autonomy in terms of teaching and assessment, according to PM5:

In reality, for the program with CSU ...they do not interfere in your teaching and assessment at FTU. They believe that we should have our own autonomy. (PM5)

It was evident that the two FUPs examined in the current study had different requirements for assessment activities and methods; FTU's level of autonomy and agency also differed in the two examined programs.

5.3.3.4 Provision of specifically designed extra-curricular activities to students.

The aim of providing students with extra-curricular activities was discussed in terms of linking education theory with practice. The type of activities mentioned by participants included guest speakers, field trips, professional seminars, workshops, study exchanges, social clubs, as well as social interactions among academics, students and graduates as highlighted in these comments:

... field trips where students get the chance to visit businesses and attend roadshows... or visit stock markets and banks to get some experience from professionals in the fields. There are also periodic exchange activities; for example, CID holds career seminars and invites businesses to share with students about professional expectations and requirements. (PM4)
We also have a student society ... with our partners, we connect our student society with the society at our partners to enable them to share experiences and talk to each other. (PM6)

Offering students extra-curricular activities was perceived by program managers and/or course coordinators from FTU, CSU and LMET as a way for students to put theory into practice and providing opportunities to network with experts in their field of study.

5.3.3.5 Provision of tailored support to academics.

To support academics teaching in FUPs, FTU utilised its internal strengths as well as the external support and resources available. For instance, interviewees explained that FTU received some funding from the government and other organisations to invest in teaching and learning materials (PM2, PM5). Through partnership agreements, some teacher training courses were also provided to academics, according to PM8:

I think we have more than 30 FTU lecturers come to CSU usually for two months. And they usually visit our classes. So, they can see what we teach and how we teach. (PM8)

PM5 also explained how FTU academics were assigned to collaborate with fly-in academics to deliver the courses at FTU campus. For example, FTU academics in the FTU-CSU program could work as associate teachers who supported fly-in academics from CSU:

FTU academics are organised to provide teaching assistance for foreign teachers at FTU. Vietnamese teachers are also required to do interpreting tasks. In addition, teachers have to assess students' works and do marking. Teachers also have to cultivate their expertise, understand the syllabus and curriculum. (PM5)

Through collaboration and interaction with CSU academics, FTU academics could enhance their knowledge and gain a better understanding of the curriculum and the teaching and learning content, according to PM8:

When we teach here, we partner with FTU lecturers who are also teaching assistants, associates, etc. So, they see how we teach ... And we can answer questions about how we design lectures/tests. (PM8)

Working as an associate teacher was a form of on-the-job training. FTU academics also had a chance to attend workshops and seminars to develop their expertise:

We seek the university's approval for organising workshops and seminars to enhance our academics' teaching capability and their research skills. Also, some other activities related to enhancing academics' profession are held to improve our academics' teaching skills. (PM4)

The funding from the government and international organisations and the support from university partners helped FTU provide support to academics in terms of PD and training either at FTU or overseas.

5.3.3.6 Quality assurance.

The quality assurance of FUPs was mirrored through the evaluation and review process discussed by all interviewees. The evaluation and reviews of the two programs were perceived as valuable in aiding internationalisation but differences existed between requirements. Under partnership agreements, FTU and its partners shared responsibility for monitoring the teaching and learning quality of FUPs.

Quality assurance monitored by FTU.

In order to ensure the teaching and learning quality at the university, both foreign and local programs were monitored by FTU's Department of Quality Assurance which conducted the formal evaluation and reviews of all courses delivered at FTU. PM5 explained the process:

The evaluation process is internally conducted at the university... surveys are used to evaluate the courses, which are conducted by the Department of Quality Assurance. The department distributes the surveys for students and teachers to evaluate their courses. (PM5)

Generally, the evaluation feedback from students, academics and employers was seen a tool for FTU to monitor the quality of its training programs, according to PM8:

The quality assurance at FTU is constantly implemented based on students' and academics' evaluation and feedbacks from employers. (PM8)

For some FUPs, FTU collaborated with MOET to conduct annual evaluations and reviews. For instance, the annual evaluation and review of the FTU-CSU program was also conducted by a delegation from MOET:

Every year, there is a delegation from MOET who come to investigate, explore and listen to the school's reporting of the implementation of the program. (PM5)

While FTU had established its own department to monitor the quality of its education programs, because of the different partnership agreements, the quality assurance processes for the two examined FUPs were perceived as being quite distinctive by interviewees.

Quality assurance monitored by CSU.

The quality of the FTU-CSU program was mainly monitored by FTU rather than CSU. It was revealed that CSU did not conduct formal evaluation and reviews of this program as FTU, together with external quality assurance organisations or the Vietnamese government, was perceived as being in charge of monitoring the quality of the program. For example, PM5 acknowledged that FTU was encouraged to be autonomous in the process of monitoring the quality of the FTU-CSU program:

In reality, for the program with CSU...when they accept the syllabus, they do not interfere into teaching and assessment at FTU...they totally accept if we have included their credit in the program. Second, we also base on the evaluation made by the quality assurance organizations such as the ASEAN university network, known as AUN. (PM5)

Similarly, PM8 affirmed that no formal review was made by CSU as the review of the program was monitored by the Vietnamese government:

... CSU don't do any formal review. Now at FTU, I think from time to time, there is some kind of review that's required by the Ministry. (PM8)

However, CSU actually implemented some strategies for quality assurance. They set up terms and conditions to ensure the quality of teaching and learning of the FTU-CSU program. For example, PM3 shared that the selection and approval of foreign academics teaching in this program must be conducted by CSU who granted the degree for students if they studied their final year at the CSU campus. CSU also set a specific number of courses to be taught by CSU academics at the FTU campus to enable students to accumulate enough credits to obtain a CSU degree:

FTU students will go to the US to study and get the US qualification. Therefore, there should be seven to eight academics from the US flying in to teach in Vietnam. If so, students come to the US to study and get the qualification granted by the US University. It relates to the regulation that the number of credits a student studying in the US needs to be 35 credits. (PM3)

Another way CSU safeguarded the quality of its shared program was to set a target for recruiting students. Although CSU did not get involved in the recruitment process, it was required that each cohort comprised no more than 90 enrolled students:

Regarding the number of students, there is an agreement between FTU and CSU, which specifies that each class has fewer than 90 students - they require that number to ensure the quality. Recruitment of students and enrolment in the program is managed by FTU. (PM5)

In summary, although evaluation and reviews of the FTU-CSU program were principally managed by FTU, CSU also implemented some strategies for quality assurance. These strategies included the involvement of CSU academics in the FTU-CSU program, the defined quota for courses delivered by CSU academics at the FTU campus, and the number of students recruited in each cohort.

Quality assurance monitored by LMET.

Management personnel in the FTU-LMET program affirmed that the program was mandated to follow the quality assurance requirements set by LMET; therefore, LMET involved itself in managing the program. This was due to the fact that the LMET's training programs were inspected by the Qualification Assurance Agency in the UK. Consequently, LMET held training sessions to introduce its quality assurance system to its partners:

...we would come out or provide discussion sessions, we can do online training and development. So, we show them our system, we talk to them about the process that we actually have to go through because we are inspected by the qualification assurance agency to enable us to afford the degree, which means our partners also have to meet those requirements. (PM6)

The process for ensuring the quality of the FTU-LMET program, as PM1 explained, was identical to the quality assurance process implemented at LMET:

...first, LMET approves and monitors the academics delivering their courses at FTU. Second, they check and approve all the content of the exams taken at FTU. They will second mark exams papers and make final approval of results ...the exams board consists of academics from both FTU and LMET. This means the process of training quality assurance is consistent with that implemented at the university partner overseas. (PM1)

Also, LMET annually conducted formal evaluation and reviews of the program, which involved conducting validation activities, receiving feedback from students and academics, as well as producing an annual monitoring report.

LMET conducted validation as a part of their quality assurance standards. The validation occurred either prior to approval for the establishment of the joint program, after three-year implementation of the program, or every five years. Validation activities involved

auditing FTU's premises, management structure and the support and services provided to students and teachers at FTU:

...we come out to inspect the premises... you need to show what the management structure is? Show how you support the students and teachers in their learning. (PM6)

The evaluation and review of the program was assisted through gaining feedback from students and academics. For instance, PM6 explained that LMET representatives held meetings with both undergraduates and graduates to gather information about their study experience:

When we review the program, we actually meet the students... We get those who are studying, and those who finished. We talk to them about their experiences. (PM6)

After receiving feedback from students and academics, LMET, together with FTU, were required to produce an annual monitoring report on the program, which included information about student enrolment, student feedback on their learning experience and suggestions for improvement of the program:

The monitoring report is written by the partners and details the statistics of how many students have completed, and also feedback on the students' experience and improvements. (PM7)

In summary, FTU's main approach to quality assurance was through evaluation feedback provided by students, academics and employers. However, it utilised different approaches to ensuring the quality of the FUPs, based on the requirements of its partners. CSU, formally or informally, established terms and conditions that FTU and CSU had to adhere to, in order to monitor the quality of teaching and learning of the program. Meanwhile, LMET required FTU to follow its quality assurance procedure to ensure the programs met the requirements set by the UK's own Qualification Assurance Agency.

5.3.4 Enablers and blockers of IoC.

5.3.4.1 Enablers.

There tended to be more discussion of blockers than enablers by the interviewees. Some typical examples of enablers of IoC included the need for new education products and services to satisfy the demands of onshore learners, the financial gain from promoting FUPs or EMI programs, as well as the government's financial support for particular FUPs.

PM4 pointed out the response to an identified need for new education products and services to satisfy the demands of onshore learners who wished to obtain a foreign degree

without studying overseas, could be perceived as an enabling factor. PM1 supported this view, suggesting that the FTU-LMET program was an alternative education product offered to a wider range of learners who could afford a high tuition fee, creating financial resources for FTU and motivating further development of such programs:

This brought more financial resources to FTU, motivating the school to change towards international education. This is the economic factor, which forces autonomous schools such as FTU to change... (PM1)

Some interviewees also acknowledged the substantial financial support for the CSU program, which enabled FTU to invest in teaching materials, teaching and learning facilities, teacher training and bringing academics from abroad to deliver courses (PM2, PM3, PM5). As PM5 explained:

Actually, there is a great support in terms of money, providing a budget used for developing the program. The financial support is huge, which is 3 billion per year. (PM5)

Interestingly, there was limited discussion by interviewees of the enabling factors associated with IoC within the two programs, despite most of this group of participants being well acquainted with the management level of operations at an institutional level. Discussion of blockers was definitely more prolific.

5.3.4.2 Blockers.

Different issues were raised by management personnel from the two FUPs. The blockers of IoC highlighted by program managers and course coordinators in these programs are detailed as follows.

Blockers in the FTU-CSU program.

Management personnel in the FTU-CSU program highlighted challenges they encountered, including: curriculum development, managing transnational teaching teams, managing financial related issues and availability of teaching and learning resources.

With regard to curriculum development, the highlighted issue was being able to select appropriate courses and map the curriculum to offer students more study options. For instance, PM5 mentioned the development of courses enabling students to achieve double degrees:

The program commenced in 2008 but, during the implementation, we reviewed our plans and checked whether the selection of courses was appropriate. During the first one to two years, we compared the requirements for graduation between the two programs... we want students

to study courses and understand foreign study approaches, but also to get double degrees.
(PM5)

Another perceived blocker was managing transnational teaching teams. In the FTU-CSU program, it was a challenge to manage courses delivered by fly-in academics due to time constraints:

Fly-in faculty from other universities do not have time and are unable to deliver their course throughout the 15-week semester in Vietnam. They just fly in and deliver the course within one month, which puts pressure on students since they have to concentrate on studying within a short period of time and their learning experience with overseas academics is limited. (PM1)

This challenge was noted and teacher PD was suggested as a solution for dealing with this challenge:

...the strategic goal is to build academic teams of on-the-spot trainers who are experts abroad in order to deal with this situation. (PM1)

However, the teacher PD for FTU academics mirrored the reliance on short courses to upskill academics. Although FTU offered some overseas training courses to academics, they were generally quite short. Therefore, some interviewees proposed that courses needed to be longer to cover all the necessary aspects:

...a lot of teachers need training. Each academic is sent to the US to study for about one to two months; but there should be at least six months of studying... equal to one semester in the US. If academics just have one to two months, they only participate in one part of the course. (PM2)

In terms of managing financial related issues, interviewees mentioned the inefficiency of financial management and the insufficient funds for PD and the reduction of government funding. The inefficiency occurred due to fixed regulations for budgeting, according to PM5:

There are some fixed regulations like what aspects the funding is spent for... There are some items which are irrelevant, or which we cannot deal with. Some activities which possibly may occur are not predicted beforehand. There are some categories such as technical items which are not in the investment list. We have to find a way to add them. (PM5)

The inefficiency of managing budgets also resulted from the capability of managerial staff responsible for planning and allocating budgets for developing FUPs. Therefore, PM2 suggested that there was a need for upskilling of financial staff:

...does not know how to spend money efficiently due to financial management. In order to develop the international program, it is not only academics who need to get some training, but also other involved management staff should be sent overseas to be trained. (PM2)

The shortage of funding for developing academics' expertise and increasing their income was an issue, according to some interviewees. For example, PM3 asserted that there was a related issue regarding the allocation of funding and the selection of academics to be trained abroad, explaining that some academics after their training course overseas were transferred or assigned to different posts:

... after academics are sent to the US to study and come back to Vietnam, they have changes to terms of their work, which leads to a shortage of academics teaching in the program. (PM2)

Another financial issue facing management personnel was the reduction of government funding. PM3 mentioned tuition fees as a challenge within the FTU-CSU program, as they had increased substantially and kept rising when government funding for students was lessened:

When there is a cut in funding, the tuition fee the students have to pay will increase a great deal. In reality, it is another difficulty. The difficulty in developing the program relates to tuition fees, which increase a lot and intend to rise more. (PM3)

Regarding teaching and learning resources, the insufficiency of teaching materials and the lack of modern teaching equipment were highlighted as blockers. For instance, PM8 identified the insufficiency of teaching materials related to the local context as a challenge. As a CSU academic teaching at the FTU campus, he found it challenging to search for local content to incorporate into his lectures to Vietnamese students:

...for courses like micro-economics, it isn't so easy because we don't have that much information about how the Vietnamese system works. (PM8)

He also noted the lack of modern teaching equipment available, requiring sourcing of alternative ways to provide online content to his students:

...the classrooms here are not quite up-to-date ...sometimes we have to buy our own equipment to use ... also at CSU, we use online platforms like dashboard ... but there's no such thing in FTU so people have to find substitute ways to provide online content to the students. (PM8)

In summary, a number of major blockers were identified by interviewees including the appropriate selection of transferrable courses, the management of transnational teaching teams, the management of finance and funding and the availability and quality of teaching and learning resources.

Blockers in the FTU-LMET program.

Three predominant blockers were identified by participants in relation to the FTU-LMET program, namely the strict regulations for developing joint training programs (JPs), the

acceptance and recognition of the JPs as a qualification and the challenges of managing transnational programs.

Although it was agreed that the Vietnamese government issued strict legal regulations for developing JPs in Vietnam to ensure quality, some interviewees described this as a challenge. For instance, PM1 commented on the time and costs associated with approval processes, which impacted on an institution's internationalisation practice:

A strict process of managing and monitoring joint programs has been implemented by MOET. For example, FTU would like to seek partnership with famous universities in Australia. Although such universities have reputations for education and training in developed countries, FTU is still required to seek approval from MOET regarding qualification issuance. This is the greatest hindrance, making it hard to work with overseas partners. (PM1)

Recognising this hindrance, the Vietnamese government granted autonomy to Vietnamese institutions to help them proceed with their own internationalisation process. PM1 explained that the government had relaxed some restrictions:

... since 2015 MOET and the government have allowed FTU to be self-reliant in licensing their own joint programs, which will open opportunities for FTU to overcome previous weaknesses when developing the programs. (PM1)

Another identified challenge related to increasing the recognition of JPs by students and employers in Vietnam who conventionally preferred to accept degrees granted by well-regarded Vietnamese universities. Attracting high achievers to enrol in JPs was a challenge, according to PM4:

Students may find it difficult to distinguish between a high or a low-quality program. Therefore, students with high academic performance do not choose to enrol in joint programs. (PM4)

Therefore, it was proposed that students enrolled in JPs could obtain a double degree, one from FTU and the other from FTU's university partner:

... we can develop the program on an open basis, improving the quality of students by offering students a chance to get a double degree. In the context that FTU has its own financial autonomy, FTU students can join the program in order to get a degree from overseas, instead of being granted an FTU degree only. This enhances the attractiveness of the program, thus attracting more students with good learning capability. (PM4)

Challenges involved in managing transnational programs, included the lack of appropriate support to students and academics, the differences in management systems, and time zone and cultural differences.

Regarding the lack of appropriate support, PM1 highlighted resourcing issues associated with the lower level of fees charged in Vietnam compared with other countries, thus impacting the type of support and services offered to students:

The tuition fee for the program is \$2,000 per semester - equal to one tenth of the tuition fee paid in Australia, the UK, the US and Canada. Therefore, it is still an obstacle in mobilising resources to achieve the best possible resource allocation for students. (PM1)

It was not only students though, who lacked appropriate support. PM4 acknowledged that support to academics was dependent upon resources provided by FTU's university partner. She also raised the issue of differences between the management system of FTU and LMET:

... there have been some requirements set by FTU which are not obliged by our university partner and each university will have its own understanding of the implementation process. This may lead to some delays and difficulties in the implementation process. (PM4)

Finally, time zone differences and cultural differences were also mentioned as a challenge. PM7 highlighted:

... it is desirable for the people who deliver modules to be in contact with the equivalent person in London and for them to talk about how the module is being varied for local delivery. That can be a difficult process because time zones are different. (PM7)

The cultural differences in presenting and solving problems were perceived as a challenge by some interviewees. For instance, PM6 explained the cultural differences regarding the identification of problems, the disclosure of concerning issues with others and criticism as a tool for improvement:

...our partners do not want to show what things are going wrong. But actually, we need to know this so we can help to put things right. And I think, there's a certain culture which could be 'face' culture. Everything looks as if it's going well and you can order what is going wrong. The UK culture, we tend to like to be a critic so we want to criticise to improve. And criticism doesn't mean you are bad. It means actually it's working on how to improve things. (PM6)

In summary, the extent of the discussion of blockers by participants illustrated their high level of understanding of and concern for IoC implementation at FTU where there seemed to be an absence of a transparent policy guiding internationalisation in general and IoC in particular.

5.3.5 Impacts of the offering of FUPs on FTU's internationalisation.

A number of impacts were inferred from the analysis of interview data with program managers and course coordinators. To begin with, all management personnel agreed that the establishment of FUPs was of critical importance in enhancing internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam. Interviews revealed that the implementation of FUPs was considered a way for FTU to internationalise its institution. The introduction of FUPs was the catalyst for international education opportunities pursued by FTU (PM3). These programs created the flexibility and opportunities for Vietnamese tertiary students to enjoy international education either onshore or abroad (PM1, PM4).

It was further noted that internationalisation at FTU had occurred at a certain level prior to the introduction of the FUPs. Obviously, FTU took initial steps towards internationalisation when implementing EMI programs known as *High Quality Programs* (HQ) in 2007. This consequently created a foundation for the development of FUPs in subsequent years (PM1, PM2, PM4). Together with the need for internationalisation of the institution, the "profit-driven motives" were seen as enablers for the existence of HQs and FUPs at either FTU specifically or other Vietnamese higher education institutions more broadly (Nhan & Nguyen, 2018, p. 138).

For the pursuance of internationalisation, the university itself was required to possess not only internal strengths but external support and resources as well. FTU developed FUPs as a part of its internationalisation activities. However, the implementation of FUPs at the FTU campus subsequently created some positive impacts, thus contributing to enhancing the internationalisation process at FTU. These programs facilitated mobility, transferability and internationalisation at home.

All interviewees acknowledged that student mobility and international convertibility were enhanced through FUPs. Enrolling in these programs, students were offered more study options and a flexible level of mobility. They either completed their course entirely at FTU campus or transferred to FTU's partners to complete their study (PM1, PM2, PM6, PM8).

Also, the introduction of FUPs reflected a current trend in international education, i.e. 'program mobility' (J. Knight, 2012) in transnational education, as offered through the FTU-LMET program, which despite being delivered offshore, offered an LMET degree (PM1, PM4).

More importantly, the implementation of HQs and FUPs enhanced 'internationalisation at home' at FTU. According to de Wit (2011), internationalisation at

home involves IoC, focusing on mobility related to “degree mobility and mobility as part of one’s home degree” (p. 242). Thus, the interview data revealed that these programs played a part in (1) promoting international student exchange, (2) offering onshore students’ opportunities to experience international education, (3) creating an international teaching and learning environment on campus and (4) developing a transnational teaching team at FTU campus.

5.3.6 Summation of answers to research sub-questions.

In this study of internationalisation within two specific FUPs offered at FTU, research sub-questions 1–5, sought to examine how program managers and course coordinators working in these programs perceived IoC in relation to their program or course. The data presented in this chapter, provides some clear insights into how program managers and course coordinators perceived the process of IoC within the two programs specifically and in relation to internationalisation at FTU more broadly. Program managers and course coordinators appeared to share many understandings, which can be attributed to the fact that they tended to work very closely together. PM4 and PM5 were the only two participants whose involvement was restricted to course coordination while the other six participants all had roles that involved program leadership with PM6, PM7 and PM8 providing both program leadership and course coordination.

The main points emerging from this body of interview data included:

- All participants perceived a need for internationalisation at either a micro level (as a way of furthering the goals of the university with added financial benefits), or a macro level (meeting the needs of a globalised world).
- Participants acknowledged the importance of fostering EMI, developing standardised or modularised courses to assist in global recognition and transferability as well as developing FUPs to enhance academic standards, professional education and graduate employability.
- The level of experience and type of involvement in internationalisation varied between research participants but those with program leadership roles tended to be more vocal due to their involvement with finding suitable partners and determining viability and suitability of program offerings to meet the internationalisation objectives of FTU.

- Although the contextual layers identified by Leask and Bridge (2013) were not familiar to participants, they appeared to make sense of them as a way of describing how influences can be multi-layered and contextual. In general, this group of participants were able to identify aspects relating to IoC at each layer, with most perceiving the institutional level as having the greatest influence.
- Partnership activities were described by some participants in detail demonstrating a high level of understanding, particularly by PM1, PM6 and PM7, of the nature and value of interactions between FTU and both CSU and LMET.
- A number of strategies for IoC were discussed in relation to curriculum mapping, integration of international, cultural and local components, methods for assessment, supporting students through extra-curricular activities and staff through tailored PD as well as quality assurance issues.
- Participants did not perceive IoC as well supported within FTU and were unable to identify many enabling factors. There was clearer recognition of challenges they faced with IoC implementation including economic and societal factors. Most identified factors fell into the infrastructural category, not unexpected in a country like Vietnam which is emerging in the educational field.
- A number of impacts on internationalisation at FTU resulting from the offering of FUPs were identified, including enhanced student mobility and transferability, and particularly 'program mobility' (J. Knight, 2012), which created more flexibility in terms of study options for students. As a consequence, the introduction of FUPs enabled FTU to implement 'internationalisation at home' (de Wit, 2011) or internationalisation of the university as a whole.

5.4 Summary of Chapter 5

The research findings and initial discussion provided in this chapter provide insights into key issues related to IoC of two FUPs offered through FTU in Vietnam, which are possibly shared by other non-western institutions. Aspects explored in this chapter include the program managers' and course coordinators' perceptions of IoC, their perceptions of the contextual layers influencing IoC implementation, their use of strategies for internationalising their programs and particularly the curriculum, as well as the factors perceived to enable or present challenges to IoC. This chapter also examined how IoC challenges were managed

through collaboration and impacts from the offering of FUPs on FTU's internationalisation as a whole. The next chapter provides an overview of the data provided through surveys and interviews by academics teaching in the two programs in relation to their perceptions of IoC at FTU. Chapter 7 then discusses these two data sets in relation to current literature and the theoretical framework of Activity Theory.

Chapter 6: Presentation of findings: Academics

This chapter presents the findings from the analysis of data from the survey and interviews conducted with academics teaching in the two FUPs at FTU. The first part of the chapter provides the findings from the survey which was completed by 34 academics, and the second part of the chapter presents results from analysis of the interviews conducted with 17 academics, most of whom had also completed the survey. The data from the survey and interviews and initial discussion related to FTU's implementation of IoC through the offering of foreign undergraduate programs (FUPs) in partnership with western universities. This chapter presents the findings related to the academic participants' perceptions of internationalisation broadly at FTU and curriculum internationalisation specifically. In particular, the analysis addresses the following five research sub-questions from the perspective of the academic participants:

1. How is IoC perceived by academics in FUPs?
2. What contextual layers impacting IoC are perceived by academics?
3. In what ways do academics internationalise FUPs?
4. What enablers and blockers of IoC are perceived by academics in FUPs?
5. In what ways, if any, does the offering of FUPs impact on the internationalisation of the university?

6.1 Research design

In order to address the five sub-questions, a preliminary quantitative design was employed for data collection with the academics as described in Chapter 4. To briefly recap, a survey was conducted to obtain preliminary information relating to academics' perceptions of internationalisation and curriculum internationalisation at FTU. The survey data provided a basis for purposeful selection of participants for the second phase of interviews to further explore specific aspects of the five sub-questions.

6.2 Quantitative research phase

6.2.1 Recap of participation.

As outlined in Chapter 4, academics teaching in Business courses in the FTU-CSU and FTU-LMET programs were invited to participate in the project via email, and surveys were completed via LimeSurvey. Of the 46 FTU academics who attempted the survey, 34 fully completed surveys were analysed through SPSS. Only basic descriptive statistical analysis was conducted due to the small number of participants. Of the 34 participants who completed the

surveys, 25 agreed to be interviewed and provided their contact details. This translated into 15 participants who met the selection criteria of having experience in IoC, described in Part C of the survey. As there were no academic participants from CSU or LMET who completed the survey, meeting of the criteria was determined via email correspondence with potential participants and eventually two agreed to be interviewed, one from CSU and one from LMET.

6.2.2 Survey results.

Thirty-four participants fully completed the survey, with 25 providing contact details and consenting to participate in the follow-up interview. Of the 25 who agreed to be interviewed, 17 were eventually selected, as explained in Section 6.3 of this chapter. The survey results generated from the 34 participants' responses provided information relating to the five following areas in regard to the academics teaching in the two FUPs:

- A. experience in tertiary education and international education
- B. perceptions of internationalisation at FTU
- C. experience in IoC at FTU
- D. perceptions of employability issues in tertiary education
- E. perceptions of key characteristics of intercultural competence

6.2.2.1 Experience in tertiary and international education.

Part A of the survey explored work experience. Responses indicated that 31 (91%) of the respondents had at least five years teaching experience, of which 13 (38%) had worked as lecturers at FTU for between five and ten years and 17 (50%) had been lecturers at FTU for over ten years. All participants had some form of experience either in international education, international research activities, professional exchange programs or other international related activities. Table 6.1 outlines these results.

Table 6.1

Academic participants' international education experience

Nature of international experience	Number of respondents	Percentage
Studying overseas	30	88.2%
Teaching international program(s) abroad	7	20.6%
Participating in international research project(s)	13	38.2%
Participating in professional exchange program(s) overseas.	21	61.8%
Other experience	9	26.5%

6.2.2.2 Experience in tertiary and international education.

In Part B of the survey, participants were asked to identify the type of internationalisation activities in which their faculty had been involved. Among the eight possible internationalisation activities that were listed, three were viewed by participants as most commonly occurring in their courses/programs as outlined in Table 6.2. Most participants (91%) perceived the inclusion of compulsory units on international business in mainstream undergraduate degrees as an internationalisation activity implemented in FTU. Other activities considered to be a part of internationalisation at FTU included international student exchange programs (85.3%) and recruitment of Vietnamese academics with international experience (79.4%).

Table 6.2

Academics' perceptions of internationalisation at FTU

Internationalisation activity	Number of respondents	Percentage
Inclusion of compulsory units on international business in mainstream undergraduate degrees	31	91.1%
International student exchange programs	29	85.3%
Deliberate recruitment of home country teaching staff who possess international experience	27	79.4%
International research collaborations	23	67.6%
Compulsory inclusion of international content into the syllabuses of individual mainstream undergraduate modules	22	64.7%
Deliberate recruitment of foreign teaching staff	10	29.4%

6.2.2.3 Academic's perceptions of and experience in internationalisation of the curriculum.

Part C of the survey included nine statements which required a Likert scale response ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. Part C also included a yes/no question (10) about whether support had been provided to academics teaching in the FUPs and four (11, 12, 13, 14) extended response questions, teasing out the nature of this. The nine statements related to perceptions about how IoC impacted on the development of graduate attributes, the inclusion of international content into learning and assessment, the assessment of students' intercultural competence and global thinking ability, as well as the inclusion of international and intercultural components into the two programs to assist students to develop international and intercultural competences.

Graduate attributes.

Academic participants’ responses to the first statement (1) in Section C, indicated that the curriculum in the two FUPs (which were designed for an international experience and were thereby assumed to be internationalised) had played a role in the development of the four listed graduate attributes. Respondents rated the impact as higher in relation to producing graduates who understood foreign business practices (82%) while the ability to think globally (74%), understanding foreign cultures (59%) and respect for international diversity (56%) received less support as illustrated in Figure 6.1.

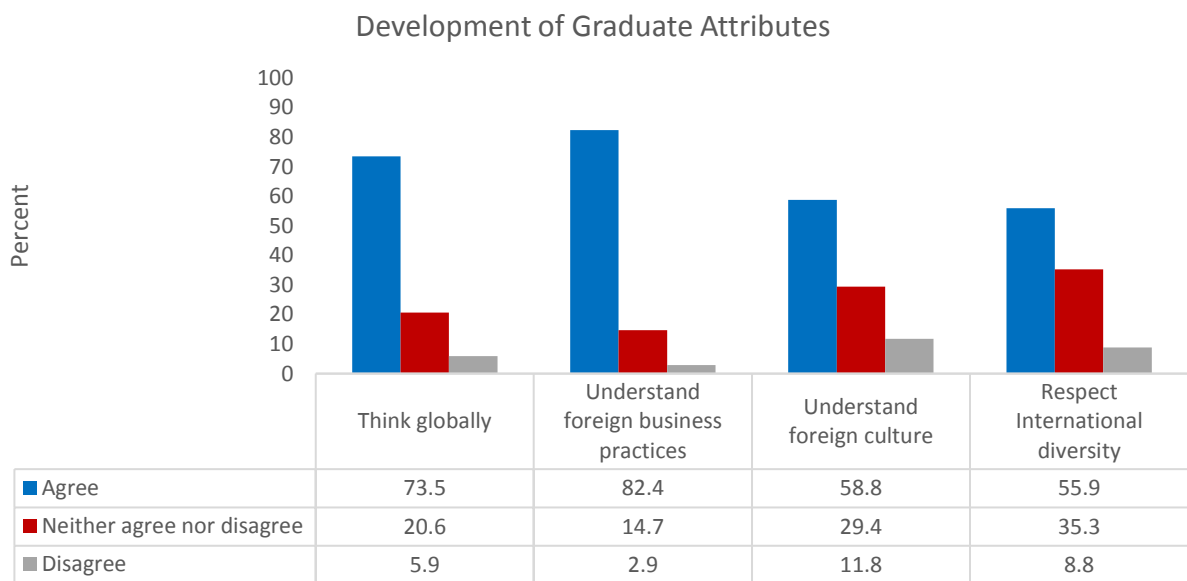


Figure 6.1. Perceptions of academics regarding the influence of curriculum design on Graduate Attributes

It was interesting that there was a degree of indecision by academics in relation to some attributes, with around a third of respondents indicating they neither agreed nor disagreed with development in relation to the final two attributes (understanding foreign culture and respecting international diversity). There appeared to be greater consensus in relation to the first two attributes, although indecision of response was still exhibited by 15-21% of participants. Levels of straight disagreement, however were low in each instance with only attribute 3 reaching over 10% (11.76%).

Apart from the formal graduate attributes listed, it is important to question whether there were other attributes that academics aimed to develop for their students through the IoC. The interviews with academics in the qualitative phase provided more information about the development of graduate attributes at FTU.

Inclusion of international content into learning and assessment.

Internationalising the curriculum was perceived by respondents to link with the inclusion of international content into learning and assessment. Three statements in Section C (2, 3 & 4) that related to learning and assessment and responses are displayed in Figure 6.2.

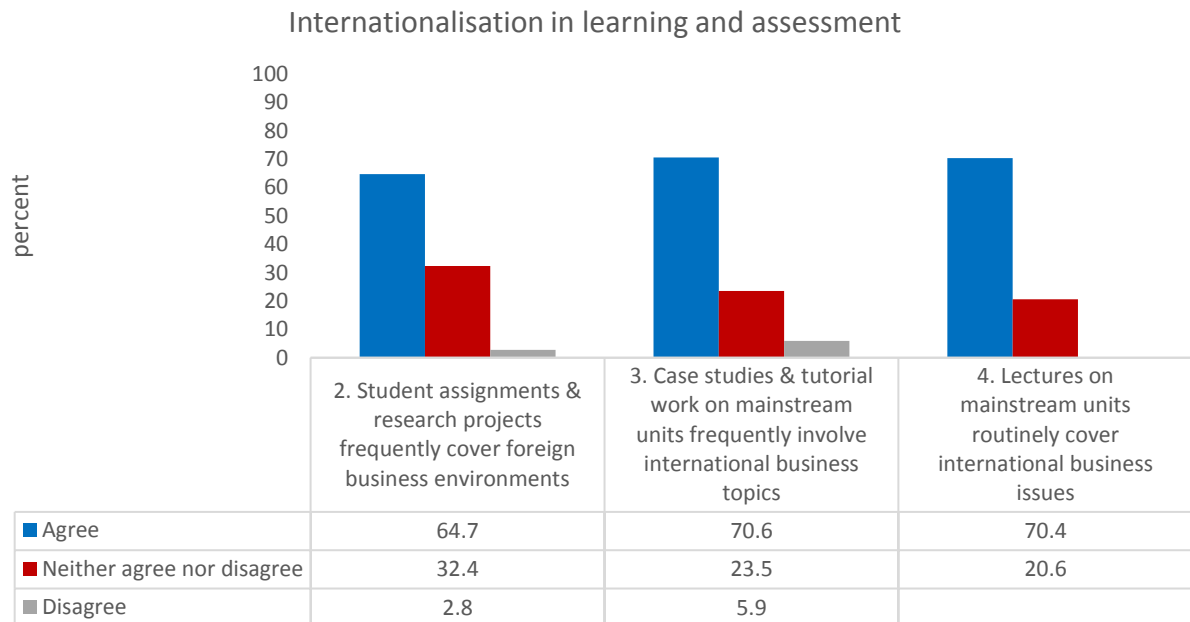


Figure 6.2. Perceptions of academics regarding internationalisation in relation to learning and assessment

In each instance, approximately two thirds of respondents (65-71%) agreed with the three statements provided with very small levels of disagreement but reasonably high levels of indecision (21-32%). There was a reasonable level of agreement by respondents that international business environments or topics and issues were embedded into learning activities including case studies, tutorial work and lectures, or into assessment activities like assignments and research projects. Similarly, incorporation of international content into learning and assessment, and inclusion of local content and examples into learning and assessment activities, was acknowledged.

Assessment of students' intercultural competence and global thinking ability.

Two statements (5 & 6) directly asked about assessment of intercultural competence and global thinking ability. There was a high degree of indecision in relation to these two statements, with approximately a third of respondents neither agreeing nor disagreeing. The level of disagreement was also quite high, particularly for statement 6, where 21% of respondents disagreed that global thinking capacity was assessed by the university. These results are illustrated in Figure 6.3.

Assessment of intercultural competence and global thinking

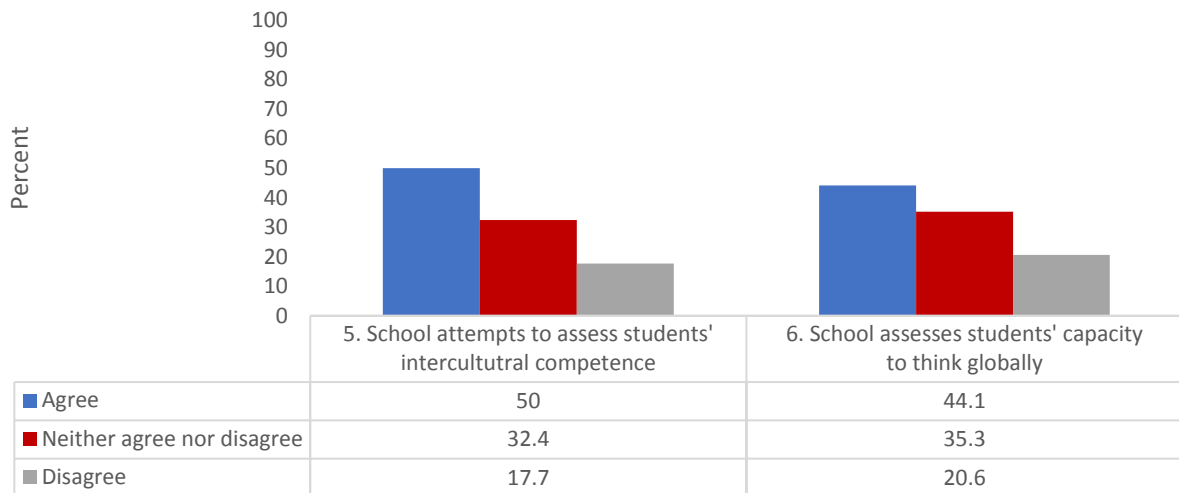


Figure 6.3. Perceptions of academics regarding assessment of intercultural competence/global thinking

Inclusion of international and intercultural components into the two programs.

Three statements (7, 8 & 9) in the survey related to academics' perceptions of whether the courses in the FUPs were 'internationalised' in terms of the curriculum, including content and syllabi. There was a reasonable level of agreement by participants to Statements 7 and 9 but more mixed responses to Statement 8, which had less than 50 per cent agreement (and almost a quarter disagreement) that the curricula of the FUPs had been adjusted to match foreign students' characteristics, cultures and learning styles (see Figure 6.4).

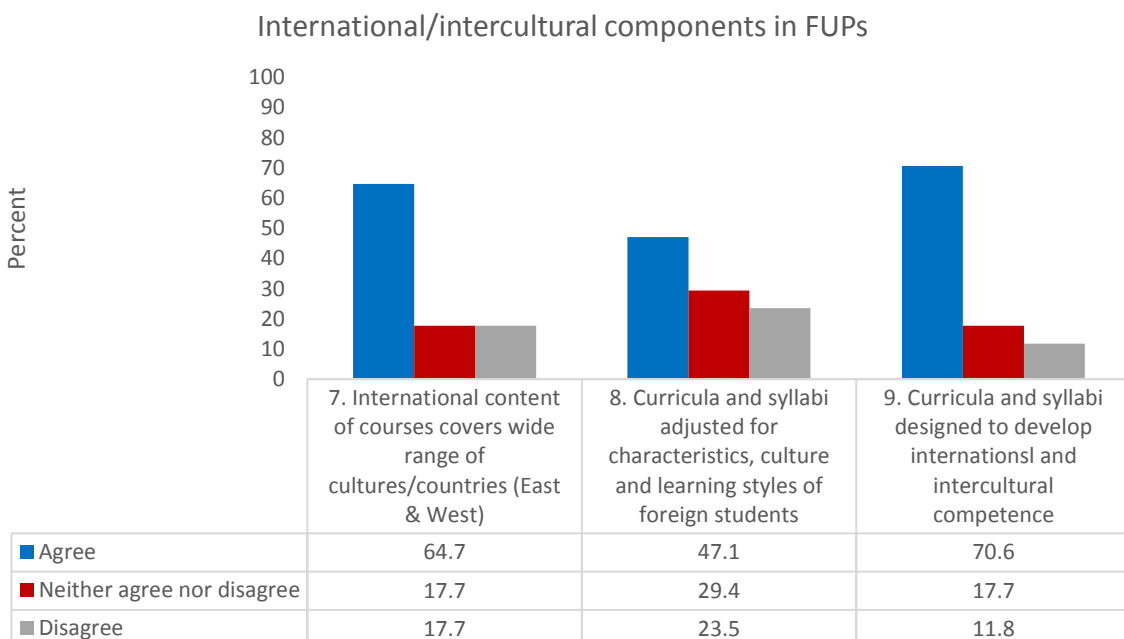


Figure 6.4. Perceptions of academics regarding inclusion of international/intercultural components in programs

Training and support in internationalisation of the curriculum.

Section C included three extended response questions which enabled academics to write about the type of support and training they received to assist them in internationalising the curriculum for the two FUPs. Question 12 also asked about the extent to which academics adapted the existing curriculum to meet the needs of another culture in which the programs were offered.

Nature of Support/Training provided to academics

Three of the open-ended questions in Section C (11, 13 & 14) related to the type of support and/or training received or required by academics working in the FUPs. Half of the participants (17) indicated in their response to the yes/no question (10) that they had not received any form of support in developing and delivering courses in the two programs. Table 6.3 outlines the nature of responses to Q11 from the 17 participants who indicated that they had received support.

Table 6.3

Support provided to academics teaching in FUPs

Form of support	No of responses
Teaching materials and resources	8
Support from senior/experienced lecturers from FTU and partners	9
Seminars and workshops at FTU	1
Opportunities to work as associate lecturers for foreign professors teaching at FTU	4
Short training courses at FTU's partners overseas	5
Financial support	2

Required support or training to assist with internationalising the curriculum

In response to Q14, regarding the type of training participants required, references were made to support requirements over and above training. Thirty responses were provided as outlined in Table 6.4, with 19 respondents highlighting participation in a short training course at one of FTU's university partner's campuses as the most requested type of training activity. Almost one third of respondents (9) indicated they would like more teaching resources and facilities.

Table 6.4

Support or training preferences of academics

Form of support	No of responses
Participating in short training course at FTU's university partners	19
More teaching resources and facilities	9
Attending professional exchange programs	5
Being associate teachers for foreign lecturers teaching at FTU campus	1
Involvement in research projects with international researchers	4
Seminars, workshops and field trips related to teaching courses	2
Training or experience related to internationalisation of the curriculum	4

A number of the points that emerged from this survey data were able to be followed up in the interviews including overcoming limited levels of support.

Adapting the syllabus to meet the needs of students, FTU and its university partners.

Most respondents answered Q12 about their adaptation of the curriculum to cater for FTU students studying in either the UK or USA, with some choosing more than one approach. Out of the 34 respondents, only two (6%) indicated that they strictly followed the syllabus provided by FTU's university partners and did not make any adjustments. Others indicated simple adjustments such as the use of international textbooks, international case studies or local content and examples. Table 6.5 displays the responses.

Table 6.5

Approaches used by academics to adapt curriculum in FUPs

Type of approach	No. of responses
Minor changes to content	19
Using international books and textbooks, international case studies	9
Incorporating international content and examples	8
Incorporating local content and examples	8
No adapting or strictly following syllabi provided by FTU's university partners	2

Academics' perceptions of employability issues in tertiary education.

Part D of the survey consisted of seven statements relating to employability as connected to internationalisation, which required a simple agree/disagree/uncertain response. For instance, 32 of 34 respondents (94.1%) agreed that internationalisation and/or IoC enhanced employment and career prospects of students. Table 6.6 displays the level of

agreement with the statements and illustrates that there was a high degree of agreement by academic participants that employability was related to internationalisation. This was also evident in the high level of disagreement from 24 (71%) respondents to the negatively worded statement 7 about little point in teaching an internationalised curriculum to students who were unlikely to work abroad, although the level of uncertainty was quite high for this statement (23.5%). Interesting there was also a high level of uncertainty of almost 30% in responses to statement 5, demonstrating that academic participants were not as certain about the matter from an employer perspective.

Table 6.6

Academics' perceptions of employability issues in tertiary education

Employability issues	Agree	Disagree	Uncertain
1. Internationalisation of activities and/or curriculum improves the employment and career prospects of students	94.1%	0%	5.9%
2. Understanding of international and cross-cultural topics is essential for professional success	82.4%	2.9%	14.7%
3. Compared to other universities in our sector, a high percentage of our business graduates have always been able to find suitable jobs after leaving the university	79.4%	2.9%	17.7%
4. The inclusion of international content in curricula and syllabuses crowds out other learning material and activities that would be more relevant to the employability of students	73.5%	5.9%	20.6%
5. Today, employing firms in general want staff who possess international skills and perspectives	70.6%	0%	29.59%
6. Nowadays, graduates need to be capable of working anywhere in the world	58.8%	11.8%	29.4%
7. There is little point in teaching an internationalised curriculum to students who are unlikely to ever work abroad	5.9%	70.6%	23.5%

Academics' perceptions of key characteristics of intercultural competence.

Section E of the survey related to perceptions about key characteristics of intercultural competence. The development of students' intercultural competence involved development of knowledge, skills and abilities as well as attitudes and values through their course of study. Section E included three parts relating to the importance of the development of a) knowledge and understanding, b) skills and abilities, and c) attitudes and values. A range of topics, attributes or characteristics were listed which academics were asked to identify as important for students to develop in order to be interculturally competent.

Students' development of knowledge/understanding

Table 6.7 displays the percentage of respondents who identified elements related to internationalisation that were important to build on in the FUPs to assist students in developing intercultural competence. While each of element was identified as important by a minimum of two thirds of participants, knowledge of how the world operates economically, and understanding of how knowledge may be construed differently across cultures in different disciplines, both received 100% recognition.

Table 6.7

Academics' perceptions of the importance of developing specific knowledge/understanding to build students' intercultural competence

Area of knowledge/understanding	Percent
How the world operates economically	100
How knowledge may be constructed differently across cultures in different disciplines	100
Related social, economic, and political issues	97.1
Intercultural and transnational issues relevant to professional practice	94.1
Globalisation and interdependence	94.1
Impact of international actions	94.1
Membership of, and responsibilities within, both a local and global society	91.2
How the world operates socially	91.2
Own culture and perspectives	91.2
How the world operates culturally	88.2
Impact of decisions for international communities/ environments	88.2
Other cultures and perspectives	88.2
How the world operates politically	85.3
Impact of national actions	82.4
Impact of local actions	79.4
Impact of decisions for national communities/ environments	79.4
Equity, social justice and human rights	79.4
How the world operates environmentally	76.5
How the world operates technologically	76.5
Short-term implications for sustainable development	73.5
Impact of decisions for local communities/ environments	67.7

Most respondents highlighted the need for students to understand international actions as well as the impact of international decisions, with around 94% and 88% of

participants responding accordingly. Meanwhile, students' recognition of national actions or the impact of national decisions on community and environment was acknowledged by about 82% and 80% of respondents respectively. Approximately 90% of respondents agreed that students should develop an understanding of their own cultures and other cultures.

All respondents believed that students should understand their membership and responsibilities in both local and global society, while about 94% deemed understanding intercultural and transnational aspects applicable to their professional field as important. Additionally, students' recognition of the construction of knowledge varying across cultures and disciplines was acknowledged by over 91% of respondents.

In brief, academic participants agreed that knowledge and understanding of certain elements related to social, economic and political aspects of internationalisation were important to develop through studying in the FUPs.

Students' development of skills and ability

Five skills/abilities were listed for academics to tick against if they felt they were important for students to develop in order to become more culturally competent. Table 6.8 displays the percentage of respondents who selected each of the skills/abilities.

Table 6.8

Academics' perceptions of the importance of developing particular skills and abilities to build students' intercultural competence

Type of skill or ability	Percentage
Ability to think "globally" to consider issues from a variety of different perspectives (e.g. social, cultural, economic, political and religious, etc.)	94.1%
Ability to engage in problem-solving, shared perspective-taking/negotiation to resolve conflicts	88.2%
Effective leadership, cooperation and teamwork skills	85.3%
Ability to interact and empathise with people from different social, cultural, religious, and linguistic background, both locally and globally	82.4%
Critical analysis of/ability to challenge conventional thinking, injustice and inequality	52.9%

Over 90% of respondents identified the 'ability to think globally' as important to develop; more than 80% believed that students should develop soft skills and abilities relating to leadership, team work, problem-solving and negotiation. Critical analysis of traditional thought, injustice and inequality was mentioned by just over half (52.9%) of respondents.

Students' development of attitudes and values

The final section of Part E of the survey listed seven attitudes and values that academics were asked to identify as important for students in relation to the development of cultural competence. Table 6.9 outlines the results. For instance, the 'Commitment to engage in informed debate about issues of equity, social justice and political issues' received just over half of the respondents (55.9%) attention while over 90% of respondents regarded 'Appreciation of, and value and respect for global multicultural, multilingual diversity' as important to be developed. The survey results only presented the academics' perceptions about students' development of attitudes and values; whether the academics perceived that they managed to develop these attributes in their students required examination in the qualitative phase.

Table 6.9

Academic's perceptions of the importance of developing particular attitudes and values to build students' intercultural competence

Attitude or value	Percentage
Appreciation of, and value and respect for global multicultural, multilingual diversity	91.2%
Sensitivity to, and awareness of, complex human-environment interactions; willingness to act in a manner consistent with changing needs and demands facing society	85.3%
Commitment to participate in, and contribute toward, creating an equitable and sustainable community at a range of levels	79.4%
Sense of identity, self-esteem and belief that people can make a difference to world	79.4%
Committed to justice, equity, environmental sustainability and civic obligations.	76.5%
Appreciation of the complex, interacting factors that contribute to diversity of language, culture and multicultural relationships	73.5%
Commitment to engage in informed debate about issues of equity, social justice and political issues.	55.9%

6.2.3 Summary of the quantitative phase.

The use of a preliminary design for the quantitative aspect of the research enabled purposeful selection of participants for follow up interviews. The survey results also provided information regarding the following:

- Academics' perceptions of IoC in relation to their experience in tertiary education and international education as well as their involvement in IoC implementation at FTU;
- Key issues identified by academics as related to IoC at FTU:

- the inclusion of international content, cultural differences and local elements into the course;
- the development of students' competencies including international and intercultural competence;
- the development of knowledge, skills, and values in students in FUPs, assisting them to become global professionals and citizens;
- the development of international exchange programs;
- the development of graduate attributes for students in the FUPs or graduate employability with regard to IoC;
- the recruitment of Vietnamese academics with international education experience and their role in internationalising the curriculum;
- the academics' disciplinary perspectives influencing IoC implementation

As such, the information from the survey provided preliminary input for further investigation, which was conducted through the interviews, and is presented in the following section.

6.3 Qualitative research phase

6.3.1 Interviews.

Although 25 of the 34 academics who had completed the survey did provide contact details signifying their willingness to participate in an interview, it was decided to use a set of criteria as explained in Chapter 4 in Section 4.2.4.3. As such, the list of the volunteers was scrutinised using critical sampling techniques to ensure that a range of views were included in the interviews. Details of the sampling process for the 17 interviewees are included in Table 4.3 in Chapter 4. Most interviews were conducted face-to-face on the FTU campus. Fifteen interviews were with FTU academics in Vietnamese while the two interviews with a CSU academic (AC35) and a foreign academic employed by FTU to teach in the FTU-LMET program (AC36) were conducted via skype and in English. All interviews were recorded, transcribed and, if conducted in Vietnamese, translated into English. The interviews were then analysed in NVivo 12 and categorised into five main groups for analysis, based on the roles of each interviewee. Table 6.10 provides an overview of the interview participants based on the analysis groups and includes their gender and roles.

Table 6.10

Academic interview participants

Interview groups	ID/ GENDER	Institution	Years of experience	Position description of the participants
Group 1	AC1/ F	FTU	11 years	Content teacher in both programs
	AC12/F	FTU	15 years	Content teacher in both programs
	AC26/M	FTU	16 years	Content teacher in both programs
Group 2	AC7/M	FTU	10 years	Content teacher - FTU-CSUprogram
	AC28/M	FTU	18 years	Content teacher - FTU-CSUprogram
	AC34/F	FTU	15 years	Content teacher - FTU-CSUprogram
	AC35/F	CSU	4 years	Content teacher - FTU-CSUprogram
Group 3	AC8/M	FTU	15 years	Content teacher - FTU-LMET program
	AC15/F	FTU	5 years	Content teacher - FTU-LMET program
	AC32/M	FTU	13 years	Content teacher - FTU-LMET program
	AC36/M	*LMET	20+ years	Content teacher - FTU-LMET program
Group 4	AC10/F	FTU	19 years	English teacher - foundation courses (both)
	AC27/F	FTU	18 years	English teacher - foundation courses (both)
	AC33/F	FTU	16 years	English teacher - foundation courses (both)
Group 5	AC14/F	FTU	8 years	English teacher - English courses (both)
	AC21/F	FTU	7 years	English teacher - English courses (both)
	AC23/F	FTU	11 years	English teacher - English courses (both)

Note: *LMET academic was a 'foreign' academic employed by FTU to teach in the FTU-LMET program

While the interviews with academics covered a similar range of aspects as those conducted with program managers and course coordinators, and there were definite commonalities between the two cohorts, a number of different aspects also arose from discussions. As such, the analysis followed the main themes and sub-themes emerging from analysis of the detailed responses of academics. These themes are included in Table 6.11 and then explained in more detail in the sections that follow.

Table 6.11

Themes and sub-themes emerging from interviews with academics

Themes	Sub-themes	
Perceptions of IoC	International education experience	Formal education obtained from overseas Formal education obtained from international programs in Vietnam
	Work experience	Tertiary teaching experience Teaching experience in transnational programs
	Discipline influences on IoC	Academics' teaching disciplines in relation to IoC implementation
Contextual layers of IoC	Global context	Trends in internationalisation and globalisation
	National/Regional context	The government's development orientation
	Local context	A new societal demand for education products Population growth and income improvement
	Institutional context	The university's goals/ internal strengths Establishing partnership with well-regarded overseas universities
Strategies for internationalisation and curriculum internationalisation	Using English as a medium of instruction	Using English only for instruction Flexibility in using first language for instruction
	Developing internationalised courses	Differences in designing the courses Flexibility in curriculum adaptation
	Teaching and learning pedagogy	Using student-centred approach versus teacher-centred approach
	Teaching and learning activities	Lectures, group work, presentation, role plays and case studies
	Teaching and learning content	Integration of international, cultural and local dimensions into courses
	Assessment practices (including assessment types and assessments criteria)	Combination of formative and summative assessment Using range of assessments, including: multiple choice tests, written assignments, oral and/or written tests/exams Assessing students' attendance and participation Assessing content knowledge and students' English Assessing students' knowledge, skills and attitudes proficiency

Table 6.11 (Cont.)

Themes and sub-themes emerging from interviews with academics

Themes	Sub-themes	
Strategies for internationalisation and curriculum internationalisation (Cont.)	Utilising resources for teaching and learning	The quality and appropriateness of facilities and resources for teaching and learning
	Providing support and extra-curriculum activities to students	Lack of extra-curricular activities due to insufficient time and resources Offering workshops or inviting guest speakers if possible
	Quality assurance	Quality assurance monitored by FTU Differences in monitoring the quality of teaching and learning in the two FUPs
Enablers of IoC	Collaboration	Between academics and management personnel Among academics
	Internal factors	Teaching aspirations Teaching capability Personal experience in international education and work
Blockers of IoC	External factors	Institutional context including the university's goals and its internal strengths Financial benefits
	Policy/Institutional	Insufficient support from the faculty or the university
	Infrastructural	Lack of appropriate facilities and training resources
	Societal	Differences in cultural aspects Time constraints for intensive courses
Impacts of the offering of FUPs on FTU's internationalisation	Personal	Students' insufficient exposure to different cultures Academics' lack of first-hand experience in overseas education
	Managing transnational teaching team through professional development	Raising awareness of the need for the provision of professional development and training for academics
	The need for resources of teaching and learning Partnerships and collaboration	Improving facility, teaching and learning resources Establishing partnership with good HE institutions overseas

6.3.2 Academics' perceptions of IoC.

The interview data related to academics' perceptions of IoC was analysed in relation to their international education experience, work experience and disciplines they were

teaching. This built on the information provided in responses to questions in Part A of the survey relating to experience in tertiary and international education.

6.3.2.1 International education experience.

Of the 17 interviewees, 15 had obtained qualifications overseas and one had obtained an international qualification within Vietnam. All content and English teachers delivering foundation courses had attained qualifications abroad. A number of academics specifically mentioned their engagement in FUPs had commenced after completion of overseas study:

I obtained my PhD degree in 2007 and actually, I have been teaching and gained some experience in teaching joint programs since I completed my PhD in Germany. (AC12)

Some interviewees acknowledged that their overseas education impacted on their views and their teaching approach within FUPs. For instance, AC34 mentioned:

... honestly, if I had not gone abroad to study, I would not have changed my professional view and developed my teaching methodology to what it now is. (AC34)

Indeed, obtaining an international qualification enabled academics to teach in FUPs, as all data supported that recruitment of Vietnamese academics with international experience was considered to be a part of internationalisation activity at FTU.

6.3.2.2 Work experience.

Thirteen of the interviewees had over 10-years teaching experience in higher education. Four had been involved in the FUPs since the first cohorts began, while three had also taught in joint programs in other universities in Vietnam. Only two academics had less experience of higher education teaching in Vietnam, including one Vietnamese academic (AC15) and the CSU academic (AC35):

I was invited to teach here in 2012 but I didn't know anything about Vietnam ... the culture, language, etc, but it was an exciting opportunity. (AC35)

Although the CSU academic was not familiar with Vietnam in terms of culture and language, she had some work experience in other non-English speaking countries:

Ok, first, I should say that I have been in Ecuador and also in France. So, I am very committed to an international perspective. (AC35)

Three academics had educational backgrounds in English and/or Economics, each with more than 16 years teaching experience at FTU. They delivered the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses or foundation courses related to economics and business:

I have been teaching at FTU for 16 years ... I teach some courses on English for specific purposes and some subjects related to trade and economics. (AC33)

Overall, the academic participants were experienced both in terms of tertiary teaching and personal understanding of international education. Most had been engaged in transnational programs like FUPs at FTU or other universities in Vietnam for some years.

6.3.2.3 Discipline influences on IoC.

The interviews also revealed academics' perceptions of how they engaged in IoC within their Faculty at FTU broadly and related to their teaching disciplines specifically. Each academic taught in either one or both programs as outlined in Table 6.10, so there was an awareness of internationalisation, even if just at a singular course level. While discussion mainly focused on internationalisation at the course level, some broader, more program-related insights were offered by academics teaching in both programs. In general, most of the interviewees perceived their role in IoC as limited, due to their positions as teaching academics rather than as course coordinators or program managers, who tend to have a more direct influence on course development.

All academics in Groups 1, 2 and 3 taught business courses, while academics in Group 4 delivered foundation courses in business such as Introduction to Accounting, Introduction to Marketing or Business Communication. Group 5 academics taught English courses to develop students' English language skills. Table 6.12 provides these details.

Table 6.12

Courses taught by academic interviewees

Interview groups	ID	Course(s) taught by the academics
Group 1	AC1	Insurance & Risk Management
	AC12	International finance/Risk Management
	AC26	Finance, Capital market
Group 2	AC7	Business Law
	AC28	Human Resources Management
	AC34	Logistics and International Freight Forwarding/Insurance & Risk Management
	AC35	Strategic Management and Entrepreneurship
Group 3	AC8	Economics and Society
	AC15	Banking Systems
	AC32	International Business
	AC36	Marketing
Group 4	AC10	Introduction to Accounting
	AC27	Business Communication
	AC33	Introduction to Marketing/American literature
Group 5	AC14	English courses
	AC21	English courses
	AC23	English courses

As shown in Table 6.12, most courses were business related, except for the English courses. Most interviewees acknowledged that certain courses in the business discipline impacted on their IoC implementation, particularly their incorporation of international aspects into courses. For instance, AC32 mentioned:

There are some courses with their own features containing international aspects which are easily incorporated. For instance, International Business or Intercultural Business Management, include a lot of aspects related to culture, cultural originality, perceptions of culture as well as business culture and practice...some don't contain much though e.g. Fundamentals of Management. (AC32)

Therefore, participants stressed that the discipline influenced their internationalising of curriculum. All academics in Groups 1, 2, 3 and 4 explicitly or implicitly mentioned that international aspects were embedded into their teaching courses:

... the courses I teach are related to doing business in the global business environment ... they are all related to international aspects. For example, International Finance covers all the international macro aspects among nations while International Finance Management is about the management of multi-nation companies in the global business environment and Risk Management relates to the financial issues in the global business environment. (AC12)

In summary, the interview data demonstrated that the discipline or course the academics taught influenced their inclusion of international, cultural or/and intercultural components and indirectly impacted their implementation of IoC. In addition to the discipline influences, other contextual layers were mentioned by academics as affecting the implementation of IoC as outlined in the next section.

6.3.3 Academics' perceptions of contextual layers affecting IoC.

Academics were asked to identify the type of contextual layers they felt had an impact on their own implementation of IoC in their courses; however, many responded in relation to higher education in general rather than their courses specifically. Table 6.13 outlines which contextual layers were discussed as impacting IoC by each participant.

Table 6.13

Academics' perceptions of contextual layers influencing IoC implementation at FTU

Groups	ID	Contextual layers influencing IoC implementation at FTU
Group 1	AC1	Local, Institutional
	AC12	Local, Institutional
	AC26	Local, Institutional
Group 2	AC7	Regional and national, Local, Institutional
	AC28	Regional and national, Institutional
	AC34	Global, Regional and national, Local, Institutional
	AC35	Global, Institutional
Group 3	AC8	Global, Regional and national, Institutional
	AC15	Global, Institutional
	AC32	Global, Regional and national, Local, Institutional
	AC36	Global
Group 4	AC10	Local
	AC27	Global, Regional and national, Institutional
	AC33	Global, Regional and national, Local, Institutional
Group 5	AC14	Local
	AC21	Local, Institutional
	AC23	Local

6.3.3.1 Global context.

Eight out of seventeen interviewees acknowledged the impact of the global context on internationalisation and curriculum internationalisation. The internationalisation trend, or globalisation, was mentioned as impacting on the development of the FUPs in Vietnam in general, and at FTU in particular. This was evident in these comments:

First, there is a need of developing such a program as it matches the international trend. (AC8)

... the programs designed for FTU students are based on global trends. Those delivered in English have to include the development of global skills for students. (AC15)

These views were not only shared by FTU academics but the CSU academic who also emphasised the influence of the global context on the teaching and learning in higher education, i.e. providing students with opportunities to have global perspectives.

6.3.3.2 Regional and national context.

A number of academics mentioned the impact of national contexts but none specifically discussed regional aspects. The national context affecting IoC was discussed in relation to the government's international development orientation and the increase in

foreign investment in Vietnam. These influences created the need for educating graduates capable of working in a global setting:

The occurrence of integration attracts foreign investment into Vietnam, and the investment from Vietnam into other nations. Investment creates employment and working in a globalised context. When someone wants to work in a globalized world, he/she needs to acquire specific skills in order to work in an international environment. (AC27)

The interest in tertiary qualifications within Vietnam was considered a factor for MOET promoting the development of transnational programs such as FUPs in Vietnam:

Regarding the joint-programs, MOET allows universities to implement the programs in Vietnam. I can see a trend in Vietnam that Vietnamese people highly appreciate such qualifications. (AC34)

6.3.3.3 Local context.

Eleven interviewees referred to the local context as a major influencing factor, mainly in relation to new societal demands, population growth and income improvement. Regarding new societal demands, a number of participants perceived the new supply and demand trends in higher education as a factor influencing the provision of FUPs in Vietnam:

FTU is providing an educational service since all universities are now acting as companies... when they see the market demand, they offer the services required. (AC7)

Additionally, the new societal demands were perceived in relation to the need for new education products or different study options:

...there is a social demand for the international programs since the domestic programs in Vietnam don't satisfy the students and their parents' needs in terms of providing students with knowledge about integration and education development in the world. (AC23)

The demand for new types of education and training was also perceived as emerging from the new perceptions of higher education purposes that were becoming evident in Vietnam:

There is a transition in our society regarding university study. Previously it was perceived that studying at university was something really superior; to get a good position in society, to get promoted. However, now studying at tertiary level is needed to acquire knowledge and skills as well as to learn to work ...this requires more diverse training. (AC32)

Population changes and income improvement were also perceived as critical elements which had almost forced Vietnamese universities to change their educational products:

The most important aspect is ... the changes in the population, the income and the need. ...As a result, all universities like FTU have to change their curriculum in order to make their training program more international and western-oriented. (AC26)

In summary, the local context was perceived as an important factor in the internationalisation process in both FTU and Vietnam more broadly.

6.3.3.4 Institutional context.

Thirteen interviewees perceived the institutional context as influencing the implementation of FUPs in Vietnam in general and at FTU in particular. The institutional context was discussed in relation to the university's goals, internal strengths and the partnerships it formed with well-regarded overseas universities.

The goals of FTU were perceived as being aided through improvements in the teaching and learning quality associated with the development of FUPs. For example, one academic claimed that when designing the curriculum for such programs, different approaches were applied to enhance the quality of teaching and learning as well as to meet the needs of the labour market:

So, what is the most important objective? It is to change the teaching and learning approach, thus improving the teaching and learning quality...Therefore, university and faculties are more active in the design of the Joint Programs or Advanced Programs, making those programs fit the needs of the labour market. (AC28)

Another goal of enhanced status in the region was also perceived as being aided through FTU offering international programs that attracted international students:

The international aspects of the universities reflect through the number of foreign students enrolling in the international programs. The programs have been accredited and had international components. (AC12)

FTU's internal strengths in terms of the quality of academic staff and students, was also raised as important by AC32:

... our teachers have good levels of foreign languages, so it is not hard for FTU to develop international programs ... My faculty has 50 lecturers and more than half of them can teach in English. This is our internal strength. (AC32)

The value of establishing partnerships with good universities was also perceived as affecting the development of international programs at FTU:

Although there is a demand for international programs, the need may not be met if the institution is not able to establish partnerships with overseas universities and support the development of the programs. FTU offers great support to develop international cooperation, creating a widespread impact on the program. (AC27)

While a number of institutional aspects were raised by academic interviewees, the internal strengths of FTU were perceived as having the most impact on promoting the development of transnational programs like FUPs at FTU.

6.3.4 Academics' use of the strategies for IoC.

The interview probed the specific strategies being used by participants to internationalise their own course/s. Academic interviewees discussed these strategies in relation to ten key aspects as detailed in the following sections.

6.3.4.1 Use of English as medium of instruction.

One aspect raised by most participants was the use of English as the main medium of instruction in the FUPs. Table 6.14 outlines participants' reports of their use of English within the course/s they taught.

Table 6.14

Use of English as medium of instruction in courses in the FUPs

Interview groups	ID	Medium of instruction
Group 1	AC1	English/some Vietnamese (technical terms)
	AC12	English/some Vietnamese (technical terms)
	AC26	English/some Vietnamese (technical terms)
Group 2	AC7	100% English due to international students'
	AC28	English/some Vietnamese (technical terms)
	AC34	100% English in international student exchange courses/some Vietnamese for technical terms in FUPs without any international students
	AC35	English only
Group 3	AC8	English only
	AC15	English only
	AC32	English only
	AC36	English only
Group 4	AC10	English/some Vietnamese (technical terms/jokes etc)
	AC27	English/some Vietnamese dependent on students' language level
	AC33	English/some Vietnamese dependent on students' language level
Group 5	AC14	English/some Vietnamese dependent on students' language level
	AC21	English/some Vietnamese dependent on students' language level
	AC23	English only

The use of English as the only language of instruction and communication drew mixed reactions from interviewees. Some perceived that the language of instruction should be solely

English because of the requirements of the programs, requiring students to be competent in the language. For example, AC23 proposed:

... when teaching students in the Joint Program, the required element is that, despite teaching foreign language or professional knowledge, English must be used 100% in the class. (AC23)

It was also acknowledged that the use of English only in their courses made sense because of the presence of international students in their classes:

For international courses where there are international exchange students, it is undeniable that the course must be conducted in English. (AC34)

Some participants argued that if there was a compromise on the use of language for instruction, the objectives of FUPs were not being met:

... if we explain in Vietnamese, it will not meet the objectives and requirements of the programs. Of course, we have to accept some students maybe are not good at English so when we ask questions in English, they probably respond in Vietnamese if they cannot explain clearly in English. There will be some flexibility but basically the program needs to be conducted 100 per cent in English. (AC32)

However, more than half of the interviewees claimed that while their courses were mostly conducted in English, there was sometimes a need to use Vietnamese to explain technical terms to help students to understand the lectures better:

When I use Vietnamese in class, it simply relates to the idea of explaining to students the meaning of technical terms. I quickly say the meaning of the term in Vietnamese and then give a detailed explanation of the term in English. (AC34)

One participant explained that using Vietnamese sometimes helped students have a break from the intensity of English language use for a long study period and additionally the use of Vietnamese brought other local cultural benefits:

It is said that we cannot use Vietnamese, the mother tongue in class; yet, we cannot remove one's mother tongue from his/her heart. Sometimes using Vietnamese still brings a certain benefit. I think it is a part of the cultural element. (AC10)

Overall, while there was recognition of the importance of using English as the language of instruction in FUPs, there was also an acknowledgement that the program was taught in Vietnam and thus required a degree of flexibility.

6.3.4.2 Development of internationalised courses.

During interviews, there was no specific reference made to curriculum mapping in relation to internationalising their courses. All academic participants primarily acknowledged

the differences in designing the courses and the flexibility of curriculum adaptation for the two FUPs.

Differences were noted between the two programs by academics with experience in both FUPs, demonstrating the perception that LMET had stricter requirements in terms of course content and design. The academics in Group 1 described having to strictly follow the syllabus set by LMET, particularly as they taught core courses for final year students. For instance, AC26 said:

... the course I teach is the core one for fourth year students, so the syllabus and teaching methodology and requirements are more specific ... I am provided with a list of required reading and suggested reading. Also, LMET provide a list of discussion questions for each week and they divide the teaching content weekly. (AC26)

By contrast, academics in Group 3 who taught only in the LMET program, perceived things as more flexible, possibly as they had no point of comparison. It was pointed out that as long as learning outcomes were met, there was a degree of flexibility in implementation:

The required learning outcomes are clearly specified but the actual implementation is not and that is where there is some freedom to make courses more reflective of our own teaching. (AC32)

For the academics in Groups 4 and 5, some stated that they followed the university partner's requirements; however, because their teaching courses focused on English, they could make certain changes regarding the syllabus:

Regarding development of students' English language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing, our university partners, even LMET, let us decide to develop the syllabus suitable to our students' language competence. (AC27)

Additionally, a small number of academics discussed differences in designing courses dependent upon being core or elective, thus pertaining to the degree of freedom provided for academics to design aspects of the course:

With CSU, their program focuses on economics; the course I teach, however, is about finance so it's an elective ... so CSU does not provide a textbook so we can make our own decision but as far as I know, for core courses in the program, the textbooks are provided by CSU. (AC26)

To sum up, academics in the two FUPs outlined different approaches to designing internationalised courses or adapting the curriculum for their courses, dependent upon their course requirements and supports provided by their faculty or the university.

6.3.4.3 Use of teaching and learning pedagogy.

Internationalising the curriculum of the FUPs was perceived to be implemented through the academics' use of teaching and learning pedagogy, with an acknowledgement of the complexities within the dichotomy of a teacher-centred versus student-centred approach. For instance, AC32 mentioned:

Honestly speaking, there is no clear cut between the ideas of the teacher-centred or student-centred approach. It is not good if we absolutise either the teacher or students. We need to keep in mind that, on the one hand, our students are our customers. On the other hand, they are our products ... so we have the right to polish our product in order to produce the best products to our society. (AC32)

This suggested a balanced use of these two approaches. However, the interviews revealed that most participants described their approach as definitely more student-centred and they either explicitly or implicitly identified their use of a student-centred approach:

I teach case methods, which is a very different teaching style. So, instead of me standing lecturing, they read the cases, analyse them and we come to class and have a discussion. So, it's more... 'guide on the side' instead of 'sage on stage'. (AC35)

I used to study in Australia, so the teaching approach used in tutorial classes was quite effective. I see that this approach inspires students' brain working, motivates them to think, inquire and master knowledge. It is not good if there is only one-way communication between lecturers and students. (AC15)

However, there were also comments about challenges associated with implementing a student-centred approach in situations where it might not always fit. For example, the large class sizes made this more challenging than in regular smaller classes:

There are many factors to consider whether to put the teacher or students in the centre of the learning process ... when the class size is big, the typical teaching approach is to lecture and mainly ask students to do exercises. There is some discussion but students sometimes do not study prior to coming to the class. Therefore, it hinders the implementation of a new teaching approach in class. (AC12)

The overall perception appeared to be that it was important to focus on the students and their engagement but that teachers also had an important role to play in determining the contextual appropriateness of each approach.

6.3.4.4 Use of teaching and learning activities that promote IoC.

Interviewees acknowledged that the types of teaching and learning activities being utilised in the two FUPs also supported IoC implementation at FTU. A range of different

activities were discussed, including traditional methods such as lectures; however, most also demonstrated awareness of more current approaches that had also formed part of their own study in international contexts. Some major teaching and learning activities used by academics in the FUPs included group work, presentations, case studies, role plays or the provision of professional activities in a simulated workplace. Most academics discussed a combination of learning activities together with lecturing in these programs. For instance, AC21 mentioned:

I use a combination of learning activities in class ... lecture, students' doing practice activities, and discussion. Students are required to prepare for some topics and make presentations. I often ask students to work in groups in order to present in class as the class is quite big. (AC12)

The foreign academic in the FTU-CSU program argued that allocating students in different groups allowed them to learn from people from different cultures. Similarly, the foreign academic in the FTU-LMET program explained his use of a variety of approaches:

Every student I teach, whether they are undergraduate, first year, intro and graduate level, I do 40% of the activity ... because humans need to emote ... learning is emotional. So, there needs to be time for students to be actively engaged and trying things that they may not be comfortable with to begin with (AC36)

A number of academics incorporated presentations, role plays or case studies as learning activities in class. Other academics provided professional activities in a simulated workplace or invited experts to co-teach. For instance, AC32 said:

I also invite experts to co-teach with me, or I invite industry guest speakers to present to share their experience in the field. Additionally, ... In the field of management, role play activity is very important. (AC32)

The use of a range of teaching and learning activities in their courses were perceived by academics as ways to enhance students' engagement in learning or to develop graduate employabilities for students through linkage with industry experts and development of professional knowledge and skills.

6.3.4.5 Inclusion of international, intercultural and local elements into courses.

The interviews revealed that academics perceived the integration of international, cultural and local components into their teaching courses as a part of the process of internationalising the curriculum of FUPs specifically and curriculum internationalisation at FTU broadly. They therefore utilised different approaches to incorporating these elements into their teaching courses.

There was a general perception that students needed a well-rounded education to be able to participate in a globalised workplace, and that knowledge and skills that went beyond the local environment could assist. Therefore, the inclusion of international and intercultural dimensions into courses was seen as a necessity for not only FUPs but domestic programs at FTU as well. One academic commented:

In reality, even teaching in the domestic programs at FTU, it is an indispensable requirement to incorporate international and cultural aspects ... the trend is that all students including Vietnamese are pursuing globalisation opportunities. (AC33)

In courses where international students were present, engaging both local and international students in sharing their perspectives on international and intercultural differences was an approach used by some participants:

... when teaching the law courses, we have to incorporate international and intercultural aspects. In case, there are some international students in the class, we will ask them how it is regulated in their own country...This is the approach that helps to make students have an overview of differences in terms of law in different nations. (AC7)

Other participants acknowledged the inclusion of cultural components into courses as this facilitated students' understanding of their place in a globalised world and enabled them to use appropriate approaches to different settings. For example, AC33 claimed that even in universal courses such as Marketing, cultural elements or cultural differences need to be embedded:

Advertising is a good example ... an advertisement for the same product varies based on each country. For example, an advertisement in the UK or US has a different format compared to that in Vietnam. Students may see some cultural differences as the Vietnamese will view from one angle while the American sees it from another. Aspects such as use of colour, costumes or the message sent to the consumers differ in different markets. Such examples help students learn that there are cultural differences that need to be considered. (AC33)

Interestingly, interviewees also emphasised the need for retaining local content in the FUPs, as they feared that this could be lost in the push for internationalisation. A number of academics acknowledged that not all students would have futures outside Vietnam:

... not all students who graduate from this program have a chance to work in the UK; they mostly work in Vietnam. Therefore, I make some comparison regarding legal issues, the insurance market in Vietnam and in London. (AC1)

The inclusion of local content into courses was also perceived as facilitating local students' understanding of the lecture but also of benefit to international students:

Yes, it is of great necessity. We need to incorporate international aspects and even local ones into our lectures. Local aspects to us but they are international ones to others. (AC32)

Therefore, alongside the inclusion of international and/or cultural content, most academics had their own strategies for embedding local elements into their courses:

For instance, when I taught the subject, namely international banking systems, I proposed to add in some content relevant to the Vietnamese context. Apart from teaching students about the banking system around the globe, I included an extra part known as emerging markets in which there was one part on the Vietnam banking system. (AC15)

In brief, the inclusion of international, cultural and local dimensions into their courses was considered to be one of the strategies for academics to internationalise their courses. This facilitated the development of students' knowledge, skills and values, enabling them to work in both local and global settings.

6.3.4.6 Assessment practices.

The degree of flexibility for assessment practices within the two FUPs.

Interviewees discussed their IoC implementation in relation to the types of assessment tasks they used and methods of assessing students' knowledge, skills and ability. Initially, there was quite a bit of discussion around the degree of flexibility for assessment practices within the two FUPs, with reports of more flexibility within the CSU program. However, most of the academics teaching in both programs reported following assessment guidelines provided in the program they taught. The assessment guidelines could be defined by FTU or its partners. While the academics in the FTU-CSU program mostly followed the procedure for assessment defined by FTU, those in the FTU-LMET program had stricter requirements:

In terms of marking, LMET decide the percentage of each assessment component including coursework, mid-term and final exams. FTU teachers cannot decide the assessment requirements and procedure. LMET provides us with sample assessments to guide us. (AC1)

Another major difference between the two programs was the requirement for second marking of student work in the FTU-LMET program:

For the CSU program, there is no second assessment. ... I am fully in charge of the course. However, for the LMET program, there is second marking by teachers from LMET. (AC26)

Academics in the FTU-CSU program were also provided with opportunities to design parts of the assessment, such as mid-term tests or final exams, while academics in the LMET programs, especially those teaching final year students, had to seek approval from LMET regarding the assessment of students' work:

... The final exam has to be sent to LMET at the beginning of the semester; if it is approved, I will organise the exam for students here in Vietnam, mark students' exam papers and send them to LMET for second marking and reviewing. (AC15)

The difference in the degree of input provided to academics at FTU appeared to impact on the type of assessment used, and with flexibility came a reduced reliance on traditional assessment.

Assessment approaches and types.

All academic interviewees acknowledged the need for some form of traditional assessment, particularly at the end of a course, but were also aware of the need for a combination of approaches to assessment. Most acknowledged using both formative and summative approaches to assessment. For example, English teachers assessed English language competence through diagnostic tests at the beginning of the course and weekly tests to assess progress.

Similarly, academics teaching business related courses used short quizzes or mini tests throughout to check understandings and progress:

For the marketing course, after each class or at the beginning of each chapter, there is a short quiz in the form of multiple-choice questions, to help test whether students have mastered the basic knowledge of the chapter. This provides guidance for what to do next. (AC33)

Yet essays and mid and final exams also appeared to be common in business faculties both in Vietnam and in the partner institutions in the UK and USA. Interviewees demonstrated awareness of other types of assessment and a number reported that they would like to use other formats such as group presentations when, and if, they could. For example, although challenging in large classes, oral assessment for final exams was seen as enabling a comprehensive assessment of understanding of course content and communication skills:

... if students only submit written tests, their oral communication skills aren't examined. ... For the writing tests, students are only asked to answer one or two content questions, whereas for oral exams, they are required to have a comprehensive understanding of the course content. (AC34)

In summary, the academic interviewees did not appear to have a high degree of flexibility in terms of designing assessment tasks, but within the confines of the FUP requirements, there were attempts to integrate less traditional approaches such as group work, case studies and class presentations into the mix. Particularly, both formative and summative assessments were used by academics to internationalise their courses. The assessment criteria for assessing students in the FUPs is presented in the next section.

Assessment criteria.

Almost all academics acknowledged that assessment results typically included marks from students' participation and/or attendance in class, assignments, mid-term tests and final exams. For instance, AC32 said:

The assessment of students includes participation which accounts for 10-20%, mid-term assessment constituting 40-50% and final exams making up 40-50%. Basically, all programs have the same assessment principle; ... some slight differences among programs and types of students. (AC32)

An issue raised by academic interviewees was 'what to assess', i.e. whether the students in the FUPs were assessed based on their English language proficiency and/or their knowledge, skills and attitudes.

What is important to assess – content knowledge and/or English language proficiency?

The interviews revealed contradictory views on whether to focus more on assessing content knowledge than English language proficiency. While it was acknowledged that English proficiency was important, its degree of importance was questioned:

I focus on assessing the content and the students' presentation skills. Their English proficiency is important, but not the most important. (AC8)

In my opinion, it does not focus too much on language, which means if based on what students write down, I read and see they understand the content, it is okay. ... It is required to ensure that the knowledge is tested and when reading students' paper, it is understandable. (AC12)

However, others challenged this, arguing that presenting content in a proficient manner was also important:

If students are not capable of using English to address their ideas clearly to both the lecturer and other students in class, they cannot meet the assessment requirements of the course. (AC1)

These academics perceived that language was used to convey understandings of content knowledge. Specifically, assessment of both students' content knowledge and English

language proficiency was of critical importance in the FUPs in which English was used as a medium of instruction. Therefore, assessment criteria were considered to be inclusive of content knowledge and language use:

Assessment criteria are divided into subcategories such as the coherence of the written paper, the language use, the scientific content, and referencing. The clarity of the language use is one part that I assess. Regarding presentation, I also have criteria for assessment including the logic, language use, and presentation skills. I separate them for assessment. (AC15)

The assessment of students' knowledge, understanding and language competence was perceived and implemented differently by academics and there appeared to be a lack of consistency of assessment criteria used by academics teaching in the FUPs.

What is important to assess – knowledge, skills or attitudes?

Data from the survey presented in Tables 6.7, 6.8 and 6.9, demonstrated what particular knowledge, skills and attitudes were perceived by academics as important for students to develop as part of the process of internationalisation. While interviewees were asked to explain how they assessed these within their own courses, very little specific information relating to assessment was provided. For instance, a number of academics stated that the development of professional and practical knowledge was important:

When integrating new knowledge and skills into the course, it not only prepares students to work in Vietnam but also those who want to do further study. If they want to enrol in programs provided by overseas universities, they need background knowledge even though the knowledge may not be directly applicable to Vietnam. (AC12)

The development of soft skills, was also mentioned with indications that these were sometimes assessed in some courses:

... in the module oral communication, we teach presentation and negotiation skills and we are able to assess these. (AC27)

... plagiarism is one aspect that is partly about values, as is attitudes towards others – such as bullying is not something that is common in Vietnam. So how do our students deal with these things if they go outside Vietnam to study or work? (AC10)

In short, while interviews with academics demonstrated an awareness of the need for developing particular aspects of students' knowledge, skills and attitudes, there was little information provided about how these are or might be assessed within the FUPs.

6.3.4.7 Use of resources for teaching and learning.

The interviews inquired into academic participants' perceptions about the resources required to assist in internationalising their courses. While there was an acknowledgement that resourcing was definitely not adequate, there was also a reluctance or perhaps a lack of understanding about exactly what type of resourcing would be beneficial. The quality and appropriateness of facilities were discussed with mixed evaluations by academics:

The equipment for teaching in these programs is basically the best at our institution. (AC8)

We have just invested two billion into upgrading our internet network, but it still doesn't meet our expectations. (AC32)

Other limitations that were highlighted included inadequate teaching and learning resources, inadequate speakers, sound systems, computers and wifi:

...for the CSU program, there are few learning materials; we have to cover it by ourselves. For LMET, they only provide us with a textbook but no regular update of learning materials. Moreover, as lecturers delivering the course in Vietnam, we are not considered their lecturers, so we have no account to access their learning resources. (AC12)

Generally, all classrooms have a projector and speakers if I want to show a video to students. However, the computer system is limited, if I want to use two computers to show my lecture slides and videos at the same time. (AC33)

In summary, the interviewees revealed that the quality and appropriateness of facilities and resources for teaching and learning did not meet their expectations for international programs. Though there was an acknowledgement that the FUPs had more resourcing than local programs, a number of recommendations related to improving the teaching and learning resources and facilities were made during the interviews, consistent with suggestions for support and resourcing made in the surveys (see Table 6.4).

6.3.4.8 Use of extra-curricular activities to help student develop intercultural competence.

Extra-curricular activities are often viewed as a way of developing students' competence beyond the classroom, but there was very little evidence that academics engaged in this form of activity with the students in the FUPs. Unlike the program leaders and course coordinators, the academics did not appear to have the time, resources or ability to organise such activities. Nonetheless, a number of academics did make mention of extra-curricular activities, reinforcing that it was not really seen as part of their role:

When there are seminars or professors from overseas visiting our institution, I inform my students, but they are not obliged to participate. Our students are quite busy so sometimes they are overwhelmed with these extra activities. (AC7)

For some academics, workshops or guest speakers were the only extras provided:

... in the accounting and finance courses, I sometimes invite guest speakers who come to talk with our students in English or Vietnamese. Students find it very interesting when they understand more about practice or they can ask questions related to practice. The guest speakers can provide them with answers beyond their lessons in class. (AC10)

Only one academic claimed that the provision of extra-curricular activities should be assessed as part of the course:

Actually, the extra activities for students, especially Vietnamese students, are a bit different. I mean when assigning students to do any extra-curricular activities, this needs to be linked with a specific requirement, especially with marks. (AC23)

There was a general consensus among the academic interviewees that the provision of extra-curricular activities was optional and outside their role, so they were not perceived as a way of internationalising their courses in the FUPs.

6.3.4.9 Quality assurance.

A number of academics referred to the importance of the quality assurance process that occurred within FTU through the Department of Quality Assurance which was responsible for monitoring the quality of all programs conducted at FTU. However, the differences between the two examined FUPs impacted on the type of review and evaluation processes that academics were involved with. For the FTU-CSU program, the quality assurance was conducted by Department of Quality Assurance:

The department collects feedback from students, which is sent back to teachers. The feedback will be also sent to the Dean of the faculty. When there is any issue needed to improve, the Dean will work with the teachers to improve the teacher's performance, if required. There are also informal channels of evaluation such as students can email directly those involved in managing the program. (AC32)

By contrast, the LMET program had stricter requirements for monitoring the teaching and learning quality. This was evident in responses from academics teaching in that program. For example, AC15 said:

The course evaluation is conducted yearly. I send all students' results for second marking and reviewing, then LMET will conduct a review and course evaluation. After two months I send the students' results to LMET, they then send an evaluation form back to me, indicating the

percentage of students with excellent and good results, etc. and they will ask me for suggestions for improving the course. LMET has a strict procedure of quality assurance. (AC15)

While most of academics mentioned the differences in the quality assurance process in the FUPs, some claimed that they had never received feedback on their teaching. For instance, AC33 mentioned:

I have never seen any surveys or feedbacks from students or other teachers about my teaching. (AC33)

The existence of such a claim was likely to result from the fact that some academics were not well informed about the evaluation process. AC14 mentioned that the evaluation process was only well-recognised by those in the management team:

Obviously, if I am working as a teacher only, I do not know about the evaluation process. However, I work in the management post, so I know about the process. (AC14)

The interviews with academics suggested a perceived lack of transparency and communication about the quality assurance processes relating to the FUPs at FTU.

6.3.4.10 Collaboration among academics, program managers and course coordinators.

Collaboration was evident in the responses of all academic interviewees; however, some had more positive collaborative experiences than others. For instance, a number of academics acknowledged collaboration between FTU and CSU academics based on the principle that FTU academics worked as teaching associates for CSU academics who were “flying faculty” (Almond & Mangione, 2015, p. 91) delivering the courses at the FTU campus. Or, alternatively, FTU academics were sent to CSU to learn from CSU academics who taught the same courses with them:

For the CSU program, it can be called a transferring procedure, which means for the first stage, CSU academics come to FTU to deliver courses. There will be a practice of using a teaching associate who attends the CSU academics’ class at FTU. Then, there will be a transfer of teaching from American academics to Vietnamese academics who used to be TAs. The mechanism of cooperation is based on the model of gradually transferring teaching work to FTU academics. (AC26)

Alternatively, there was no explicit mention of collaboration between FTU and LMET academics, mainly due to the fact that LMET academics were not generally involved in teaching at the FTU campus:

For the FTU-LMET program, there have been no professors from LMET teaching the same subject as me, who come to FTU to work. (AC1)

Even when there was collaboration, it was perceived as limited. For example, one academic mentioned the professional knowledge sharing among FTU academics was not substantially evident because they taught different courses in the joint program:

We just interact in terms of... each of us teaches one subject so the professional knowledge sharing is not much, just base on the relationship among those teaching the major subjects at school. (AC8)

In terms of collaboration between academics and program managers and/or course coordinators, academic interviewees acknowledged the academic and administrative support received from management personnel in the FUPs:

... for the program with CSU, before starting the course, our institution does a good job in terms of coordination with academics. They will check with us whether there are any changes needed, how the syllabus will be adjusted and whether there are any difficulties in terms of teaching staff. The institution provides us a lot of support, depending on our faculty's human resource. (AC27)

Similarly, AC35 also reported that the CSU program manager collaborated and supported his colleagues who were sent to deliver the courses at FTU campus:

Before we came over, X had met with each of us to share information. When we come here, usually we come as a group. (AC35)

Support from program managers and/or course coordinators in the FTU-LMET program was also mentioned by a number of academics. For instance, all three English teachers in the FTU-LMET program shared that they received cooperative support from the FTU course coordinator of the program in terms of teaching content and admin support:

In reality, the collaboration between the course coordinator and teachers is very important and the program with LMET in which I teach is very good at this. At the beginning of the course, a syllabus is sent to teachers who are invited to teach in the program. If there are any issues, they will contact the course coordinator to clarify. During the course, the course coordinator checks with me about teaching facilities etc. Throughout the 10 weeks there is close collaboration between the teacher and course coordinator. (AC23)

The managerial collaboration for academics teaching business-related subjects typically related to teaching content or assessment:

The program manager annually meets and makes some reviews with me. For instance, he checks whether I need to upgrade something from the textbook and the teaching content or not. This is a tight collaboration between the two sides. (AC15)

In brief, the ways academics collaborated together or with management personnel differed in the two programs. Though most of interviewees acknowledged their positive collaboration with management personnel, there appeared to be a lack of close interaction or tight collaboration among academics in the FUPs.

6.3.5 Enablers and blockers of IoC.

Interviewees were asked to outline enablers and blockers in relation to their capacity to internationalise their courses.

6.3.5.1 Enablers.

Responses showed both internal and external aspects as enablers of academic engagement in implementing IoC at FTU. In many cases during interviews, academic participants referred to earlier points they had raised, particularly with regard to contextual factors. This also meant that often the discussion referred to IoC more broadly rather than at a personal level, despite probing for more personal responses.

Nonetheless, a number of internal factors were mentioned including encouragement for implementing IoC, aspirations for teaching and training the younger generation, teaching capability and personal experience in international education and work. Many of these have been covered in previous discussion in this chapter. However, one comment from AC32 highlighted how personal aspirations were seen as impacting on understanding students' needs regarding gaining a broader understanding of the world:

I find it so simple and I myself love teaching, so I can teach well. But without personal experience it will be difficult. If it is related to internationalisation, and intercultural, we need first-hand experience. (AC32)

In terms of external factors, contextual layers as previously mentioned were important considerations. In particular, the goals of FTU and its internal strengths and the financial benefits were considered enablers of IoC implementation at FTU. For instance, AC12 acknowledged the role of competition:

The programs have been accredited and had international components. If a university wants to improve their status to a competitive regional university, it needs to develop international programs. This may be another context in which Vietnam has been involved in a number of trade agreements; thus, competition will be a motive to do so. (AC12)

In short, most academic interviewees discussed enablers of IoC in relation to broader contexts such as the goals of the faculty or institution, associated international strengths and financial benefits, rather than their personal interests or experiences in IoC implementation.

6.3.5.2 Blockers.

A number of challenges facing academics when they implemented IoC at FTU were discussed during interviews. The academics confronted major hindrances associated with institutional, infrastructural, societal and personal aspects. Many of these points have been covered in other parts of this chapter but a few raised further points of clarification.

In terms of support from the faculty, a few issues were raised that had not been discussed in other contexts, for example the large class sizes and lack of teaching associates to support lecturers prevented implementation of diverse teaching and learning activities:

... these class sizes are much bigger – 90 students ... even though I want to divide students into groups for discussion I find it hard to do so. If the class size is smaller, we can organise more learning activities for students. (AC35)

Another perceived blocker was the lack of information provided to academics, with a number mentioning a lack of understanding of the FUPs as a whole:

Yes, there are challenges. First, I don't understand much about the international program, just the course I am teaching. I don't have an overview of the whole program or how the program is managed I do not know about the orientation for the development of the program. (AC14)

Regarding training resources, not only did academic interviewees highlight the shortage of facilities and learning resources on campus, they emphasised the lack of local resources for embedding local content into their courses:

Sometimes it is hard to contextualise courses so that they are relevant to our students as there are not similar cases in Vietnam. Thus, when lecturing to our students, I just talk about theoretical aspects and exercises. There are not many similar cases in Vietnam, which I can introduce to my students. This is one of the hindrances ... (AC12)

With regard to societal and personal aspects, a number of academics raised concerns related to teaching in transnational programs like FUPs. First, cultural differences were a challenge facing some academics teaching in the two programs. For instance, AC15 commented on the differences in learning practices:

There is one difficulty regarding cultural practice. It is students' learning habits and practices. It is said to be Vietnamese culture and practice: students are very shy; at first, they're not open to discussion since they're used to receiving information from lecturers, being taught by their lecturers. Therefore, in the first class, I find it hard to guide students to follow my teaching approach. (AC15)

Second, time constraints became a challenge for both fly-in academics and students, as mentioned by the CSU academic:

The challenge is you try to cover the same materials that you would teach in a 6-week period. So, it means it goes very quickly. ... We come with the same credits, so we offer the same materials ... but students need time to digest what they are learning (AC35)

Third, the lack of exposure to different cultures made it difficult for local students to understand different international and cultural aspects covered in the FUPs:

In reality, there are limitations for Vietnamese students. ... Those who study in good institutions in cities or in Hanoi have a chance to be exposed to different culture or watch movies. However, most of students from other provinces or have few and nearly limited conditions to understand about international and cultural aspects. (AC33)

Finally, the academics' lack of first-hand experience in overseas education also impacted on their teaching:

I do not have experience in how to live abroad; I do not study in the way which is called to merge in the foreign culture, but what I experience relates to some intensive courses conducted by fly-in lecturers only. ... I share the experience I obtained as a learner in such programs. (AC23)

In summary, the academic interviewees were readily able to identify a range of challenges confronting them in their efforts to internationalise their courses.

6.3.6 Impacts of the offering of FUPs on FTU's internationalisation.

The findings from the survey and interviews with academics revealed that their perceptions of IoC implementation at FTU did influence how they internationalised their courses. To begin with, the academics' understanding of the requirements for teaching, learning and assessment and their application of knowledge and skills for teaching in the FUPs assisted the internationalisation of their courses. For instance, AC34 explained how she mapped the subjects she taught in the FTU-CSU program with the conventional courses provided by FTU:

FTU specialises in delivering courses related to business import and export transaction. Therefore, when I lecture the first subject, I combine two parts. The first is based on FTU's conventional course content. I mean that teaching content related to transportation and forwarding in import-export activities. The second part is extended, which is linked with the current trend of economics development. By that I mean, the topic of logistics will be extended, which will be referred from other sources. (AC34)

Subsequently, the academics' involvement in the FUPs impacted on their internationalising the curriculum of local programs such as HQs or domestic programs. A

number of academics shared their awareness of the need for developing rounded-training programs for students regardless of the programs they enrolled in:

It is compulsory and becomes a necessity for all schools to integrate the international and intercultural elements into their training programs. For example, it is said that we need to incorporate ethics aspect into the training program. This is an indispensable demand, a necessity of a rounded- training program. (AC32)

AC33 also acknowledged the importance of developing internationalised programs for all students in this increasingly globalised world:

In reality, even teaching in the domestic programs at FTU, not mentioning about the advanced programs, it is an indispensable requirement to incorporate the international and cultural aspects into the lectures. The trend is that all students including Vietnamese and international ones and all nations pursue the globalisation trend. (AC33)

As such, there appeared to be an impact of the offering of FUPs on the academics' perceptions of internationalisation and curriculum internationalisation as well as their strategies for internationalising their courses. The process of internationalisation was enabled, to a certain extent, by the capacity of FTU but there were definitely a range of challenges that academics identified as impacting on their ability to internationalise their courses. The two key issues that academics were most concerned with included the training support provided and the improvement of facilities and resources.

Many of the recommendations made by academics in the interviews related to the provision of PD and training for academics, the improvement of facilities and teaching and learning resources and developing partnerships with well regarded HE institutions overseas. These aspects have been identified and highlighted in the related literature, especially with regard to internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam (A. Dang et al., 2013; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018b). This indicates Vietnamese institutions like FTU need to prioritise and invest more in both human resources and facilities to assist with internationalising their institutions. Table 6.15 summarises the recommendations made by academic interviewees for the development of FUPs and the implementation of IoC at FTU.

Table 6.15

Academics' recommendations for the development and implementation of IoC at FTU

Recommendations	Interview participants
Providing training courses abroad to academics	AC7, AC10, AC14, AC12, AC21, AC26, AC27, AC34
Improving the facility and training resources	AC8, AC14, AC15, AC28, AC32, AC33
Organising professional development for academics	AC12, AC14, AC15, AC27
Establishing partnerships with well regarded o/s universities	AC7, AC14, AC28
Reducing class sizes in FUPs	AC28, AC33
Enhancing academics' professional knowledge and English language competence	AC8, AC33
Enhancing English language competence of students	AC8, AC33
Monitoring and evaluating academics' teaching quality	AC33, AC34
Arranging working space/offices for academics	AC33
Developing and designing appropriate extra-curricular activities for students	AC7
Improving collaboration between academics and program managers and/or course coordinators	AC21
Improving administrative procedures and processes	AC15
Monitoring and evaluating the programs	AC8
Organising internships for students	AC15

The findings from the survey and interviews provided more insights into the implementation of IoC in a non-western university through the offering of transnational programs in partnership with western universities. An in-depth understanding of the process of internationalising the curriculum was provided through the examination of academics' implementation of IoC in two FUPs at FTU. A number of positive impacts emanating from the offering of FUPs on FTU's overall internationalisation were evident, particularly in relation to the enhancement of academics' insights into developing educational programs for all students to successfully participate in a globalised world and strategies for overcoming challenges associated with curriculum internationalisation.

There was a strong focus by academic participants on the need for managing transnational teaching teams through PD to assist those teaching in FUPs. Moreover, the improvement of facilities and teaching and learning resources was highlighted as a major

issue and therefore a focal point for universities pursuing the internationalisation of their institutions. Finally, establishing partnerships with well regarded HE institutions overseas was perceived as playing a critical role in the internationalisation of non-western tertiary institutions like the university examined in this study.

6.3.7 Summary of the qualitative phase.

The qualitative phase of this research attempted to provide further detail to add to understandings developed through the analysis of the quantitative data. In some instances, the participants were able to provide further insights through their commentary, but there were also gaps as some areas were not discussed in depth.

6.3.8 Key points relating to the academic's perceptions of IoC.

The data presented in this chapter relates to the perceptions of academics about IoC within the FUPs at FTU, specifically in relation to the five sub-questions outlined at the beginning of the chapter. Some programmatic aspects were discussed by academics through the interviews; however, most academics typically provided information related to the course level, reflecting their individual rather than collective engagement in IoC implementation. Unlike program managers and course coordinators who seemed to have close collaboration with their counterparts, academics in the FUPs shared their perceptions based on their personal engagement in IoC rather than their collective experience in the process. A summary of the key findings included:

- Most academic participants had obtained qualifications overseas or had experience in international education and higher education. It was not explicitly stated that international education experience was a criterion for involvement in the FUPs; however, some claimed that their overseas experience impacted their worldview and changed their teaching approach, focusing more on students' learning.
- Academic participants indicated they were accustomed to western teaching, learning and assessment practices applied in the FUPs. Though requirements for EMI programs were understood, a level of flexibility was evident when delivering courses in English for students in non-English speaking environments like Vietnam.
- A degree of collaboration among academics or between academics and program managers/course coordinators was noted; however, little collaboration between the two FUPs. Academics' perceptions of their agency regarding the adaptation of

teaching content and assessment differed depending on their level of involvement in the two FUPs. For instance, those involved in both programs had more insights into partnership arrangements and the degree of flexibility in each program, compared to those teaching in one program only.

- International elements within the FUPs were acknowledged however, academics stressed the need to incorporate local as well as international and intercultural components. Disciplines were mentioned as impacting the level of inclusion of international and/or cultural content into courses. Although all courses were taught within the Business School, the level of incorporation of international and/or intercultural content varied dependent upon subjects.
- All contextual layers discussed by program managers/course coordinators were also perceived as influential by the academics who highlighted the world internationalisation trend (global context); the government's orientation towards international cooperation and the international/regional integration trends (regional and national context); changes in societal demand for tertiary education (local context); and FTU's internal strengths (institutional context). Among these, the institutional context was most frequently mentioned by academics as an influential factor leading to the development of the FUPs and IoC implementation.
- The strategies for IoC at the course level were evident through the academics' discussion of the use of EMI, their approaches to teaching and assessment and the support provided to students. Although there was an acknowledgment that student support in the form of extra-curricular activities was beyond the remit of academics.
- Program requirements were followed by academic participants including seeking approval for any changes required to meet their students' needs. They reported a level of confinement to a set of rules and limited flexibility in deciding assessment tasks.
- FTU's support in terms of teaching and learning facilities was acknowledged, but most academic participants expressed concern about the lack of facilities and resources available for them to internationalise their courses.
- Similar to program managers/course coordinators, academics outlined a number of internal and external factors enabling them to participate in IoC implementation at FTU. The internal aspects included encouragement for implementing IoC, aspirations

for teaching the younger generation, teaching capability and personal experience in international education and work.

- Numerous challenges facing academics in IoC were identified, including a shortage of appropriate facilities and training resources, lack of institutional support, and differences in cultural aspects. When confronting these challenges, academics sought alternative teaching resources or facilities or used their own.
- A number of positive impacts associated with the offering of the FUPs on internationalisation and IoC implementation at FTU were highlighted. These included enhancement of academics' insights into developing educational programs for all students to successfully participate in a globalised world; and development of strategies to overcome challenges associated with curriculum internationalisation.
- A number of recommendations were made regarding course development within the FUPs, with human resource development and improvement of teaching and learning facilities the two most commonly mentioned by academics. These were highlighted by academics as influential factors impacting both internationalisation and curriculum internationalisation at FTU.

6.4 Summary of Chapter 6

This chapter presented the findings from the analysis of the survey and interview data provided by academics teaching in the two FUPs at FTU. Unlike the program leaders and course coordinators, the academics did not have the same level of understanding of the rationale or big picture operation of the FUPs. Their understandings were mainly limited to the course level; however, a number of academics were working in both programs and so were able to make comparative judgements, at least at the course level. The chapter provided details of responses provided by 34 academics to a survey and then of 17 academics' responses to an interview. The next chapter discusses the data presented in both this chapter and the previous chapter through the theoretical lens of Activity Theory while making links to current literature as a way of answering the main research question.

Chapter 7: Discussion

This chapter takes an unusual approach to the discussion of the analysed data from interviews with program managers and course coordinators and from surveys and interviews with academics in two of the FUPs offered by FTU. Rather than one broad discussion, this chapter explores the data through a number of theoretical lenses and as such is broken into five main sections, which represent some of the discrete aspects of the analysis of the data presented in Chapters 5 and 6. In the first section, the perceptions, rationale, approaches and strategies for internationalisation at FTU are discussed in relation to the current body of literature, illustrating the areas of convergence and divergence. In the second section, the conceptual framework proposed by Leask and Bridge (2013) is used to explore the perceptions of IoC implementation at FTU. The third section provides a discussion of the strategies for IoC implementation at FTU through the lens of Activity Theory. In the fourth section, the curriculum design and the evaluation of the level of curriculum internationalisation at FTU are examined through the use of the model of curriculum internationalisation proposed by Huang (2017). Finally, the impact of the offering of the FUPs on internationalisation at FTU are discussed with reference to the collected data.

7.1 Internationalisation: perceptions, rationale, approaches and strategies

7.1.1 Perceptions of internationalisation at FTU.

Internationalisation is an important notion that is receiving increasing interest and attention from higher education institutions across the globe (Lasagabaster, 2016). As highlighted in Chapter 2, there have been divergent perceptions of internationalisation (e.g. Jones & de Wit, 2012; de Haan, 2014; Lavankura, 2013). According to de Haan (2014), conceptualisations of the concept of internationalisation were dependent upon 14 elements which were discussed previously, and the results of this study were mostly consistent with de Haan's (2014) findings.

However, in the Vietnamese context in general and FTU setting in particular, some of elements identified by de Haan were more frequently raised by the research participants in this study than others. Almost all program managers, course coordinators and academics perceived internationalisation at FTU as resulting from both internal and external factors. For instance, regarding external factors, participants specifically mentioned the existence of two

of de Haan's (2014) elements, namely "globalization/government policy; or internationalisation as a defining feature of higher education" (p. 247).

In terms of internal factors, eight of de Haan's (2014) elements featured, in that internationalisation at FTU was perceived as resulting from the need for "student recruitment; gaining international experience/competence/knowledge; internationalizing the curricula/programs" or the goals of "network building; improving education/research quality; student and staff mobility; international positioning of the institution; and creating an international environment" (p. 247).

Only four elements were not specifically referred to by the research participants in this study, namely "international marketing; a process changing university; integration into the entire organization; or peacemaking/solving global and societal problems" (de Haan, 2014, p. 247). While they were not explicitly mentioned in the survey responses or interviews, they were evident through a range of internationalisation activities occurring at FTU that were listed on the university website. For instance, FTU hosted the Forum on Internationalisation in Higher Education (FIHE) in 2017 and 2018 (FTU, 2018g).

In the 2017 forum, there was discussion on topics including promoting and managing student mobility; attracting and supporting international students; study abroad opportunities; promoting cultural exchange activities for students; and managing the new educational environment that values cultural diversity and competitive advantages (FTU, 2018g).

The second FIHE was held at FTU on October 8th 2018, with more than 200 delegates including "ambassadors and representatives from 14 embassies, delegates from more than 50 national education agencies, universities and educational institutions in the country" (FTU, 2018g). The theme of the 2018 forum was "Mutual recognition in cross-border higher education" which created "an open platform for representatives of Vietnamese and international higher education institutions to connect, discuss and share experiences, ideas and solutions on mutual recognition, thereby establishing a policy system that ensures the quality of cross-border higher education which serves the sustainable development of higher education." (FTU, 2018g).

This shows that even though participants in the current study may not have been personally aware of all 14 of de Haan's (2014) elements, there was actually evidence of all of these having some influence on the perceptions and pursuance of internationalisation at FTU.

However, apart from these 14 elements, all program managers, course coordinators and academics stressed the need for 'localising the curriculum' of the FUPs to satisfy students' demand in the Vietnamese setting. Therefore, the list of 14 elements proposed by de Haan (2014, p. 247) could be extended further under the views of IoC implementers at FTU.

According to participants in this study, the students in the FUPs at FTU needed to gain both *local* and *international* experience, competence and knowledge; therefore, not only did FTU aim at "internationalizing the curricula/programs" (de Haan, 2014, p. 247), but it also focused on 'localising the curriculum and programs'. Localisation and adaptation became a necessity when FTU and its partners co-developed the FUPs (PM1, PM2, PM6, PM7, AC1, AC26, AC34, AC35). The participants' perceptions of IoC implementation at FTU reflected Leask's (2012) view on designing the curriculum in a transnational context. Leask (2008a) argued that the curriculum for transnational classrooms should be not only internationalised but also localised:

An internationalised curriculum taught in a transnational context must not only recognise the role that culture plays in the construction of knowledge in the discipline and provide students with opportunities to explore the ways in which their own culture and the cultures of others shape knowledge and professional practice internationally, it must do this within the local, transnational context. (Leask, 2008a, p. 123)

Moreover, most of participants were aware of the critical elements for developing the curriculum for transnational programs, including equivalence and curriculum alignment (e.g. PM1, PM2, PM6, PM7, PM8, AC1, AC26, AC34, AC35). According to McBurnie (2008), quality assurance and equivalence are seen as important aspects in the evolving transnational education field. Equivalence, as defined by Clarke and his associates (2016), signifies a measure of quality which is determined by "maintaining specified educational standards for qualification in all locations" (p. 367). These researchers argue that in order to accomplish equivalence, the curriculum design needs to be compliant with university governance and involve "the design of core and adaptable curriculum materials whereby subject content is contextualised and customised to suit local factors and specific student profiles" (Clarke et al., 2016, p. 367).

Together with equivalence, curriculum alignment was also taken into consideration by a number of participants in this study (PM1, PM2, PM4, PM7, PM8, AC1, AC12, AC15, AC26,

AC34, AC35). They understood the need for curriculum being aligned with particular learning outcomes, expectations and local context; they subsequently aligned these with teaching and learning activities as well as assessment tasks. According to Clarke et al. (2016), this represents constructive alignment, as student learning is prioritised and the focus shifts to “what the student actively does to construct new meaning for themselves” (p.3 71).

The data supported program manager/course coordinator and academic participants perceiving internationalisation at FTU as being achieved through both internationalisation and localisation of the curriculum of FUPs. Moreover, there was evidence that management personnel and academics considered fundamental elements such as equivalence and curriculum alignment in the process of designing the curriculum of FUPs.

7.1.2 Rationale for and approaches to internationalisation.

7.1.2.1 Rationale for internationalisation.

The rationale for internationalisation at FTU was mentioned by participants in both the survey and interviews, as outlined in Chapters 5 and 6. Internationalisation at FTU was perceived as occurring as a result of new societal needs of higher education in Vietnam, and the need for enhancing student mobility, revenue creation and capacity building.

Meeting new societal needs of higher education.

The findings from the surveys and interviews indicated that HE internationalisation through the development of FUPs was seen as a response to societal needs, or “a means of fulfilling the unmet demand for education from local constituents” (Naidoo, 2010, p. 7). The internationalisation of higher education, as L. Tran & Marginson (2018a) argue, has been regarded as a critical strategy for improving graduates’ ability to successfully join the global workforce. For FTU, it highlighted a vision and set of goals associated with becoming internationally competitive and thereby enhancing graduate employability (N. Tran, 2017) in order to meet the substantial demand for a pertinently skilled labour force (Ngo, 2011).

Enhancing student mobility.

At FTU, internationalisation was also perceived as being linked with the issues of student mobility and international student recruitment, which was evident from the development of the FUPs and student exchange programs. This is in alignment with the government policy of HE internationalisation in Vietnam (P. Nguyen et al., 2016; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a; L. Tran et al., 2018).

In reality, HE institutions in Vietnam like FTU were provided with more autonomy in terms of determining the entry requirements for international students thanks to Prime Ministerial Decision No. 58/QĐ-TTg dated September 22, 2010 and Decree No. 73/2012/NĐ-CP dated September 26, 2012 (WorldBank, 2014, p. 15). While it was mainly the program managers in the current study who highlighted the increased number of international students as a result of FUPs, a number of academics also mentioned it as a by-product of the development of FUPs. This reflected inbound mobility which enabled FTU to accomplish regional and international recognition as well as generate revenue (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018).

Revenue creation.

Generating revenue was discussed as a key driver for internationalisation within FTU by a number of participants but particularly by PM1, who had been a previous Vice President but was also a program manager of the FTU-LMET program. At FTU, revenue creation was considered an important rationale for recruiting not only international students but also local students.

International students were perceived by participants as generating revenue and creating an international research, teaching and learning environment at FTU, which P. Nguyen et al. (2016) argued was a major purpose of international marketing of HE within Vietnam. The recruitment of local students for the FUPs was also described by participants as enabling FTU to improve its reputation and create revenue. The offering of FUPs at FTU satisfied the needs of those who sought different study options. In practice, local students enrolled in the FUPs at FTU could transfer to study abroad or study entirely at home to get an international qualification.

Building capacity and capability for quality education.

Building capacity and capability for quality education was the other driver of HE internationalisation at FTU. The development of transnational programs like the FUPs was perceived as enabling FTU to train qualified human resources to meet the needs of society. More importantly, FTU's engagement in internationalisation through transnational education helped the university to augment its capacity, improve education quality and keep pace with "international and fast moving developments in the region and the world" (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a, p. 2).

In summary, the rationale for FTU's pursuance of internationalisation included the new societal needs of HE in Vietnam, the enhancement of student mobility, income generation, building capacity and capability for quality education.

7.1.2.2 Approaches to internationalisation.

The literature demonstrates the various approaches that have been taken towards internationalisation of higher education (e.g. de Wit, 2002; J. Knight, 2004; OECD, 2006; Yemini, 2014). The findings of the current study revealed that several approaches appeared to have been utilised within the two FUPs, according to participants, albeit not labelled. Discussion of FTU's approaches to internationalisation demonstrate aspects of a combination of three approaches which are described in the literature as the competency approach (Alemu, 2014), ethos approach (J. Knight, 2003) and business approach (Alemu, 2014).

The competency approach is linked to the development of skills, knowledge, attitudes and values to its students (Alemu, 2014). Through such an approach, FTU was seen as attempting to "provide high-quality human resources specialising in economics, international business, business administration, finance and banking, technology, and foreign languages" (FTU, 2018d).

Data also supported a degree of utilisation of the ethos approach in order to promote a campus-based culture of internationalisation evident through the partnership arrangements with partner institutions, which were discussed by almost all participants. For example, a number of participants described international cooperation activities including student exchange programs and inviting international lecturers to teach at FTU campuses.

There was also evidence provided, particularly by program managers, of utilisation of the business approach with a focus on student fees for income generation (Alemu, 2014). Revenue creation through the development of the FUPs enabled FTU to achieve its goals and mission. In other words, generating revenue was perceived as not only an important objective for all universities (Ngo, 2011), but also a key driver of internationalisation at FTU.

In short, these above-mentioned approaches seemed to be intertwined when FTU implemented internationalisation activities. They represented some key approaches to internationalisation at FTU specifically and in Vietnam or Asian countries broadly (Huang, 2007; Mok & Yu, 2014; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a).

7.1.3 Strategies for internationalisation at FTU.

The findings from the survey and interviews revealed that FTU aimed to accomplish internationalisation at home. Therefore, there were a number of internationalisation strategies used by FTU to implement internationalisation at home. These strategies included (1) the inclusion of compulsory units on international business in mainstream undergraduate degrees, (2) the development of international student exchange programs, (3) the recruitment of Vietnamese academics with international education experience, (4) the enhancement of an international teaching and learning environment on campus, and (5) IoC of the FUPs.

First, almost all participants demonstrated an awareness of FTU's experience in and reputation for training graduates majoring in business and economics fields. Most participants perceived the incorporation of compulsory courses relating to international business in mainstream undergraduate degrees and also postgraduate degrees as a strategy that assisted internationalisation at FTU.

Second, FTU's focus on exchange programs over the last decade was accentuated by participants as leading to an increasing number of Vietnamese students travelling overseas to study. Participants also discussed how small numbers of international students were coming to Vietnam to study in the FUPs offered at FTU. In order to allow local students to transfer overseas to study or to attract international students to study courses at FTU through exchange programs, FTU managed to standardise and modularise courses as well as develop credit-based curriculum which was based on the selection of core and elective courses constituting academic majors (Mason, Arnove, & Sutton, 2001). The use of a credit-based system rather than the academic year system (L. Tran et al., 2017, p. 1909) represented a significant shift at FTU (PM1). This created more flexibility and autonomy, thus requiring students to be more responsible for their own learning plan and progress (Le, 2010). It was argued that the application of modularised courses and a credit-based curriculum in both domestic and international programs at FTU enabled both inbound and outbound mobility (PM1).

Third, the majority of academics teaching in the two FUPs in this study had international education experience, either studying abroad themselves or through completing international qualifications within Vietnam. Participants emphasised the value of this experience in preparing them for engagement with an international program. Academics

in the FUPs were perceived to be qualified and capable of delivering courses in English. Therefore, the recruitment of Vietnamese academics with international experience was also seen as a strategy for internationalisation at FTU.

Fourth, enhancing an international teaching and learning environment on campus was another strategy for internationalisation at FTU. This was achieved through recruiting international lecturers to deliver courses at FTU, organising international conferences and workshops for students and academics or providing extra-curricular activities to students on campus. These internationalisation activities were perceived to be valuable in enhancing the status of FTU's educational experience, thus enabling FTU to develop campus-based culture of internationalisation.

In particular, the development of a campus-based culture of internationalisation was evident through a range of activities provided to FTU students in order for them to develop knowledge, skills, values and attitudes so that they could become responsible citizens and professionals (FTU, 2017, 2018b). For instance, FTU students participated in and won medals (one gold and two silver) in the final round of the Asia Pacific region in the Fresh Connection-Apics Global Student Challenge 2017 competition which was co-organised by the Supply Chain Finance (SCF) Community in the Netherlands and the Shanghai University, China (FTU, 2018b). Another global example involved participation in Northern and Southern at KPMG International Case Competition (KICC), which is one of the largest and most recognised case competitions among the Big Four. In 2017, over 18,000 students from 480 universities across 23 countries came together to participate in KICC. FTU students won the first prize in this competition in Kuala Lumpur Malaysia in April 2018. FTU students also received scholarships granted by Earn and Young (EY) Vietnam and the Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales (ICAEW). FTU students joined and won prizes in the "Challenges for Growth 2018" Competition held by these organisations (FTU, 2018b). Competitions to sharpen English skills while dealing with global issues such as 'Mastermind' are also an innovation of FTU. In short, these above-mentioned activities were thought to strengthen students' professional knowledge, develop their international and intercultural competence and enhance their moral value and attitudes (Clifford & Montgomery, 2014; Haigh, 2008; Leask & Bridge, 2013; N. Tran, 2017).

Finally, internationalisation strategies at FTU appear to have been confined to aspects of internationalisation occurring on home campuses. J. Knight (2008) suggests that this sort

of confinement is not unusual where international partnerships are involved, limiting activities to, for example, inclusion of international and intercultural components into the teaching, learning and research; provision of extra-curricular activities; linking with local and ethnic communities; or the international students' and scholars' engagement into campus life and activities.

For FTU, one of the key strategies used to internationalise its institution, mentioned by participants and described on the university website, was to internationalise the curriculum, particularly of the FUPs. This strategy has been substantially discussed in the literature when it comes to internationalisation of higher education (de Wit, 2010; W. Green & Whitsed, 2015; Leask, 2005; L. Tran et al., 2018). Additionally, some scholars argue that the approaches to internationalising the curriculum will be impacted by the institutional mission, ethos, policies and priorities (de Wit & Leask, 2015). According to W. Green and Whitsed (2015), the conceptualisation and practices of international education may vary from the North to the South. For instance, international education has been linked with the concept of 'internationalisation at home', which originates from North Western Europe; meanwhile, similar concepts are termed either 'internationalisation of the curriculum' or 'comprehensive internationalisation' in Australia and the USA correspondingly (W. Green & Whitsed, 2015, p. 3). As the researchers argue, regardless of how the concept has been coined, the principal goal of these international education activities is "to intentionally develop international and intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes in all students" (W. Green & Whitsed, 2015, p. 3).

Many of the research participants in the current study discussed how, through customising or adapting the curriculum from the international university partners, students' international and intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes were developed. This strategy was described by a number of participants as being in alignment with the strategies proposed by the Vietnamese government (Hoang et al., 2018; Mai, 2018; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a; L. Tran et al., 2018). In reality, the Vietnamese government had outlined the strategies for adapting the curriculum in the Strategy for Education Development 2011-2020, which aimed to enhance the curriculum responsiveness to the labour market in Vietnam (Thủ Tướng Chính Phủ, 2012).

In general, the findings from the current study support a focus on IoC as one of the internationalisation strategies at FTU. IoC was perceived as being promoted through the development of FUPs conducted in English in order to develop graduates' English competence

and their ability to productively perform and participate in the workforce locally and internationally (Hoang et al., 2018; H. Nguyen et al., 2017; L. Tran et al., 2018). As van der Walt (2013) contends, universities in nations where English does not serve as an official language are forced to deliver courses in English since EMI courses have been considered to be one of the key signs of a nation's response to internationalisation of HE. The challenges associated with the provision of EMI courses was certainly evident in the responses from the academic participants in the interviews, as they had to juggle expectations with the realities of teaching in an environment where use of the native language was actively discouraged.

In summary, much of what was found in the current study through analysis of the data, collected from surveys and interviews with participants and through examining the FTU website, suggests that FTU is following the trend of other similar institutions within Vietnam and Asia. There is an overall perception that much has been achieved in terms of offering a broad range of opportunities for Vietnamese students to become more globally prepared, which is in keeping with the current body of literature. To pursue its internationalisation goals, FTU utilised a number of internationalisation strategies. Among these strategies, IoC was considered to be one of the major strategies used by FTU to internationalise its institution. At FTU, IoC or internationalisation at home was implemented through the development of transnational education programs broadly and curriculum internationalisation of the FUPs specifically. What was evident at FTU, which was different from other institutions in Vietnam, was the strategies FTU used to internationalise the curriculum of its FUPs and enhance the university internationalisation as a whole. This is discussed in the next section in relation to the perceptions of IoC and strategies for IoC implementation at FTU.

7.2 Perceptions of internationalising the curriculum (IoC) at FTU

The participants' perceptions of IoC implementation at FTU are first discussed in relation to their educational background and work experience as well as their involvement in IoC implementation. Then, the conceptual framework proposed by Leask and Bridge (2013) and introduced in Chapter 2, is used to further explore the participants' perceptions of IoC of the FUPs at FTU.

7.2.1 Perceptions of IoC in relation to participants' education background, work experience and involvement in IoC.

There was a link between the participants' perceptions of IoC and their educational background, work experience or their involvement in IoC implementation. The findings from

the survey and interviews showed that participants' perceptions of IoC represented both macro and micro perspectives.

With regard to macro perspectives, the development of transnational programs like FUPs was perceived as a response to the needs associated with globalisation, i.e. educating graduates capable of working in an increasingly globalised world. It was also seen as an aid to the government reform agenda, a strategy for transforming HE in Vietnam. Moreover, developing FUPs created financial benefits for FTU as the university could gain income from the tuition paid by both local and international students in the FUPs.

In terms of micro perspectives, FTU's human resources were seen as a critical element in internationalising the curriculum of FUPs. While management personnel had experience in determining suitability of program offerings and finding suitable partners, academics were perceived to be qualified and capable of delivering FUPs. With the existing human resources having qualifications obtained from overseas, tertiary teaching experience and professional expertise in business and economics, FTU was perceived as having the capacity to implement internationalisation in general and internationalising the curriculum of the FUPs in particular. The program managers and course coordinators together with academic staff were directly involved in IoC implementation at FTU. As outlined in the data, they played a role in shaping, developing and implementing the FUPs and had an impact on the implementation of IoC at both program and course level (Childress, 2010; J. Daniels, 2013; Leask & Beelen, 2010; Leask & Bridge, 2013).

The participants' perceptions of IoC, to a certain extent, might mirror similarities with other Vietnamese institutions; yet, what was perceived to be critical to the development of FUPs and IoC implementation was FTU's human capital. Therefore, it could be argued that the human resource capability at FTU enabled the IoC implementation and internationalisation.

7.2.2 Perceptions of IoC examined through the IoC framework proposed by Leask and Bridge (2013).

In this section, the findings from the seven interviews with program managers and/or course coordinators and the seventeen interviews with academics from FTU, CSU and LMET are discussed in relation to the IoC conceptual framework developed by Leask and Bridge (2013), which is presented in Figure 7.1. The use of this framework provides an insight into different perspectives on the development and implementation of IoC at FTU.

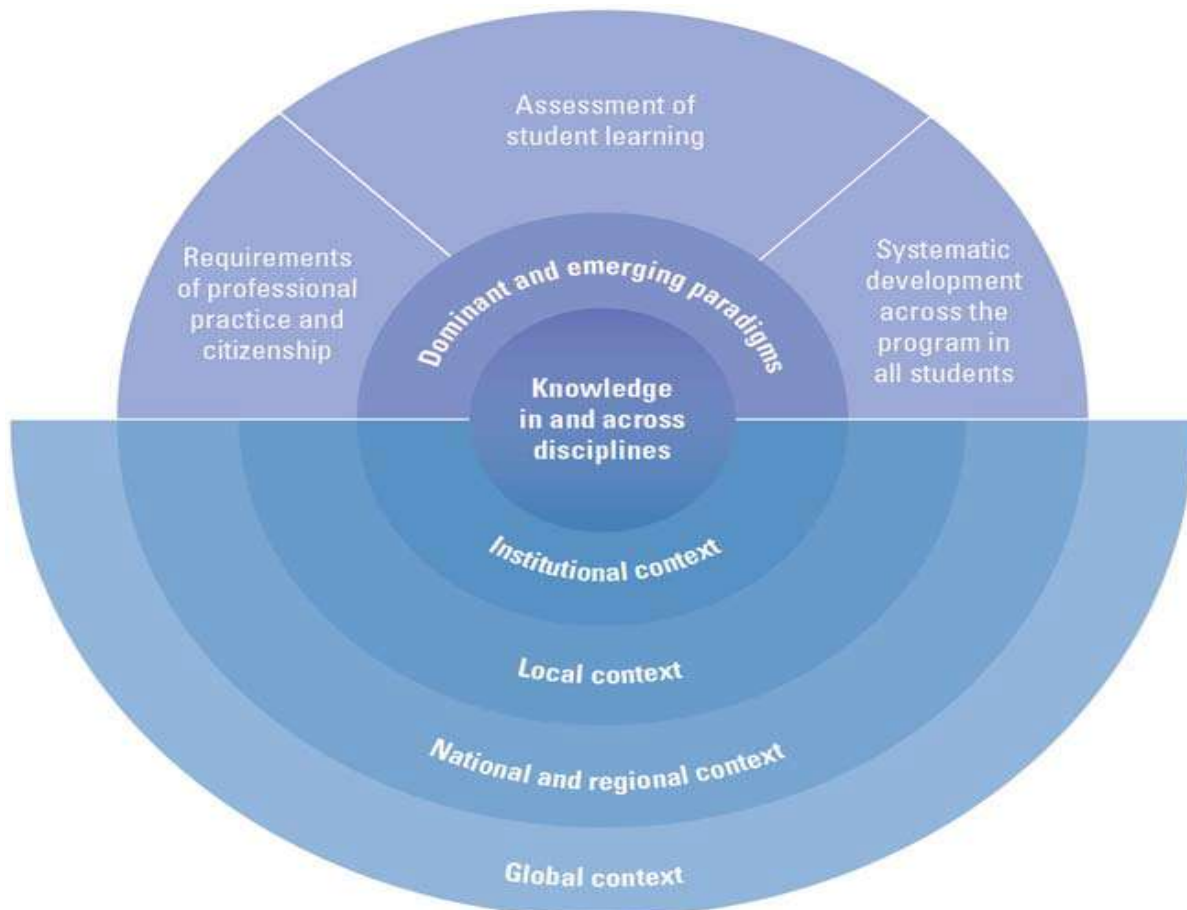


Figure 7.1. IoC conceptual framework (Leask & Bridge, 2013, p. 84). Copyright 2013 by Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.

In the IoC conceptual model in Figure 7.1, knowledge of the discipline is placed at the centre of the framework. As Leask and Bridge (2013) explain, in the top half of the framework, there is a focus on the teaching, assessment and support services to students. Those components shaped the formal, informal and hidden curriculum of a program (Leask & Bridge, 2013). Contextual layers, which lie in the bottom half of the framework, influence the design, development and implementation of the curriculum (Leask & Bridge, 2013). In the following sections, participants' perceptions of IoC implementation at FTU are discussed in relation to Leask and Bridge's (2013) framework.

7.2.1.1 The top section of the framework.

Knowledge in and across disciplines.

With knowledge of the discipline at the centre of the framework, IoC is argued to be more common within such disciplines as business, economics, finance or social science (Crosling et al., 2008; Edwards et al., 2003). The two FUPs examined in the current study included the FTU-CSU program in Economics and the FTU-LMET program majoring in

International Financial Services. Therefore, these disciplines, to a certain extent, influenced the program managers', course coordinators' and academics' perceptions and implementation of IoC (Crosling et al., 2008; de Wit & Leask, 2015; Leask & Bridge, 2013; Edwards et al., 2003; W. Green & Whitsed, 2015; Svensson & Wihlborg, 2010).

The findings of the current study revealed that the disciplines influenced both management personnel's and academics' perceptions of IoC. Specifically, academics described the impact of disciplines on their perceptions and implementation of IoC in the FUPs, which was consistent with other studies (e.g. Clifford 2009; W. Green & Mertova, 2016; Sawir, 2011). As the results showed, some academics argued that FTU historically provided majors and core subjects containing international components. They stressed that all subjects taught in the FUPs were business-related subjects, except for the American literature subject and English ones. Therefore, courses were perceived by the participants as already including international aspects but this was dependent upon the subjects taught and the perceived necessity. These views supported research conducted by W. Green and Whitsed (2015).

What was evident from the current study was that program managers, course coordinators and academics aimed to provide students with discipline-specific knowledge and relevant employability skills (Villar-Onrubia & Rajpal, 2015). Though involvement in IoC at FTU may vary amongst academic disciplines, it was perceived by participants as particularly relevant for business or economics academics to prepare students to develop an appropriate global mindset, knowledge base and skills (Kedia et al., 2001) in order to deal with the challenges of engaging in an increasingly globalised world (Hor & Matawie, 2006).

Dominant and emerging paradigms.

In the top half of the IoC Conceptual Model framework (Refer to Figure 7.1) which relates to dominant and emerging paradigms, there is a focus on the teaching, assessment and support services to students, which shape the formal, informal and hidden curriculum of the FUPs (Leask & Bridge, 2013). The data from the current study indicated that program managers', course coordinators' and academics' perceptions of IoC affected their design of the formal, informal and hidden curriculum.

Formal curriculum

In the current study, there was acknowledgment of IoC being dependent upon the objectives of developing the particular FUPs (PM1, PM3, PM4). For instance, PM1 specifically highlighted how the development of the FUPs was aimed at improving academic standards,

professional education and employability. This acknowledgment suggests that personal perspectives on IoC influence the development of the formal curriculum, i.e. the teaching and learning content and assessment.

Most of the academic participants in the current study stressed the need for developing students' professional and practical knowledge (W. Green & Mertova, 2016) as well as the development of graduate attributes (N. Tran, 2017). For the development of students' skills and abilities, academics supported the development of students' soft skills such as team work, presentation or negotiation skills (Cheng et al., 2018). They also stressed the need for developing students' English language competence (Chapple, 2015; H. Nguyen et al., 2017) and their skills and ability to work in a globalised world (Edwards et al., 2003; Haigh, 2014; Leask, 2014; Trahar, 2013a). There were also references to the need for developing students' attitudes and values (Alemu, 2014; Leask, 2013b).

It could be argued that when developing formal curriculum, participants in the current study, to a certain extent, held a transformalist view when involved in IoC (W. Green & Mertova, 2016). They tended to understand who their students were and the kind of future working environments in which their students would participate (W. Green & Mertova, 2016). They emphasised that their students, as future graduates, would live and work effectively in both local and global settings (W. Green & Mertova, 2016). As W. Green and Mertova (2016) assert, under the transformalist view, students are considered to be "agents in their learning" who are able to "co-produce knowledge with teachers" (p. 236). Most academic participants teaching in the two FUPs, perceived their practice as more student than teacher focused, which fits with W. Green and Mertova's (2016) description of transformalist teachers, who, "practised a student-centred, inclusive and innovative pedagogy, in which they drew reflexively on their experience of other cultures and countries" (p. 241). Moreover, the data in the current study revealed that the academic participants linked their perceptions of IoC with their "personal experiences", their "understandings and values of the world" as well as "their perception of its importance to their discipline" (W. Green & Mertova, 2016, p. 237). A number of academic participants (AC1, AC12, AC26, AC35) expressed that their own international and intercultural experience encouraged engagement in IoC, which assisted with making "their teaching authentic" and helping them feel confident (W. Green & Mertova, 2016, p. 237).

Informal curriculum

The informal curriculum was internationalised to develop students' international and intercultural competence through the support and services provided including the range of extra-curricular activities. While program managers and course coordinators mentioned some typical extra-curricular activities provided to all FTU students, academics revealed that only limited extra-curricular activities were specifically designed for students in the FUPs due to time constraints.

There appeared to be a lack of focus on designing extra-curricular activities at course level as most academic participants acknowledged that such activities were limited and optional. Such activities as participation in community services, non-compulsory internships and field trips (Barrie, Hughes, & Smith, 2009) were not inclusive in the FUPs. Also, the current study revealed that there was a clear lack of opportunities for students to gain mobility experience such as internships, work placements or field trips during their study in the FUPs at FTU (Cheng et al., 2018). These extra-curricular activities are considered to be valuable to facilitate the development of knowledge and skills "outside the main curriculum" (N. Tran, 2017, p. 855).

However, as discussed in Section 7.1.3, FTU managed to develop a campus-based culture of internationalisation through a range of extra-curricular activities for all FTU students; thus, there was certainly evidence within the current study of FTU attempting to internationalise the student experience through a broader university-wide approach (Leask, 2014; L. Tran et al., 2018). The extra-curricular activities for all FTU students reflected FTU's attempt to develop their intercultural competence pedagogy, to enable students to be critically engaged through experiential, explorative and holistic activities (Corder & U-Mackey, 2015).

Hidden curriculum

Participants' perceptions of IoC may also have helped shape the hidden curriculum which focused on developing students' understanding of moral values in order for them to become ethical citizens (Clifford & Montgomery, 2014; Haigh, 2008; Leask & Bridge, 2013; Scott, 2005). However, in terms of developing the hidden curriculum, no explicit ideas referring to ethical development of students were provided by participants during interviews. While there were a number of references to student engagement through linkages with community and professional organisations, the idea of equipping students with

understandings about moral values so that they could become ethical global citizens was not specifically mentioned by participants.

The findings also showed that the program managers and course coordinators did not explicitly state how they collaborated within their community to educate students to become professionals and citizens who live responsibly and care about their community or the sustainable development of the entire society. This raised a concern about the level of IoC of the two FUPs at FTU, specifically whether the hidden curriculum of these programs offered students a chance of exposure to different norms and cultures, thus creating learning experiences for students that were inclusive (Cheng, Adekola, Shah, & Valyrakis, 2018).

In the current globalised world, university students need to cultivate sets of global skills, which enable them to deal with the multifaceted integration of cultural, political, social, and business processes (Aggarwal & Goodell, 2011; Feng, 2016; H. W. Lane, Maznevski, Mendenhall, & McNett, 2009). Therefore, internationalisation should involve educating students to become responsible citizens in culturally diverse societies, and offer opportunities to develop as global-minded graduates capable of integrating quickly into a multifarious and internationalised workplace (Diamond et al., 2011). The participants in the current study did demonstrate an awareness of the requirement to accommodate the needs of both international and domestic students (Jones & Killick, 2013; Killick, 2006a; Sawir, 2013; Zimitat, 2008). Although the presence of international students at FTU was limited, academics did acknowledge the importance of taking into account the students' national background or their own culture and experience (M. Bell, 2004; Cheng et al., 2018).

In summary, the findings from the survey and interviews indicated some awareness of the need to develop a curriculum that incorporates all aspects of curriculum development – at the formal, informal and hidden/latent level (Banks, 2001; Daniel, 2001; Dunne, 2011; Jones & Killick, 2007; Leask, 2009; Leask & Bridge, 2013; LeBlanc, 2007). Therefore, the development of formal, informal and hidden curriculum at FTU were discussed to varying degrees in relation to the conceptual framework proposed by Leask and Bridge (2013), which is situated in the top half of the framework. In the bottom half of the model, there are some contextual layers influencing the design, development and implementation of the curriculum. Therefore, the perceptions of participants in association with contextual layers also needs to be addressed.

7.2.1.2 The bottom section of the IoC conceptual framework – contextual layers.

The main contextual layers highlighted by Leask and Bridge (2013) (Figure 7.1) were perceived by participants as affecting IoC implementation at FTU, albeit to varying degrees. These contextual layers include the global, the regional and national, the local as well as the institutional contexts.

In terms of the global context, some program managers and/or course coordinators perceived the international cooperation and integration as a common trend influencing IoC implementation at FTU. Similarly, academics also mentioned internationalisation trends or globalisation as factors leading to the development of the FUPs in Vietnam in general and at FTU in particular. As P. Nguyen et al. (2016) claim, HE providers throughout the world have confronted challenges associated with globalisation. Like many developing nations, Vietnam is reforming its HE system in order to address its socio-economic developmental goals in the globalised world (P. Nguyen et al., 2016). FTU is considered to be one of the most elite universities in Vietnam (Trines, 2017); therefore, its involvement in the development of FUPs reflects its response to the global trend of international education as well as its willingness to undertake reform and pursue the goals set by the Vietnamese government (Hoang et al., 2018; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a; L. Tran et al., 2018). While this view was supported by program leaders, many of the academics were not aware of the broader global political and economic contexts.

The regional context and national context were also thought to have some impact on IoC in Vietnam in general and at FTU in particular. Some program managers and course coordinators mentioned the international education trends in Asian countries such as Japan, which has experienced a significant change in its HE development and its international education orientation over the last two decades (Phan, 2013; Whitsed & Volet, 2011). The trends of international education and internationalisation in Asian countries had some impact on the internationalisation process in Vietnam, according to PM1. Unlike program managers and courses coordinators, most of academics did not mention the influence of the regional context on IoC implementation.

Regarding the regional context, in order to internationalise their own education systems, Asian nations had to be more open to international education with some becoming education exporters while others acted as education importers. As Huang (2007) asserts, Vietnam's higher education system reflects an import-oriented education system in which

internationalisation is accomplished mainly through the import of foreign education programs. These international programs are mostly imported from western nations whose advanced standards and practices are introduced into the Vietnamese education system. FTU focused on the promotion of international programs using English as a medium of instruction, aiming to produce graduates capable of working in not only the local, but also the global context, and in the regional context as well. It could be argued that FTU understands the need for graduates to strengthen their knowledge and understandings of Asia in order for them to successfully integrate into the ASEAN community and become engaged in collaboration at both an international and a regional level (Mai, 2018).

In terms of the national context, participants highlighted the economic setting, the national agenda and the government's development orientation. The government policy for internationalisation of HE was noted as a contributing factor affecting IoC implementation at institutions like FTU, according to some program managers, courses coordinators and academics. The participants also acknowledged that the Vietnamese government policy for developing the Advanced Program was a key driver for FTU to open up opportunities to learn from the world. This enabled Vietnam to improve its HE system, improve teaching and learning, as well as to educate students to work in an international environment. Most participants shared a view that IoC resulted from the Vietnamese government's desire for innovating the outmoded curriculum, progressing its education in alignment with regional and international education developments, and improving graduates' ability to perform their work in local, regional and global labour markets (L. Tran et al., 2018).

The local context was underpinned by a shared view among participants that the development of FUPs offered a way of meeting societal needs, which was also supported through MOET and other non-Government organisations (NGOs) like the World Bank as foundations or incentives for IoC. This view is supported by other literature on the influence of the local context in Vietnam (Mai, 2018; L. Tran et al., 2017), with Ziguras and Pham (2016) and L. Tran and Marginson (2018a) also claiming that international organisations such as the World Bank, UNDP and UNESCO, have played a progressively influential role in internationalising the Vietnamese tertiary education system. These findings were also similar to what Huang (2006) and P. Nguyen et al. (2016) outlined in their research. As Huang (2006) claims, improvements in the socio-economic profile of the Vietnamese people has led to the expansion and significant rise of transnational HE programs in Vietnam. Also, P. Nguyen et al.

(2016) assert that financial status gains in Vietnam have resulted in more attention being paid to acquiring education.

The institutional context was the most discussed factor by both cohorts of participants. For instance, FTU's internal resources involved its goals and visions, its reputation and experience in delivery of EMI programs majoring in business, economics or finance. These factors also, together with the availability of faculty members, facilities and training resources, and students' capability of studying in EMI programs were cited as influential in leading to IoC implementation at FTU. Moreover, the value of establishing partnerships with international universities was also accentuated by program managers particularly, as an influencing factor to promote the FUPs and IoC at FTU.

These institutional factors had all been cited in previous literature (Lasagabaster, 2016; P. Nguyen et al., 2016; L. Tran et al., 2018). According to Lasagabaster (2016), one of the major instruments for internationalising universities throughout the world is to use English as a medium of instruction. In practice, much effort has been made to internationalise higher education in Vietnam, which involves the use of English as medium of instruction, foreign curriculum borrowing, and the offer of internationally regarded qualifications joint-trained with overseas universities as well as international cooperation (L. Tran et al., 2018). Therefore, establishing partnerships between Vietnam and international institutions is considered to play an important role in facilitating the transition of the Vietnamese economy (Ngo, 2011).

At FTU, all of these above-mentioned factors were acknowledged by program managers, course coordinators and academics who participated in the current study. However, among these factors, academics were considered a key element to promoting the FUPs and IoC implementation at FTU. The findings revealed that the academics possessed a certain level of cross-cultural experience (He & Liu, 2018), so they understood cultural differences, which helped them understand how the development of students' international and intercultural competence enabled students to become international professionals and global citizens (Haigh, 2014; L. Hanson, 2010; Leask, 2014; Trahar, 2013a).

Producing global citizens has become one of the most challenging missions for almost all educational institutions worldwide, leading Caruana and Spurling (2007) to suggest that academics also need to be global citizens. At FTU, there appeared to be a focus on employing academics with international education experience to teach in the FUPs. This approach is

mentioned in Sawir's (2011) study which argues that the recruitment of academics with overseas experience probably enriches international students' learning experience since these academics are more aware of the challenges facing international students. However, according to W. Green and Whitsed (2015), "international experience may be a starting point, but it is not enough" (p. 10). Therefore, it is argued that if HE institutions want to internationalise the curriculum so as to enrich global citizenship, they need to provide "continuing professional learning practices that foster reflection and critical intra and inter-disciplinary communities of practice" (W. Green & Mertova, 2016, p. 242). This aspect was acknowledged as a challenge by academic participants in particular, and will be discussed further within Principle 4 of Section 7.3.3.

In summary, the findings from the current study support that IoC at FTU was perceived as being influenced by all of the factors outlined in the conceptual framework developed by Leask and Bridge (2013) (Figure 7.1). According to de Wit and Leask (2015), these factors interrelate in various ways in order to "facilitate and inhibit, drive and shape approaches to internationalisation of the curriculum" (p. xii). In other words, these contextual factors can stimulate and restrain "the development of a discipline's approach to teaching within any given time and place" (de Wit & Leask, 2015, p. xii).

It could be said that Leask and Bridges' (2013) conceptual framework provided a solid foundation for determining what factors were perceived as impacting IoC implementation at FTU. The participants' perceptions subsequently impacted the approaches taken in internationalising the curriculum of the FUPs. The next section examines the strategies for IoC used by program managers, course coordinators and academics, which were explored through the lens of Activity Theory, the framework that was chosen to examine the actual process of IoC, as explained in Chapter 3.

7.3. Strategies for internationalising the curriculum (IoC) at FTU

The data demonstrated that the perspectives of participants definitely influenced their ways of internationalising the curriculum of the FUPs. The IoC implementation is first examined through the analysis of the three main relationships in the 'internationalising the curriculum' activity systems of the FUPs at FTU. The implementation of IoC at FTU is then discussed in relation to the six components within the activity systems. Subsequently, the strategies for IoC implementation at FTU are further analysed based on the five principles of Activity Theory and the associated Theory of Expansive Learning.

7.3.1 The three main relationships in the ‘internationalising the curriculum’ activity systems.

As outlined in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.7.6, third generation Activity Theory (AT) provided the theoretical framework for the current study, analysing three mutual relations between subject, object and community (Engeström, 1987). In the ‘internationalising curriculum’ (IoC) activity systems at FTU, the subjects (previously referred to as ‘participants’ in the current study), including program managers, course coordinators and academics, managed to internationalise the two FUPs. They achieved internationalisation through employing a critical tool in the form of the English language to develop students’ international and intercultural competence (Object 1), thus enabling students to accomplish learning outcomes: ‘academic standards, professional education and employability’ (Object 2). At FTU, English was used as a medium of instruction in the Advanced and Joint Programs, to promote internationalisation.

In these systems, the subjects followed the regulations set by MOET, FTU and its overseas partners to develop and manage the FUPs. The set of rules comprised the norms and conventions, which originated from both western and non-western practices of teaching and learning. Within their community, the subjects with their specific assigned roles had to follow the rules and managed to attain Object 1, i.e. developing students’ international and intercultural competence. Subsequently, they targeted the transformation of Object 1 into the expected learning outcomes, i.e. academic standards, professional education and employability (Object 2). Achieving Object 1 and Object 2 may lead to the accomplishment of Object 3, “a potentially shared or jointly created object” (Engeström, 2001, p. 136), which was to develop students’ global awareness, international perspectives and intercultural competence in order for students to work locally and globally. The ‘internationalising curriculum’ activity systems of the two FUPs at FTU based on research findings are illustrated in Figures 7.2 and 7.3.

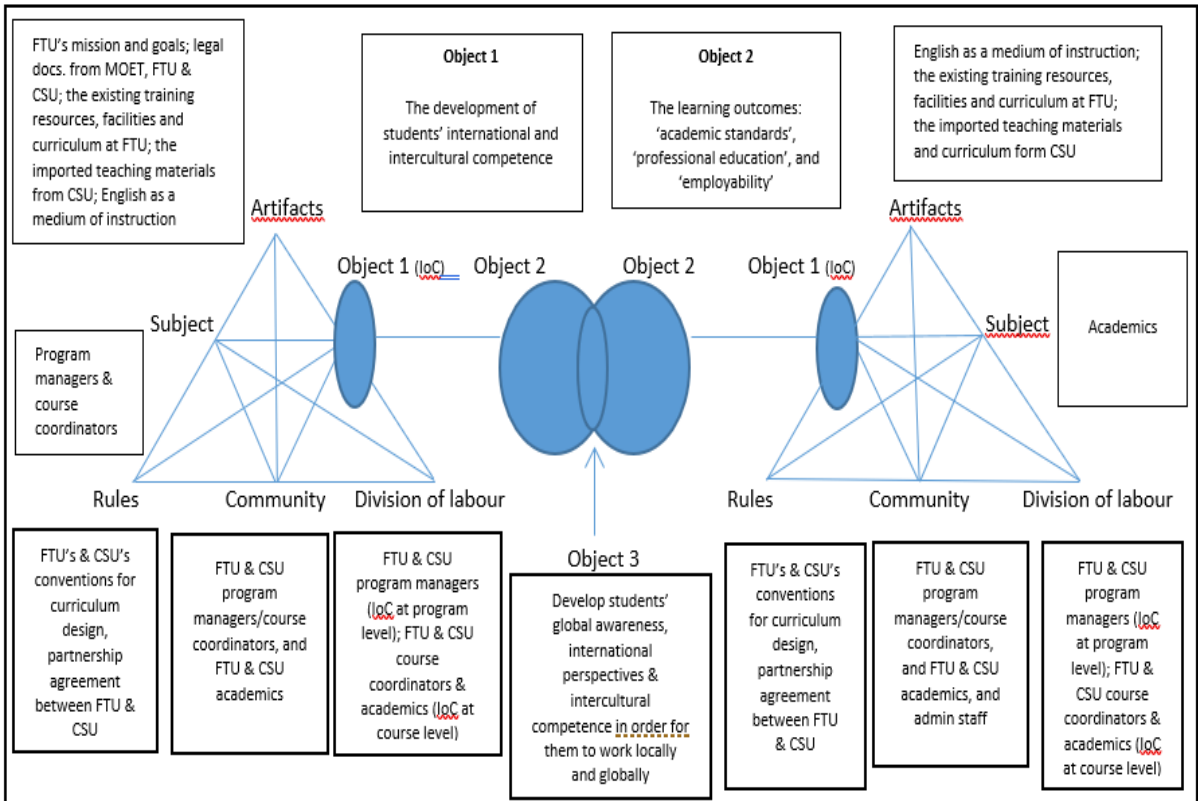


Figure 7.2. The 'Internationalising curriculum' activity system of the FTU-CSU program

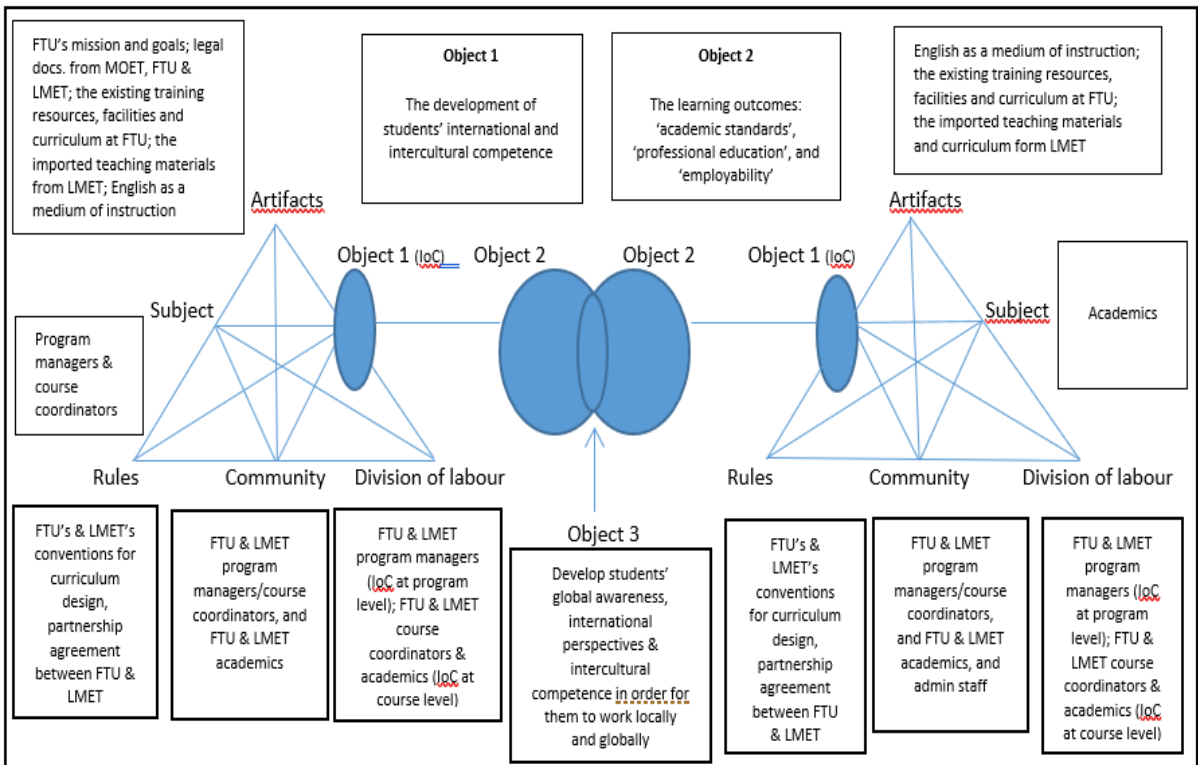


Figure 7.3. The 'Internationalising curriculum' activity system of the FTU-LMET program

7.3.2 The six components of the 'internationalising the curriculum' activity systems.

Using third generation AT, the IoC implementation at FTU is discussed in relation to six main components specified in the activity system (Engeström, 2001) as outlined in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.4.5. These components in the 'internationalising the curriculum' (IoC) activity systems at FTU included the subjects, object, tools, community, rules and division of labour.

Subjects.

The subjects in the activity systems consisted of program managers, course coordinators and academics in the two FUPs. Program managers and course coordinators specifically carried out a range of actions to internationalise the two FUPs at program levels. They had to undergo the process of developing, designing and implementing the curriculum of these programs. In this process, they took such actions as: 'importing' the curriculum, mapping curriculum to standardise and modularise courses in the two programs, as well as collaborating with their counterparts from CSU or LMET to monitor the quality of teaching and assessment of these programs. By contrast, academics teaching in these programs implemented a number of actions to internationalise their teaching courses in terms of teaching, learning and assessment. Their actions mostly related to developing internationalised courses, using different approaches to teaching and learning, employing divergent teaching and learning activities and assessment or incorporating international, intercultural and local content into their courses.

Objects.

All actions taken by the subjects were object-oriented actions (Engeström, 2001). In the current activity systems, there were two objects that the subjects aimed to achieve. Object 1 referred to the development of students' international and intercultural competence, which was achieved through the inclusion of international and intercultural dimensions into the teaching and learning content, assessment and the support and services provided to students in the two FUPs. Object 2 referred to the specific learning outcomes required to be achieved by students upon completion of their course. In this case, Object 2 represented the learning outcomes: 'academic standards', 'professional education' and 'employability'. In order to achieve such learning outcomes (Object 2), the development of students' international and intercultural competence (Object 1) needed to be taken into account when IoC occurred at both program and course levels. Therefore, the international and intercultural dimensions were embedded into the two programs, which first enabled

students to achieve academic standards, i.e. getting an internationally-recognised degree. This also enabled students to transfer to study abroad in their final year or at any stage of their course of study. Additionally, these dimensions were incorporated into the curriculum of the FUPs so that students were able to work in an international environment or to work in their professional field. This mirrored the learning outcome, namely 'professional education'. The inclusion of international and intercultural content into the programs occurred when there was a link between education and practice, connecting the institution with enterprises or community. If so, this enabled the accomplishment of the final learning outcome: 'employability'. Subsequently, the accomplishment of Object 1 and Object 2 may lead to Object 3, i.e. the development of students' global awareness, international perspectives and intercultural competence to enable students to work locally and globally. As such, in order to achieve these specified objects, FTU's approaches to internationalising the curriculum are necessarily "impacted by institutional mission, ethos, policies and priorities" (de Wit & Leask, 2015, p. xi).

Tools and signs.

The subjects utilised the internal and external resources as tools in order to achieve the above-mentioned objects. In reality, the subjects had to select and decide on the tools or signs used to implement IoC. In the two FUPs, English was regarded as a tool to internationalise the curriculum. The curriculum as well as the teaching materials and resources provided by FTU's partners were also considered to be instruments for implementing IoC. Additionally, existing curriculum, teaching materials and resources available at FTU were also used during the process of mapping curriculum, standardising and modularising courses to develop the curriculum of the two programs. Moreover, for the FTU-CSU program, funding from the government and the World Bank was used to develop and implement IoC.

Rules.

There were specific regulations related to the assurance of the teaching content and teaching quality, the supervision of students' knowledge and skills development, the assessment of students' work, as well as the evaluation of the programs. The development of the FUPs and the curriculum design of these programs were based on the rules and regulations set by the Vietnamese government, e.g. specific terms and conditions set by MOET for Vietnamese institutions, and the expected generic requirements for partnerships

and program development in Vietnam. Furthermore, credit transfer and transferring students to FTU's university partners or granting degrees to students involved rules set by both FTU and its overseas partners. FTU's partners additionally set their own rules and regulations when implementing shared programs at FTU. This was because FTU's partners also had to follow requirements set by the quality assurance regulators in their own countries. In order for these partners to award degrees to FTU students, certain criteria needed to be met such as, rules related to CSU involvement in teaching at FTU campus and second marking by LMET academics and external examiners.

Community.

In the current activity systems, the community comprised program managers, course coordinator, academics (subjects) involved in the two FUPs. These subjects interacted and collaborated together in these programs. In their community, program managers and course coordinators from FTU, CSU and LMET collaborated to design the curriculum, then together with academics, they implemented and monitored the quality of the programs through evaluation and review processes.

There was collaboration to ensure the accomplishment of the learning outcomes (Object 2) through the development of students' international and intercultural competence (Object 1) so that students could develop their global awareness, international perspectives and intercultural competence in order to work locally and globally (Object 3). Their collaboration within their community was also to provide extra-curricular activities for students or organise professional activities and training for academics. Through their collaboration, the subjects made an effort to create an internationalised curriculum that focused on student learning (Leask, 2014).

Division of labour.

The division of labour in the current activity system related to such issues as the assigned roles given to the subjects involved in the process of IoC, or their power and status within their community. The division of labour varied according to how the subjects within their community viewed their roles in the process of internationalising the curriculum.

In the current activity systems, FTU perceived its role as an education importer while its partners considered their assigned roles as education exporters. For FTU, who acted as an education importer, they developed the curriculum based on imported curriculum and their own, provided teaching, conducted assessments, and organised PD activities for academics.

They also had to organise extra-curricular activities for students. By contrast, as education exporters, FTU's partners were responsible for providing the curriculum, facilitating support during the process of mapping, developing and designing the curriculum, as well as offering support in terms of teacher training, or monitoring the teaching content and assessment. For some aspects, partners did not take much responsibility, as in the FTU-CSU program in which CSU involvement in evaluation and review processes was minimal.

7.3.3 Analysing the 'IoC' activity systems based on the five principles of Activity Theory.

The five principles of Activity Theory, summarised by (Engeström, 1999a, 2001), were used as a lens for analysis of the data in the current study. The IoC implementation at FTU is analysed in relation to these five principles in the following sections.

Principle 1.

The 'IoC' activity systems represented collective, artifact-mediated and object-oriented activity systems (Engeström, 2001) since the subjects individually and collectively took actions to internationalise the curriculum. At both program and course levels, English language was employed as a critical tool to internationalise the curriculum of the FUPs. Curriculum and teaching resources from FTU, CSU and LMET were utilised when developing courses in the FUPs. The use of such tools was to obtain the objects initially defined in the 'IoC' systems at FTU. However, throughout the process of curriculum internationalisation, the subjects recognised the need for redefining Object 1 when they targeted to achieve Object 3 in the 'IoC' activity systems.

The subjects, especially academics, made some innovative adaptation and Vietnamisation of foreign values in education when internationalising their courses (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a). As acknowledged by the subjects, the courses in the FUPs were designed based on western educational practices, which comprised "detailed syllabi, moderated assessments, and interactive classroom procedures to promote a global standard" (Bradford, 2016, p. 346). The subjects therefore highlighted that they had to customise "foreign-born resources" provided by CSU and LMET in order to match with Vietnam's social, cultural, political and economic environment (L. Tran et al., 2017, p. 1910). Consequently, the subjects utilised available tools such as *local* teaching resources to *localise* the western-oriented courses offered in the FUPs so that graduates from these programs could work both locally and globally.

In short, while internationalising the courses in these programs, the subjects either individually or collectively reconceptualised the objects. They eventually took actions to make changes so as to achieve the final object (Object 3). To accomplish Object 3, the subjects incorporated not only *international* and *intercultural* but also *local* dimensions into the teaching and learning content, assessment and the support and services provided to students in the two FUPs.

Principle 2.

There were multiple viewpoints, traditions and interests existing in the 'IoC' systems due to the fact that the subjects engaging in IoC at FTU had their own diverse histories. They, to a certain extent, collaborated together to implement IoC, based on the required rules and conventions for internationalising the curriculum. Such rules caused some tensions among subjects and forced them to negotiate or take actions for change and innovation (Engeström, 2001). As such, program managers, course coordinators and academics had to negotiate or propose changes to better meet their students' needs, to suit the teaching and learning contexts in Vietnam and to achieve the desired learning outcomes of the FUPs.

There were different views on the curriculum development of the two programs regarding such terms as 'curriculum importing' or 'curriculum borrowing'. For instance, two participants who managed the FTU-CSU program, shared their different viewpoints on these terms. One argued that if the curriculum was a 'product' imported from overseas, there should not be adaptations, but this was not the usual expectation (PM5). Meanwhile, the other claimed that the word 'imported' should be put in quotation marks (PM3). Such claims made by these participants (subjects) in the context of internationalising the curriculum of the FUPs indicated a certain level of confusion. Apparently, confusion is likely to occur when no clear definition of these terms exists to guide those involved in the IoC process.

In reality, different interpretations of IoC suggest that actual implementation practices may vary more than expected. As the findings showed, the division of labour changed when institutions like FTU had a particular perception of their roles in the process i.e. either as education exporters or education importers (Huang, 2017). When acting as education importers, institutions' involvement in IoC might be linked with the notion of 'importing curriculum' or 'borrowing curriculum' instead of 'internationalising curriculum'. This was highlighted in recent research on internationalisation in Vietnam by L. Tran and Marginson (2018a) who claimed that "the design and implementation of the advanced programme is

underpinned by principles of curriculum borrowing and transposition rather than curriculum internationalisation” (p. 11).

However, through the analysis of the ‘IoC’ activity systems at FTU, the terms ‘importing curriculum’ or ‘borrowing curriculum’ typically referred to one of actions taken by the subjects to internationalise the curriculum. In order to develop the curriculum of the FUPs specifically or of the local programs at FTU broadly, the subjects had to take a sequence of actions ranging from ‘importing curriculum’ or ‘borrowing curriculum’ to ‘mapping curriculum’, which was perceived as a part of the process of internationalising the curriculum. Among these actions, ‘curriculum mapping’ plays a critical role in the process of internationalising the curriculum. When mapping curriculum, aspects such as compatibility, equivalency and curriculum alignment need to be taken into consideration (Clarke et al., 2016; Sanderson et al., 2010; Ziguras, 2007). The findings showed that curriculum mapping of the FUPs was conducted by FTU; however, FTU also collaborated with its partners to design the curriculum of FUPs which met such criteria as compatibility, equivalency and curriculum alignment (PM1, PM2, PM3, PM6, PM7, PM8).

The analysis of ‘IoC’ activity systems at FTU facilitated a deeper insight into the process of internationalising curriculum in a non-western context and a clearer differentiation of such terms as ‘importing curriculum’, ‘borrowing curriculum’ or ‘mapping curriculum’. Indeed, there have been no clear definitions of these above-mentioned terms in literature when it comes to IoC implementation in Vietnam. Therefore, clear differentiation of these notions is required to assist those engaged in implementing IoC activities in Vietnam. Based on the analysis of the findings, it is argued that the internationalising curriculum activity involves a number of actions ranging from either *importing* or *borrowing* curriculum to *mapping* curriculum. It also encompasses a range of actions related to the inclusion of *international*, *intercultural* and *local* elements “into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning process and support services of a program of study” (Leask, 2009, p.209). In short, through the lens of Activity theory, the definition of internationalising curriculum activity provides a clear differentiation of actions occurring in ‘IoC’ activity systems at FTU specifically or in the process of internationalising the curriculum in a non-western setting in general.

Principle 3.

Historicity is another aspect that should be taken into account when exploring an activity system (Engeström, 2001). The 'IoC' activity systems at FTU could not be understood thoroughly unless these systems were examined together with FTU's goals and vision or its history of international cooperation or international education activity via the development of EMI programs, student exchange programs or the engagement of international lecturers at FTU campuses. That FTU possessed positive accounts of promoting EMI programs created the foundation for its internationalisation activity. Such accounts as the academics' readiness to teach in EMI programs and the recruitment of students who met the language entry requirements into EMI programs enabled FTU to develop FUPs.

The findings revealed that there were both internal and external factors impacting IoC implementation and the development of FUPs at FTU. However, academics were perceived as an internal strength, driving IoC implementation based on FTU's goals and mission, thus meeting the educational needs of the society. Academics in this study were inspired to educate the younger generation, and being very aware of the value of their professional knowledge and teaching capability, their language capability, their international education and work experience. This enabled them to internationalise the curriculum through the inclusion of international, intercultural and local components into their courses. Therefore, academics at FTU were regarded as both drivers and implementers of IoC at FTU (Childress, 2010; Cogan & Grossman, 2009; Dobos, 2011; Trahar, 2013b; Woodruff et al., 2015). They played a critical role in the IoC implementation at FTU, as "the 'gatekeepers' or 'harbingers' of curriculum change" (W. Green & Whitsed, 2015, p. 11). Their roles at the course level varied dependent upon their IoC perceptions and the rules for IoC implementation set by FTU and its partners.

Principle 4.

The contradictions that occurred in the 'IoC' activity systems at FTU were considered to be sources of change and development (Engeström, 2001). Among the four types of contradictions classified by Engeström (2001), the typical contradiction evident in the 'IoC' activity systems at FTU was the second type which occurred when new components from the outside clashed with old elements (Engeström, 2001). This type of contradiction forced the subjects to make adaptations when internationalising the curriculum in their courses/programs. Specifically, the subjects encountered a number of contradictions and

tensions including (1) the exclusive use of English as a medium of instruction; (2) strict adherence to rules set by MOET, FTU and its university partners in assessment and evaluation processes; (3) lack of facility and teaching resources; (4) lack of collaboration among academics teaching in the FUPs; and (5) lack of support and PD provided to academics.

Contradiction 1: The exclusive use of English as a medium of instruction.

Though program managers and course coordinators did not raise specific concerns about the use of English as a medium of instruction as a strategy for internationalising the curriculum of the FUPs, academics mentioned a number of contradictions or tensions facing them when internationalising their courses.

The requirement to use English as the medium of instruction was challenging for some academics consistent with other findings (e.g. Bradford, 2016; Chapple, 2015; Coxhead, 2013). Utilising Vietnamese for minor clarification purposes was seen by some as acceptable, particularly when students' English language competence was lower than required (R. Wilkinson, 2013; S. Wilkinson, 2000). One English teacher claimed that the use of Vietnamese was necessary due to the inability to eliminate the mother tongue from the students' heart (AC10). Therefore, some English teachers even mentioned that they, to a certain extent, used Vietnamese in English classrooms to facilitate students' comprehension, which was considered a practice of "code-switching" (N. Nguyen, Grainger & Carey, 2016, p. 1333).

Indeed, the academics' actual implementation in EMI courses was at times contradictory to their beliefs and their perceived requirements for English only teaching practice. The tensions facing the academics related to decisions regarding the use of Vietnamese in EMI classes (Chapple, 2015). Academics did acknowledge concerns about the use of Vietnamese in class as they understood that compromising could impact on meeting the objectives and requirements of the FUPs (de Wit, 2011; Symon & Weinberg, 2013).

In this setback, it would be beneficial for FTU academics if there was a clear differentiation "between the language used in teaching materials, formal instruction, out-of-class explanation, and assessment" (Ziguras, 2007, p. 24). According to Ziguras (2007), students may find it useful to have resources such as readings and textbooks in both their own language and English. Also, having "face-to-face discussion with their local teachers in their own language" alongside with keeping in touch with foreign lecturers via email in English may bring some benefits to students (Ziguras, 2007, p. 24). Thus, it is argued that a clear

guideline for academics regarding the use of English as a medium of instruction in FUPs at FTU should be put in place.

Contradiction 2: Strict adherence to rules set by MOET, FTU and its university partners in assessment and evaluation processes.

The set of rules and requirements specified in the FUPs guided the IoC implementation at FTU, which aimed to safeguard the quality of these programs. According to L. Tran and Marginson (2018a), for the last few decades, quality assurance has become a key issue of internationalising Vietnamese higher education, due to the development of the programs joint-trained or co-taught between Vietnamese institutions and their university partners overseas. Quality assurance, as Martin and Stella (2007) argue, is seen as a major challenge facing universities, regulators and policymakers involved in the transnational programs. Yet it is of critical importance since the recognised quality of an institution's academic awards impacts not only its own reputation but the national higher education system where the institution is located (Healey, 2018). Therefore, as Ziguras et al. (2017) assert, the Vietnamese government has progressively issued "an increasingly comprehensive array of regulations governing transnational providers and international collaboration", thus making foreign partners "subject to a more exacting set of requirements than locally owned providers" since 2000 (p. 103).

However, it was argued that the strict legal requirements for establishing the FUPs were seen as a blocker that limited the internationalisation process of institutions in Vietnam (PM1). The tension, therefore, lay at the point where the regulation was used as a tool to safeguard the quality of the FUPs but became an obstacle when the process for approval became time and cost consuming (PM1).

Contradiction 3: Lack of facilities and teaching resources.

In terms of facilities and training resources, the concerns were universal with very low levels of satisfaction. Not only was there a lack of teaching materials related to international content, the teaching materials covering local content were also insufficient. This was a source of contradiction since almost all academics understood the need to incorporate local content and examples into their courses; yet, there were insufficient materials regarding the local content or the subjects the academics taught. Academics also reported having to seek alternative equipment and resources or even buy their own to support their teaching. Moreover, there were no offices for academics to work in with students after class hours. As

most had experienced international education overseas, they understood the essential tools and regular support that teachers and students should be provided with, especially in the international programs.

The shortage of training resources was therefore another challenge with limited access to multiple resources, online library or reference books. Online platforms such as Blackboard were not available at FTU, which was typically an indispensable tool for academics to interact with their students throughout the courses in international programs abroad. The use of information technology, which has been considered to play a typical role in the internationalisation of higher education (Yemini & Sagie, 2016), was undeniably quite limited in the FUPs at FTU. If universities like FTU take advantage of ITCs, IoC opportunities would extend (Leask 2004a), students could be offered new learning experiences (Steils et al., 2015) and develop the key attributes of global graduates (Villar-Onrubia & Rajpal, 2015). Online or blended learning was not mentioned by any academics yet this is not even a new approach to IoC (Villar-Onrubia & Rajpal, 2015). This form of learning, as Zygouris-Coe (2012) argues, creates collaborative learning communities and facilitates other twenty-first century skills. Obviously, through the technology application, institutions like FTU can help students who are prospective professionals in business and economics to develop both technological and intercultural competence in the information age (Affricano, 2005).

Contradiction 4: Lack of collaboration among academics teaching in the FUPs.

In general, collaboration was problematic, not so much between program managers, course coordinators and academics but among academics themselves. The findings showed that academics worked independently, rarely sharing or discussing issues related to teaching and assessment in the FUPs. Therefore, some academics showed a lack of understanding of the program objectives, the course design, the course evaluation and reviews or the issuance of the certificates. Academics were permitted a certain level of flexibility and autonomy when teaching in the FUPs; yet, this consequently caused misunderstandings and misinterpretations. This led to tensions among some academics due to feeling “under-informed, under-supported, under-prepared and under-confident when it comes to IoC” (W. Green & Whitsed, 2015, p. 10).

It could be said that the academics’ engagement in their teaching community appeared to be not strong. According to Warhurst (2008), when higher education teaching communities are “relatively weak communities ...their sociocultural practices are not deeply

sedimented, and are therefore amenable to development through individual agency” (p. 464). Therefore, if academics are not encouraged and provided with appropriate support to internationalise their courses, it would be hard for FTU to enhance its internationalisation activities, thus enabling it to achieve its mission and vision.

Contradiction 5: Lack of support and professional development provided to academics.

Although academic participants acknowledged that program managers and course coordinators managed to provide them both academic and administrative support, they highlighted the lack of the university’s support in terms of logistics support and PD. Some academics mentioned hindrances to IoC including large class sizes, intensive teaching syllabi and timetables, and lack of teaching associates to support lecturers, particularly with marking. These impacted on innovation, particularly in relation to aspects such as the integration of international, cultural and local knowledge in class or through extra-curricular activities.

The findings from the interviews also revealed that opportunities for targeted professional learning for academics was seen as inadequate. In reality, academics delivering courses in English need to possess a high level of English competence, understand western teaching and learning methodologies as well as assessment methods. There was mention by the research participants that academics teaching in the FTU-CSU program were sent abroad to study (e.g. PM1, PM2, PM3, PM8, AC1, AC12, AC34), but those from the FTU-LMET program admitted that support provided to academics regarding teacher PD was still limited (e.g. PM4, PM6, PM7, AC12, AC17, AC26). There seemed to be contradictions in the implementation and support of the FUPs as the level of support provided to academics in the FUPs varied dependent upon the partnership agreement between FTU and its partners. Indeed, the issues which Hughes (2011) found to be concerning, such as tensions between expatriate managers and locally employed academic staff, were not raised in responses by academics in the current study but the limited support for PD or the lack of opportunities for career advancement being offered to academics was evident.

Principle 5.

The expansive transformations were mentioned as one aspect possibly happening in the activity system (Engeström, 2001). In the ‘internationalising the curriculum’ activity systems at FTU, the expansive transformations did not seem to be significant. Though there was some re-conceptualisation of the object and motive of the internationalising curriculum activity among management personnel and academics, there was little inclusion of a broader

range of possibilities than in the earlier mode of the activity (Engeström, 2001). Particularly, the objective and the motive of internationalising the curriculum were not implicitly or explicitly discussed at the course level by most of the academics involved in the delivery of the two programs. The academics did implement some strategies for internationalising their courses because of their understanding of their students' needs rather than following IoC guidelines or requirements set by their institution. Undeniably, there was no benchmark for the academics to compare and contrast or propose a range of possibilities to enhance IoC at FTU. Therefore, the possibility of expansive transformations in this activity system at FTU, if evident, could only occur at a negligible level.

Regarding the expansive learning among management personnel and academics teaching in the FUPs, there was a form of expansive learning among these above-mentioned educators. More specifically, these educators constructed new knowledge of and practices for internationalising the curriculum when they became involved in the process of developing the curriculum for FUPs. The findings showed that they endeavoured to put the internationalisation of the curriculum into practice. Their construction of the activity of IoC as well as acquisition of knowledge and skills for completing this activity reflected their engagement in an expansive learning process. This process manifested their resolution of continually evolving tensions and contradictions facing their engagement with the IoC activity. From their own perspectives, management personnel and academics utilised mediating tools to construct the object or objects as discussed in Section 7.4. This indicated their ability of understanding the contexts of internationalising the curriculum and transforming their practice in conjunction with their existing circumstances. It could be said that the reformulation of problems and creation of new tools for resolving these problems made by management personnel and academics engaged in the FUPs were seen as part of expansive learning which occurred at FTU.

In summary, the five principles of AT were used to discuss the 'internationalising curriculum' activity systems at FTU. In the following part, the Theory of Expansive Learning was employed to further explore the academics' implementation of IoC in their courses.

7.3.4 Analysing the 'IoC' activity systems through the lens of Theory of Expansive Learning.

As proposed in Chapter 4, both the third generation AT and the Theory of Expansive Learning were employed to analyse academics' strategies for IoC implementation. In the

following sections, these strategies are discussed with reference to the matrix for analysis of expansive learning proposed by Engeström (2001). All components associated with expansive learning particularly the concepts of 'expansion' and 'the cycle of expansive learning' need to be discussed (Engeström, 2001, 2014). Additionally, when examining strategies for IoC implementation used by academics, boundary crossing, knotworking, cognitive trails, and labour power also need to be considered.

7.3.4.1 Expansion.

Based on Engeström's (1987) definition, expansion was thought to occur if academics transformed their individual actions to a new collective activity of internationalising curriculum. The analysis of interview data showed that there was only a small degree of 'expansion' evident.

This 'expansion' emerged when academics became involved in culturally new activity patterns and new work practices related to IoC when they delivered courses in the FUPs at FTU. They took a range of actions in order to internationalise their courses, for example, incorporating local dimensions into the course content. Additionally, academics recognised contradictions in their current IoC activity and took action to resolve hindrances facing them. This, according to Engeström (1987), reflects an 'expansion'.

The data also revealed that academics redefined and re-organised Object 1 in the IoC activity systems at FTU. They defined Object 1 as development of students' *international, intercultural* and *local* competence rather than development of students' *international* and *intercultural* competence only. The redefining of Object 1 was to achieve Object 2 (academic standards, professional education and employability), which subsequently led to Object 3 (development of students' global awareness, international perspectives and intercultural competence in order for students to work locally and globally). Therefore, the academics' reorganisation of Object 1 also mirrored an 'expansion' (Engeström, 1987).

However, Engeström (1987) emphasised that expansion resulted from a process of changing from current individual actions to a new collective activity and signified qualitative change. Though academics themselves took actions to internationalise their course, most did not collaborate closely with others teaching in the FUPs, which hindered the process of changing from current individual actions to a new collective activity among academics. Consequently, the quality change of internationalising curriculum activity at FTU did not occur

significantly as most academics only took individual actions instead of collaborating with others to implement IoC at FTU.

In summary, the analysis of interview data indicated that there was only a limited degree of 'expansion' occurring in the internationalising curriculum activity systems in which the academics were engaged. The next section will discuss the types of learning actions happening within 'the cycle of expansive learning' in the IoC activity systems at FTU.

7.3.4.2 The cycle of expansive learning.

According to Engeström (2014), an expansive learning cycle includes an ideal-typical sequence of learning actions comprising questioning, analysing, modelling, examining, implementing, reflecting and consolidating. In the IoC activity systems at FTU, academics only engaged in certain learning actions rather than experiencing the ideal-typical sequence of identified by Engeström (1987, 2014). When academics teaching in FUPs at FTU commenced questioning the existing practice of IoC, the expansive learning cycle began (Engeström, 2014). These academics questioned or rejected certain aspects such as local content, quality assurance and assessment and evaluation processes. They also analysed their students' needs and highlighted the necessity of providing students with professional and practical knowledge in order for them to work in both local settings and international environments. As such, there was evidence that the academic participants took the first two actions: *questioning* and *analysing* in the cycle of expansive learning (Engeström, 2014). However, there was no evidence of implementation of the third action, i.e. *modelling*, to develop a clear and simplified IoC model. If such a model was developed, it would provide guidelines for IoC implementation and offer solutions to IoC challenges facing implementers at FTU.

The lack of an IoC model also prevented actions such as *examining*, *implementing*, *reflecting* and *consolidating* occurring in the cycle of expansive learning (Engeström, 1987, 2014). This reflected a gap in the IoC process within the FUPs at FTU, which was implemented without reference to any specific model of IoC implementation. There was a lack of reflection on or evaluation of the IoC process; as a result, some lessons for improving the process of IoC implementation at FTU were unlikely to be drawn.

In short, it could be argued that the development of an expansive learning cycle including an ideal-typical sequence of learning actions among academics is of great importance. Through this expansive learning cycle, a model of IoC implementation appropriate to the FTU context could be developed, which would provide guidelines for FTU

specifically or Vietnam more broadly. While the model is not an end product it is a part of IoC process at FTU and a critical part in the expansive learning cycle in which academics engage, ultimately enabling FTU to transform or internationalise its institution.

7.3.4.3 Boundary crossing, knotworking, cognitive trail and labour power.

According to Engeström (2014), undergoing the expansive learning cycle may enhance academics' professional expertise. When examining how academics' professional expertise developed within and between the 'internationalising curriculum' activity systems at FTU, the idea of boundary-crossing was taken into account (H. Daniels, 2008). The notion of boundary-crossing refers to the idea of expertise development originating from practitioners' horizontal collaboration across sectors (H. Daniels, 2008). At FTU, the activity of internationalising curriculum was seen as a new professional practice being created through collaboration among IoC implementers including program managers, course coordinators and academics from different professional backgrounds. Through boundary zones, these IoC implementers expressed multiple alternatives and challenged accepted conventions by using their own experienced concepts (Engeström, Pasanen, Toiviainen, & Haavisto, 2005). For example, some academics raised their concerns about and sought approval to adapt the content of teaching and assessment in their courses (AC12, AC15 or AC26). This demonstrated an understanding of the importance of addressing students' needs and developing graduate employability at both the local and global level. It also reflected their engagement in debates to create a new negotiated way of internationalising the curriculum of FUPs at FTU (Engeström, Pasanen, Toiviainen, & Haavisto, 2005).

The activity of internationalising the curriculum of FUPs involved a form of collaborative work among academics or between academics and management personnel at FTU, which was seen as "knotworking" (Yamazumi, 2009, p. 215). In reality, this "knotworking" reflected the partly unprepared practices of intense cooperation between academics and management personnel at FTU (Yamazumi, 2009). The data showed that academics themselves were not tightly connected together; yet, they collaborated with management personnel to resolve problems and swiftly propose solutions if required by their common object (Yamazumi, 2009). For instance, a number of academics outlined different strategies for internationalising the curriculum and challenged the established perceptions of IoC by incorporating their own perspectives (AC15, AC27, AC36). They also engaged in

discussion to seek approval for implementing their internationalised courses appropriate to the FTU context.

Taking such particular actions as mentioned above, academics presented their own cognitive trails when internationalising the curriculum of FUPs at FTU. Their cognitive trails signified a form of personified cognition produced by their movement through space and time Engeström (2001). The cognitive trails specified the landscape where academics had acted, and their actions functioned as a medium to facilitate future actions of internationalising the curriculum. It could be said that the future actions specified in the 'internationalising curriculum' activities stemmed from their cognitive trails (Engeström, 2001). However, at FTU, academics' actions mostly occurred individualistically rather than collectively through shared discussions and reflections on IoC implementation. The lack of collaboration prevented the academics from getting engaged in an entire expansive cycle comprising an ideal-typical sequence of learning actions (Engeström, 2014).

According to Engeström (2014), quality collaboration is of critical importance to enhance expansive learning in the workplace. The quality of collaboration between labour powers within activity systems and between related activity systems is part of Engeström's idea of expansive learning in the workplace (H. Daniels, 2008). Therefore, it could be argued that collective labour power would be reconstructed if quality collaboration occurred among academics and management personnel engaging in the 'internationalising curriculum' activity systems at FTU.

In summary, academics and management personnel at FTU underwent the process of learning something unstable, even undefined or "understood ahead of time" (Engeström, 2001, p. 137). At FTU, internationalising the curriculum of the FUPs was a form of activity that academics and management personnel learnt in the workplace, meaning IoC was literally being learnt while it was being created. In the next section IoC implementation is discussed in relation to curriculum design and the level of internationalisation.

7.4 Curriculum Design and Level of Curriculum Internationalisation at FTU

Curriculum design at FTU is first discussed in relation to ideology and pedagogy, prior to utilising the Tripartite model of training programme design suggested by Huang (2017) as an instrument to assess the level of curriculum internationalisation of the FUPs at FTU.

7.4.1 Ideology, pedagogy and curriculum design.

The literature demonstrates a number of factors that impact on curriculum design and implementation including teachers' beliefs about educational aims and goals, content knowledge and discipline, teacher identity and the teaching and learning process (Roberts, 2015). At FTU, the development and implementation of the curriculum for FUPs were oriented by the understandings of program managers, course coordinators and academics about educational purposes, especially the expected learning outcomes students need to achieve from their course of study.

According to Kitano (1997), the four components of curriculum including content, instruction, assessment and classroom dynamics influence the level of course integration. The interview results showed that the courses in the FUPs mirrored 'inclusive' courses whose curricular were designed to facilitate active learning and promote students' participation in the acquisition and construction of knowledge (Kitano, 1997).

Curriculum is therefore defined in relation to ideologies and educational pedagogies (Kitano, 1997). As discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.2.2.1, there are six different ideologies that influence curriculum design and implementation (Adamson & Morris, 2014). In referring to their work, it could be argued that almost all program managers, course coordinators and academics in the current study adhered to the second ideology identified by Adamson and Morris (2014), relating to social and economic efficiency, which views the development of human capital as the central role of education. Within this ideology, program managers, course coordinators and academics designed the curriculum to prepare responsible citizens with necessary attributes to contribute to the economic development and prosperity of the society (Adamson & Morris, 2014). In short, the ideology of social and economic efficiency shaped the way the program managers and course coordinators designed the curriculum and influenced the academics to follow or adapt the curriculum so as to provide students with a certain level of autonomy in learning.

Additionally, the academics' educational ideology about their responsibility appeared to drive their ways of utilising teaching strategies within a certain kind of curriculum (Kitano, 1997). In their work, Kalantzis and Cope (2012) classify three types of curriculum related to learning and teaching approaches namely: mimesis, synthesis and reflexivity. Based on their curriculum classification, FTU appeared to develop "synthetic curriculum" which facilitates learners' deconstruction and then reconstruction of knowledge as well as reflection of their

subjectivity, perspective and identity for its FUPs (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 277). In fact, this type of curriculum was linked with a typical kind of pedagogy reflecting the philosophy of teaching and learning at FTU. Intercultural competence pedagogy (Byram, 2008; Witte & Harden, 2011) which provides students with professional knowledge through the formal curriculum and a range of extra-curricular activities was also evident within FTU (FTU, 2018b), although there was a lack of specific extra-curricular activities embedded into the two examined FUPs as discussed in Section 7.2.2.1.

7.4.2 Level of internationalisation of the curriculum and FTU.

The Tripartite model proposed by Huang (2017) can be used as a reference point for identifying the level of curriculum internationalisation that has been achieved at FTU. This model of training program design comprises a “(1) Knowledge Dimension, (2) Action Dimension and (3) Reflection Dimension” (p. 186).

From the analysis of the data presented in the current study, there is an evident emphasis within FTU on the Knowledge Dimension, referring to the enhancement of students’ awareness and appreciation of other foreign norms and cultures which “provide guidance and direction in developing intercultural relationships between peoples and countries” (Huang, 2017, p. 186). This dimension aims to equip students with the basic knowledge to “effectively work and live through the process of intercultural or international interactions” (Huang, 2017, p. 186). The findings revealed that all formal and informal activities in the FUPs such as teaching and learning, assessment or extra-curricular activities were designed to develop students’ understanding of international and intercultural aspects. However, it should be noted that if the internationalisation exclusively focuses on the course content, the development of the intercultural dimensions will not be accomplished since the issues of identity and engagement are not addressed (Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino, & Kohler, 2003).

The Action Dimension requires students “to act and react in interculturally appropriate ways with the awareness of intercultural diversity and with a good command of intercultural knowledge or international conventions” (Huang, 2017, p. 187). In the examined FUPs, through formal learning and assessment activities including role play, group work, group presentations or written projects, students obtained skills of construing intercultural phenomena, connecting it with their own culture and exploring different cultural values (Huang, 2017). However, the lack of opportunities for FTU students to network with others in

an international setting hindered their ability “to act and react in interculturally appropriate ways” in “a new, international professional context” (Edwards et al., 2003, p. 191).

The Reflection Dimension incorporates critical reflection of “certain cultural phenomena” (Huang, 2017, p. 187). This dimension, thus, facilitates students’ capability to learn from intercultural interactions, through the development of social and interpersonal skills, the capability of making sense of problems, and the ability to perform properly in different cultural settings (Earley & Ang, 2003; Feng, 2016; Mendenhall et al., 2013; Paul & Mukhopadhyay, 2005). In the current study, most participants were aware of the need for students to engage in diverse cultural and international settings to enhance their knowledge, skills and attitudes, so they managed to provide some opportunities for engaging with international students, foreign guest speakers and professional experts.

As outlined, the model proposed by Huang (2017) provides a useful means to assess the level of curriculum internationalisation of the FUPs at FTU, and in fact any training programs which aim to develop students’ international and intercultural competence. It can therefore be employed as an inclusive and systematic guide to those engaged in designing the curriculum for the FUPs at FTU.

In summary, FTU appeared to focus on developing “synthetic curriculum” which enabled students to deconstruct, then reconstruct knowledge and reflect on their subjectivity, perspective and identity (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 277). This curriculum was designed based on the intercultural competence pedagogy (Byram, 2008; Witte & Harden, 2011). Through this pedagogy, students acquired professional knowledge from the formal curriculum and a range of extra-curricular activities on and off campus (FTU, 2018b). It could be said that the three dimensions outlined by Huang (2017) were taken into consideration at FTU when developing the curriculum of the FUPs. As Huang (2017) argues, one dimension is probably noticeable and occurs predominantly at a specific period; however, these three dimensions are typically correlated and intertwined in program design. From the analysis of the survey and interview data in the current study, it could be argued that participants placed more emphasis on the Knowledge Dimension than the Action or Reflection Dimensions when designing the curriculum of the FUPs. Therefore, it is suggested that FTU should balance the inclusion of these three dimensions when designing educational programs aimed at facilitating the development of international and intercultural competence. Using Huang’s (2017) model as a referencing benchmark would be a good starting point.

7.5. The impact of the offering of FUPs on internationalisation at FTU

The impact of offering FUPs on FTU's internationalisation were inferred from survey and/or interview data with management personnel and academics. Through the analysis of the survey, the themes and sub-themes that emerged from the interviews and the explicit or implicit claims from the participants in this study, a number of key impacts were evident.

To begin with, internationalisation of FTU through the offering of FUPs created positive impacts on internationalisation of HE in Vietnam. Most participants in the current study agreed with this proposition, and generally transnational programs such as the FUPs have been regarded as an increasingly vital part of the internationalisation of HE (Naidoo, 2010). According to Keevers et al. (2014), a rapid increase in transnational programs has brought a range of opportunities for countries pursuing capacity building, for universities, and for staff and student learning. The impacts of transnational programmes specifically and transnational higher education broadly are likely to be "wide-ranging and accrue to both receiving and source country" (Naidoo, 2010, p. 7). Obviously, through the offering of FUPs at FTU, source countries such as USA and UK might benefit from revenue generation (Naidoo, 2010). Meanwhile, Vietnam acts as a receiving country which "is promoted through capacity and capability building" (Naidoo, 2010, p. 7). Moreover, the process of internationalisation could be regarded as an influential tool for higher education transformation (Malete, 2016). Developing countries like Vietnam therefore "need to develop clear higher education and internationalisation agenda and commit resources" to implement higher education transformation (Malete, 2016, p. 52).

Second, the establishment of FUPs also enhanced internationalisation at FTU in terms of mobility, transferability and internationalisation at home. Both program and student mobility were facilitated through the offering of the FUPs, which Altbach and Knight (2007), describe as a means of utilising transnational education initiatives. One of the transnational education activities is known as 'program mobility', which reflects the movement of HE programs being delivered locally in developing nations through partnership agreements with universities abroad (J. Knight, 2012). In the current study, the introduction of FUPs like the FTU-LMET program reflected a current trend in international education, i.e. 'program mobility' (J. Knight, 2012) in transnational education. Though delivered on the FTU campus, the program offered students a degree awarded by LMET (PM1, PM4).

Additionally, the findings demonstrated that implementation of FUPs was regarded as a means for FTU to internationalise its institution (PM3). These programs created the flexibility and opportunities for Vietnamese tertiary students to enjoy international education either onshore or abroad (PM1, PM4), thus enhancing student mobility and international convertibility. Most participants acknowledged that these programs provided students with more study options and a flexible level of mobility as they could choose to study entirely at FTU campus or transfer to partner institutions to complete their study (PM1, PM2, PM6, PM8). Therefore, it could be argued that these programs facilitated student mobility and transferability.

The offering of FUPs also enabled FTU to implement internationalisation at home. Interview participants acknowledged that these programs played a part in (1) promoting international student exchange; (2) providing local students with opportunities to experience international education; (3) creating an international teaching and learning environment on campus; and (4) developing transnational teaching teams at FTU campus. This mirrored the activities related to internationalisation at home described in the literature (de Wit, 2011).

Third, the offering of FUPs also impacted IoC of local programs at FTU. In reality, higher education internationalisation was implemented at FTU prior to the introduction of the FUPs. The introduction of EMI programs known as *High Quality Programs* (HQs) at FTU in 2007 reflected FTU's endeavour to internationalise its institution. According to some participants, the existence of HQs served as a grounding for the implementation of FUPs in subsequent years (PM1, PM2, PM4). More importantly, there was a reversed internationalisation impact from the offering of FUPs on local programs such as HQs or domestic programs (PM2, PM3, AC32, AC33, AC34). There was also an acknowledgement of the need to develop rounded-training programs for students regardless of the program in which they were enrolled (AC32, AC33). Experience in different transnational programs was also perceived as enabling academics to make changes and improvements when teaching in other programs such as HQs (AC26, AC27, AC34, AC35).

It could be said that FTU developed FUPs as a part of its internationalisation activities. Together with the implementation of HQs, the offering of FUPs enhanced 'internationalisation at home' at FTU. It is therefore argued that the implementation of such transnational programs as FUPs, if successful and reputable, "can enhance an institution's prestige in a particular location" (Ziguras, 2007, p. 19).

Fourth, the offering of FUPs were possible due to a number of critical factors including FTU's internal strengths and external support and resources. Among these factors, academics were considered to be of great importance, thus influencing the implementation of FUPs at FTU. As the findings revealed, most academics had obtained either a Masters or PhD in an English speaking country or through a western university, meaning their qualifications and content knowledge were appropriate for the international context they were engaging with as they were more likely to "understand the educational approach and teaching style of the awarding institution" (Ziguras, 2007, p. 22). The findings showed that together with their international education and work experience in higher education, the academics' understanding of the requirements for teaching, learning and assessment and their application of knowledge and skills for teaching in the FUPs facilitated internationalisation of their courses. Their involvement in the FUPs also opened up opportunities for professional learning (Ziguras, 2008), albeit limited ones, as the academics' experience in transnational teaching created an incentive for reflection and stimulated transnational learning (K. Smith, 2013).

Fifth, the offering of FUPs enabled FTU to gain deeper insights into IoC implementation, IoC challenges and approaches to overcoming these challenges. In terms of implementation, engagement in the process led to an awareness of key IoC issues in transnational programs. For instance, there was acknowledgement of the need for incorporating local content into transnational programs such as FUPs (Clarke et al., 2016; Ziguras, 2007), the selection of core and adaptable content to assure equivalence and curriculum alignment in such programs (Clarke et al., 2016; K. Smith, 2010) and quality assurance through curriculum review and evaluation (Clarke et al., 2016). The findings showed that when internationalising the curriculum of FUPs, FTU targeted to "design learning outcomes, learning activities, and assessment tasks that link to local context and students' professional practice" (Clarke et al., 2016, p. 367). As Ziguras (2007) argues, local examples and contextualisation often facilitated students' understanding of "abstract ideas and theories" (p. 18).

At FTU, the IoC of FUPs was implemented by management personnel and academics who knew the student cohort and local context (Clarke et al., 2016), enabling adaptation and delivery that increased "cultural, personal, professional and global relevance to students" (Clarke et al., 2016, p. 367). In terms of IoC challenges, the two most concerning issues

mentioned by participants included the training support provided for academics teaching in the FUPs and the improvement of facilities and training resources. Management personnel and academics were thus more mindful of the pressing need for PD provided for academics (Clarke et al., 2016; Keevers et al., 2014; Leask, 2008a; Ziguras, 2008). There was a concern about the management of transnational teaching teams and PD was noted as a key focus by both management personnel and academics (e.g. PM2, PM4, PM8, AC1, AC12, AC15, AC34). The improvement of facilities, teaching and learning resources was seen as a must for universities pursuing the internationalisation of their institutions (AC26, AC27, AC32).

Academics also acknowledged that resourcing and support were limited and there was a mismatch between expectations and the reality of internationalisation within an environment which lacked some of the support structures underpinning successful internationalisation undertakings. For instance, though students and staff in the FUPs were able to access core texts provided by the awarding institutions (PM2, PM3, AC1, AC36), access to other library resources of the awarding institution were limited (PM4, PM8, AC27, AC34). Other important facilities such as “a dedicated space with fast internet access, printing facilities, and technical/library support” (Ziguras, 2007, p. 24) were not well provided at FTU, adding to the challenges faced by academics. Therefore, PD and teaching resources/facilities were the two major recommended areas for improvement, highlighted by academics as influential factors impacting the internationalisation agenda at FTU.

Through their engagement in developing and delivering the FUPs, participants were able to develop specific strategies to overcome, or at least mediate, the challenges they faced in the IoC process. Teacher PD was noted to be a critical element by both management personnel (e.g. PM1, PM2, PM4, PM8) and many academics (e.g. AC1, AC12, AC15), particularly in relation to issues of equivalence (Clarke et al., 2016,). As such, access to appropriate PD was a major recommendation made by participants.

Keevers et al. (2014) argue that the PD agenda for transnational programs needs to be “collaboratively designed and negotiated, context-sensitive and specific, practice-based” (p. 232). They suggest that when transnational teaching teams engage in curriculum design and learn together in their regular working setting, the dialogue and relationships among team members are reinforced. Leask (2004b) also highlighted the value of collaboration between local and international team members to develop localised case studies to demonstrate theories and principles.

There was an acknowledgement by academic participants in particular, that PD was necessary but also limited and with little collaboration in the FTU context. It could be argued that the community of practice among academics involved in IoC implementation at FTU was not systematically established. According to Dunn and Wallace (2005), the establishment of “broader, more inclusive professional communities of practice” (p. 3) enabled universities to deal with the issues related to the quality of transnational programs. In these communities, the role of local academics was acknowledged to be important and they should be treated as equally as other members of the community of professional practice (Leask, 2004b). They should be provided “with autonomy to adapt curriculum to suit the local context, and the diversity of the student cohort” (Clarke et al., 2016, p. 370). The engagement of local academics in designing and implementing the curriculum of transnational programs could be seen as an approach to “encounter western/Eurocentric paradigm” (Clarke et al., 2016, p. 370). As Clarke et al. (2016) argue, if the content in the curriculum of transnational programs is entirely unalterable, “curriculum material is in danger of espousing colonial attitudes, and western and Eurocentric models of globalisation” (p. 370).

Finally, both management personnel and academics highlighted the establishment of good partnerships and collaboration with overseas institutions as an important aspect. It could be argued that establishing partnerships with reputable international HE institutions played a critical part in the internationalisation of non-western tertiary institutions like FTU. According to Ziguras (2007), the outcome of the program is reliant on the choice of overseas partner which is considered to be of major importance. In the current study, all management personnel from FTU and its partners acknowledged solid partnerships and collaboration at the management level in the FUPs, however, most academics noted a lack of collaboration. This supports K. Smith’s (2010) argument about the importance of a “collaborative partnership involving teaching staff in developing curriculum activities which allow for shared experiences and localised adaptation” (K. Smith, 2010, p. 804). It appeared that to better develop such programs as FUPs, FTU should involve academics from both FTU and its partners in the process of designing “hybrid subjects which combined glocalised curricula with local relevance” (K. Smith, 2010, p. 804). More importantly, FTU should develop a framework of PD for academics involved in transnational programs. The framework proposed by Clarke et al. (2016) could be used as a reference since it “provides a tool to help resolve issues of equivalence and adaptability that is grounded in effective contemporary education practice”

(p. 367). The framework, as Clarke et al. (2016) claim, was developed to assist “academic developers support teacher transitions into transnational education” (p. 367). These researchers therefore argue that “where possible a collaborative and inclusive team-based approach with mutually respectful relationships, and horizontal management structures are the most effective way for transnational educators to adapt and implement curriculum materials and ensure quality educational outcomes” (Clarke et al., 2016, p. 367).

Both management personnel and academics made recommendations related to provision of PD and training for academics, improvement of facilities, teaching and learning resources and development of partnerships with reputable HE institutions overseas. These aspects have been cited in the literature, especially with regard to internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam (A. Dang et al., 2013; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018b). This indicates that Vietnamese institutions like FTU need to prioritise and invest more in both human resources and facilities in order for them to internationalise their institutions.

It can be argued that there are still a number of challenges facing IoC implementers at FTU. In reality, the offering of FUPs reflected one of FTU’s main internationalisation strategies, as the associated validation and articulation factors enabled FTU to gain experience in transnational education. Subsequently, FTU can advance this through further involvement in other types of transnational education such as franchising or international branch campuses with other institutions in Asian countries like Korea and Japan (FTU, 2018b).

7.6 Summary of Chapter 7

This chapter provided a discussion of the data presented in Chapters 5 and 6 through a number of different lenses, enabling the range of theoretical perspectives presented in the thesis to be more fully explored. While links were made to various bodies of literature, these were at times exclusive to one section of the chapter, while others were more broadly related. The chapter linked internationalisation literature with the findings generally and more specifically using Activity Theory, and one evaluation model to examine the internationalisation process that has occurred in two specific programs at FTU. The next chapter provides a synthesis of the findings from this study, towards conclusions about the research questions and a set of recommendations for internationalising curriculum that are particularly pertinent for universities such as FTU.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

This final chapter of the thesis draws together the understandings that emanated from the data collected to answer the main research question relating to IoC in a Vietnamese context. It begins with a brief review of the relationship between globalisation, internationalisation and internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam. It then recaps on the notion of IoC as a strategy for internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam. Next, a summary of the research findings related to IoC implementation in the two studied programs at FTU is provided. The major contributions and limitations of the study are also presented along with a set of recommendations for future IoC implementation and future research possibilities.

8.1 Globalisation, internationalisation, and internationalisation of the curriculum in Vietnam

As N. Nguyen and Tran (2018) assert, globalisation and internationalisation have been regarded as drivers for reforming higher education in Vietnam. Together with the globalisation and internationalisation trends, the changing local demands have forced the Vietnamese government to employ numerous reform strategies for internationalising HE (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a), one of which is internationalisation at home (Beelen, 2011; Harrison, 2015) or IoC (Leask, 2015; L. Tran et al., 2018).

IoC in western contexts tends to focus on providing both local and international students with international content and cultural differences (Leask, 2015). It means that the curriculum is designed for developing knowledge and skills for both local and international students so that they can work in an international environment (Leask, 2015). By contrast, it could be argued that IoC in non-western contexts emphasises the need for incorporating not only international but also local content in the curriculum. In reality, the curriculum of foreign programs in non-western universities like FTU is mapped and designed primarily based on the international curriculum provided by western universities (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a). This type of curriculum itself contains international aspects. Therefore, internationalising the curriculum in non-western settings involves the process of internationalising and localising the curriculum, to prepare students to work in both international and local contexts.

Internationalisation at FTU was perceived as being accomplished through both internationalisation and localisation of the curriculum of the FUPs. Furthermore, it was

evident from the data that critical elements such as equivalence and curriculum alignment highlighted by a number of scholars in transnational education (e.g. Clarke et al., 2016; McBurnie, 2008; Sanderson et al., 2010; K. Smith, 2010; Ziguras, 2007) were taken into consideration when designing the curriculum of the FUPs at FTU.

In order to internationalise the curriculum and enhance the teaching and learning quality of HE in Vietnam, the Vietnamese government has implemented an internationalisation project in which a number of elite Vietnamese universities established international programs known as Advanced Programs (L. Tran et al., 2018). These programs, being initiated in 2006, have been instructed in English and designed based on the imported curriculum from well-regarded universities ranking in the top 200 universities in the world (L. Tran et al., 2018). MOET's report on the 10-year implementation of these programs shows that 37 were established in Vietnam through the three implementation phases (N. Tran et al., 2019).

Apart from the Advanced Programs, the Vietnamese government also promoted the establishment of joint and twinning programs conducted in English, which reflects "another distinctive characteristic of internationalisation of Vietnamese higher education" (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a, p. 8). Currently, there have been roughly 300 programs joint-trained between Vietnamese universities and foreign partners in 32 countries (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a, p. 8). Studies of joint training programs in Vietnam have been contradictory, with concerns raised about the level of IoC implementation (e.g. L. Tran et al., 2018; L. Tran et al., 2016) but also acknowledgment of positives (Hoang et al., 2018; N. Tran, Hoang, & Vo, 2019). For instance, Tran and his associates (2019) explore students' perceptions of the impact of Advanced Programs on their employability and career prospects. Their findings show that the Advanced Programs are perceived to facilitate students' development of human capital and social networks, provide students with mobility opportunities to enhance their cultural understanding, as well as increase their career adaptability and professional identity (N. Tran et al., 2019).

The Vietnamese government's comprehensive regulation of "the number and type of providers, the scope and quality of their offerings, and recognition of their qualification" (Ziguras, 2008, p. 47) enabled Vietnamese universities to establish partnerships with recognised HE institutions overseas. This obviously played a critical role in the internationalisation of non-western tertiary institutions like the university examined in this

study. Although this study also examines an Advanced and Joint Program in Vietnam, the focus has been on the perceptions of those involved in implementing these programs and the associated strategies used for internationalising the curriculum of such programs. A summary of the research findings related to IoC implementation at FTU in Vietnam is provided in the next section.

8.2 Summary of research findings in response to the research questions

The main research question underpinning this study was, *How is IoC implemented by a Vietnamese university which offers foreign undergraduate programs (FUPs) in partnership with western universities?*

In order to answer the main question, five sub-questions were devised, namely:

1. How is IoC perceived by the management team and academics in FUPs?
2. What contextual layers impacting IoC are perceived by management personnel and academics?
3. In what ways do management personnel and academics internationalise FUPs?
4. What enablers and blockers of IoC are perceived by management personnel and academics in FUPs?
5. In what ways, if any, does the offering of FUPs impact on the internationalisation of the university?

Through interviews with eight program managers/course coordinators and 17 academics and 34 surveys with academics, a large range of data was collected related to key aspects associated with IoC in two FUPs at FTU, a university in a non-western setting. These aspects include perceptions relating to internationalisation in general and IoC in particular, IoC strategies, key issues related to IoC, the level of IoC implementation at FTU and the impacts of the offering of FUPs on internationalisation at FTU. The results from both the surveys and the interviews provided insights into the perceptions about and approaches to internationalisation. The conceptual framework proposed by Leask and Bridge (2013) provided an analytical tool as did third generation Activity Theory and the Theory of Expansive Learning for analysing the data in a contextual way. While these approaches helped identify key issues related to IoC implementation in the context of FTU, the nature and extent of implementation was assessed based on the model proposed by Huang (2017). The impacts of the offering of FUPs on internationalisation at FTU were also considered with reference to the data collected from the surveys and interviews.

As such, it is opportune to return to the main research question in this study: *How is IoC implemented by a Vietnamese university which offers foreign undergraduate programs (FUPs) in partnership with western universities?*

Several approaches to internationalisation were evident in the findings, mirroring internationalisation trends in Asian countries in general, and Vietnam in particular (Huang, 2007; Mok & Yu, 2014; L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a). For instance, the evidence shows that strategic decisions were being made in relation to the two FUPs, including recruitment of international lecturers or Vietnamese lecturers with international experience, incorporation of international business components into courses, and the provision of student exchange programs, international conferences and workshops. These activities aimed to support graduate employability, revenue and education status of FTU, in line with the strategies for internationalising HE institutions in Vietnam as set by the Vietnamese government (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a; L. Tran et al., 2018). Therefore, under the ideology of social economic efficiency (Adamson & Morris, 2014) and the transformalist view (W. Green & Mertova, 2016), FTU could be seen as endeavouring to develop 'inclusive' courses (Kitano, 1997) based on intercultural competence pedagogy (Byram, 2008; Witte & Harden, 2011) with the aim of providing students with discipline-specific knowledge and relevant employability skills (Villar-Orrubia & Rajpal, 2015). In brief, it is argued that the new societal needs of HE in Vietnam, the enhancement of student mobility, income generation, building capacity and capability for quality education were regarded as rationales for FTU internationalising its institution. FTU actually combined three main approaches to internationalisation including the competency approach (Alemu, 2014), ethos approach (J. Knight, 2003) and business approach (Alemu, 2014). This aimed to implement internationalisation at home and internationalising the student experience through a broader university-wide approach (Leask, 2014; L. Tran et al., 2018) or a "whole of institution approach" (Dunn & Wallace, 2008, p. 257).

The findings also supported the work of Leask and her colleagues in relation to the impact of contextual layers including disciplinary, institutional, local, national, regional and global on perceptions of IoC (de Wit & Leask, 2015; Leask & Bridge, 2013). There was evidence of discipline impact in the current study, related to the two FUPs being in the business or economics discipline. IoC in such discipline areas is common as they lend themselves to a focus on the development of a global mindset, knowledge base and skills (Kedia et al., 2001) to deal with the challenges of engaging in an increasingly globalised world (Hor & Matawie,

2006). These disciplines impacted the academics' perceptions of IoC and their implementation of IoC, adding evidence to research on the interrelationship between academics, disciplines, and the perceptions of IoC (Clifford, 2009b; W. Green & Mertova, 2016; Sawir, 2011).

Other contextual layers that were explicitly identified in the current study included internationalisation and globalisation trends (global context and regional context), the Vietnamese government's education policy (national context), the increasing social needs for international and tertiary education (local context), and FTU's internal strengths (institutional context). These contextual factors were thought to be enablers of and sometimes blockers to IoC implementation at FTU, due to how they interrelated in divergent ways to "facilitate and inhibit, drive and shape approaches to internationalization of the curriculum" (de Wit & Leask, 2015, p. xii).

Among those contextual layers, institutional contexts were most readily identified, with academics who were seen as one of the school's internal strengths playing a critical part in fulfilling the school's goals and mission, subsequently satisfying the society's need for human capital (L. Tran et al., 2018). They acted as drivers for and implementers of IoC at FTU (Childress, 2010; Cogan & Grossman, 2009; Dobos, 2011; Woodruff et al., 2015). In reality, using IoC as a strategy for internationalising its institution, FTU did not did not experience such challenges as the lack of local academics capable of teaching in programs instructed in English or the lack of English competence of local students (MOET, 2008; Nguyen, 2009). As the findings revealed, FTU implemented IoC differently compared to other Vietnamese universities which oriented internationalisation "towards adopting Western models of policies, regulations and standardization without critically consideration of national and institutional identity and characteristics" (Tuyết, 2014, p.67). Moreover, when academics collaborated with program managers and course coordinators to internationalise the curriculum of FUPs, they did not follow the tendency of passively importing the curriculum, accepting and following Western norms without taking local context and culture into consideration (Tran & White, 2012; Tuyết, 2014).

The findings revealed that FTU's human capital significantly contributed to the development of FUPs and IoC implementation at FTU. Though the involvement of fly-in academics enabled FTU to promote its internationalisation activities, it also presented challenges with courses being delivered in a much shorter time-frame with "little time for

reflection” (Ziguras, 2008, p. 50). As such, more local academics were engaged in the FUPs at FTU, and as the local teaching staff were qualified and experienced, they could contribute to IoC. Therefore, it is argued that in transnational programs like the FUPs at FTU, the locally employed academics play a foremost role in localising course content and serve as cultural mediators between fly-in lecturers and offshore students (Coleman, 2003).

Furthermore, although Activity Theory and/or the Theory of Expansive Learning have been used to explore education matters in the research literature (T. K. A. Dang, 2013; T. K. A. Dang & Marginson, 2013; Gedera & Williams, 2015; Lockley, 2016), the current study is one of the first examining the strategies for internationalising the curriculum in a non-western context through the lens of Activity Theory and the Theory of Expansive Learning. These two theories provided comprehensive lenses through which to examine the complex nature of the ‘internationalising the curriculum’ (IoC) activity system in the two FUPs offered through FTU. The discussion of AT and Theory of Expansive Learning provided in Chapter 7 illustrated the complex relationships within the activity system and provided lenses for determining how IoC was perceived and implemented in the two programs by the two groups of participants. More importantly, the use of AT also enabled the formation of a new definition of internationalisation of the curriculum in non-western settings.

8.3 Recommendations for IoC implementation in Vietnam

The findings from the current study together with reflection on personal perspectives and experience in international education, highlighted a set of challenges or limitations that need to be addressed in order for IoC implementation to occur more effectively in non-western settings. These challenges or limitations are presented in brackets at the end of each of the following recommendations:

- (1) A transparent formal policy for IoC implementation needs to be developed. Having such a policy would provide stakeholders including leaders, academics, and students with unambiguous concepts and clear philosophy for curriculum internationalisation. The policy should orient the IoC implementation through comprehensive action plans, appropriate frameworks and workable agendas. All related materials should be readily available on the institutions’ website. (In the current study, there was a definite lack of formalisation of IoC, which created challenges and limitations as discussed in sections 5.3.5 and 6.3.2.6).

- (2) A community of practice (CoP) should be created in any institution implementing IoC for the sharing of ideas and support. The CoP should include representatives from all relevant programs, including international partners, but it may need to have layers of representation. Through such CoPs, IoC implementers could collaborate to define contextual factors and develop appropriate responses to IoC blockers. (In the current study, collaboration was perceived as very haphazard and not multi-directional, with little support provided for academics working in foreign programs).
- (3) A model for IoC implementation, that is contextually relevant for non-western settings such as Vietnam needs to be developed. Successful cases of IoC implementation in Vietnam should be reviewed and evaluated by MOET, which has the necessary resources including funds and power. It is recommended that a standard model for implementing IoC should be established and introduced into Vietnamese HE institutions to emulate or adapt to meet their own needs and to provide a benchmark for Vietnamese universities to refer to. (At present, most IoC models or frameworks have been developed from mainly Western understandings of internationalisation. While these provide valuable reference points for non-western institutions, there is a need for a model that is more contextually nuanced).
- (4) Any institution that implements IoC should be required to provide adequate training and on-going PD for all staff but particularly those directly involved with programs that are deemed 'international'. Such training or PD should not be optional or an add-on but factored in to teaching/leadership/administrative workloads and expectations. (Participants in the current study identified inadequate opportunities for training/PD, which impacted on collaboration and shared understandings of IoC in their programs).
- (5) Investment in appropriate teaching and learning facilities, training materials and resources should be prioritised in institutions offering 'international' education. IoC cannot be successfully implemented unless there is sufficient infrastructure available to support staff and students. (In the current study, facilities, resources and particularly infrastructure were limited and inadequate for the purposes of IoC, restricting many opportunities identified as essential for promoting internationalisation and globalisation).
- (6) Institutions involved with IoC need a common quality assurance system for reviewing and evaluating international courses and foreign programs, to safeguard the quality

of teaching and learning of foreign programs or transnational programs (Q. Do, 2018). This system would form the basis of quality assurance with additional levels able to be added to meet individual needs of different partner institutes. (In the current study, quality assurance differed extensively between programs, which impacted on the degree of confidence in the process).

- (7) Partnership agreements with international institutions need to formally spell-out requirements for ongoing engagement, support and collaboration. While finding suitable partners is challenging, Vietnamese HE institutions also need to consider exercising their agency and autonomy in international collaborations to avoid coming across as “a passive borrower and ‘inferior’ player” (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a, p. 9). (In the current study, while participants acknowledged the availability of some support and opportunities associated with partnerships, in reality, this was rare and limited).
- (8) There is a need for a philosophical shift in attitudes towards IoC in non-western institutes, where “borrowing and transposition of foreign programs” (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a, p. 9) is perceived as the norm, despite often not being adapted to Vietnamese teaching and learning contexts. (In the current study, although the idea of ‘importing’ was questioned, the reality was that most participants perceived what they were teaching as requiring local adaptation).
- (9) The competitive model underpinning the current Vietnamese (and broader Asian) approach to IoC is counterintuitive to the societal aims and philosophies. Higher education institutes in Vietnam and Asia need to collaborate rather than compete for external resources and support from international organisations or other institutions regarding IoC implementation. Strengthening collaboration with university partners, overseas or different HE institutions in Vietnam may enable Vietnamese universities to gain more experience in internationalisation in general and in internationalising the curriculum in particular. (In the current study, there was little evidence of any inter country/region collaboration despite many institutes in Vietnam and Asia offering international education).
- (10) The lessons learned from running transnational programs need to spill over into domestic programs to ensure that IoC becomes part of the norm, infiltrating the quality of tertiary education in Vietnam and improving its educational status

regionally and internationally.

8.4 Contribution of this study to IoC implementation in Vietnam

This study is among one of the first studies that investigates strategies for internationalising the curriculum at both program and course level in the Vietnamese context. It examines the issues related to the IoC at a non-western university, FTU in Vietnam, as a case study. As such, it contributes to IoC literature in terms of both theoretical and practical aspects. Eight main contributions are outlined in the following discussion.

First, a review of the literature demonstrates that there is an absence of a clear-cut definition of IoC guiding its implementation in the Vietnamese context. Therefore, the current study raises a concern about the divergent interpretations of curriculum internationalisation that may lead to confusion of the assigned roles for those engaged in the IoC process and the actual IoC implementation in Vietnam.

As Huang (2017) asserts, HE institutions involved in international education may perceive their roles as either education exporters or education importers. Vietnam is considered an education importer (Oliver, Thanh, Elsner & Phuong, 2009); therefore, policy borrowing and learning from the world have been regarded as key approaches to internationalising higher education in Vietnam (Tran et al., 2017). When acting as an education importer, Vietnamese HE institutions' engagement in education internationalisation is typically linked to the notion of importing or borrowing, which needs to be clearly defined to eliminate misinterpretation of IoC in different contexts.

Consequently, the current study highlights the need for redefining the term of internationalisation of the curriculum in non-western contexts. While Leask's (2009) definition of IoC provided the initial starting point, in reality, there are contextual differences between western and non-western tertiary educational settings and a main difference that was highlighted in the current study was the need for incorporating local content in the FUPs. These programs were designed to offer international perspectives, but it was clear from the findings that localisation was an important factor in the Vietnamese context. The *local* dimension needed to be embedded into the foreign programs joint-trained between Vietnamese HE institutions and their overseas partners. In short, incorporating local elements into the curriculum of jointly offered programs such as the Advanced or Joint Programs should be a part of the curriculum internationalising activity in non-western contexts to diminish the negative connotations associated with terms such as importing or borrowing. Therefore, the

definition of internationalising the curriculum in non-western contexts like Vietnam can be redefined with reference to Leask's (2009) definition as follows:

Internationalisation of the curriculum is the incorporation of an international and inter-cultural, and *local* dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning processes and support services of a program of study.

However, a second way of defining IoC became evident when analysing the data through the lens of Activity theory, which provided a clear differentiation of actions occurring in 'IoC' activity systems at FTU specifically or in the IoC process in non-western settings in general. It is argued that through the lens of Activity Theory, the definition of internationalisation of the curriculum of Higher Education institutions in non-western contexts could be formed as follows:

The internationalising curriculum activity involves a number of actions ranging from either *importing* or *borrowing* curriculum to *mapping* curriculum. It also encompasses a range of actions related to the inclusion of *international*, *intercultural* and *local* elements into programs through curriculum content and processes and support associated with learning and teaching.

A second contribution relates to the use of the Theory of Expansive Learning as a second conceptual lens to provide deeper insights into the process of internationalisation of the curriculum at FTU. In reality, contradictions occurred in the 'IoC' activity systems at FTU, which were seen as sources of change and development (Engeström, 2001). The distinctive contradiction manifested in the 'IoC' activity systems at FTU was the second type of contradiction identified by Engeström (2001), which occurred when academics were forced to make adaptations to the curriculum in their courses/programs. Moreover, using the Theory of Expansive Learning as a theoretical lens, the gap in the IoC process in FUPs at FTU was also identified. By analysing the academics' engagement in the cycle of expansive learning (Engeström, 1987, 2014), it could be argued that there was no model of internationalisation of the curriculum developed by academics or IoC implementers at FTU. Therefore, it is recommended that a model be developed and used at FTU, to provide guidelines for IoC implementation at FTU specifically and more broadly in Vietnam, a non-western context. The model should not be regarded as an end product but a part of the IoC process at FTU, to facilitate the transformation and internationalisation of its institution.

Third, the findings from this study provide insights into international cooperation highlighting the need for education importers like Vietnam to become more active and

culturally sensitive when adopting or adapting new norms and practices of teaching and learning. Undeniably, the interaction and collaboration among leaders and academics greatly influences IoC implementation, which consequently affects the transformation process of a university. In reality, FTU's undergoing organisational change is regarded as a response to the Vietnamese government's orientation towards internationalisation of HE in Vietnam (L. Tran & Marginson, 2018a). Having facilities and sufficient human resources facilitates FTU to implement foreign programs like the Advanced Program promoted by MOET. Leaders and academics involved in designing and implementing such a program experience a transformation process. This process reflects the transformation from established norms and practices (e.g. the conventional curriculum as well as the established teaching and learning practices at FTU) into a new form of activity (e.g. internationalisation of curriculum or new approaches to teaching and learning) in a non-western context.

Fourth, the importance of human resource factors was also explored in relation to IoC implementation at FTU. According to Parson and Fidler (2005), to effectively manage internationalisation strategies, HE institutions should possess strong leadership and carefully consider the best ways of managing change and development. All stakeholders such as management teams, teaching academics and administrative staff have their own roles in the process of internationalisation at HE institutions; therefore, it is argued that the reconstruction of collective labour power will exist if there is quality collaboration among academics and management personnel engaging in the 'internationalising curriculum' activity systems at FTU. Obviously, transnational educators like FTU management personnel and academics unsurprisingly encountered "tensions between global modernising trends and local traditional practices" (Dunn & Wallace, 2008, p.2 54). Hence, it could be said that the reformulation of problems and creation of new tools for resolving these problems made by management personnel and academics engaged in the FUPs were seen as part of expansive learning which occurred at FTU. However, as the findings revealed there was only a limited degree of 'expansion' occurring in the internationalising curriculum activity systems in which the academics were engaged.

Fifth, the current study provides support for the conceptual framework proposed by Leask and Bridge (2013). The same contextual layers they identified were found to influence IoC implementation in a non-western university like FTU, with the institutional context considered the most influential. This conceptual framework provided an appropriate

reference point in the current study and therefore should be considered widely applicable for examining IoC in higher education.

Sixth, based on the results regarding associated benefits, challenges and obstacles facing IoC implementers at FTU, the current study provides a set of guidelines and recommendations for implementing IoC in non-western contexts generally and in Vietnam particularly. Therefore, it is argued that apart from improving facilities and resources for teaching and learning, a framework of PD for academics involved in transnational programs should be developed at FTU (Clarke et al., 2016; Leask, et al., 2005). The framework proposed by Clarke et al. (2016) is suggested to be used as a reference since this framework serves as a medium to deal with “issues of equivalence and adaptability that is grounded in effective contemporary education practice” (Clarke et al., 2016, p. 367). Moreover, when offering PD for educators in transnational programs, the four primary aspects reviewed by Hicks and Jarrett (2008) should also be taken into account at FTU. These aspects include (1) the understanding of teaching context, (2) the development and adaptation of the curriculum, (3) the consideration of teaching and learning issues such as the language of instruction and modes of delivery and (4) the development of an intercultural stance (Hicks & Jarrett, 2008, p. 240).

In addition, it should be noted that PD for IoC implementers broadly and academics specifically could be achieved through the establishment of communities of practices (Dunn & Wallace, 2008; Warhurst, 2008; Wenger, 1998). According to Dunn and Wallace (2008), professional communities of practice will be naturally formed when people collaborate to implement common tasks or strategies. However, as the findings showed, this was not a well developed strategy at FTU. It is therefore argued that FTU should establish professional communities of practice, particularly for FUPs as community learning can have a profound influence (Wenger, 1998).

Seventh, an innovation in the current study was utilising the model proposed by Huang (2017) to assess the level of curriculum internationalisation of two foreign programs at FTU. This model provided benchmarks to assess the level of IoC as well as identify the gaps in curriculum development in the two programs. Based on Huang’s (2017) model, it was evident that more focus was put on developing the Knowledge Dimension than the Action and Reflection Dimensions when designing the curriculum of the FUPs. Hence, it is recommended that the three dimensions proposed by Huang (2017) should be equally allocated so that FTU

can provide educational programs targeting enhancement of students' international and intercultural competence.

The eighth and final contribution relates to the identification of positive institutional and even societal impacts relating to internationalisation emanating from the offering of FUPs at FTU. These impacts included: (1) contributing to the internationalisation of HE in Vietnam; (2) enhancing internationalisation at FTU in terms of mobility, transferability and internationalisation at home; (3) influencing internationalisation of the curriculum of local programs at FTU; (4) improving human resources in respect of enhancing academics' teaching capability in transnational programs; (5) offering FTU educators a chance to gain deeper insights into IoC implementation, IoC challenges and approaches to overcoming these challenges. As such, the offering of FUPs demonstrated an approach to internationalisation at FTU. Its engagement in delivering transnational programs in the form of validation and articulation allowed FTU to gain experience in transnational education. In reality, FTU endeavoured to "develop their own academic programs and decrease their reliance on foreign universities" by recruiting "highly qualified academic staff who are centrally involved in curriculum development" (Hicks & Jarrett, 2008, p. 238). Consequently, FTU moved towards other types of transnational education like franchising or international branch campuses with other institutions in Asian countries like Korea and Japan (FTU, 2018c, 2018f).

In summary, the significance of the current research project is highlighted through the eight contributions described in the preceding discussion. The utilisation of a number of conceptual frameworks enabled the development of new understandings and definitions relating to IoC in non western contexts, plus the creation of contextually appropriate guidelines for IoC implementation in such contexts. It also provided an avenue for the personal voice of IoC implementers to be included in the the body of IoC literature.

8.5 Limitations of the study

This study has a number of limitations in terms of scale and scope. To begin with only one institution in one non-western country (Vietnam) was examined. Due to prior personal experience with the actual case, there were also possible limitations associated with the risk of observer bias, cross-cultural research and subjectivity (e.g. Stake, 2005; Yin, 2014) and generalisability (e.g. Cohen et al., 2011; Thomas, 2011). Observer bias is something that has to be constantly monitored but a number of checks were put in place as explained in Chapters 1 (Section 1.3.2) and Chapter 4 (Section 4.1.5). Cross-cultural research also provides a range

of challenges but once again, these were monitored as outlined in Chapter 4 (Section 4.1.6). In terms of generalisability, according to Cohen et al. (2011), there is a trend towards analytical generalisation instead of statistical generalisation in case studies. Therefore, while the results might not be directly generalisable to other similar settings, theories and recommendations developed from the research could still provide useful guidance for other similar settings and in regard to further research.

Another limitation relates to the scope of the study. It only examines two key groups of stakeholders that include leaders (program managers and course coordinators) and academics with regard to their perceptions of IoC implementation. Though there is some discussion related to IoC and student learning, the lack of student voice, their perspectives on IoC implementation, their involvement in IoC at FTU or perceptions of their development of international and intercultural competence reflects a gap in this study.

8.6 Implications for further research in IoC

Drawing on the findings and the potential limitations of this study, the following suggestions are made for further research in IoC in non-western contexts:

First, it is suggested that research is required on both domestic and international students' perceptions and experiences of IoC in non-western contexts. Despite numerous studies being conducted in both Western and non-Western contexts on IoC and student learning, very little research investigates domestic students' perceptions and experiences of internationalisation and their understanding of international students and intercultural relations (Barron, 2006; Haigh, 2009; Leask & Carroll, 2011; Soosay, 2009). However, according to Harrison (2015) there appears to be a common consensus that the development of an internationalised curriculum for international students, home students or both has not been rapid. Also, the research on domestic students' global understanding and their contribution to internationalisation of the institution is very sparse in the literature (Harman, 2005; Teekens, 2000). Furthermore, the engagement of both domestic and international students in the process of IoC might well be a topic for further investigation (Leask, 2014).

Second, the graduates' perceptions of their level of international and intercultural competence obtained from engagement in the foreign programs may be contained within another research area contributing to a better understanding of the actual implementation of IoC in Vietnam. Although some recent studies explore Vietnamese graduates' views on the development of employability and graduate attributes in foreign programs like the Advanced

Program in Vietnam (N. Tran et al., 2019), there is no research on the interrelationship between the IoC and the development of graduates' employability in the Vietnamese context.

Third, another critical aspect, which requires further examination, is the employers' opinions about or feedback on the quality of graduates from FUPs. Particularly, the employers' perceptions of the graduate attributes possessed by graduates from foreign programs needs addressing.

Fourth, it would be valuable to explore in more depth the type of collaboration that actually occurs in international partnerships in FUPs. The international partners' perceptions of their roles and their engagement in the process of IoC in Vietnam are explored to an extent in this thesis but so few participants were involved, that further research on the international partners' views of IoC implementation should be conducted. Moreover, through the examination of partnership collaboration or international partners' involvement in FUPs, it would be beneficial if some models of partnership collaboration were proposed, i.e. the "modes of collaboration that allow for forms of internationalization that are responsive to local needs and values, and which promote forms of reciprocity and exchange" (Ziguras & Pham, 2016, p. 141).

8.7 Conclusion

This chapter concludes the study through restating the main findings relating to how a non-western university internationalised of the curriculum in two foreign degrees that were co-taught by two different western institutions, one in the UK and one in the USA. The study had certain limitations, which were outlined, but it also produced a whole new set of understandings regarding how IoC was perceived and implemented by individuals directly involved in the process in a non-western institution, that would be reflective of other similar institutions, particularly in Asia. Part of the significance of this study lies in the use of several conceptual and theoretical frameworks as lenses for analysis and discussion of the data. This has provided an avenue for extending the current body of literature relating to IoC beyond the main context of western higher education. Through examining participants' perceptions of their actual experience, the need for targeted support has been highlighted as has the need for more supportive and collaborative relationships between western and non-western partners. Another significant aspect of this study is the set of recommendations that emerged which can provide guidance for both FTU and other non-western institutes to develop and implement internationalisation of the curriculum in a more contextually appropriate way.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Letters of invitation to participate in research (emails)

Invitation letter to CSU academics

Dear Lecturers from Colorado State University,

My name is Nhi Luong, a lecturer of English at Foreign Trade University (FTU), Vietnam. I am currently undertaking a PhD at Federation University Australia. My research project aims to examine the strategies used to internationalise the curriculum of the joint-training/co-teaching programs.

I would like to invite you to participate in my research project because of your involvement in the joint-training/co-teaching programs at FTU campus. I have enclosed herewith the Explanatory Statement of my research project in order for you to read it through before making a decision about participating in my study.

If you agree to participate, please click to the following link to complete a survey on the internationalisation of joint-training/co-teaching programs at FTU Vietnam.

Link: ...

Thank you and kind regards,

Nhi Luong

Email: luongphuongnhi@ftu.edu.vn

Invitation letter to LMET academics

Dear Lecturers from London Metropolitan University,

My name is Nhi Luong, a lecturer of English at Foreign Trade University (FTU), Vietnam. I am currently undertaking a PhD at Federation University Australia. My research project aims to examine the strategies used to internationalise the curriculum of the joint-training/co-teaching programs.

I would like to invite you to participate in my research project because of your involvement in the joint-training/co-teaching programs at FTU campus. I have enclosed herewith the Explanatory Statement of my research project in order for you to read it through before making a decision about participating in my study.

If you agree to participate, please click to the following link to complete a survey on the internationalisation of joint-training/co-teaching programs at FTU Vietnam.

Link: ...

Thank you and kind regards,

Nhi Luong

Invitation letter to FTU lecturers

Kính gửi các Thầy, Cô giáo

Tôi là Lương Thị Phương Nhi, giảng viên tiếng Anh kiêm nhiệm tại Trung tâm Phát triển Quốc tế, trường Đại học Ngoại thương (ĐHNT). Tôi xin trân trọng kính mời các Thầy, Cô giáo tham gia vào đề tài nghiên cứu mà tôi đang tiến hành như sau:

Đề tài nghiên cứu:

Quốc tế hóa chương trình đào tạo: Một nghiên cứu tại trường Đại học Ngoại thương (ĐHNT), Việt Nam

Mục tiêu nghiên cứu:

- Tìm hiểu về chiến lược xây dựng và thực hiện các chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài như Chương trình tiên tiến và Chương trình đào tạo liên kết (ĐTLK) tại trường ĐHNT (ví dụ các giảng viên thực hiện việc kết hợp các nội dung mang tính quốc tế và tính liên văn hóa vào các bài giảng và chương trình học như thế nào);
- Những thuận lợi và khó khăn khi xây dựng và thực hiện Chương trình tiên tiến và Chương trình ĐTLK tại trường ĐHNT;
- Một số giải pháp để xây dựng, nâng cao chất lượng giảng dạy và đào tạo của các Chương trình tiên tiến và Chương trình ĐTLK tại ĐHNT nói riêng và tại Việt Nam nói chung.

Đối tượng nghiên cứu: các giảng viên, sinh viên và các cán bộ quản lý Chương trình tiên tiến và Chương trình ĐTLK tại trường ĐHNT.

Thời gian nghiên cứu: 2010 - 2015

Tôi có gửi kèm theo thư này bản tóm tắt nội dung của đề tài nghiên cứu nêu trên.

Để chấp thuận khảo sát, kính mời các Thầy, Cô giáo nhấn vào đường link sau: ...

Xin trân trọng cảm ơn các Thầy, Cô giáo.

Luong Thi Phuong Nhi

Email: luongphuongnhi@ftu.edu.vn

Appendix 2: Survey for Academic participants

Survey: Internationalisation of the curriculum

(Câu hỏi khảo sát về Quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy)

Purpose (Mục đích)

This study aims to investigate the issues related to internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) at a non-Western university, Foreign Trade University (FTU) in Vietnam as a case study. It will involve examining how academics, program managers, and course coordinators internationalise the curriculum of joint-training/co-teaching programs at FTU.

Nghiên cứu này nhằm khảo sát các vấn đề liên quan đến quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy tại trường đại học Ngoại Thương, Việt Nam. Nghiên cứu này sẽ tìm hiểu việc các giảng viên, các cán bộ phụ trách và quản lý chương trình tại trường Đại học Ngoại thương thực hiện quốc tế hóa chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài như thế nào.

Special note (Xin lưu ý):

Khái niệm ‘Joint-training/co-teaching programs’ được hiểu là ‘Các chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài’, đó là các Chương trình tiên tiến, và Chương trình đào tạo liên kết tại trường Đại học Ngoại thương.

Consent (Chấp thuận khảo sát)

Survey participants (Những người tham gia khảo sát)

I acknowledge that I have agreed to take part in the Federation University Australia research project specified above. I have had the project explained to me, and I have read the Explanatory Statement, which I will keep for my records. I understand that participation means that I agree to complete this questionnaire about my experience, observations and reflections in relation to internationalisation of the curriculum at Foreign Trade University (FTU). My consent to participating in the research project is implied by return of this survey.

Tôi xác nhận rằng tôi đồng ý tham gia nghiên cứu của trường Đại học Liên bang Úc đề cập như trên. Tôi đã được giải thích rõ về đề tài nghiên cứu, cũng như tôi đã đọc và lưu lại bản tóm tắt đề tài nghiên cứu trên. Tôi hiểu rằng tham gia khảo sát nghĩa là tôi sẽ hoàn thành bản khảo sát dựa trên kinh nghiệm, quan sát và suy nghĩ của bản thân liên quan đến việc quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy tại trường Đại học Ngoại thương (FTU), Việt Nam. Việc tôi chấp thuận khảo sát đồng nghĩa với việc tôi hoàn thành và gửi lại bản khảo sát này.

Participating in the survey. (Tham gia khảo sát.)

Yes (Có)

No (Không)

PART A

Part A of the survey deals with your work experience in tertiary education and international education. (Phần A của khảo sát này liên quan đến kinh nghiệm làm việc của bạn trong lĩnh vực đào tạo đại học và đào tạo quốc tế.)

1. How long have you been working as a lecturer at FTU? Please tick the appropriate answer. (Bạn đã là giảng viên tại trường Đại học Ngoại thương trong bao lâu? Xin lựa chọn câu trả lời phù hợp.)

- Less than five years 5-10 years Over 10 years

(Dưới 5 năm)

(5-10 năm)

(Trên 10 năm)

2. What kinds of international experiences in teaching and learning or activities of international education have you been involved in? Please tick any that apply. (Kinh nghiệm học tập và giảng dạy hoặc các hoạt động về đào tạo quốc tế nào mà bạn đã từng tham gia? Xin hãy lựa chọn các câu trả lời phù hợp.)

- Studying overseas
(Học tập ở nước ngoài) Participating in international research project(s)
(Tham gia các đề tài nghiên cứu quốc tế)
- Teaching international program(s) abroad
(Giảng dạy các chương trình quốc tế ở nước ngoài) Participating in professional exchange program(s)
(Tham gia các chương trình trao đổi nghiệp vụ ở nước ngoài.)

If others, please specify below. (Nếu có kinh nghiệm hoặc các hoạt động khác liên quan đến đào tạo quốc tế, xin vui lòng ghi rõ bên dưới.)

PART B

Part B of the survey deals with your perceptions of internationalisation activities in your school/department. (Phần B của khảo sát liên quan đến đánh giá của bạn về hoạt động quốc tế hóa tại trường/khoa của bạn đang giảng dạy.)

Which of the following internationalization activities are undertaken by your school/department (please tick any that apply)? (Những hoạt động quốc tế hóa nào sau đây mà trường/khoa của bạn thực hiện? Xin vui lòng đánh dấu những lựa chọn đúng.)

- International franchising of courses
(Nhượng quyền đào tạo các khóa học quốc tế) International student exchange programs
(Chương trình trao đổi sinh viên quốc tế)
- International staff exchange programs
(Chương trình trao đổi giảng viên quốc tế) International research collaborations (Hợp tác nghiên cứu quốc tế)
- Deliberate recruitment of foreign teaching staff
(Tuyển dụng các giảng viên nước ngoài) Deliberate recruitment of home country teaching staff who possess international experience
(Tuyển dụng các giảng viên trong nước có kinh nghiệm học tập và đào tạo quốc tế)
- Inclusion of compulsory units on international business in mainstream undergraduate degrees
(Đưa vào chương trình học cử nhân những môn học chính liên quan đến kinh tế quốc tế) Compulsory inclusion of international content into the syllabi of individual mainstream undergraduate modules
(Bắt buộc đưa các nội dung mang tính quốc tế vào các chương trình giảng dạy của các môn học chính ở bậc cử nhân.)

PART C

Part C of the survey deals with your perceptions of and experiences in internationalisation of the curriculum. (Phần C của khảo sát liên quan đến ý kiến và kinh nghiệm của bạn về việc quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy.)

Please indicate the strength of your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements by marking the appropriate box. (Xin chỉ rõ mức độ đồng ý hoặc không đồng ý với những ý kiến sau bằng cách đánh dấu vào ô phù hợp.)

Key: 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3= neither agree nor disagree; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree

Chú ý: 1= rất không đồng ý; 2= không đồng ý; 3=không có ý kiến; 4= đồng ý; 5= rất đồng ý

	1	2	3	4	5
1. The curricula of joint-training/co-teaching programs have been deliberately designed to produce graduates who... (Chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài được thiết kế nhằm đào tạo các sinh viên...)					
(a) think globally (tư duy toàn cầu)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(b) understand foreign business practices (hiểu các tập quán kinh doanh quốc tế)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(c) understand foreign cultures (hiểu văn hóa nước ngoài)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(d) respect international diversity (tôn trọng tính đa dạng quốc tế)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Student assignments and research projects frequently cover foreign business environments. (Các bài tập và chuyên đề nghiên cứu của sinh viên thường xuyên liên quan đến việc tìm hiểu các môi trường kinh doanh ở nước ngoài.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Case studies and tutorial work on mainstream units frequently involve international business topics. (Các bài tập tình huống và bài tập nhóm của các môn học chính thường liên quan đến các chủ đề về kinh tế quốc tế.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Lectures on mainstream units routinely cover international business issues. (Các bài giảng của các môn học chính thường liên quan đến các vấn đề kinh tế quốc tế.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. The curricula of joint-training/co-teaching programs are designed to assess and grade the intercultural competence of students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

(Chương trình học của các chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài được thiết kế nhằm đánh giá năng lực giao tiếp đa văn hóa của sinh viên.)

6. The curricula of joint-training/co-teaching programs are designed to assess and grade students' capacities to think globally.

(Chương trình học của các chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài được thiết kế nhằm đánh giá và xếp hạng khả năng tư duy toàn cầu của sinh viên.)

7. The international content of the joint-training/co-teaching programs covers a wide range of foreign cultures and countries (Eastern as well as Western).

(Chương trình đào tạo yếu tố nước ngoài có nội dung mang tính quốc tế, liên quan đến các nền văn hóa và các quốc gia khác nhau: cả phương Đông và phương Tây.)

8. In courses where there is international student exchange, the curricula and syllabi will be adjusted, taking account of foreign students' characteristics, cultures, and learning styles.

(Trong các khóa học có trao đổi sinh viên quốc tế, chương trình và đề cương khóa học sẽ được điều chỉnh, dựa vào đặc tính, văn hóa và phương pháp học tập của sinh viên quốc tế.)

9. The curricula and syllabi of joint-training/co-teaching programs are designed to develop students' international and intercultural competence so that students can become global professionals and citizens.

(Chương trình và đề cương môn học của các chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài được thiết kế để giúp sinh viên phát triển khả năng hiểu biết và làm việc trong môi trường quốc tế, môi trường liên văn hóa. Từ đó giúp sinh viên trở thành chuyên gia và công dân toàn cầu.)

10. Do you receive any support when teaching in joint-training/co-teaching programs in your school? If Yes, please go to Question 11. If No, please go to Question 12. (Bạn có nhận được sự hỗ trợ khi bạn tham gia giảng dạy các chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài tại trường bạn không? Nếu Có, xin vui lòng trả lời câu hỏi 11. Nếu Không, xin vui lòng trả lời câu 12.)

Yes (Có)

No (Không)

11. What type of support or training do you receive? (Bạn nhận được sự hỗ trợ hay đào tạo gì?)

12. When teaching in joint-training/co-teaching programs in your school, how do you adapt your course syllabus to meet the needs of your students, of your university and your university's partner? (Khi giảng dạy trong các chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài, bạn đã điều chỉnh chương

trình của khóa học bạn giảng dạy như thế nào để có thể đáp ứng được nhu cầu của sinh viên, của trường bạn và của trường đối tác?)

13. Does your school/faculty support you to internationalise your course? If Yes, how are you supported in developing and delivering IoC in your school? (Trường/khoa của bạn hỗ trợ có hỗ trợ bạn quốc tế hóa chương trình bạn giảng dạy không? Nếu Có, bạn được hỗ trợ như thế nào trong việc xây dựng và thực hiện quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy tại trường của bạn?)

14. What kinds of support or training would you like to receive if you get involved in internationalising the curriculum? (Hình thức hỗ trợ hoặc đào tạo nào bạn muốn có nếu bạn tham gia vào việc quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy?)

PART D

Part D of the survey deals with your perceptions of employability issues for students.

(Phần D của khảo sát liên quan đến quan điểm của bạn về cơ hội việc làm cho sinh viên.)

Would you agree or disagree with the following statements? (Bạn đồng ý hay không đồng ý với những ý kiến sau?)

	Agree (Đồng ý)	Uncertain (Không chắc)	Disagree (Không đồng ý)
(a) Internationalization of the school's activities and/or curriculum improves the employment and career prospects of students. (Quốc tế hóa các hoạt động tại trường và/hoặc chương trình giảng dạy sẽ nâng cao cơ hội việc làm và triển vọng nghề nghiệp cho sinh viên.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(b) Today, employing firms in general want staff who possess international skills and perspectives. (Ngày nay, các công ty nói chung đều muốn tuyển dụng các nhân viên có kỹ năng và quan điểm quốc tế.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(c) Nowadays, graduates need to be capable of working anywhere in the world. (Ngày nay, các sinh viên tốt nghiệp ra trường cần phải có khả năng làm việc ở bất kỳ nơi nào trên thế giới.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(d) Understanding of international and cross-cultural topics is essential for professional success. (Hiểu về các chủ đề quốc tế và các vấn đề giao thoa văn hóa là cần thiết cho sự thành công trong nghề nghiệp.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(f) There is little point in teaching an internationalised curriculum to students who are unlikely ever to work abroad. (Không cần thiết phải dạy một chương trình được quốc tế hóa cho các sinh viên không có dự định làm việc ở nước ngoài.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(g) The inclusion of international content in curricula and syllabuses crowds out other learning material and activities that would be more relevant to the employability of students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

(Việc đưa nội dung mang tính quốc tế vào chương trình và đề cương các khóa học tạo sẽ nên các tài liệu và các hoạt động học phù hợp với đào tạo cho sinh viên.)

(h) Compared to other universities in our sector, a high percentage of our business graduates have always been able to find suitable jobs after leaving the university.

(So với các trường đại học khác trong khối kinh tế, tỷ lệ sinh viên tốt nghiệp chuyên ngành kinh tế của trường Ngoại thương có thể tìm công việc phù hợp sau khi tốt nghiệp cao hơn các trường khác.)

PART E

Part E of the survey deals with your perceptions of key characteristics of intercultural competence. (Phần E của khảo sát liên quan đến ý kiến của bạn về các đặc tính liên quan đến khả năng hiểu biết và làm việc trong môi trường liên văn hóa.)

1. What knowledge and understanding should students develop (please tick any that apply)? (Kiến thức và hiểu biết gì mà sinh viên nên phát triển? Xin vui lòng lựa chọn các câu trả lời phù hợp.)

(a) Knowledge of...(Kiến thức về...)

- equity, social justice and human rights (công bằng, bình đẳng xã hội và quyền con người)
- related social, economic, and political issues (những vấn đề liên quan đến kinh tế, chính trị và xã hội)

(b) Knowledge of... (Kiến thức về...)

- globalisation and interdependence (toàn cầu hóa và tính phụ thuộc lẫn nhau)
- short-term implications for sustainable development (những giải pháp ngắn hạn để phát triển bền vững)

(c) Understanding of how the world operates.. (Hiểu biết về cơ chế hoạt động của thế giới...)

- socially (về mặt xã hội)
- economically (về mặt kinh tế)
- technologically (về mặt công nghệ)
- culturally (về mặt văn hóa)
- politically (về mặt chính trị)
- environmentally (về khía cạnh môi trường)

(d) Recognition of the impact of ... (Nhận thức về ảnh hưởng của...)

- local actions (hành động mang tính địa phương)
- national actions (hành động mang tính quốc gia)
- international actions (hành động mang tính quốc tế)
- decisions for local communities and environments (các quyết định liên quan đến cộng đồng và môi trường địa phương)
- decisions for national communities and environments (các quyết định liên quan đến cộng đồng và môi trường của một quốc gia)
- decisions for international communities and environments (các quyết định liên quan đến cộng đồng và môi trường quốc tế)

(e) Awareness of ... (Nhận thức về...)

- own culture and its perspectives (văn hóa và quan điểm của nước mình)
- other cultures and their perspectives (các nền văn hóa và quan điểm của các nước khác)

(f) Understanding of how knowledge may be constructed differently across cultures in different disciplines.

(Hiểu rằng kiến thức có thể được xây dựng khác biệt như thế nào trong các nền văn hóa khác nhau, trong các lĩnh vực khác nhau.)

(g) Recognition of intercultural and transnational issues relevant to professional practice. (Hiểu biết được các vấn đề về liên văn hóa, các vấn đề xuyên quốc gia liên quan đến tập quán làm việc.)

(h) Recognition of one's membership of, and responsibilities within, both a local and global society. (Nhận thức về quyền và nghĩa vụ của mỗi cá nhân trong cộng đồng xã hội ở phạm vi địa phương và toàn cầu.)

2. *What skills and abilities should students develop (please tick any that apply)? (Những kỹ năng và khả năng gì mà sinh viên nên phát triển? Xin vui lòng lựa chọn các câu trả lời phù hợp.)*

(a) Ability to think "globally" to consider issues from a variety of different perspectives (e.g. social cultural, economic, political and religious, etc.) (Khả năng tư duy toàn cầu để có thể đánh giá các vấn đề từ nhiều khía cạnh khác nhau, ví dụ từ khía cạnh xã hội, văn hóa, kinh tế, chính trị và tôn giáo, v.v.)

(b) Critical analysis of (and the ability to challenge) conventional thinking, injustice and inequality. (Phân tích đánh giá và khả năng đánh giá các quan điểm cũ, các bất công bằng và bất bình đẳng)

(c) Ability to interact and empathize with people from different social, cultural, religious, and linguistic background, both locally and globally. (Khả năng giao tiếp và cảm thông với những người từ các xã hội khác, nền văn hóa, tôn giáo và ngôn ngữ khác ở cả quy mô địa phương và toàn cầu.)

(d) Effective leadership, cooperation and teamwork skills. (Khả năng lãnh đạo hiệu quả, hợp tác và kỹ năng làm việc nhóm.)

(e) Ability to engage in problem-solving, shared perspective-taking and negotiation to resolve conflicts. (Khả năng tham gia giải quyết vấn đề, chia sẻ quan điểm và đàm phán để giải quyết xung đột.)

3. *What attitudes and values should students develop? (Thái độ và giá trị gì mà sinh viên nên phát triển? Xin vui lòng lựa chọn các câu trả lời phù hợp.)*

(a) Appreciation of, and value and respect for global multicultural, multilingual diversity. (Nhận thức và tôn trọng tính đa dạng về ngôn ngữ và văn hóa toàn cầu.)

(b) Commitment to engage in informed debate about issues of equity, social justice and political issues. (Cam kết tham gia các diễn đàn thảo luận về các vấn đề bình đẳng, bình đẳng xã hội và các vấn đề chính trị.)

(c) Committed to justice, equity, environmental sustainability and civic obligations. (Cam kết tham gia vào phát triển môi trường bền vững, công bằng, bình đẳng và thực hiện nghĩa vụ công dân.)

(d) Commitment to participate in, and contribute toward, creating an equitable and sustainable community at a range of levels (from the local to the global). (Cam kết tham gia và đóng góp

tạo nên một cộng đồng bình đẳng và phát triển bền vững ở mọi mức từ địa phương cho đến toàn cầu.)

(e) Appreciation of the complex, interacting factors that contribute to diversity of language, culture and multicultural relationships. (Nhận thức về các nhân tố phức tạp và tương tác góp phần vào tính đa dạng của ngôn ngữ, văn hóa và mối quan hệ đa văn hóa.) ○

(f) Sensitivity to, and awareness of, complex human-environment interactions; and a willingness to act in a manner consistent with the changing needs and demands facing society. (Tinh tế và nhận thức được mối quan hệ tương tác phức tạp giữa con người và môi trường; sẵn sàng để hành động một cách phù hợp với nhu cầu luôn thay đổi cũng như thách thức mà xã hội phải đối mặt.) ○

(g) Sense of identity, self-esteem and belief that people can make a difference to the world. (Bản sắc, lòng tự trọng và niềm tin rằng con người có thể thay đổi thế giới.) ○

Interview participants (Những người tham gia phỏng vấn)

A small number of voluntary participants will be selected to take part in the second stage of data collection, either an individual interview or a focus group interview conducted through a face-to-face mode. If you are willing to participate in stage 2, please complete the following part.

(Ở giai đoạn 2 của đề án nghiên cứu này, nếu một số người tham gia khảo sát tình nguyện, họ sẽ được mời tham gia phỏng vấn cá nhân hoặc phỏng vấn theo nhóm. Nếu bạn muốn tham gia vào giai đoạn 2 của đề án, xin vui lòng hoàn thành phần sau.)

I would like to express an interest in participating in additional aspects of the project; therefore, I am willing to participate in a follow-up interview. (Tôi muốn tham gia vào giai đoạn tiếp theo của đề án nghiên cứu; do vậy, tôi có thể tham gia phỏng vấn sau khảo sát.)

I understand that my participation is voluntary, that I can participate in all or part of the project, and that I can withdraw at any stage without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way. I also understand that any data that the researcher extracts from the questionnaire and interview for use in reports or published findings will not, contain identifying personal characteristics. I provide my details below to indicate my consent to be contacted for additional information.

Tôi hiểu rằng việc tôi tham gia đề tài nghiên cứu này là tình nguyện và tôi có thể tham gia một phần hoặc toàn bộ nghiên cứu. Tôi có thể không tham gia bất kỳ khi nào tôi muốn và không bị ảnh hưởng bất kỳ vấn đề gì. Tôi cũng hiểu rằng số liệu mà người thực hiện nghiên cứu thu được từ các câu hỏi khảo sát và phỏng vấn được đưa vào báo cáo hoặc công bố sẽ không nêu tên hoặc xác định danh tính người tham gia đề tài nghiên cứu này. Tôi cung cấp các thông tin cá nhân để thể hiện sự đồng ý của tôi với việc người thực hiện nghiên cứu liên hệ với tôi sau này.

Name (Tên):

Phone (Số điện thoại):

Email (Địa chỉ thư điện tử):

Appendix 3.1: Semi-structured interviews for program managers (English)

Before we start the interview, I would like to give a brief explanation of the purpose of the interview. This interview aims to examine the internationalisation of the curriculum of the joint-training/co-teaching programs at Foreign Trade University. You are invited to participate in the interview because of your involvement in the joint-training program between Foreign Trade University (FTU) and Colorado State University (CSU)/London Metropolitan University (LMET) for short.

Internationalisation of the curriculum is defined by Leask (2009) as “the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning arrangements and support services of a program of study” (p. 209).

Intermediate questions

During this next phase of the interview I would like you focus on your experience in IoC in your school.

I. Contextual layers

1. How do contextual layers (such as global, regional, local and institutional context) affect your school’s implementation of IoC?
2. What contextual layer do you think influences the internationalisation of your school curriculum the most?

II. Strategies for IoC

3. As a program manager, what strategies do you use when internationalising the curriculum? More specifically,
 - (a) What kind of support and services are provided to academics so that they can internationalise the curriculum?
 - (b) In what ways does the program support academics’ professional development?
 - (c) What kinds of activities are implemented to develop academics’ awareness of IoC?
 - (d) How is the program designed to enhance community and international linkages?
 - (e) What are the program evaluation and review practices? (How is the program evaluated?)

III. Interaction and collaboration

4. When internationalising the curriculum of this program, how do you
 - (a) interact and collaborate with CSU/LMET program manager or course coordinator
 - (b) interact and collaborate with other academics?

IV. Enablers and blockers of IoC

5. What enables you to internationalise the curriculum of this program?
6. What challenges do you encounter when internationalising the curriculum of this program?

V. Strategies to deal with IoC challenges

7. How do you deal with the above-mentioned challenges when you internationalise the curriculum of this program?

Closing questions

1. What do you think your school should do to enhance IoC?
2. Is there anything else you believe is important to share that we have not yet covered?

Appendix 3.2: Semi-structured interviews for program managers (Vietnamese)

Trước khi bắt đầu buổi phỏng vấn, chị/em sẽ giới thiệu ngắn gọn mục đích của buổi phỏng vấn hôm nay. Nội dung chính của buổi phỏng vấn hôm nay liên quan đến việc quốc tế hóa các chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài tại Trường Đại học Ngoại Thương. Chị/Em mời em/anh/chị tham gia buổi phỏng vấn này vì em/anh/chị là người trực tiếp tham gia giảng dạy chương trình đào tạo liên kết giữa trường ĐH Ngoại Thương (FTU) và trường ĐH Colorado State University (CSU)/ ĐH London Metropolitan University (LMET).

Theo như Leask (2009) thì quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy được hiểu là việc kết hợp các nội dung giảng dạy mang tính quốc tế, mang tính liên văn hóa vào chương trình giảng dạy (trang 209). Vậy nên buổi phỏng vấn hôm nay chị/em muốn em/anh/chị chia sẻ suy nghĩ và kinh nghiệm của em/anh/chị trong việc đưa các nội dung mang tính quốc tế, tính đa văn hóa vào các môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy trong các chương trình đào tạo liên kết giữa trường ĐH Ngoại Thương (FTU) và trường ĐH Colorado State University (CSU)/ĐH London Metropolitan University (LMET).

Vậy bây giờ chị/em xin được bắt đầu buổi phỏng vấn.

Các câu hỏi mở đầu

1. Theo Anh/Chị trường Ngoại thương thực hiện quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài như thế nào?
2. Theo Anh/Chị tại sao nhà trường nên thực hiện quốc tế hóa các chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài?
3. Xin Anh/Chị cho biết vai trò của Anh/Chị trong việc quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài, cụ thể là Chương trình tiên tiến.

Các câu hỏi chính

Phần tiếp theo của buổi phỏng vấn, em muốn Anh/Chị chia sẻ kinh nghiệm của Anh/Chị trong việc thực hiện quốc tế hóa chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài tại trường Ngoại thương.

I. Các yếu tố hoàn cảnh

1. Theo Anh/Chị những yếu tố nào ảnh hưởng đến việc quốc tế hóa các chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài tại trường ĐHNHT?
2. Trong những yếu tố Anh/Chị vừa đề cập thì yếu tố nào ảnh hưởng nhiều nhất đến việc quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài tại trường ĐHNHT?

II. Các chiến lược để quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy

3. Là người phụ trách và quản lý chương trình đào tạo tiên tiến, Anh/Chị xây dựng và định hướng phát triển chương trình đó như thế nào?
4. Việc mapping chương trình với trường đối tác CSU/LMET được thực hiện như thế nào?
5. Khi tham gia giảng dạy trong chương trình tiên tiến
 - (a) Các giảng viên đã được hỗ trợ gì để họ có thể quốc tế hóa chương trình tiên tiến?
 - (b) Chương trình tiên tiến đã hỗ trợ các giảng viên phát triển chuyên môn như thế nào?
 - (c) Những hoạt động gì đã được thực hiện để phát triển nhận thức của giảng viên về việc quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy (đặc biệt chương trình tiên tiến)?
 - (d) Chương trình tiên tiến đã được thiết kế như thế nào để hướng tới việc gắn kết giữa trường Ngoại thương, với trường đối tác (CSU/LMET), các nhà tuyển dụng và cộng đồng?

(e) Quy trình đánh giá và kiểm định chất lượng đào tạo của chương trình tiên tiến được thực hiện như thế nào?

III. Hợp tác

6. Khi thực hiện quốc tế hóa chương trình tiên tiến, ...

(a) Với tư cách là người phụ trách chương trình thì Anh/Chị hợp tác với các cán bộ quản lý và điều phối chương trình của trường đối tác như CSU/LMET như thế nào?

& (b) Việc hợp tác giữa giảng viên, người phụ trách và điều phối chương trình khi tham gia thực hiện chương trình tiên tiến được thực hiện như thế nào?

IV. Những thuận lợi và khó khăn

7. Điều gì ảnh hưởng/khuyến khích Anh/Chị tham gia quốc tế hóa chương trình Anh/Chị phụ trách?

8. Những khó khăn gì Anh/Chị gặp phải khi quốc tế hóa chương trình tiên tiến?

V. Những chiến lược để giải quyết các khó khăn khi thực hiện quốc tế hóa chương trình tiên tiến

9. Anh/Chị đã giải quyết những khó khăn Anh/Chị nêu trên như thế nào?

Kết thúc phỏng vấn

1. Theo Anh/Chị trường Ngoại thương nên làm gì để tăng cường việc quốc tế hóa các Chương trình có yếu tố nước ngoài tại trường?

2. Theo Anh/Chị còn điểm gì quan trọng chưa được đề cập/ thảo luận trong cuộc phỏng vấn không?

Appendix 4.1: Semi-structured interviews for course coordinators (English)

Before we start the interview, I would like to give a brief explanation of the purpose of the interview. This interview aims to examine the internationalisation of the curriculum of the joint-training/co-teaching programs at Foreign Trade University. You are invited to participate in the interview because of your involvement in the joint-training program between Foreign Trade University (FTU) and Colorado State University (CSU)/ London Metropolitan University (LMET) for short.

Internationalisation of the curriculum is defined by Leask (2009) as “the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning arrangements and support services of a program of study” (p. 209).

Opening questions

1. In what ways does your school internationalise the curriculum?
2. Why do you think your school should internationalise the curriculum?
3. Tell me about your role in IoC in your school.

Intermediate questions

During this next phase of the interview I would like you focus on your experience in IoC in your school.

I. Contextual layers

1. How do contextual layers (such as global, regional, local and institutional context) affect your school’s implementation of IoC?
2. What contextual layer do you think influences the internationalisation of your school curriculum the most?

II. Strategies for IoC

3. As a course coordinator, what strategies you think are used to support academics’ internationalising the curriculum? More specifically:
 - (a) In what ways are the international and intercultural elements incorporated into the content of this program?
 - (b) What types of extra-curriculum activities are provided to students in this program?
 - (c) What sorts of technical tools and information resources are available to support academics’ implementation of IoC?
 - (d) What kind of support and services are provided to lecturers so that they can internationalise the curriculum for all students?
 - (e) In what ways does the program support academics’ professional development?
 - (f) What kinds of activities are provided to enhance interaction and collaboration among FTU academics as well as between FTU academics and CSU/LMET academics?

III. Interaction and collaboration

4. When internationalising the curriculum of this program, how do you
 - (a) interact and collaborate with CSU/LMET program manager and course coordinator? & (b) interact and collaborate with other academics?

IV. Enablers and blockers of IoC

5. What enable you to get involved in internationalising the curriculum of this program?

6. What IoC challenges do you encounter in this program?

V. Strategies to deal with IoC challenges

7. In what ways can you deal with the above-mentioned challenges?

Closing questions

1. What do you think your school should do to enhance IoC at your school!?

2. Is there anything else you believe is important to share that we have not yet covered?

Appendix 4.2: Semi-structured interviews for course coordinators (Vietnamese)

Trước khi bắt đầu buổi phỏng vấn, chi/em sẽ giới thiệu ngắn gọn mục đích của buổi phỏng vấn hôm nay. Nội dung chính của buổi phỏng vấn hôm nay liên quan đến việc quốc tế hóa các chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài tại Trường Đại học Ngoại Thương. Chi/Em mời em/anh/chị tham gia buổi phỏng vấn này vì em/anh/chị là người trực tiếp tham gia giảng dạy chương trình đào tạo liên kết giữa trường ĐH Ngoại Thương và trường ĐH Colorado State University/ĐH London Metropolitan University.

Theo như Leask (2009) thì quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy được hiểu là việc kết hợp các nội dung giảng dạy mang tính quốc tế, mang tính liên văn hóa vào chương trình giảng dạy (trang 209). Vậy nên buổi phỏng vấn hôm nay chi/em muốn em/anh/chị chia sẻ suy nghĩ và kinh nghiệm của em/anh/chị trong việc đưa các nội dung mang tính quốc tế, tính đa văn hóa vào các môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy trong các chương trình đào tạo liên kết giữa trường ĐH Ngoại Thương và trường ĐH Colorado State University/ĐH London Metropolitan University.

Vậy bây giờ chi/em xin được bắt đầu buổi phỏng vấn.

Các câu hỏi mở đầu

1. Theo Anh/Chị thì trường ĐHTN thực hiện quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài như thế nào?
2. Theo Anh/Chị tại sao nhà trường nên thực hiện quốc tế hóa các chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài?
3. Xin Anh/Chị cho biết vai trò của Anh/Chị trong việc quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài, ví dụ Chương trình tiên tiến hoặc Chương trình đào tạo liên kết.

Các câu hỏi phỏng vấn chính

Cảm ơn Anh/Chị đã chia sẻ kinh nghiệm và hiểu biết của Anh/Chị về việc quốc tế hóa chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài tại trường của Anh/Chị. Phần tiếp theo của buổi phỏng vấn hôm nay, em/tôi muốn Anh/Chị chia sẻ kinh nghiệm của Anh/Chị trong việc thực hiện quốc tế hóa chương trình đào tạo Anh/Chị đang phụ trách.

I. Các yếu tố hoàn cảnh

1. Các yếu tố về hoàn cảnh như hoàn cảnh toàn cầu, hoàn cảnh trong khu vực, hoàn cảnh của Việt Nam và hoàn cảnh của nhà trường ảnh hưởng như thế nào đến việc thực hiện quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài tại trường ĐHTN?
2. Theo Anh/Chị yếu tố hoàn cảnh nào ảnh hưởng nhiều nhất đến việc quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài tại trường ĐHTN?

II. Các chiến lược quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy

3. Là người điều phối chương trình đào tạo, theo Anh/Chị để hỗ trợ các giảng viên thực hiện việc quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy, thì những chiến lược gì đã được nhà trường thực hiện? Cụ thể là:

- (a) Các nội dung mang tính quốc tế và tính liên văn hóa đã được đưa vào chương trình giảng dạy như thế nào?
- (b) Các hoạt động ngoại khóa nào đã được đưa vào chương trình học của sinh viên?
- (c) Các nguồn thông tin và các công cụ công nghệ gì có sẵn để hỗ trợ giảng viên thực hiện quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy?
- (d) Các giảng viên nhận được sự hỗ trợ gì để họ có thể thực hiện việc quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy cho sinh viên theo học chương trình tiên tiến và chương trình đào tạo liên kết?
- (e) Chương trình hỗ trợ các giảng viên phát triển nghề nghiệp của họ như thế nào?

(f) Những hoạt động gì đã được thực hiện để tăng cường sự hợp tác giữa các giảng viên FTU và giảng viên trường CSU/LMET?

III. Quan hệ và Hợp tác

4. Khi thực hiện quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy của chương trình đào tạo tiên tiến/liên kết, ...

(a) Anh/Chị hợp tác với các cán bộ quản lý và điều phối chương trình của trường đối tác như CSU/LMET như thế nào?

&(b) Anh/Chị hợp tác với các giảng viên giảng dạy trong chương trình như thế nào?

IV. Những thuận lợi và khó khăn khi quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy

5. Có những thuận lợi gì khi Anh/Chị tham gia quốc tế hóa chương trình mà Anh/Chị phụ trách?

6. Những khó khăn gì Anh/Chị gặp phải khi quốc tế hóa chương trình Anh/Chị phụ trách?

V. Những chiến lược để giải quyết những khó khăn khi quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy

7. Anh/Chị giải quyết những khó khăn Anh/Chị gặp phải khi quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy như thế nào?

Kết thúc phỏng vấn

1. Theo Anh/Chị trường ĐHNT nên làm gì để tăng cường việc quốc tế hóa các Chương trình có yếu tố nước ngoài?

2. Theo Anh/Chị còn điểm gì quan trọng chưa được đề cập/ thảo luận trong cuộc phỏng vấn hôm nay hay không?

Appendix 5.1: Semi-structured interviews for academics (English)

Before we start the interview, I would like to give a brief explanation of the purpose of the interview. This interview aims to examine the internationalisation of the curriculum of the joint-training/co-teaching programs at Foreign Trade University. You are invited to participate in the interview because of your involvement in the joint-training program between Foreign Trade University (FTU) and Colorado State University (CSU)/DH London Metropolitan University (LMET) for short.

Internationalisation of the curriculum is defined by Leask (2005) as “the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning arrangements and support services of a program of study” (p. 209).

Could we start the interview now?

Opening questions

1. Tell me about your teaching background.
2. How would you describe your engagement in IoC at your school?

Intermediate questions

During this next phase of the interview I would like you focus on your experience in IoC described in Stage 1 of this study, the initial questionnaire.

I. Contextual layers

1. How do context layers (such as global, regional, local and institutional context) affect your implementation of IoC?
2. Which contextual layer influences your internationalisation of curriculum the most?
3. How do those contexts impact your design of an internationalised curriculum?

II. Strategies for IoC

I would like you to describe more about your strategies used to internationalise your course. Specifically, in terms of:

<i>The course content and design practice</i>	4. In what ways do you incorporate international and intercultural elements into the content of the course?
<i>Teaching and learning activities</i>	5. What kinds of teaching and learning activities do you use in your class?
<i>Classroom practices</i>	6. What kind of teaching approach do you use, teacher-centred or student-centred one? Please give some examples to illustrate your teaching approach.
<i>Assessment tasks and assessment criteria</i>	7. What types of assessment tasks do you require students to do? 8. How do you assess students' knowledge, skills or abilities?
<i>Tools and resources used to internationalise the curriculum</i>	9. What sorts of technical tools and information resources do you use in your course?
<i>Extra-curriculum activities</i>	10. Are there any extra-curriculum activities in your course? If yes, in what ways can you facilitate students' involvement in extra-curriculum activities?
<i>Evaluation and review</i>	11. In what ways can you evaluate your course?

III. Interaction and collaboration

12. When internationalising the curriculum of your course, how do you

(a) interact and collaborate with program manager and course coordinator? & (b) interact and collaborate with other academics?

IV. Enablers and Blockers

13. What enable you to internationalise the curriculum?

14. What challenges do you encounter when implementing IoC?

V. Strategies to deal with IoC challenges

15. How do you deal with IoC challenges?

Closing questions

1. Are there any recommendations you would like to make for the enhancement of IoC at your school?

2. Is there anything else you believe is important?

Appendix 5.2: Semi-structured interviews for academics (Vietnamese)

Trước khi bắt đầu buổi phỏng vấn, chị/em sẽ giới thiệu ngắn gọn mục đích của buổi phỏng vấn hôm nay. Nội dung chính của buổi phỏng vấn hôm nay liên quan đến việc quốc tế hóa các chương trình giảng dạy có yếu tố nước ngoài tại Trường Đại học Ngoại Thương. Chị/Em mời em/anh/chị tham gia buổi phỏng vấn này vì em/anh/chị là người trực tiếp tham gia giảng dạy chương trình đào tạo liên kết giữa trường ĐH Ngoại Thương (FTU) và trường ĐH Colorado State University (CSU)/ĐH London Metropolitan University (LMET).

Theo như Leask (2009) thì quốc tế hóa chương trình giảng dạy được hiểu là việc kết hợp các nội dung giảng dạy mang tính quốc tế, mang tính liên văn hóa vào chương trình giảng dạy (Trang 209). Vậy nên buổi phỏng vấn hôm nay chị/em muốn em/anh /chị chia sẻ suy nghĩ và kinh nghiệm của em/anh/chị trong việc đưa các nội dung mang tính quốc tế, tính đa văn hóa vào các môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy trong các chương trình đào tạo liên kết giữa trường ĐH Ngoại Thương (FTU) và trường ĐH Colorado State University (CSU)/ĐH London Metropolitan University (LMET).

Vậy bây giờ chị/em xin được bắt đầu buổi phỏng vấn.

Câu hỏi mở đầu

Ở phần phỏng vấn đầu tiên này, chị/em xin hỏi em/anh/chị một số câu hỏi liên quan đến kinh nghiệm giảng dạy và chia sẻ suy nghĩ của em/anh/chị về chương trình đào tạo liên kết giữa trường ĐHTT (FTU) và trường ĐH Colorado State University (CSU)/ĐH London Metropolitan University (LMET).

1. Trước tiên, xin Em/Anh/ Chị chia sẻ một chút về kinh nghiệm giảng dạy của Em/Anh/Chị.
2. Em/ Anh/Chị có thể chia sẻ về việc em/anh/ chị tham gia vào giảng dạy chương trình đào tạo liên kết tại ĐHTT.

Câu hỏi liên quan các nhân tố ảnh hưởng đến việc quốc tế hóa chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài tại ĐHTT

Cảm ơn em/anh/chị đã chia sẻ kinh nghiệm giảng dạy nói chung và kinh nghiệm giảng dạy trong chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài tại trường ĐHTT nói riêng. Phần tiếp theo chị/em muốn em/anh/chị chia sẻ kinh nghiệm trong việc đưa những nội dung mang tính quốc tế, tính liên văn hóa vào các môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy trong chương trình đào tạo liên kết giữa trường ĐHTT với trường ĐH Colorado State University*/ trường ĐH United Kingdom University*.

I. Contextual layers

1. Trên thực tế có một số yếu tố về hoàn cảnh ảnh hưởng đến việc đưa các nội dung mang tính quốc tế, tính đa văn hóa vào chương trình giảng dạy ở bậc đại học. Ở đây có hiểu là điều kiện hoàn cảnh mang tính toàn cầu, tính khu vực, điều kiện hoàn cảnh tại Việt Nam cũng như điều kiện hoàn cảnh tại trường ĐHTT.

Theo em/anh/chị những điều kiện hoàn cảnh nêu trên ảnh hưởng như thế nào đến việc em/anh/chị đưa những nội dung giảng dạy mang tính quốc tế, tính đa văn hóa vào những môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy trong chương trình đào tạo liên kết giữa trường ĐHTT với trường ĐH Colorado State University (CSU)/ĐH London Metropolitan University (LMET).

2. Trong những điều kiện hoàn cảnh nêu trên, yếu tố về điều kiện hoàn cảnh nào ảnh hưởng nhiều nhất đến việc em/anh/chị đưa những nội dung mang tính quốc tế, tính đa văn hóa vào những môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy?

3. Những điều kiện hoàn cảnh đó ảnh hưởng như thế nào đến việc em/anh/chị xây dựng nội dung và chương trình môn học hướng tới việc trang bị cho sinh viên những hiểu biết mang tính quốc tế, những hiểu biết về sự khác biệt giữa các nền văn hóa, giúp cho sinh viên có thể làm việc trong môi trường quốc tế, trở thành công dân toàn cầu?

II. Các cách thức để đưa các nội dung mang tính quốc tế, tính liên văn hóa vào chương trình giảng dạy.

Cảm ơn em/anh/chị. Tiếp theo, chị/em muốn em/anh/chị chia sẻ một chút về những cách thức mà em/anh/chị đã tiến hành để đưa các nội dung mang tính quốc tế/ tính đa văn hóa vào môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy.

<i>Nội dung và thiết kế của môn học</i>	4. Trước tiên, xin em/anh/chị chia sẻ một số cách mà em/anh/chị đã thực hiện khi đưa những nội dung mang tính quốc tế, tính liên văn hóa vào môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy trong chương trình đào tạo liên kết giữa trường trường ĐHNT với trường ĐH Colorado State University*/ trường ĐH United Kingdom University*.
<i>Các hoạt động giảng dạy và học tập?</i>	5. Những hoạt động học tập và giảng dạy nào anh/chị/em thực hiện thường xuyên trên lớp học?
<i>Classroom practices</i>	6. Em/Anh/Chị áp dụng phương pháp giảng dạy nào? Lấy thầy là trung tâm hay là lấy người học là trung tâm? Xin em/anh/chị cho một số ví dụ minh họa về phương pháp giảng dạy mà em/anh/chị đã thực hiện?
<i>Assessment tasks and assessment criteria</i>	7. Các hình thức kiểm tra đánh giá nào anh chị đã áp dụng với sinh viên của anh chị? 8. Anh chị đã đánh giá kiến thức, kỹ năng và năng lực của sinh viên như thế nào?
<i>Tools and resources used to internationalise the curriculum</i>	9. Những công cụ hỗ trợ học tập và các nguồn học liệu nào em/anh/chị đã sử dụng trong môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy?
<i>Extra-curriculum activities</i>	10. Bên cạnh các hoạt động học tập và giảng dạy trên lớp, có hoạt động ngoại khóa nào được em/anh/chị thực hiện với sinh viên không? Nếu có, em/anh/chị đã khuyến khích sinh viên tham gia các hoạt động ngoại khóa đó như thế nào?
<i>Evaluation and review</i>	11. Câu hỏi tiếp theo liên quan đến đánh giá môn học mà em/ anh/ chị giảng dạy. Thông qua hình thức nào để Nhà trường/ hoặc Khoa có thể đánh giá việc em/anh/chị giảng dạy các môn học được giao?

III. Hợp tác và phối hợp với các bộ phận khác

12. Khi thực hiện việc đưa những nội dung mang tính quốc tế, tính liên văn hóa vào môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy

(a) Em/anh/chị phối hợp như thế nào với những người phụ trách và điều phối chương trình đào tạo liên kết giữa trường ĐHNT trường ĐH Colorado State University (CSU)/ĐH London Metropolitan University (LMET) như thế nào?

(b) Em/Anh/Chị phối hợp như thế nào với các đồng nghiệp khác trong trường ĐHNT cũng như các giảng viên từ trường đối tác?

IV. Những ưu điểm và hạn chế

13. Theo em/anh/chị điều gì giúp em/anh/chị thực hiện được việc đưa các nội dung mang tính quốc tế, tính liên văn hóa vào môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy?

14. Em/anh/chị có gặp khó khăn gì khi đưa các nội dung mang tính quốc tế, tính liên văn hóa vào môn học mà em/anh/chị giảng dạy?

V. Những biện pháp để giải quyết khó khăn

15. Làm thế nào để em/anh/chị giải quyết những khó khăn nêu trên?

Kết thúc phỏng vấn

1. Theo Em/Anh/Chị trường ĐHNT nên làm gì để có thể phát triển các chương trình đào tạo có yếu tố nước ngoài tại trường ĐHNT, đặc biệt là các chương trình mà em/anh/chị đang trực tiếp tham gia giảng dạy?
2. Ngoài những nội dung đã được đề cập trong buổi phỏng vấn hôm này, còn có nội dung gì mà em/anh/chị nghĩ là buổi phỏng vấn chưa đề cập tới không ạ?

Appendix 6: Final report for ethics approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) at Federation University, Australia

Annual/Final Project Report

Human Research Ethics Committee



Please indicate the type of report	<input type="checkbox"/> Annual Report (Omit 3b & 5b) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Final Report
Project No:	A15-128
Project Name:	Internationalisation of Higher Education Curriculum: A case study in Vietnam
Principal Researcher:	A/P Margaret Plunkett
Other Researchers:	Dr Michael Dyson, Nhi Luong
Date of Original Approval:	15/09/2015
School / Section:	Faculty of Education and Arts
Phone:	0351226980
Email:	Margaret.plunkett@federation.edu.au

Please note: For HDR candidates, it is a requirement of candidature to submit Candidature reports annually to research.degrees@federation.edu.au in addition to Ethics Annual/Final reports.

1) Please indicate the current status of the project:			
1a) Yet to start	<input type="checkbox"/>		
1b) Continuing	<input type="checkbox"/>		
1c) Data collection completed	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		
1d) Abandoned / Withdrawn:	<input type="checkbox"/>		
1e) If the approval was subject to certain conditions, have these conditions been met? (If not, please give details in the comments box below)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Comments:			
1f) Data Analysis	<input type="checkbox"/> Not yet commenced	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Proceeding	<input type="checkbox"/> Complete <input type="checkbox"/> None
1g) Have ethical problems been encountered in any of the following areas:			
Study Design	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	
Recruitment of Subjects	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	
Finance	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	
Facilities, Equipment	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	

Annual/Final Project Report

Human Research Ethics Committee



(If yes, please give details in the comments box below)		
Comments:		

2a) Have amendments been made to the originally approved project?

No Yes

2b) If yes, was HREC approval granted for these changes?

Yes **Provide detail:**
 Yes Application for Amendment to an Existing Project
 Yes Change of Personnel
 Yes Extension Request

No **If you have made changes, but not had HREC approval, provide detail as to why this has not yet occurred:**

2c) Do you need to submit any amendments now?

No Yes Application for Amendment to an Existing Project
 Yes Change of Personnel
 Yes Extension Request
*** NB: If 'Yes', [download & submit the appropriate request](#) to the HREC for approval:
Please note: Extensions will not be granted retrospectively. Apply well prior to the project end date, to ensure continuity of HRE approval.**

3a) Please indicate where you are storing the data collected during the course of this project: (Australian code for the Responsible conduct of Research Ch 2.2.2, 2.5 – 2.7)

Online data is stored on a password protected computer and hardcopy documents are in a filing cabinet in the Principal researcher's office

3b) Final Reports: Advise when & how stored data will be destroyed (Australian code for the Responsible conduct of Research Ch 2.1.1)

On completion of the project, any paper documents will be shredded and online data will be deleted

Annual/Final Project Report

Human Research Ethics Committee



4) Have there been any events that might have had an adverse effect on the research participants OR unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project?

No

Yes *NB: If 'yes', please provide details in the comments box below:

Comments:

5a) Please provide a short summary of results of the project so far (no attachments please):

The student researcher is currently on intermission but all data collect has been completed in Vietnam and data analysis has begun but is not yet finalised. As such, the findings from the analysis are not available. It is anticipated that the final analysis will be complete by the end of the year. However, no further data collection is necessary.

5b) Final Reports: Provide details about how the aims of the project, as stated in the application for approval, were achieved (or not achieved). (Australian code for the Responsible conduct of Research 4.4.1)

This study aimed to investigate the issues related to internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) at a non-western university, Foreign Trade University (FTU) in Vietnam, as a case study. It involved examining how academics, program managers, and course coordinators internationalise the curriculum of joint-training/co-teaching programs at FTU. All data collection has been completed and data analysis has begun, however the student researcher (Nhi Luong) is currently on intermission but will return later this year to finalise the data analysis.

6) Publications: Provide details of research dissemination outcomes for the previous year resulting from this project: eg: Community seminars; Conference attendance; Government reports and/or research publications

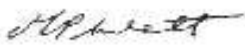
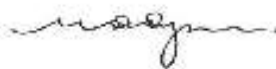
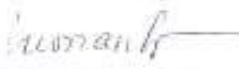
7) The HREC welcomes any feedback on:

- Difficulties experienced with carrying out the research project; or
- Appropriate suggestions which might lead to improvements in ethical clearance and monitoring of research.

Annual/Final Project Report

Human Research Ethics Committee



B) Signatures			
Principal Researcher:		Date:	30/07/2017
	Print name: A/P Margaret Plunkett		
Other/Student Researchers:		Date:	30/07/2017
	Print name: Dr Michael Dyson		
		Date:	30/07/2017
	Print name: Nhi Luong		

Submit to the Ethics Officer, Gippsland or Mt Helen campus, by the due date:
research.ethics@federation.edu.au

Appendix 7: The ethics approval from the Internal Review Board for Research at Foreign Trade University, Vietnam



Federation University Australia

27 August 2017



Application for a Research Site

Re: Conducting a research project at Foreign Trade University, Vietnam

Dear A/Prof. Dr Hui Anh Yoon,

My name is NH Trang and I am writing this letter to seek the approval of conducting a research project at your school. I am presently conducting a research project towards a Doctor of Philosophy at Federation University Australia under the supervision of A/Prof. Margaret Preston and Dr Michael Dixon, senior lecturers in the Faculty of Education and Arts. This means that I will be writing a cross-cultural-themed word thesis on the strategies used by internationalising the curriculum in a non-western university. My research project will be summarised as follows.

Research title: Internationalisation of Higher Education Curriculum - A case study in Vietnam

The aim/purpose of the research

This study aims to investigate the issues related to internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC) at a non-western university, Foreign Trade University (FTU) in Vietnam, as a case study. It will involve consulting with academics, program managers, and course coordinators internationalise the curriculum of joint training programs at FTU.

Possible benefits

It is anticipated that the outcomes of the project will provide relevant information for other higher education institutions in non-western countries seeking appropriate strategies for internationalising their curriculum or planning to reform their schools through internationalisation. Through identifying successful benefits, challenges and obstacles encountered in the IoC implementation, it is anticipated that a set of guidelines and recommendations will emerge. Also, the research findings may provide an insightful understanding of the interaction and collaboration among academics from non-western backgrounds as well between non-western academics and their counterparts from western systems. Subsequently, this is intended to facilitate a deeper understanding of international cooperation for implementing affiliate programs in non-western settings.

Who are the main participants of the study?

In this research, I am interested in obtaining a broad representation of perspectives from program managers, course coordinators, academics and students who have engaged in the process and implementation of internationalisation of the Curriculum (IoC) at FTU. The participants are those in the two joint training programs namely program 1 which is co-located between FTU and Colorado State University and program 2 which is joint-located between FTU and London Metropolitan University (LMU). The selection of the participants is based on their willingness and voluntary participation in this study.

What does the research involve?

The research project is anticipated to take place within the school year 2017-2018. The study consists in two stages.

Stage 1 (Semester 1 – From September 2017 to December 2017)

- Questionnaire for FTU academics and students (via University)
- Interviews for program managers and course coordinators from Foreign Trade University (face-to-face interviews as well as from Colorado State University (CSU) and London Metropolitan University (LMU) (the phone or Skype interviews)

Stage 2 (Semester 2 – From February 2018 to July 2018)

- Interviews for FTU academics (both face-to-face individual interviews and focus group interviews) and
- Interviews for both graduate and undergraduate students (semi-structured interviews on the phone or via Skype)
- Interviews for academics from CSU and LMU (the phone or Skype interviews)
- Observations in class observations occur after the individual and focus group interviews. The researcher will seek for permission from the international academics who are voluntary to welcome the researcher to participate in their classes for observation.

1

How much time will the research take?

The initial questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes to complete and the optional follow-up interviews would take around 30 minutes for individual interviews and about 30 minutes for focus group interviews. With permission, the interview will be audio-taped to ensure accurate transcription of the conversation. Each in-class observation will take nearly 30 minutes, which will be described in a written note form.

Inconvenience/discomfort

Due to the nature and timing of this research, no inconvenience or discomfort is expected through participation.

Withdraw from the research

Being involved in this study is voluntary and participants are under no obligation to consent to participation. However, if they do consent to participate, they may withdraw from further participation at any time. As names are required on questionnaires to enable identification for selection into stage 2, it will be possible to identify a survey if for any reason a participant wishes to withdraw their contribution to the project.

Confidentiality

All data will be de-identified once it has all been entered into a secure data base that only the researchers will have access to. Any reports or publications will use pseudonyms so that no individuals will be able to be identified.

Storage of data

All data collected will be stored in accordance with Federation University Australia regulations, kept on University premises, in a locked filing cabinet for 5 years. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

Use of data for other purposes

Comprehensive reports about the research will be distributed to participating organisations in user-friendly language. These reports will be available to participants should they wish to read them. The results of this study may be published in academic journals or presentations.

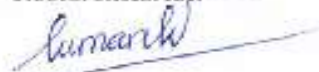
Results

If your school and participants would like to be informed of the aggregate research finding, please contact Nhi Luong on 0470476280 or by email at n.luong@federation.edu.au

If your school and participants would like to contact the researchers about any aspect of this study, please contact the Chief Investigator:	If your school and participants have a complaint concerning the manner in which this research is being conducted, please contact:
A/Prof. Margaret Plunkett Faculty of Education and Arts Federation University Australia, Gippsland Northways Rd Churchill 3842 Email: margaret.plunkett@federation.edu.au	Ethics Officer Research Services Office Federation University Australia, Gippsland Northways Rd Churchill 3842 Room: 2W290 Telephone: (03) 5122 6446 Email: research.ethics@federation.edu.au

Yours sincerely,

Student Researcher



Nhi Luong
Faculty of Education and Arts
Federation University Australia, Gippsland
Northways Rd
Churchill 3842
Email: n.luong@federation.edu.au

Approval for conducting this research project at FTU



HIỆU TRƯỞNG
PGS.TS. Bùi Anh Tuấn