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**European Student Mobility and Intercultural
Learning at a Portuguese University**

**Mobilidade Estudantil Europeia e Aprendizagem
Intercultural numa Universidade Portuguesa**





**Joana Filipa Cardoso
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**European Student Mobility and Intercultural Learning
at a Portuguese University**

Tese apresentada à Universidade de Aveiro para cumprimento dos requisitos necessários à obtenção do grau de Doutor em Educação, realizada sob a orientação científica da Doutora Nilza Maria Vilhena Nunes da Costa, Professora Catedrática do Departamento de Educação da Universidade de Aveiro, Portugal, da Doutora Ana Raquel Gomes São Marcos Simões, Professora Auxiliar Convidada do Departamento de Educação da Universidade de Aveiro, Portugal, e do Doutor Alvaro E. Fantini, Professor Emérito do SIT Graduate Institute, Estados Unidos da América.

Apoio financeiro do POPH – Tipologia 4.1, Formação Avançada, no âmbito do Quadro de Referência Estratégico Nacional.

Apoio financeiro da Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia, comparticipação do Fundo Social Europeu e fundos nacionais do MEC.



Aos meus pais

o júri

presidente

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Investigadora da Agência de Avaliação e Acreditação no Ensino Superior

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to many for their contributions and encouragement:

To my supervisors, Nilza Costa, Ana Raquel Simões and Alvino E. Fantini. To Nilza Costa and Ana Raquel, for their understanding, for the opportunity provided to conduct this research and for accompanying me throughout this journey. To Alvino E. Fantini, for his shared wisdom, for always looking forward to the next chapter, for his ongoing support, encouragement and friendship at all times.

To the students and Portuguese as a Foreign Language Teacher who made this study possible. To the several interviewees whose time and insights allowed a more thorough and personalized account of a problematic which will hopefully be of interest to others. To the EUF-CE secretariat, for the collaboration in my several requests of information.

To my colleagues at LALE for the supportive working environment.

I wish to express my deep appreciation to three people in particular:

To Cláudia Figueiredo, for her support and friendship throughout this journey. Thank you for showing me that it is possible to learn statistics at any age. Thank you, for helping me with my endless doubts, with the equally endless kindness that characterizes you!

To my sister, Susana Margarida, for setting the example. For her most precious help and advice, for making things sound less complicated.

To Rui Aristides, for his unending support and encouragement. For being the first one to encourage me to go abroad, for sharing the same “travel bug”, the same passion for new adventures even if that meant being one ocean apart.

To Teresa Neto, for her friendship throughout.

To Cristina Sá for the friendship in difficult times.

To my friends, for reminding me that there is a world beyond research. To Catarina Silva, Ludo, Mazau and Milton for being there for me when I most needed them. A special thanks to Catarina Silva and Ludo for being such amazing friends, no matter where I am!

To SIT staff and students who welcomed me in Brattleboro and made my experience in the US so rewarding. To Alvino E. Fantini, to my SIT friends and host family, Peter, Debbie and Peter Owen, who made the US feel like home. A special thanks to: Glauber Sampaio who was like a brother while away from home; to Katelin Ryan, for her kindness and precious insights about the IE field in the US; To Kerry Murphy, for showing me the US ‘from the inside’.

To the Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology and to the Luso- American Foundation for making my research-stays in the US possible.

O meu mais profundo obrigado dirige-se aos meus pais, à minha irmã e aos profissionais de Hemato-oncologia dos Hospitais Universitários de Coimbra, por me permitirem estar hoje aqui nas duas aceções de que a vida é feita. Muito Obrigada!

Palavras-chave

Educação internacional; avaliação; internacionalização no ensino superior; mobilidade estudantil; competência de comunicação intercultural; pedagogia intercultural propositiva

Resumo

O propósito deste estudo é compreender, intervir e avaliar o desenvolvimento de competências de comunicação intercultural de estudantes de intercâmbio europeus com vista à aquisição de créditos e de outros sujeitos em contexto de imersão, através de uma pedagogia intercultural propositiva. Este tipo de pedagogia representa abordagens pedagógico-interculturais que visam auxiliar e otimizar a aprendizagem intercultural destes sujeitos durante o ciclo de intercâmbio (fase prévia à partida, durante o intercâmbio e na reentrada). De forma a testar e validar estas pedagogias, uma intervenção com a duração de 20 horas foi desenhada e implementada em dois coortes de 31 sujeitos durante sua imersão em Portugal.

O processo de desenvolvimento e validação da intervenção intercultural foi guiado por uma metodologia mista que combina dados quantitativos e qualitativos para triangular, complementar e expandir os resultados investigativos a partir de uma instância pragmática. O desenho de investigação misto adotado é multifaseado e integra uma componente de estudo de caso-múltiplo e de avaliação. A componente de estudo de caso-múltiplo é corporizada pelos dois coortes de sujeitos em imersão: (1) o principal estudo de caso integra 19 estudantes recebidos pela Universidade de Aveiro (Portugal) enquanto participantes no programa de intercâmbio Europeu *Campus Europae*; (2) o segundo estudo de caso integra três estudantes *Erasmus* e nove imigrantes altamente qualificados recebidos pela mesma universidade. Todos os 31 sujeitos frequentaram duas salas aulas de Português Língua Estrangeira, onde a intervenção foi implementada.

A recolha de dados foi extensiva e compreendeu a recolha, análise e integração de dados quantitativos e qualitativos ao longo de quatro fases de investigação. Estas fases referem-se ao: (1) desenvolvimento, (2) implementação e (3) avaliação, bem como a (4) uma análise das perceções de *stakeholders* com o intuito de compreender o valor externo da intervenção e do programa *Campus Europae*. Os instrumentos de recolha de dados incluíram inquéritos por questionário antes e após a intervenção e entrevistas semi-estruturadas.

Os resultados confirmam a eficácia intercultural da intervenção e um impacto positivo nos ganhos interculturais dos participantes. Este impacto foi, no entanto, maior no estudo de caso 2. Entre as variáveis explanatórias, três destacam-se: (1) as capacidades de construção-de-significado dos participantes, (2) a proficiência na língua de acolhimento e variáveis associadas e (3) o tipo de imersão e programas de intercâmbio.

Implicações para investigações futuras salientam a necessidade de sistematizar uma pedagogia intercultural propositiva em situações de imersão, no geral, e na mobilidade europeia estudantil de crédito, em particular. No último caso, estas pedagogias deverão ser parte do desenho e implementação de programas de intercâmbio de crédito na fase prévia à partida, durante o intercâmbio e na reentrada. As implicações de teor prático salientam a importância de melhorar as práticas interculturais nos contextos macro (instituições de ensino superior), meso (programas de mobilidade) e micro (aulas de língua para sujeitos em imersão) onde esta investigação decorreu, bem nos cenários sociais alargados que estes contextos representam.

Keywords

International education; evaluation; higher education internationalization; student mobility; intercultural communicative competence; purposeful intercultural pedagogy

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to understand, impact and evaluate the development of intercultural communicative competencies among European credit-seeking exchange students and other sojourners through purposeful intercultural pedagogy. This pedagogy encompasses intentional intercultural- educational approaches which aim to support and enhance sojourners' intercultural learning throughout the study abroad cycle (pre-departure, in-country and reentry phases). To test and validate these pedagogies a 20-hour intervention was designed and implemented among two cohorts of 31 sojourners during the in-country phase of their sojourn in Portugal.

The process to develop and validate the intercultural intervention was driven by a mixed-methods methodology which combined quantitative and qualitative data to triangulate, complement and expand research results from a pragmatic stance. The mixed methods research design adopted is multi-phased and encompasses a multi-case study and an evaluative component. The multi-case component is embodied by sojourner cohorts: (1) the primary case study involves 19 incoming students at the University of Aveiro (Portugal) as participants in the European exchange program *Campus Europae*; (2) the second case study comprises three incoming *Erasmus* students and nine highly skilled immigrants at the same university. All 31 sojourners attended two intermediate Portuguese as Foreign Language classrooms where the intervention was employed.

Data collection was extensive and involved collecting, analyzing and mixing quantitative and qualitative strands across four research phases. These phases refer to the: (1) development, (2) implementation and (3) evaluation of the intervention, as well as to (4) a stakeholder analysis of the external value of the intervention and of the *Campus Europae* program. Data collection instruments included pre and posttest questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.

Results confirm the intercultural effectiveness of the intervention and the positive impact upon research participants' intercultural gains. This impact was, however, greater in case study 2. Among explanatory variables, three stand out: (1) participant meaning-making abilities, (2) host language proficiency and related variables, and (3) type of sojourn or exchange programs.

Implications for further research highlight the need to systematize purposeful intercultural pedagogy in sojourner populations in general, and in European credit student mobility in particular. In the latter case, these pedagogies should be part of the design and delivery of credit-bearing exchange programs in pre- departure, in-country and re-entry phases. Implications for practice point to the urge to improve intercultural practices in: macro (higher education institutions), mezzo (exchange programs) and micro (sojourner language classrooms) contexts where this research took place, and wider social scenarios they represent.

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Notation

N	Sample size
n	Number of valid responses
H ₀ , H ₁	Null and alternative hypotheses
M	Mean
Mdn	Median
SD	Standard Deviation
Max	Maximum value
Min	Minimum value
α	Cronbach's alpha
p	Probability value
r_s	Spearman's correlation coefficient
z	z-score
χ^2	Chi-square
ACA	Academic Association Cooperation
AIC	Assessment of Intercultural Competence
AUCP	American University Center of Provence
BP	Bologna Process
CE	Campus Europae
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CIEE	Council on International Educational Exchange
CoE	Council of Europe
CPLP	<i>Comunidade de Países de Língua Portuguesa</i> (Community of Portuguese Language Countries)
DGES	Directorate-General of Higher Education (Portugal)
DMIM	Developmental Model of Intercultural Maturity
DMIS	Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity
EAIE	European Association for International Education
EC/COM	European Commission
ECLM	European Centre for Modern Languages

ECTS	European Community Course Credit Transfer System European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (after the BP)
EEC	European Economic Community
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
EILC	Erasmus Intensive Language Courses
ESN	Erasmus Student Network
EU	European Union
EUA	European University Association
EUF	European University Foundation
FEA	Forum on Education Abroad
IC	Intercultural Competence
ICC	Intercultural Communicative Competence
ICOPROMO	Intercultural Competence for Professional Mobility
ICPS	Inter-university Cooperation Programs
IEREST	Intercultural Education Resources for Erasmus Students and their Teachers
IERN	International Education Research Network
IES	Institute for the International Education of Students
L2	Second Language
LLP	Lifelong Learning Program
MAP	Model Assessment Practice
MAXSA	Maximizing Study Abroad
MCTES	Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education (Portugal)
NAFSA	Association of International Educators
PFL	Portuguese as a Foreign Language
PLURIMOBIL	Mobility Programmes for Sustainable Plurilingual and Intercultural Learning
Q	Question
R&D	Research and Development
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
UA	University of Aveiro
VMU	Vytautas Magnus University
YOGA	Your Objectives, Guidelines, and Assessment

Chapter 1 Introduction

«Be the change you wish to see in the world»

Ghandi, M. (1993).

1.1 Theoretical Overview

Student mobility is a key component of internationalization efforts in higher education today, and recognized as such by both academic and political agents. In Europe, the increasing focus on higher education internationalization policies and practices has led to the exponential growth of student exchange, particularly through the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (*Erasmus*). As a consequence, the intersection between the international dimension of higher education and student exchange has, from the mid-1980s on, constituted a key component of the European university. This intersection relies, however, upon an intricate mix of academic, political, (socio)cultural and economic rationales (De Wit, 1995; Knight & De Wit, 1997, 1999).

Within the fourfold mix outlined above, the rich intercultural dimensions of student exchange programs are often forgotten both in supranational and national agendas, as well as in the agendas of higher education institutions. The immediate consequence is that interculturality is often left to ‘accidental’ outcomes given that the international and intercultural education approaches of many tertiary institutions remain unclear and require further elaboration. Scholars like Deardorff (2004), in the US, and Hermans (2005), in Europe, reinforce these approaches by calling attention to tasks institutions need to perform to remain intellectually and culturally viable. One of these tasks implies reconfiguring our understanding of exchange programs which continue to be evaluated by the number of participants instead of the educational quality of student participation. As such, a key issue arises: *Are the expected outcomes of student exchange viewed strictly in terms of numbers of participants or, are they to be stated as learning outcomes from the study abroad experience?*

If one opts for the second instance, then an important dimension must be included: *interculturality* or, stated in terms of competencies, *intercultural competencies*. In this sense, if the development of interculturally competent graduates is to be a meaningful outcome of internationalization efforts, this goal must be incorporated in the curricula and agendas of

tertiary institutions and reflected through *purposeful intercultural pedagogy*. Pedagogy that does not only meet sojourner intercultural needs but also enhances the study abroad experience in terms of intercultural development. This type of pedagogy is employed in this research and understood as:

Intentional and deliberate intercultural pedagogical approaches, activated throughout the study abroad cycle (before, during, and after) that are designed to enhance students' intercultural development (Paige & Vande Berg, 2012, pp. 29-30).

Intentionally designed and implemented intercultural pedagogies in sojourning contexts are advocated both in the US and in Europe, even if in the latter, empirical efforts are relatively scarce and recent. Additionally, intercultural pedagogy is still not an integral element of the design or delivery of European credit exchange programs, as will be discussed in detail in Chapter 2. Thus, it is imperative to offer systematic intercultural pedagogical actions that support and maximize the intercultural competencies of exchange students. Accomplishing such a goal in European student exchange requires answering the following question: *What is the key for successful intercultural outcomes that might best apply to the case of European credit student mobility?* In addition, another question must be posed: *How to enhance the operational goals of European credit student mobility with the educational goals of developing intercultural competencies?*

This dissertation addresses these two overarching questions by employing North American and European intercultural approaches to the European case of credit student mobility. In this way, it seeks to fill in gaps in current empirical knowledge about intercultural practices in European credit student exchange and aid the systematic investigation of a common problem on both sides of the ocean, viz.: *How to develop interculturally competent exchange students?* By addressing this common problem, this research seeks to encourage sustained responses to the questions guiding the research inquiry and, in this sense, it may offer relevant information to both models of student exchange.

The type of student exchange under examination, in this study, is European credit student exchange and the *Erasmus* and *Campus Europae* (CE, www.campuseuropae.org) programs, in particular. This type of student exchange occurs within parallel study cycles in

one of two directions (inbound or outbound) to permit transferring credits earned during the sojourn back to one's home institution (Szarka, 2003; Wätcher, 2008).

This research, then, explores, through an international education evaluation lens, how intercultural competencies of participants in European credit exchange programs and, to some extent, other sojourners (highly skilled immigrants) may be developed and enhanced further through purposeful intercultural pedagogy.

1.2 Research Problem

Purposeful intercultural pedagogy is needed to support and enhance the development of intercultural competencies among exchange students in higher education. In Europe, the lack of pedagogical support to address the intercultural needs of exchange students, as well as the shortage of empirical studies, calls for new research. As such, the two research questions previously identified are reformulated as a twofold question: ***What is the key? And how to ensure successful intercultural outcomes that best apply to the case of European credit exchange programs, Campus Europae in particular, and other sojourner populations?***

In answering this question, this study is based on the hypothesis that purposeful intercultural pedagogy enhances the intercultural communicative competencies (ICCs) of exchange students and highly skilled immigrants.

1.3 Purpose Statement

The goal of this study is to understand, impact and evaluate the development of intercultural communicative competencies (ICCs) among European credit-seeking exchange students and other sojourner populations while in-country through purposeful intercultural pedagogy. To cut across exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research purposes, this research follows an eclectic or dialectical stance (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) that combines two types of research methods: multiple-case study and mixed methods research.

1.4 Participants in the Study

This research examines two case studies, each composed of several subjects. Both groups are analyzed at the collective level although their analysis varies in depth with one

case study being examined in more detail than the other. The results yielded by both cases are, nonetheless, equally important, since it is how each case complements the other that provides the robustness of the research findings and the systematic investigation of the research problem from multiple angles.

The primary case study involves a group of 19 incoming students attending the University of Aveiro in Aveiro, Portugal, as participants in the European exchange program *Campus Europae* (CE), during the 2011-2012 academic year. The second case study is also bound to this case in time and place but is composed of 3 incoming *Erasmus* students and 9 highly skilled immigrants in the Aveiro area. For clarity purposes, this cohort will be designated case study 2, and the CE group, case study 1.

1.5 Contextualization of the Case Studies

As case studies are “real-life phenomena” (Yin, 2009), it is important to offer a clear depiction of the contexts that bind each of the cases under examination together, to wit: (a) the host institution, (b) the exchange programs or type of sojourn, and (c) the Portuguese as a Foreign Language (PFL) classroom. That is, (a) the University of Aveiro (UA); (b) the *Campus Europae* program for case study 1, the *Erasmus* program and highly skilled immigration for case study 2; and finally, (c) the PFL classroom, since both groups attended the same level of Portuguese proficiency in their respective groups. It is this last contextual element that provided the ideal location for implementing an intercultural intervention so that culture could become an explicit rather than an implicit object of study of the language course. This aspect will be discussed further in Chapter 3.

The institutional context for both cases is one of 14 public universities in Portugal - the UA. With regard to credit student exchange, this public university started offering the first student exchanges through the European Union (EU) *Erasmus* program in the 1998-1999 academic year. *Campus Europae* (CE) exchanges were offered by the institution more recently, in the 2005-2006 academic year, as part of a university consortium registered as a foundation (The European University Foundation - EUF). The UA is the only Portuguese institution integrating this consortium and has been a EUF member since 2002.

The contextual conditions briefly outlined here will be discussed and expanded further in Chapter 3.

1.6 Methodology

The methodology used in this dissertation combines a multiple-case study and mixed methods research, with the latter transcending the two case studies under examination (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Yin, 2009). Both case studies involve one embedded unit of analysis: the (development of) ICC across the 31 participants that comprise the cohorts. A within-case analysis for case study 1 is carried out, followed by a cross-case analysis of the two cases. The within-case analysis varies, however, in depth between case study 1 and 2 given that the specificities of CE are at the center of the research process. This aspect relates to the fact that CE was intentionally selected as the primary case study. Case study 2 was included later to add robustness and diversity to the study as well as multiple perspectives on the research problem.

The adopted research design is a multiphase mixed methods research design which embeds both case studies, combining quantitative and qualitative strands to gain a better understanding of the research issue under inquiry (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The reason for collecting both quantitative and qualitative data is to triangulate, complement and expand research results from two perspectives. Data collection was extensive and involved collecting, analyzing and mixing the two data strands in several phases of the research process. These phases refer to the moments of developing, implementing and evaluating the pedagogical intervention, i.e., before, during and after the intervention was employed. Different data collection instruments were used in these three stages according to the priority given to quantitative and qualitative data. Although a complete description of all data collection instruments is given in Chapter 3, for now it is sufficient to say that the central pieces of measurement are pre and posttest survey questionnaires along with follow-up focus groups, administered before and after the intervention took place.

A detailed methodological description that covers all phases of case selection, research design, data collection and analysis is provided throughout Chapter 3.

1.7 Research Questions

One central twofolded research question and seven subquestions are at the core of this inquiry. The central question addresses both implications and applications of the research problem, to wit: *What is the key? And how to ensure successful intercultural*

outcomes that best apply to the case of European credit exchange programs, Campus Europae in particular, and other sojourner populations?

From this central question, seven subquestions are derived that advance the procedural stages of the research process (Creswell, 2006). These are as follows:

- 1.1 How can credit-seeking exchange students, *Campus Europae* in particular, and other sojourners, be taught or mentored regarding the development of ICCs?
- 1.2 How does ICC development unfold for case 1 participants?
- 1.3 Which variables influence the ICC development of case 1 and 2 participants?
- 1.4 What is the impact of the intervention upon the ICC development of case 1 and 2 participants? (What commonalities and differences emerge?)
- 1.5 What quantitative and qualitative results and/or taxonomy emerge from the two case studies that account for purposeful intercultural pedagogy in European credit student exchange and other sojourner populations?
- 1.6 What are the intercultural benchmarks and constraints of the *Campus Europae* program (facing also wider European credit schemes)?
- 1.7 How to address purposeful intercultural pedagogy in program design and delivery of European credit-bearing exchange programs and *Campus Europae* in particular?

1.8 Unit of Analysis

Before defining the unit of analysis at the core of this inquiry, a basic assumption was made: (that) ICC is a desired outcome of credit exchange programs that is both definable and measurable. With this assumption in mind and, after an extensive literature review on facilitation and assessment of intercultural competencies among sojourners, the unit of analysis was defined. This unit is the development of ICC as operationalized by Fantini's (2006a, 2009) conceptual model: the set of "complex abilities needed to perform *effectively* and *appropriately* when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself" (Fantini, 2006a, p. 1 [italics in the original]).

From the multiple interrelated abilities that constitute Fantini's (2006a, 2009) model of ICC, the subset of four dimensions was selected as the core unit of analysis for this study.

These four dimensions are: *cultural awareness, attitudes, skills and knowledge*. All four dimensions form the centerpiece of the multi-layered embedded unit of analysis across the 31 individuals who make up the two case studies. In other words, these four dimensions served as the basis for assessing the individuals according to various stages of intercultural development, as well as host language proficiency (Portuguese proficiency, in this case). The unit of analysis is examined in more detail in Chapter 3.

1.9 Significance of the Study

Scholarly literature on internationalization, student exchange and intercultural competencies has grown steadily, both in Europe and in the US. Evidence of this is the number of available papers, specialized journals in the area, handbooks, professional groups and listservs. There is, nonetheless, a clear shortage of empirical studies that simultaneously address all three areas outlined above. Deardorff (2004) and Hermans (2005), mentioned earlier, call attention to this knowledge gap in tertiary education both in the US and in Europe. In this sense, this research seeks to also shed insight into the intersection of international and intercultural dimensions of higher education. It is at this very intersection where purposeful intercultural pedagogy in study abroad can contribute to the effective development of intercultural competencies within the wider framework of internationalization efforts.

In Europe in particular, despite some recognition of intentional intercultural teaching for sojourners, this acknowledgment is expressed only by a few voices in the scholarly field (e.g., Anquetil, 2006; Byram & Feng, 2006; Dervin & Byram, 2008; Shaules, 2007; Strong, 2011). In addition, much of the available literature is recent and seems to be more conceptual than empirical. Recently published literature, however, seems to be geared toward empirical testing. This is mostly the case of a special issue of the *Intercultural Education* journal, edited by Beaven and Borgetti (2015), which includes the following studies about student and intercultural learning:¹ Almarza, Martínez, and Llavador (2015); Borghetti, Beaven, and Pugliese (2015); Holmes, Bavieri, and Ganassin (2015); Messelink, Maele, and Spencer-Oatey (2015); Penman and Ratz (2015).

¹Another study was part of this issue but it was not specifically about European student mobility.

To the best of this researcher's knowledge, aside from this study, only five other European initiatives aimed at fostering intercultural competencies among exchange students (or their teachers) through systematic actions have been identified. These are: (1) the multilateral projects, "Intercultural Education Resources for Erasmus Students and their Teachers" (IEREST, www.ierest-project.eu), (2) "Erasmus Mundus Intercultural Competence" (EMIC, www.emic-project.org), (3) "Intercultural Competence for Professional Mobility" (ICOPROMO)²; (4) The CoE projects, "Mobility Programmes for for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education (Phase1)/ for Sustainable Plurilingual and Intercultural Learning (Phase 2)" (PLURIBOMIL, www.plurimobil.ecml.at); (5) the International Center for Intercultural Exchange at Siena (the Siena Center, www.ticfie.com), through its instructional approach "Full-Immersion Culture, Content and Service". These initiatives are discussed in detail in Chapter 2.

Given the framework outlined above, clear gaps exist in current knowledge of purposeful intercultural pedagogy in European credit student exchange. As a result, intercultural actions in European student mobility do not only happen unsystematically, they are difficult to trace as well. It is hoped, therefore, that this study will not only provide relevant information but will also serve as a call for action in bringing about effective educational support at the intercultural level for credit-seeking exchange students and CE students, in particular. Additionally, even if to a lesser degree, this study will also draw attention to another type of sojourners who are part of many higher education institutions today but are largely forgotten - highly skilled immigrants.

In essence, this dissertation hopes to serve as a springboard for more systematic actions that support and enhance the intercultural learning of credit-seeking exchange students during their sojourn. Insights and practical ideas will be offered to assist stakeholders, higher education administrators, researchers, international educators, language and intercultural instructors or trainers, in providing a way to incorporate interculturality as part of the design and delivery of European credit exchange programs during the in-country phase. Although this study first speaks to the *Campus Europae* case and, to a lesser extent, the *Erasmus* case, it is nonetheless how one complements the other that provides the key for

² ICOPROMO was a twofold research effort developed under the auspices of the CoE and the EU, as will be explained in more detail in Chapter 2.

further research on the development of ICCs as effective learning outcomes of European credit student mobility.

Finally, the call for action in this study is not just based on literary premises but rather on the claims of exchange students themselves, on years of observation, on many conversations with former exchange students, on the researcher's personal experience as a former *Erasmus* student at the University of Southampton, UK, and as a member of the international student association *Erasmus Student Network Aveiro* (ESN Aveiro, www.esnaveiro.org). All of these provided the seeds that were gradually corroborated by scholarly literature and transformed into a strong desire to improve student exchange educational practices. That is why this researcher is guided by constructivist and pragmatic paradigms that are problem-centered and change-oriented. This deep motivation to effect change guided the researcher throughout this study and was further supported by the well-known quote from Mahatma Ghandi's work: "Be the change you wish to see in the world".

1.10 Dissertation Outline

This first chapter serves as a prelude to the research by summarizing its purpose as well as its theoretical and methodological scope. This section in particular provides a cursory glance at the dissertation organization by briefly outlining its seven chapters.

Chapter 2 reviews and critiques relevant literature with regard to international and intercultural dimensions of credit student mobility. It situates student mobility within European higher education and Portuguese higher education, in particular. With these settings as background, this second chapter then discusses intercultural competencies as learning outcomes of internationalization efforts upon exchange students and relates them to a wider framework of intercultural curricula and pedagogy in language teaching as well as the relevance of this pedagogy to sojourner populations in accordance with European and US educational models. The chapter concludes with an overview of evaluation and assessment approaches, in general, and intercultural competencies, in particular.

Chapter 3 examines the methodological and epistemological underpinnings of this study, which are inextricably linked. Choices made throughout the research are detailed, specifically: the study's rationale, goals and underlying hypothesis; the two case studies and unit of analysis; and finally, the mixed methods design. This design is described in terms of the methodological and epistemological assumptions, of data collection and analysis as well

as of study implementation. The implementation of the study encompasses the various stages of planning, designing and implementing the intercultural intervention along its overall mission, length and purpose. Chapter 3 concludes with a summary and discussion about the methodological limitations.

Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 analyze and discuss quantitative and qualitative data sets produced by the two case studies. Chapter 4 offers a within-case analysis of case study 1, which responds to research subquestions 1.1, 1.2, 1.3 and 1.4. Chapter 5, on the other hand, offers a cross-case examination of the two case studies and provides responses to research subquestions 1.3, 1.4 and 1.5. Both chapters conclude with a summary and reflection on the limitations of within and cross-case data analyses.

Chapter 6 expands on the two preceding chapters by offering an analysis and discussion of qualitative data yielded by semi-structured interviews conducted with five stakeholders. All five stakeholders had a legitimate interest in the CE program and internationalization matters in the contextual scenarios depicted in this research. As in the previous chapters, the aim is to offer sustained responses to research subquestions (1.6 and 1.7, in this case).

Chapter 7 provides a cursory revisit of the study after which the main conclusions are introduced. These conclusions are presented as six key lessons which expand on responses offered to research subquestions in the three data analysis chapters. These lessons are followed by a reflection devoted to the limitations and recommendations of the research inquiry. The recommendations are subdivided into recommendations for practice and for future research. Recommendations for practice address hands-on suggestions applicable to the macro, mezzo and micro scenarios which framed the sojourn experience of research participants. Endorsements for research represent areas suggested for further study.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

«As palavras são apenas pedras postas a atravessar um rio, se estão ali é para que possamos chegar à outra margem, a outra margem é que interessa»

(Saramago, 2000, p. 77).

This chapter aims to overview and critique literature that addresses the international and intercultural dimensions of student exchange. It is situated within the cross-disciplinary field of international education and is informed by theoretical perspectives of intercultural competence studies, evaluation theories, in general, and assessment with respect to intercultural competence, in particular.

The chapter starts with an introduction to international education as a field of study and to the current state of the art on international educational research in Europe and in Portugal. This is followed by a review of internationalization in higher education and the role of student mobility in it. The chapter then examines the phenomenon of credit student mobility with regard to European and Portuguese higher education internationalization efforts. These scenarios are used to situate the discussion concerning the role of purposeful intercultural pedagogy in student exchange and European credit student mobility, in particular. This includes a chronological and typological overview of conceptualization efforts regarding intercultural competencies with special attention devoted to four models which influenced this study along with used terminology. Next, an examination of adopted evaluation theories is offered, along with a discussion of the challenges in assessing intercultural competencies.

The chapter concludes with a summary and a reflection about the gaps in the knowledge found.

2.1 International Education

This research is situated in the inter-disciplinary field of international education which examines educational phenomena of *international* and *cross-cultural* character from a multi-modal perspective. In other words, a field of systematic inquiry concerned with theory and practice to better understand and improve educational processes that are

international and *cross-cultural* in nature. The term *international* conveys the relations between or among nations, as noted by what is generally considered the first definition of international education by Scanlon and Shields (1968), to wit: “the various types of educational and cultural relations among nations” (p. x). *Cross-cultural*, in turn, addresses the different cultures involved in this relation.

Historically, international education became a field of academic interest in the the 1960s and 70s with particular prominence in the UK and the US (De Wit, 2002; Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2014). As an academic pursuit, international education emerged in association with comparative education, a relationship which has given rise to much controversy. Some scholars envisioned the two disciplines as ‘Siamese twins’ (e.g., Wilson, 1994), while others disagreed and considered comparative education academically superior to the other (e.g., Epstein, 1994). Evidence of these perspectives can still be found today.

Although the association of comparative and international education can be said to obstruct distinctive disciplinary identities and create ambiguities, it can also promote important synergies (Bray, 2007). This dissertation clearly advocates for the second instance in that an international educator should be informed about the complexities of educational comparison. On the other hand, comparative educators should also be aware of international education matters (Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2014).

Theoretically, many attempts have been made to define international education (Arum & Van de Water, 1992; Burn, 1980; De Wit, 2002; Epstein, 1994; Harari, 1972, 1989; Hayden, Thompson, & Levy, 2007; Mestenhauser, 1998a, 1998b; Mestenhauser, Hegeman-Davis, Nue Lor, & Williams, 2015; Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2014; Scanlon & Shields, 1968). None has met widespread approval. From these attempts, four common meanings can be found, referring to:

1. Internationalization or the international dimension of education and its cross-border activities;
2. The work of international organizations in education (e.g., UNESCO, World Bank, OECD,...) for promotion of international understanding;
3. Education with an internationally-based curriculum (e.g., International schools) and forms of international education within national school systems (e.g., Global citizenship education);
4. Scientific field of professional practice and research inquiry.

The first meaning is a dominant understanding of international education used synonymously with the international component of education. This is especially evident in the US where *international education* functions as an umbrella term for cross-border delivery and internally-based activities in higher education. In Europe, *internationalization* is the term of choice (De Wit, 2002; Green & Olson, 2003).

The second understanding of international education denotes the work in education of international and non-governmental bodies as the promoters of *education for international understanding* and, at the same time, the source of much research. This type of education is oriented toward comprehension between nations and can encompass development education in poor world regions. UNESCO has been an active promoter of his type of education since the mid-1940s (see Goñi, 2004).

The third definition is curriculum-focused and can denote the *whole* or the *part*: (a) *the whole* - when the entire school is internationally-based with regard to ethos, curricula and methods of instruction; (b) *the part* - when within the school system one can find international goals. Within the former interpretation one can situate international schools which have existed since 1860s and proliferated after World War II (Sylvester, 2002). This type of schools are popular among expatriate children, by offering an internally-based curriculum and school-leaving qualifications recognized worldwide. A well-known example is the *International Baccalaureate Organization (IBO)*.³ The latter interpretation (b - *the part*) usually denotes disciplinary subdivisions within a national school system, including: global citizenship education or global issues education, multicultural and intercultural education, international/transnational studies, among other examples.

Finally, the understanding of international education in this dissertation is that of a scientific field, a meaning largely unexplored. As a field of study, international education has expanded in size and scope in the last two decades due to the intensified globalization and the interest in international inquiry within the social sciences (Crossley, 2000; Hayden, Levy, & Thompson, 2007). Today, international education is considered a “composite of borrowings from virtually every academic discipline and every culture (...) [and] is therefore

³ Non-profit educational foundation established in 1968 in Switzerland. The IBO offers international education programs worldwide for children aged 3-19, including an internationally accepted qualification for university entrance – The International Baccalaureate Diploma Program (www.ibo.org).

multidimensional, multidisciplinary and cross-cultural” (Mestenhauser, 2012, p. vii). A visible field which remains invisible to many, as espoused by Mestenhauser et al. (2015).

The various discipline-like features and theoretical approaches of international education are mostly grounded in the humanities and social sciences, while maintaining the foundational aspects of education. Internationally-oriented research applied to educational phenomena can be also routinely found in: political science, economics, intercultural communication, language and literature, general education, sociology, anthropology, psychology, among others (Hayden, Levy, et al., 2007). In this aspect, it is insightful to look at the theoretical approaches and disciplines gathered in *the Sage Handbook of Research in International Education* (see Hayden, Thompson, et al., 2007). The common thread is the object of analysis - an educational phenomenon which is *international*, and by implication, *cross-cultural* in nature. These objects of analysis can be as diverse as the disciplines and theoretical perspectives examining them and can represent: an educational program or activity that has a recognizable international dimension, the phenomena of student and staff mobility, internationalization processes in education, international schools, among so many other examples. These objects can, in turn, be examined at different levels - e.g., at *student*, *programmatic*, *institutional*, *national* and *supranational* levels. In the case of this research, the phenomenon under scrutiny is European credit-seeking student mobility, examined primarily from a student level perspective. The other levels (*programmatic*, *institutional*, *national* and *supranational*) are not disregarded as will be shown throughout the dissertation.

In essence, it is the *multidimensional*, *multidisciplinary* and *cross-cultural* character, alluded to by Mestenhauser (2012), that makes international education the perfect fit for researching about the *international* and *cross-cultural* dimensions of credit student mobility in this dissertation. This type of research is discussed next.

2.1.1 Research in International Education in Europe and in Portugal

Scholars from different scientific fields and geographical contexts researching about academic mobility stressed the need to theorize this educational phenomenon and/or approach it from a multi-modal perspective (Barber, Altbach, & Myers, 1984; Byram & Dervin, 2008; Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, 2008; Streitwieser, 2012; Streitwieser, Le, & Rust, 2012; Teichler, 1996; Wätcher, Lam, & Ferencz, 2012; Whalen, 2012). This demand is not exactly new but seems to be generally forgotten.

From a US-based perspective, Barber et al. (1984) called upon practitioners, policy makers and academic researchers to combine forces to understand student exchange in more realistic ways. Similarly, in Europe, Teichler (1996) voiced the urge for systematic research about internal education issues in higher education, including academic mobility.

More recently, Byram and Dervin (2008) drew attention to the demand for a focused field of study abroad concerned both with student and staff mobility. In this book, Murphy- Lejeune's (2008) chapter highlighted the same need through a *musical metaphor* wherein voices from different disciplines may be heard. She exemplified with "voices" from *sociology, international politics, economics, social anthropology* which relate to the first generation of studies on European student mobility in the 1990s.

In 2012, the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) published a book on the importance to avoid a 'single issue view' of international higher education by 'tying together' *internationalization, academic mobility, excellence, social inclusion and funding* (see Wätcher et al., 2012). In the same year, Streitwieser (2012) edited a themed issue, in the *Journal of Research in Comparative and International Education*, warranting more articulation between international and comparative education so as to approach student exchange in theoretical and empirically-sound ways. In this issue, Whalen (2012) called for more scholarly analysis of education abroad to advance the field.

While there is active research about international education issues in general and student exchange in particular, this research area is still rather scattered among a plethora of specialized and non-specialized resources. The specialized resources include:

1. Academic journals (e.g., *Journal of Studies in International Education*; *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*);
2. Books and handbooks covering a wide range of topics related to academic mobility and international education (e.g., Blumenthal, Goodwin, Smith, & Teichler, 1996; Byram & Dervin, 2008; Byram & Feng, 2006; Deardorff, De Wit, Heyl, & Adams, 2012; Dervin & Byram, 2008; Klasek, 1992; Lewin, 2009; Streitwieser, 2014), including a handbook solely devoted to research in international education (Hayden, Thompson, et al., 2007);
3. Listservs for study abroad professionals (e.g., SECUSS-L, www.secussl.info), online newspapers on international higher education (e.g., University World News, www.universityworldnews.com);

4. Professional groups (e.g., *The Association of International Educators* in the US - NAFSA; *The European Association for International Education* - EAIE); associations (e.g., ACA; *The European University Association* - EUA) and networks (e.g., *The International Education Research Network* - IERN).⁴ These professional bodies promote annual conferences, seminars and professional training on international education issues;
5. Master's and Doctoral programs; research centers and newsletters.

As the list of specialized resources shows, there is no shortage of literature on international education and student exchange. This list is, nonetheless, merely illustrative. For a comprehensive overview of specialized resources in international higher education, the reader is referred to De Wit and Urias (2012).

In addition to specialized resources, research in international education can be also found in non-specialized journals which occasionally publish themes and/or issues related to international education. The array of journals publishing research on international education topics is as wide as the disciplines that feed this field. While this may enrich international education inquiry, it makes it extremely difficult for the international educator or researcher to take stock of relevant publications and studies. Moreover, it is quite challenging to identify scholars devoted solely to this field as much investigation is produced by researchers who have an interest in this area but whose field of scientific inquiry is another. In practical terms, this leads to many publications which do not always bring about further scholarship. This is certainly valid in Portugal where this researcher was only able to find irregular publications on student exchange. The reason is mainly twofold: (1) lack of recognition of international education as a scientific field, and (2) unsystematic production of academic publications which are either elaborated by individuals or specific interest groups.

For the reasons described above, the few Portuguese-based publications this researcher identified about intra-European student exchange were either: (a) periodicals mostly within the political sciences and, more sparingly, within intercultural studies, or (b) Master's theses on thematics related to this phenomenon. Within the former case (a), one can situate journal articles about internationalization in Portuguese tertiary education which

⁴ Professional groups: NAFSA (www.nafsa.org), EAIE, (www.eaie.org); associations: ACA (www.aca-secretariat.be), EUA (www.eua.be); networks: IERN (<http://www.ieaa.org.au/iern/home>).

approach academic mobility as part of this process, as section 2.3.1 will demonstrate. Other articles attend to the work of interculturalists like Gonçalves (2009, 2010). The latter case (b), refers to academic Master's theses from different disciplines, including: political sciences, intercultural education, multimedia, psychology, languages and business (e.g., Boa-Ventura, 2012; Branquinho, 2010; Cunha, 2011; Dalcin, 2011; Hope, 2008; Louro, 2007; Meireles, 2008; Shenoy, 2010). Interestingly, in some of these theses authors were exchange students themselves. None of them had further publications about student exchange.

Naturally, other random publications can be found but the search process is essentially a matter of luck in view of the paucity of research on intra-European student exchange from a Portuguese-based perspective. This situation is, however, different for Portuguese-speaking student exchange in Portugal, a considerably studied topic. Numerous scientific publications in periodicals, books, as well as doctoral dissertations and Master's theses can be found (e.g., Brito, 2009; Costa, 2010; Faria, 2009; Ferro, 2010; Mourato, 2011; Pacheco, 1996; Pessoa, 2004; Semedo, 2010). In this case, as in intra-European student exchange, studies range across various disciplines in the social sciences.

Given the fragmented nature of research about student exchange, a systematic way to identify relevant literature is to map key thematic areas related to this phenomenon. Comp, Gladding, Rhodes, Stephenson, and Vande Berg (2007), for instance, categorize research efforts in US study abroad into types, viz.: studies focusing on (a) learning domains abroad, and (b) the type of variables informing student learning abroad. These categories can be broken down into thematic areas, as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 - Research areas in US study abroad after Comp et al. (2007).

Categories	Thematic areas of research
Learning domains abroad	1) L2 acquisition/learning 2) Intercultural learning 3) Disciplinary learning 4) Long-term impact (on students' academic career and life choices)
Variables informing student learning abroad	5) Program duration 6) Program assessment 7) Program interventions or trainings 8) Home institution grading policy 9) Type of housing abroad 10) Contact with host-country nationals

The categories and themes suggested by Comp et al. (2007) are applicable to the overall phenomenon of student exchange, including European credit student mobility. Nevertheless, European literature reveals clear gaps in knowledge regarding program assessment (Theme 6) and interventions in student exchange (Theme 7), as sections 2.4.1 and 2.4.4.2 will show. More than providing an endless list of sample studies for all 10 themes in Table 1, these themes and underlying disciplinary perspectives will be called upon throughout the dissertation whenever appropriate.

Having outlined the international education field and germane research, the following section relates student mobility to internationalization in higher education.

2.2 Internationalization in Higher Education and Student Mobility

Concepts such as Europeanization, Internationalization and Globalization are often used to describe the goal universities pursue as international institutions (Nokkala, 2004). Despite differences in terminology, all three terms point to the need for higher education institutions to internationalize in today's world. Formerly of little concern, this goal became a major focus in Europe from the mid-1980s on, as explained in Chapter 1. Since then, the international dimension of higher education grew into an increasingly important component of the contemporary university, and student mobility as one of its core activities. However, the educational and intercultural approaches utilized by many tertiary institutions remain unclear and require further elaboration, as espoused by Deardorff (2004), in the US, and Hermans (2005) in Europe. Most of all, a clear definition is needed of what 'internationalizing' means for the twenty-first century university and the importance attributed to each of its four typical rationales - academic, political, (socio)cultural and economic (De Wit, 1995; Knight & De Wit, 1997, 1999).

The definition of internationalization adopted here is put forth by Knight (2004) as: "the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education" (p. 11). And yet, if internationalizing tertiary institutions is seen as a process of change from a national to an international stance, the question arises: *What does this change imply?*

In view of this working definition, this change should imply embedding an intercultural dimension into the policies and practices of the higher education systems

(national level) and institutions (institutional level). The use of *international*, *intercultural* and *global* in tandem reflects the breadth and depth of internationalization processes, as elaborated further by Knight (2004). The term *international* reflects, then, the move from a national to an international perspective, by conveying the relationships between and among nations, cultures, or countries. *Intercultural* is used to address cultural diversity aspects and, finally, *global* expresses the idea of a wider scenario of worldwide interconnectedness (Knight, 2004). It is the intersection of international and intercultural dimensions of higher education that remains unresolved. It is at this very intersection where purposeful intercultural pedagogy in study abroad can contribute to the effective development of intercultural competencies within the wider framework of internationalization efforts.

If one bifurcates internationalization into two interdependent pillars - “at home” and “abroad”, as argued by Knight (2004) and elaborated further in (2010, 2012), it becomes clear how study abroad relates to internationalization processes, and how these efforts should cater for intercultural development and understanding. This should be done in attendance to: (a) campus and curriculum-based strategies aiming to promote intercultural understanding. - “Internationalization at home”, and (b) cross-border education which comprises a variety of delivery modes, including the mobility of students - “Internationalization abroad/cross-border”. These two internationalization pillars are interdependent and influence one another. To illustrate the range of strategies and/or activities of these two internationalization modes in higher education, Knight’s (2012) schema is replicated in Figure 1.

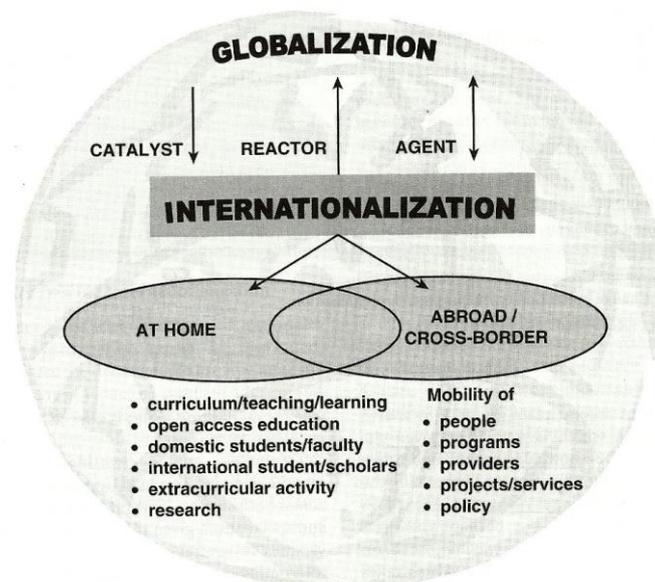


Figure 1 - Internationalization pillars: At home and cross-border after Knight (2012, p. 34).

It is under the umbrella of internationalization abroad or cross-border education that the type of physical mobility under examination in this study can be situated. The “at home” dimension is not disregarded in this research in that the formal teaching/learning practices embodied by its intervention were expanded by extracurricular on-campus activities. These activities were open to domestic and exchange students at the university where this study took place, as will be explained in Chapter 4. Although the focus and object of data collection of this study is a formal intervention, campus-based activities were envisaged as another chief site for incorporating intercultural perspectives into the wider academic community.

The type of physical mobility under scrutiny in this research is the academic movement of students seeking credits in recognition of their period of studies abroad. In European literature on study abroad, this form of student mobility is referred to as credit or horizontal student exchange. That is, a programmatic type of student exchange which occurs within parallel cycles of study in one of two directions (inbound or outbound) to permit transferring credits earned during the sojourn back to one’s home institution (Szarka, 2003; Wächter, 2008). This type of physical student mobility is often opposed to *vertical mobility* which involves a whole cycle of study to obtain a full degree abroad (ibid.). Horizontally-organized student exchange is also commonly referred to in Europe as “temporary” or “non-degree” student mobility (see Kelo, Teichler, & Wächter, 2006; Teichler, Ferencz, & Wächter, 2011). These terms will be used interchangeably in this dissertation.

Other forms of cross-border education exist besides the academic mobility of people wherein credit and degree-seeking student mobility can be positioned. For instance, in Knight’s (2012, 2014) taxonomy academic mobility has moved from people (students, faculty, scholars), to program (movement of education/training programs and courses - e.g., joint/double degrees, twinning programs, distance/online learning) and provider mobility (movement of education providers - e.g., branch campuses, bi-national universities). Recently, academic mobility is increasingly bound to the development of international education hubs, based on a more commercial model and the move from aid to trade. Each mode of cross-border delivery carries with it specific challenges and merits individual reflection, as explained further by Knight (2014).

To summarize, Knight’s (2004, 2012) approach to internationalization is used in this dissertation to place credit student mobility within the wider scenario of internationalization in higher education, while raising awareness to other forms of cross-border delivery. This

theoretical framework was chosen due to its comprehensiveness (in terms of activities, outcomes, rationales, processes and pillars) and clarity in relating forms of cross-border education to internationalization processes which should, in turn, incorporate an intercultural facet. Isolating student mobility from internationalization efforts and underlying rationales, would ultimately ignore a major force shaping higher education today and the wider scenarios which student mobility is part of. The particular scenarios which frame the type of student mobility under examination in this study are discussed next.

2.3 Student Mobility in Europe: An Educational Phenomenon?

Any form of cross-border education, including credit-bearing exchange programs, should not function in isolation from the postsecondary enterprise. Hence the need of accounting for the effects of this context and its internationalization efforts.

In Europe, contemporary student mobility cannot be disassociated from the interplay between the supranational intents of the European Union (EU) and the intergovernmental objectives of Bologna's reform project (1999) regarding internationalization strategies in European higher education. Of major relevance has been the creation of a barrier-free European Higher Education Area (EHEA) which was assumed from the outset as the primary goal of the Bologna Process (BP, www.ehea.info). This background sets the current context for student mobility and how it is viewed in Europe - i.e., primarily as a vehicle for development in knowledge economies and harmonization among European tertiary institutions. This may be one of the reasons why the promotion of student mobility carries a certain degree of continuity between earlier and present-day intergovernmental and supranational intents. For instance, in the initial six action lines of the BP (Bologna Declaration, 1999)⁵ the promotion of student and staff mobility was part of the objectives to facilitate the establishment of the EHEA by 2010. At present, academic mobility constitutes a separate action line of the EHEA. Papatsiba (2006) clearly states the problem: "increasing student mobility emerges as one of the ultimate reasons for establishing the EHEA, and at the same time, its expected outcome" (p. 97).

⁵ The Bologna Declaration was signed by 29-30 European countries who expressed their willingness to foster a comparable and compatible EHEA, particularly through the creation of a common three-cycle degree structure: (1) Undergraduate or Bachelor's, (2) Master's and (3) PhD levels (www.ehea.info).

The interplay between intergovernmental and supranational intents surrounding student mobility is a recent practice that dates to the late 1990s and to the implementation of the BP. It is, thus, essential to place student mobility and internationalization efforts in a historical perspective, as reminded by De Wit (2002); De Wit and Merckx (2012); Huisman, Adelman, Hsieh, Shams, and Wilkins (2012); Teichler (2009); among others.

It was only in the late 1970s that student mobility started taking the first steps as a systematic organized phenomenon concerning the movement of people for educational purposes. In the two preceding decades (1950s and 1960s), i.e., in the aftermath of World War II, academic mobility in Europe was still unorganized and done on an individual and voluntary basis (Neave (1992) in De Wit & Merckx, 2012). The concern in Europe at the time was postwar rebuilding and academic exchange and other international education activities naturally reflected these efforts. On that account, academic exchanges occurred essentially through bilateral and governmental agreements driven by rationales of mutual understanding and national security, in addition to academic and professional development. As De Wit and Merckx (2012) explain, the few internationally-oriented activities in European higher education referred primarily to: the movement of (degree-seeking) students from developing countries to their colonial superpowers (e.g., UK, France, Germany) or (b) within Central and Eastern Europe under Soviet Union's intents of political integration of communist countries and, finally, (c) the academic cooperation between the US and Europe.

The late 1970s witnessed a gradual move from national-political rationales to academic cooperation ones. From this decade onwards the then-European Economic Community, EEC, one of the predecessor organizations of the EU, became an increasingly active player in forms of cross-border cooperation. As a consequence, student exchange acquired a clear supranational dimension. A major contribution was the launching of the Joint Study Program Scheme and, in particular, the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (*Erasmus*) in 1976 and 1987, respectively. Today, it is of general agreement among the scholarly community that *Erasmus* constituted a key trigger for the demand of student mobility in Europe and more systematic strategies in the internationalization of European postsecondary education (e.g., De Wit, 2002; De Wit & Merckx, 2012; Huisman et al., 2012; Papatsiba, 2006; Smith, 1996; Teichler, 2009; Wätcher, 2008; Wätcher, Ollikainen, & Hasewend, 1999). The popularity of the *Erasmus* program has, *de facto*, made credit student mobility a reality in Europe. Thus, if initially the program

targeted primarily at Member States of the former EEC, its current successor (*Erasmus+*) encompasses 33 countries.⁶ This EU flagship program in education and training had not only the merit of removing legal barriers to student exchange as part of the home degree, but of also facilitating the access to this educational opportunity. Both issues have, nevertheless, remained central concerns in supranational, intergovernmental and national discourses.

In the last two decades of the twentieth century, the international dimension of European higher education and forms of academic cooperation became more structured. A landmark was the ratification of the Treaty of the EU in 1993 which formally recognized education as an area of EU competency. As a result, the project of European integration was placed high onto higher education agendas. For scholars like Teichler (1999), the 1990s represent three substantial qualitative leaps in higher education cooperation policies and practices toward an integrated internationalization of European higher education. For others, like Van der Wende (2001), the 1990s marked the shift from cooperation to competition.

In 1990, *Erasmus* entered its second phase with no substantial changes being made to its primary intents of fostering academic cooperation and temporary student mobility within the European Community. It was only in the middle of the decade that *Erasmus* was formally integrated in the more broadly-based *Socrates* (1995-1999). The eight-year transition period (1987-1994) from *Erasmus* to *Socrates* was characterized by significant developments in academic exchanges and cooperation, including: the establishment of the Community Network of National Academic Recognition Information Centers (NARIC), in 1987, to facilitate the recognition of diplomas and periods of study abroad across Member States; the introduction of the European Community Course Credit Transfer System (ECTS) in 1989 (initially, on a pilot basis) as an instrument of academic recognition for the period of studies abroad; and finally, the monitoring and evaluation of education programs run by the European Community through regular evaluation meetings and annual reports implemented from 1987-88 onwards (Teichler & Maiworn, 1997). During this period other major education and training programs were also adopted, including: (a) *Commett* which aimed at supporting cooperation between European universities and industry to promote training in advanced technologies and ensure the development of high level human resources in this area; (b) *Lingua*, focused on encouraging multilingualism and the teaching and

⁶ Number of participant countries in the Key Action 1 “Learning mobility of individuals” (formerly, *Erasmus*).

learning of foreign languages; and finally, (c) *Petra* and (d) *Force* both targeting at vocational training. *Petra* focused on initial training and *Force* on continuing training.⁷

When *Socrates* came into force in 1995, it reemphasized cooperation in European tertiary education and gave greater coherence to EU's education and training programs or actions. With regard to competencies, the advent of the 'learning society' set forward by the European Commission's, EC, (1995) White Paper on Education and Training, "Teaching and Learning towards the Learning Society", stressed the acquisition of new knowledge, learning capacities and language skills on which physical mobility played a key part.

In the first phase of *Socrates*, student mobility continued to be envisioned as a means to produce qualified human resources with experience of economic and social aspects of the Community's Member States, as well as with the necessary language and citizenship skills to function in multicultural societies. These intents, outlined in the decision which led to the establishment of *Erasmus* in 1987,⁸ remained valid throughout *Socrates* even if organizational and managerial matters were substantially revised (Maiworn, 2001; Teichler, 2001). Language skills and citizenship ideals were also strengthened throughout *Socrates*. Two major contributors were: the introduction of the concept of European citizenship (in the Treaty of the EU), and the learning of three European languages (two community languages + mother tongue) as part of this European citizenry (in the EC's (1995) White Paper).

In 2000, when *Socrates* entered its second phase (2000-2006), it rationalized further EU's education and training programs into three major strands: (1) *Socrates* for education,⁹ (2) *Leonardo da Vinci* for vocational training and (3) *e-Learning* for promotion of information and communication technologies in education and training. Once again, historical developments cannot be put aside were not these changes also a result of EU's recognition of lifelong learning education and training as a leverage for employability and growth, in the Lisbon Strategy.

During this second phase of *Socrates*, more attention was paid to academic recognition and quality requirements in academic mobility and cooperation. Evidence of that is the implementation of the *Erasmus University Charter* outlining the fundamental

⁷ For an overview of EU education and training programs from 1976 to 1994 please see COM (1994).

⁸ Council Decision of 15 June 1987 (Decision No 87/327/EEC). Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu>

⁹ Encompassing: (a) *Comenius* (School education);(b) *Erasmus* (Higher education);(c) *Grundtvig* (Adult education & other education pathways); (d) *Lingua* (Teaching & learning foreign languages), (e) *Minerva* (Open and distance education and information and communication technologies in the field of education).

principles of *Socrates* and requirements or conditions on the part of participant tertiary institutions. The charter brought considerable managerial changes, as mentioned earlier, particularly by replacing the previous system of networks of cooperating departments (through Inter-university Cooperation Programs, ICPs) and by requiring the administration of grants to be decentralized to the National Agencies¹⁰ of participant countries. The charter was (and still is) accompanied by a *European Policy Statement* (currently, *Erasmus Policy Statement*) regarding the implementation of *Socrates II* and European academic cooperation. After all, an objective of the program was to foster the European dimension in higher education while creating synergies with the BP.

It was also during the seven-year period in which *Socrates II* ran that the EU launched a new external cooperation program - *Erasmus Mundus* (in 2004). This occurred at a time when the BP continued to emphasize the global attractiveness of the EHEA and the EU aimed to promote itself as a worldwide center of excellence in learning. The program joined previous external cooperation programs: *Jean Monnett* (launched in *1989-90), *Tempus* (*1990), *Alfa* (*1994), and *Cooperation with industrialized countries* (*1995). These programs, excepting *Jean Monnett* which can be posited at a different level given its focus on European integration, still target today at EU's cooperation in higher education and training with particular world regions.

The success of *Erasmus Mundus* in establishing joint study programs with third countries at Master's and PhD levels and in attracting top postgraduate students to European tertiary institutions enabled its transition to a second phase (2009-2013). Currently, the program is part of *Erasmus+* (For more information see COM, 2013a).

In 2007, *Socrates II* subprograms were incorporated into the umbrella program *Lifelong Learning* (LLP), in alignment with EU's Strategic Framework for European Cooperation in Education and Training (ET 2020) and ongoing Bologna reformist intents. Once again, emphasis was placed on making Europe an advanced knowledge-based society, and European higher education a world reference through lifelong learning. Academic mobility, interexchange and cooperation were seen as means to reach such a goal. To implement the streamlined objectives of the LLP, the program was organized into four

¹⁰ Decentralized EU bodies of participant countries in EU's education and training programs, responsible for the successful management of EU grants and implementation of these programs at national level.

sectoral subprograms, one transversal program with four key actions and, finally, the *Jean Monnet* program. Table 2 summarizes this organization.

Table 2 - Lifelong Learning subprograms and key activities.

Sectors	Subprograms and key activities
Sectoral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Comenius</i> for schools (from pre-school to upper secondary education) • <i>Erasmus</i> for higher education and vocational education and training • <i>Leonardo da Vinci</i> for vocational education and training (other than at tertiary level) • <i>Grundtvig</i> for adult education
Transversal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Key activity 1: Policy cooperation and innovation • Key activity 2: Language learning • Key activity 3: Information and communications technologies • Key activity 4: Dissemination and exploitation of results
Jean Monnet	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotion of teaching and research on European integration in higher education

Source: Decision No 1720/2006/EC; available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu>

It is within the framework of LLP that one of the credit-bearing exchange programs under examination in this study can be situated - *Erasmus*. Under the LLP, *Erasmus* continued to support student and staff mobility in higher education. Unlike in the previous generation of programs, vocational education and training in tertiary education fell under *Erasmus* instead of *Leonardo da Vinci*. On that account, *Erasmus* was subdivided into student mobility for studies and for placements, as well as into staff mobility for teaching assignments and for staff training.

During the LLP, *Erasmus* encompassed *decentralized* and *centralized* actions. The decentralized actions concerned the mobility of individuals (described before), intensive language courses,¹¹ intensive programs and preparatory visits to help organizing mobility initiatives. The centralized actions included: multilateral projects, academic and structural networks and accompanying measures to accomplish the objectives of *Erasmus*.

In terms of competencies, an examination of the objectives of *Erasmus* shows that the impact of this sectoral subprogram was more at system level rather than at individual learning outcomes. It is only in the specific objectives of the wider LLP that one can get a sense of the type of competencies addressed by the program. Out of the 11 specific objectives of the LLP three are related to intercultural development, even if not specified in terms of competencies, to wit:

¹¹ *Erasmus Intensive Language Courses* (EILC) are specialized courses in less used and taught languages of participant countries in the LLP. These courses enable *Erasmus* students to study the language of the prospective host country beforehand for two up to six weeks before the start of the academic year.

1. “To reinforce the contribution of lifelong learning to social cohesion, active citizenship, intercultural dialogue, gender quality and personal fulfillment” - Article 1(d);
2. “To promote language learning and linguistic diversity” - Article 1(g);
3. “To reinforce the role of lifelong learning in creating a sense of European citizenship based in understanding and respect for human rights and democracy, and encouraging tolerance and respect for other peoples and cultures” - Article 1(i).

Decision No 1720/2006/EC (pp L327/48-49; Article 1)

The dearth of pedagogical procedures and/or measures regarding the development of intercultural competencies has spanned the different generations of EU programs given the unambiguous ‘problematizing’ of the pedagogical nature of student mobility. The same is applicable to intergovernmental discourses surrounding student mobility. One underlying reason may be the focus of both EU higher education cooperation policies and Bologna reformist intents on ‘structure before content’, as highlighted by Papatsiba (2005, 2006). As explained further by this scholar, the debate about cooperation in European tertiary education has adopted a rather utilitarian approach wherein the educational meaning and goals behind the promotion of student mobility have not necessarily been addressed. If *Erasmus* illustrates well this problem at the supranational level, the other credit-bearing exchange program under examination in this dissertation - *Campus Europae* (CE, www.campuseuropae.org) - raises this matter at the intergovernmental level. Notwithstanding, disentangling the supranational and intergovernmental sway in these two exchange programs is not a clear-cut exercise.

Striving to be “the practical realization of the Bologna Process” (EUF-CE, 1999, p. 2), the CE program dates back to 1999 and was conceived in line with Bologna ideals and strategic objectives.

With regard to its ideals, CE shares the Bologna vision of a compatible EHEA. This compatibility is embodied by the multilateral and curricular cooperation among a consortium of 18 partner institutions¹² of higher education. In terms of structure, CE exchanges reflect the student-centered approach advocated by the BP as well as the three-cycle degree

¹² All individual institutions of higher education which are members of the EUF-CE network. It should be noted that the network currently makes the distinction between regular partnerships and privileged partnerships and counts 3 higher education institutions from Łódź as one. For these reasons, the network considers a total number of 13 partner institutions + 3 privileged partnerships [Last updated on June 30 2015].

structure (see Footnote 5). Students are permitted to spend one or up to two academic years at CE member universities during undergraduate and master's cycles. Upon completion of coursework, student will earn credits in recognition of their period of studies abroad.

The CE project draws also attention to social inclusion issues by offering part-time work placements while abroad, as will be examined in Chapter 3. This concern resonates the regard for social inclusion in student mobility, which was placed high on the BP agenda following the London Communiqué (2007).

It is not CE's aspiration to become the practical realization of the BP that is problematic unto itself, but rather the emphasis on 'structure before content'. Similar to *Erasmus*, the educational goals proposed by this exchange program are not necessarily accompanied by appropriate intercultural pedagogies and evaluation systems. This is paramount as CE's overarching educational goal is bound to civic rationales, to wit:

“Campus Europae's fundamental aim is to foster the idea of European citizenship among university students by allowing them to experience Europe's unity and diversity. Campus Europae seeks to emphasize the fundamental civic implications of student exchange for European societies, rather than regarding it as a mere feature of the European Higher Education Area” (CE, www.campuseuropae.org).

Despite the relevance of civic rationales for CE and the concern to raise awareness to language learning, the program does not clarify how this goal can be achieved beyond offering extended stays abroad and a “2 years, 2 languages” concept wherein CE students should learn two foreign languages, as will be examined further in Chapter 3. In this aspect, it is noticeable the supranational effects of EU educational policies. For instance, the European multilingual ideal (two community languages + mother tongue) is a core rule of the CE project and a prerequisite to build up a real European citizenship among CE students (Ferrari, 2013). Curiously, CE's goal (“Experiencing Europe's unity in diversity”) resembles the motto of the EU - “United in diversity”. Furthermore, the project also builds on the *Erasmus* program with the aim of improving the educational quality of credit student mobility and overcoming well-known obstacles, such as: the financial accessibility of the exchange experience (through study-related professional experiences abroad) and academic recognition (through *ex ante* equivalence matrices).

In addition to the ambiguity about the attainment of CE goals, the program lacks appropriate pedagogies and evaluation systems to assess the development of intercultural competencies among CE movers. This is all the more important as CE strives to be a “perfect laboratory for mobility” and a springboard for pedagogical change, as contended in its tenth anniversary publication - *Campus Europae. A laboratory for mobility* (see EUF-CE, 2013).

In essence, if the value of student mobility is to be educational, the focus needs to go beyond system-level change and include the individual learning outcomes of those who partake in the study abroad experience. This is certainly valid for the two credit-bearing exchange programs examined in this dissertation and justifies the demand for purposeful intercultural pedagogy in student exchange, as will be explained later in this chapter. This demand needs, however, to be placed against the mix of intergovernmental and supranational discourses involving credit student mobility in Europe and the urge to envision this phenomenon other than an object of political promotion with quantitative benchmarks.¹³ For instance, the new EU integrated program for Education, Training, Youth and Sport, *Erasmus+*, promises a renewed emphasis on the learning mobility of individuals for the 2014-2020 period, with an estimate of two million higher education students studying and training abroad. On that account, the program not only allocated the greatest share (at least 63%) of its budget to the “Learning mobility of individuals” (Key Action 1), but it also combined seven EU programs to ensure greater efficiency. This streamlined architecture aims to also facilitate cooperation for innovation and exchange of good practices (Key Action 2) and support policy reform to strengthen the international dimension of European higher education (Key Action 3) (EC, ec.europa.eu/erasmus-plus).

If the EU promise is to hold true, credit student mobility needs to go beyond a concept “politiquement correct, mais pédagogiquement inhabité” (Papatsiba, 2003, p. 6).

2.3.1 Student Mobility in Portugal

Before delving into the student mobility phenomenon in Portugal, it is necessary to describe the Portuguese higher education system (section 2.3.1.1) and its internationalization processes (section 2.3.1.2) to, finally, reflect upon the specifics of credit student mobility in Portugal (section 2.3.1.3).

¹³ In 1987, the EEC aimed to increase credit student mobility from less than 4% to 10% by 1992. The BP set a benchmark of 20%, by 2020, that those graduating in the EHEA should have done a study or training period abroad.

2.3.1.1 Portuguese higher education

Portuguese higher education has a binary structure, organized into universities and polytechnic schools either public or private.¹⁴ Whereas the university subsector follows the *Humboldtian* tradition wherein teaching and research are intertwined, polytechnic schools are geared toward vocational and advanced technical training.

The binary structure of Portuguese tertiary education was triggered by the major push from governmental policies following the Democratic Revolution of 1974 and aimed at expanding and democratizing education after 41 years of dictatorship.¹⁵ In higher education, the new governmental policies encouraged the emergence of the private sector and the polytechnic subsystem. These policy intentions aimed at bringing about socioeconomic development and qualified human resources at national and regional levels (the polytechnic subsystem was paramount in the latter aspect). This occurred at a time when prospective membership in the EEC was high on the policy agenda. Thus, the 1980s and 1990s witnessed the rapid growth of the overall tertiary private sector and polytechnic schools. This expansion was accompanied by an unparalleled increase in higher education attendance rates from about 7% in 1974 to 40% in 1998 (Rosa, Veiga, & Amaral, 2004).

The rapid enlargement of the private sector is still perceivable today in the larger number of private institutions than public. According to data by the Directorate-General of Higher Education (DGES),¹⁶ the private sector accounts for 36 universities and 64 polytechnic schools. The public sector, in turn, encompasses 14 universities and 20 polytechnic schools, as well as six higher education institutions for the military and police (DGES, www.studyinportugal.edu.pt). The type of steering is based on a model of state supervision. Higher education institutions enjoy diverse degrees of autonomy varying both by *subsystem* (university or polytechnic) and *sector* (public or private).

At present, Portuguese tertiary education faces declining enrollments due to the decrease in birth rates and a strong economic recession which severely affected available resources in education and spurred emigration. Estimates by the OECD account for a total

¹⁴ Some Portuguese universities may encompass polytechnic schools or deliver polytechnic programs. For more information please see: <http://www.dges.mctes.pt/DGES/pt> or <http://www.studyinportugal.edu.pt>

¹⁵The Democratic Revolution of April 25 1974 overthrew the authoritarian regime (*Estado Novo*) established in 1933 by *António Salazar*, through a left-wing military coup.

¹⁶ The DGES (*Direção-Geral do Ensino Superior*) is a central service of the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education (MCTES). Its mission is to ensure the conception, implementation and coordination of policies under the responsibility of the MCTES (DGES, www.dges.mctes.pt).

flow of 44,000 and 52,000 long-term emigrants in 2011 and 2012, respectively. About 40% of those who left Portugal were aged 15-28. The OCECD compares this outflow to emigration cycles of the 1960s and early 1970s during the Portuguese dictatorship.

Scholars like Amaral and Teixeira (1999, 2000) stress the steady decrease of higher education candidates which can lead to the collapse of the sector, particularly private institutions whose recruitment is locally-based and social prestige is not as strong as in the public sector. In the (2006) background report the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education (MCTES) prepared for the OECD's (2007) review of Portuguese tertiary education, the reduction of student intake is evident from 2001-2002 onwards. Since then, both subsystems across public and private sectors realized the need to compete for more human resources, as well as financial and intangible means such as quality and prestige (Amaral & Magalhães, 2005).

2.3.1.2 Internationalization processes

Given the decline in student intake in Portuguese tertiary education, internationalization strategies can have a crucial role to play. Nevertheless, the rationales for internationalizing Portuguese higher education are essentially political and cultural, and just recently economic (Rosa et al., 2004; Veiga, Rosa, & Amaral, 2006).

The political rationale is strongly influenced by supranational and intergovernmental discourses, mostly after 1986 when Portugal joined the EEC. Structural funds of the EU have since then played a major part in the internationalization of Portuguese tertiary institutions, forcing them to establish administrative and academic structures to apply for mobility schemes and underlying funds (which included both student and institutional grants). Administratively, the first three phases of *Erasmus* required Portuguese institutions to be part of networks of departments, the so called ICPs (see section 2.3). Academically, institutions had to guarantee academic recognition of those partaking in the study abroad experience, not least because this was a criterion for financial support. Today, EU education and training programs are still paramount to the promotion of student mobility in Portugal (especially credit-seeking, as will be examined in section 2.3.1.3) and to the internationalization of Portuguese tertiary education (Veiga et al., 2006).

At the intergovernmental level, the political rationale has exerted a streamlined effect in Portuguese tertiary education and its internationalization strategies through the BP. Portugal has been a full member of this reform project since 1999. Although part of the

process from the outset, its implementation has been lengthy and highly debated mainly regarding the three-layered degree structure (see Footnote 5). The change to Bologna-type degrees proved to be difficult due to political instability and prescriptive traditions of Portuguese legislation (Veiga & Amaral, 2009; Veiga, Rosa, & Amaral, 2005). This hindered the necessary legal adaptations of the Portuguese education system which is defined by the Framework Law on the Education System (Law 46/86; amended in 1997 - Law 115/97). Any other amendment to it would require an Act of Parliament.

After successive delays and increasing pressure on the part of higher education institutions, a new government came to power in 2005 with a clear parliamentary majority and was able to amend the Framework Law. Necessary accompanying measures and/or instruments to implement the BP were also regulated in 2005, though later amended. Among these measures was the introduction of the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS), the compulsory use of the Diploma Supplement and the three-layered degree model along with its student-centered approach. It was only in 2006 that the principles and the organization of the cycles of study according to Bologna intents were regulated under Decree-Law 74/2006.¹⁷

In the meanwhile, some public universities, making use of their full pedagogic autonomy, had already started changing their study programs according to Bologna. Those institutions (public polytechnics and private institutions) which needed ministerial approval to do so lagged behind (Veiga et al., 2005). Debates about the compatibility of Bologna's degree structure and the Portuguese binary system, as well as about the functions of each subsystem quickly escalated. After this period of ad hoc changes and heated debates, the last legislative changes regarding the BP were made in 2009, with the approval of the National Qualifications Framework. In 2010 and 2011, two reports were released by the MCTES on The Framework for Higher Education Qualifications in Portugal.

Much more could be said about the gordian knots of the BP in Portugal sustained by a sound body of research literature addressing several concerns, such as: (a) the impact of the BP on the demand for academic programs in Portugal, (b) overall implementation, (c) implementation from a comparative perspective (Portugal and other signatory countries),

¹⁷Accordingly, polytechnic schools can award Undergraduate and Master's which are professionally-oriented. Universities award scientific-oriented and integrated Master's degrees which follow the first cycle of studies. Only universities and university institutes can award the third cycle of studies (PhDs).

(d) effective institutionalization of the EHEA, (e) implications brought to the Portuguese binary system of higher education, (f) national governance and autonomy of Portuguese higher education, and (g) soft law mechanisms and multi-level governance (see Amaral & Carvalho, 2004; Cardoso, Portelay, Sá, & Alexandre, 2008; Diogo, 2009, 2014; Hope, 2008; Veiga, 2010; Veiga & Amaral, 2009, 2012). Even though many other studies and relevant issues could be cited, a common thread can be found in ‘Portuguese Bologna literature’- (that) supranational and intergovernmental policies do not easily translate at the national level. As in other European countries, Bologna reforms seem to have targeted ‘structure before content’, as examined earlier in section 2.3. In the words of Veiga and Amaral (2009), these intentions led to implementation ‘in form rather than in substance’. Naturally, this brought implications to student mobility.

According to a survey conducted by Veiga and Amaral (2009) of all tertiary institutions that submitted proposals for Bologna-type degrees under the MCTES’ (2006) two-week call, the BP did not lead to an increase of horizontal nor vertical student mobility. Emphasis was, instead, placed on curricular reforms so as to uphold the shift from a teacher to a student-centered paradigm (along with the highlighting of learning outcomes). This logic of action is consistent with governmental policies depicting student mobility in terms of recognition measures to ensure the movement of students. The (2010) stocking report by the MCTES, for example, describes student mobility solely in academic recognition terms based on a desire to highlight the new national regulations that were put into place (see pp. 28-30).

In the end, the political rationale in Portuguese tertiary internationalization is firmly anchored in the primary levels of supranational (the EU) and intergovernmental (the BP) steering. Bologna had an architectural role in the curricular reform and quality assurance of the Portuguese tertiary system but has not necessarily boosted student mobility, even if it reemphasized recognition instruments and economic accessibility.¹⁸ The EU, on the other hand, had a direct influence on available mobility activities, not least because Portuguese tertiary institutions rely on EU funds for student and staff mobility, as well as for Research and Development (R&D). For instance, Portuguese institutions do not design and deliver their own exchange programs, but apply for EU mobility schemes. This reality mirrors the

¹⁸ In 2007, the Portuguese Government introduced a loan system to Portuguese students attending higher education which encompassed mobility activities. In 2009, the National Agency (PROALV), along with the MCTES and the DGES implemented supplementary funds (the so called BSE-SOC) for Portuguese underprivileged students who wanted to be mobile under *Erasmus* and already received social support.

broader European scenario where it is hard to conceive of higher education exchange programs (particularly, credit-bearing) outside the EU. Naturally, this dependence on the EU is also bound to cultural, economic and academic (quality) rationales.

The cultural rationale in the internationalization of Portuguese tertiary education assumes a prominent role in cooperation with Portuguese-speaking countries, based on an invaluable resource - the Portuguese language. Portuguese is among the most widely spoken languages in the world and the tie uniting Portugal and countries where Portuguese is the official language, as recognized by the Community of Portuguese Language Countries (*Comunidade dos Países de Língua Portuguesa, CPLP*).¹⁹

In higher education, Portuguese has also been a strategic vehicle for Development Cooperation between Portugal and other Portuguese-speaking countries. After the independence of former African colonies in 1975, the relationship between Portugal and these countries has improved and several governmental agreements have been enacted to bolster cooperation and development (including in higher education). Cooperation with countries like Angola, Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, São Tomé and Príncipe, East Timor and Brazil strongly contributes to the internationalization of Portuguese higher education as Portugal is a common study abroad destination for many students from these countries (Rosa et al., 2004; Veiga et al., 2006).

The political rationale with Portuguese-speaking countries is related to the Portuguese Government and its foreign policy, with education being considered a key sector to reduce poverty and promote sustainable development in third countries (IPAD, 2011). Portuguese Development Cooperation has, in the last three decades, strengthened its ties with Lusophone African countries and East Timor. Since the last decade, this cooperation has a broader multilateral scope through the EU multi-annual Indicative Cooperation Programs. These programs define the framework for Portuguese cooperation with Angola, Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, São Tomé and Príncipe and East Timor. Higher education is the leading educational subsector in Official Development Assistance. This leadership is intimately related to the award of scholarships allowing students from the aforementioned Lusophone African countries to attend Portuguese higher education at

¹⁹ Created in 1996, the CPLP is a multilateral organization promoting mutual friendship and cooperation among countries where Portuguese is the official language. Currently, the CPLP integrates nine Member States. For more information please see: <http://www.cplp.org>

undergraduate and postgraduate levels. These scholarships and guaranteed quotas by the DGES triggered the inbound flow of students from these countries to Portuguese higher education institutions (particularly, the public ones). This inflow has long historical roots but grew stronger after the independence of Lusophone African countries, along with the enactment of new Cooperation Agreements (Faria, 2009; Mourato, 2011).

Cooperation with East Timor in higher education has occurred on a different basis, by privileging elementary and upper-secondary teacher training. In the case of Brazil, academic cooperation has occurred at undergraduate and postgraduate levels via student inflows under two major mobility programs of the Brazilian Federal Government, viz.: Science without Borders (*Ciência sem Fronteiras*, CsF), and the International Undergraduate Program (*Programa de Licenciaturas Internacionais*, PLI).

Of the three Portuguese-speaking student populations previously described, Lusophone African students are the key targeted group by the recently introduced economic rationale in Portuguese Government's internationalization strategies for tertiary education. Among these strategies is the implementation of the longed-for International Student Status in 2014, under the Decree-Law No. 36/2014. This decree-law fixes a special regime for international student access to undergraduate and integrated Master's studies (see Footnote 17), defining international students as those who do not have a Portuguese nationality. Part of the Portuguese Government's goal to double the number of international students up to 62,000 by 2020 (MCTES, 2014), the International Student Status determines that international students are from the 2014-15 academic year on admitted exclusively through this regime provided they meet the fixed requirements. Economically, this status allows public tertiary institutions to charge tuition fees above the threshold defined by law to Portuguese students and to consider the real cost of training courses. This does not interfere with the access of EU students under *Erasmus* nor the awarding of scholarships to Lusophone African students.

It can be argued that the shift from cooperation to competition, alluded to in section 2.3, is only now taking the first steps in Portuguese higher education. Attracting alternative funding via the active recruitment of fee-paying international students is a long practice of major international student hubs in Europe. A well-known example is the UK which introduced full-cost tuition fees for degree-seeking students back in 1979.

To summarize, all four typical rationales driving higher education internationalization (see section 2.2) characterize this process in Portuguese tertiary education. The weight of these rationales varies according to the geographical scope of internationalization strategies and/or activities. To illustrate the positioning of these rationales in Portuguese tertiary education, it is helpful to examine Veiga's et al. (2006) study about the internationalization of six Portuguese tertiary institutions. According to this research, the four rationales echo different drifts in internationalization efforts with: (a) Portuguese-speaking countries, and (b) with Europe. To share research results, the authors use Van der Wende's (1997) model, as replicated in Figure 2 (for a) and in Figure 3 (for b).

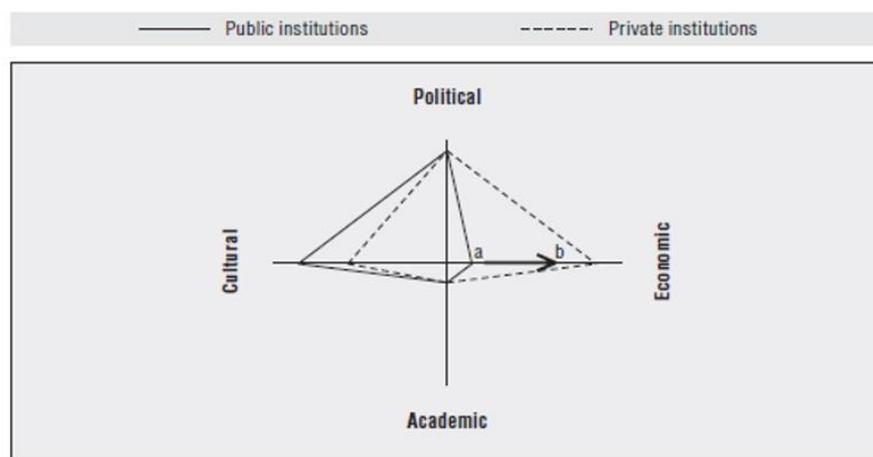


Figure 2 - Portugal: Internationalization rationales with Portuguese-speaking countries after Veiga et al. (2006, p. 120).

As Figure 2 illustrates, internationalization activities of Portuguese public and private tertiary institutions with Portuguese-speaking countries are motivated by all four rationales. For public institutions the political and cultural rationales (and to some extent, the academic) have prominence over the economic rationale. By contrast, in the private sector the economic rationale plays an important role. These differences stem from the public or private provisions of these institutions. Whereas private institutions could always charge differentiated tuition fees to non-nationals, only from this academic year on is this the case for public institutions. The economic rationale is highlighted in Figure 2 (through an arrow, from *a* to *b*) given its upcoming prominence, as anticipated by Veiga et al. in 2006.

Internationalization with non-Portuguese-speaking countries, the 'European region' in particular, is characterized by the same rationales of Portuguese-speaking countries, but the trends change (Veiga et al., 2006). These trends are illustrated by Figure 3.

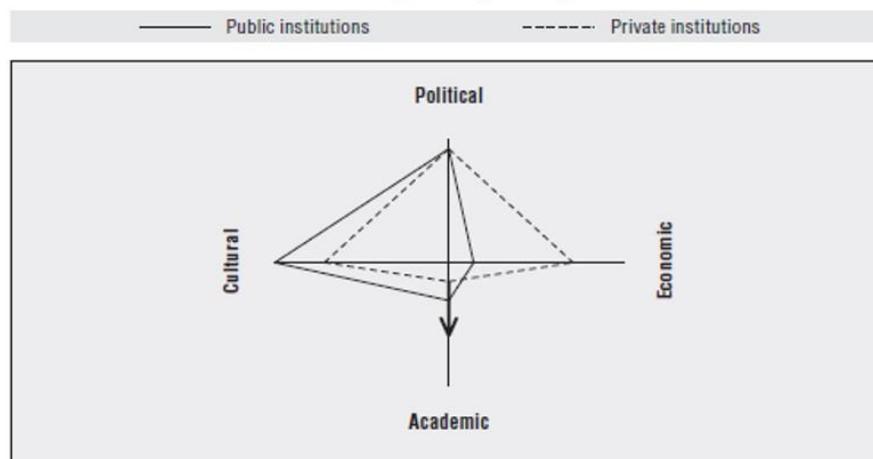


Figure 3 - Portugal: Internationalization rationales with Europe after Veiga et al. (2006, p. 122).

The political rationale is marked by supranational and intergovernmental discourses described earlier in this section. The cultural rationales are related to the European integration project and its citizenry and linguistic ideals (see section 2.3). Interestingly, the language factor is far from exerting the influence it has in the internationalization with Portuguese-speaking countries. Instead, Portuguese in Europe is more likely to act as a push factor hindering the recruitment of European students (either credit or degree-seeking). The economic rationale is mainly sustained by EU funds regarding academic mobility and R&D. Last but not least, the academic rationale is paramount to the international academic quality of the Portuguese tertiary system (hence the arrow pointing to “academic” in Figure 3).

Despite knowledge gained by Portuguese tertiary institutions in academic cooperation at regional and external levels since the 1980s, internationalization strategies in Portuguese higher education are still carried out on an ad hoc and individual basis (Veiga et al., 2006). The move to more systematic internationalization processes entails an all-inclusive strategy addressing the entire Portuguese tertiary system. In other words, the implementation of a *comprehensive internationalization* that touches the ethos and mission of the tertiary enterprise (Hudzik, 2011). Accordingly, internationally-based activities or strategies should be part of wider internationalization efforts. One of these activities is credit student mobility, examined next.

2.3.1.3 Credit student mobility in Portugal

As in other European countries, credit student mobility in Portugal refers primarily to the intra-European movement of students by the EU flagship (sub)program *Erasmus*. The

main drivers of this programmatic type of student mobility in Portugal are academic, embedded in the supranational and intergovernmental mix of political, cultural and economic rationales explained in the preceding section.

The movement of credit-seeking students in Portugal has followed closely the directions issued by the EU and is hardly conceived outside community mobility schemes. Other international credit-bearing programs like CE remain an exception.

Portugal participated for the first time in the community Inter-university Cooperation Programs (ICPs - see section 2.3) in 1986-87, after entering the then-EEC in January 1986. At the time, Portugal joined a network of more than 500 higher education institutions. In the first academic year *Erasmus* ran, 1987-88, the total number of Portuguese participant universities was seven and the number of outgoing students was 25. This participation was quite low compared to the other 11 participant countries (Table 3).

Table 3 - Erasmus outbound flows: Top and bottom four participant countries 1987-88.

Rank	Countries	N of students	Rank	Countries	N of students
1	UK	925	8	Belgium	58
2	France	895	9	Denmark	57
3	Germany	649	10	Greece	39
4	Italy	220	11	Portugal	25

Source: EC, http://ec.europa.eu/education/tools/statistics_en.htm#erasmus

In 1987-88, Portugal sent the smallest number of students of a total outflow of 3,244 students among 11 participant countries. Belgium, Denmark and Greece held the other bottom three positions with 58, 57 and 39 students, respectively. The four top senders were: the UK (925), France (895), Germany (649) and Italy (220).

According to Da Rocha (1992), three reasons explain the limited Portuguese participation in the first academic year of *Erasmus*:

1. Portugal's inexperience in Community student mobility schemes due to its late membership in the EEC. This did not allow Portugal to benefit from the first ten years of the Joint Study Programs (see section 2.3);
2. Emphasis on the quality of the ICPs Portugal decided to participate in, which reduced Portuguese participation to 7 universities and 20 ICPs in 1987-88;
3. Lack of information regarding Community mobility schemes or programs.

Despite modest participation in 1987-88, the number of Portuguese outgoing students more than sextupled (up to 158) in the second year of the program. Nevertheless, it was only in the second phase of *Erasmus* (1990-94) that Portugal reached the 1,000 benchmark of outgoing students. To this milestone contributed the inclusion of regulating mechanisms, like a country's cost of living and (peripheral) geographic position, in the formula for allocating grants by the Commission. Additionally, the Portuguese Ministry of Education endorsed supplementary funds for *Erasmus* scholarships in 1991-92 (Da Rocha, 1992).

Given that the EC only provides country data for inbound and outbound flows from 2000-01 onwards, Figure 4 examines student flows relating to Portugal from this academic year until 2011-12 (data refer to *Erasmus* for studies only).

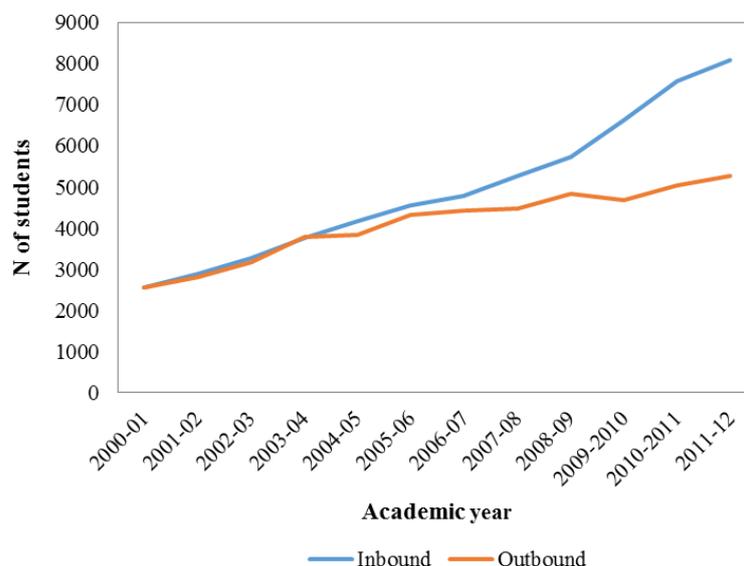


Figure 4 - Portugal: Erasmus student exchange flows from 2000 and 2012.

As Figure 4 illustrates, not only has the number of outgoing students increased from 2000-01 on but also incoming figures rose steadily. The number of incoming students has, with the exception of 2003-04, always been greater than the number of outgoing students. The imbalance between inbound and outbound flows became more pronounced from 2007- 08 on when the LLP came into effect. Whereas throughout *Socrates II* the difference never went above the four hundreds, in the LLP this disproportion rose to the thousands right in the first academic year of this umbrella program. In 2011-12, there were 2818 more incoming students than outgoing. Overall, the annual average of *Erasmus* incoming students for the 12 academic years in Figure 4 is approximately 4,939, whereas for those who left Portugal it accounts for 4,101 students.

An internal analysis of the top five countries regarding *Erasmus* flows from and to Portugal, between 2009-10 and 2011-12, shows a trade-off between the countries involved. Figure 5 illustrates these data.

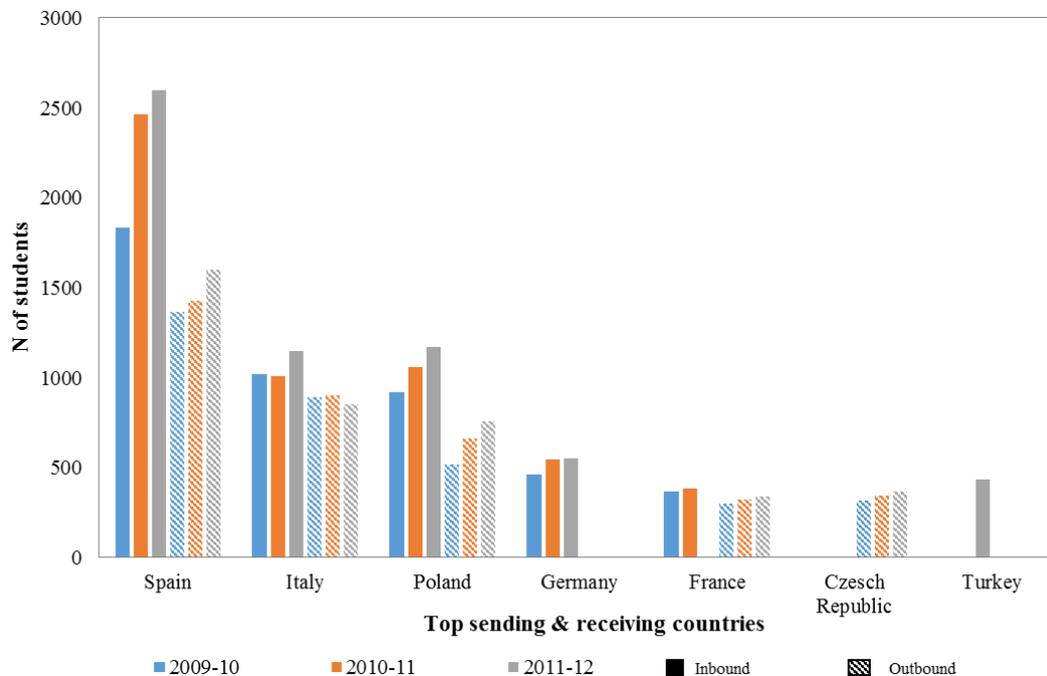


Figure 5 - Portugal: Top five countries for Erasmus student flows from 2000 and 2012.

Spain ranks first place regarding Portugal's inbound and outbound student flows in all three academic years represented in Figure 5. This result comes as no surprise given the linguistic and cultural affinities between Spain and Portugal. The second and third places for inbound flows to Portugal are held interchangeably by Italy and Poland, while Germany holds the fourth position. For outbound flows, Italy remains as the second top destination and Poland as the third. The fourth rank is held by the Czech Republic, excepting in 2011-12 when Turkish students (n=433) were the third most common credit-seeking students. Curiously, Germany is not a top receiver of Portuguese outbound flows despite ranking as the top third sending country.

According to the Portuguese National Agency for the LLP (see Footnote 10), the number of postsecondary institutions which participated in this umbrella program accounted for 80 institutions annually. A cross-examination of these data with the information provided by the EC shows that Portuguese institutions represent approximately 2% of a total of 4,452 institutions holding an *Erasmus University Charter* in 2011-12 (COM, 2013b). In this

academic year, the total flows of *Erasmus* for studies among the 33 participant countries²⁰ accounted for 204,744 students. The number of students who entered Portugal for a period of studies under *Erasmus* represented a 4% share (8,087) of the total number of outbound flows. Those who left Portugal represented a 3% share (5,269) of inbound flows. This means that Portugal ranked as the Top 11 sending country and the Top 9 receiver in 2011-12. It should be noted that ranks represent the absolute numbers of *Erasmus* students and are not proportional to the total graduate population by country.

The top five sending countries in 2011-12, of all 33 participant countries, were: (1) Spain, (2) Germany, (3) France, (4), Italy and (5) Poland. These countries have remained interchangeably the top five top senders for *Erasmus* studies from 2009-10 to 2011-12. With respect to the top five receivers, Spain ranks again first in 2011-12, followed by (2) France, (3) Germany, (4) the UK, and (5) Italy. These countries have remained the top five receivers of *Erasmus* for studies in the three aforementioned academic years.

Portugal has also been an active participant in the *Erasmus Intensive Language Courses* (EILC, see Footnote 11). Of the 18 countries which offered EILC courses in 2011- 12, Portugal was, on par with Turkey, the second top country offering the highest number of these courses (n=36) to a total of 586 students (COM, 2013b).

Over the past 28 academic years Portugal has participated in *Erasmus*, not only has the movement of credit-seeking exchange students gained momentum, size and strength, but also Portugal's access to a widening range of communitary education and training exchange programs and/or actions. Notwithstanding, the educational meaning of credit student exchange in Portugal has remained largely unexplored. Not only Portugal is ever hardly selected for Communitary in-depth studies, but also internal research about student mobility in Portugal is nearly non-existent or done on an ad hoc basis by different interest groups, as explained earlier in section 2.1.1. The following sections mirror this limitation, because the intercultural-educational value of student mobility will be explored based on North American and, to some extent, European literature.

²⁰ The then-27 EU Member States, Croatia, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey.

2.4 Intercultural competence and Student Mobility

This section examines the role of intercultural competencies in student exchange and in credit student mobility in particular. For these purposes, the section is subdivided into four parts. The first part reflects upon the role of purposeful intercultural pedagogy in student mobility (section 2.4.1). This reflection is followed by an historical and typological synopsis of intercultural competence, sections 2.4.2 and 2.4.3, respectively. The fourth and last part depicts evaluation theories, in general, and assessment theories with regard to intercultural competencies in study abroad, in particular (section 2.4.4).

2.4.1 Purposeful Intercultural Pedagogy in Student Mobility

Understanding the goal of developing intercultural competencies in European credit student mobility, requires examining the European higher education scenario and other scenarios as well. After all, it “would be foolish not to think that the challenges facing the European university today are to be found in all continents, however different the reasons, the arguments, or the proposed solutions may be” (Santos, 2012, p. 8). Given this statement, this section examines the role of purposeful intercultural pedagogy in European student mobility and in US study abroad. The underlying reason is that US study abroad approaches to develop interculturality and globally-ready graduates may reveal valuable insights to addressing common interests on both sides of the ocean.

The approach in the US relies heavily on interventionist assumptions that students learn effectively abroad when we intervene in their learning, and not simply by being sojourners in a foreign country (Vande Berg, 2007; Vande Berg & Paige, 2009; Vande Berg, Paige, & Lou, 2012). Interventionist intercultural approaches and/or training have a long tradition in the US, dating back to the 1950s and 60s, particularly through the work of the US Foreign Service Institute, as will be explained in the next section. From the 1970s on through the 90s, these approaches were increasingly fostered, at a time when intercultural studies expanded to include study abroad programs. As a result, the need to develop intercultural competencies among exchange students flourished across American higher education institutions and study abroad organizations (Sinicrope, Norris, & Watanabe, 2006).

To provide an historical synopsis of key US-based projects and/or initiatives which attest to the power of intercultural interventionist approaches in study abroad, the review

undertaken by Vande Berg and Paige (2009) is systematized in Table 4. This table summarizes five of the six key US-based projects or initiatives these scholars identified and describes them according to timeline, goals and target populations. The train-the-trainer program developed by Janet and Milton Bennett in 1977, which is part of the original review, is not included here because it focuses exclusively on teacher training.

Table 4 - US initiatives promoting intercultural competencies in student mobility.

Project/Initiative	Timeline	Goal	Target population
1. The University of the Pacific's Intercultural Training Program	1975-Present	To foster intercultural competencies, through credit-bearing courses in pre-departure and reentry phases	Undergraduate students studying abroad
2. Identifying Program Learning Goals: The American University Center of Provence (AUCP)	1994-Present	To foster(French) language proficiency and intercultural communication competencies, through a holistic program design	Undergraduate students participating in AUCP French immersion study abroad programs
3. Training Intercultural Competence at Distance: Bellarmine & Willamette University	1995-Present	To foster intercultural competencies, through an intentional intervention model	Incoming and outgoing students at Bellarmine and Villamette Universities
4. The University of Minnesota's (UMN) Maximizing Study Abroad Project	1999-Present	To foster linguistic and intercultural competencies, through curriculum development	Students participating in the exchange programs of the UNM's Learning Abroad Center
5. The CIEE Student Learning Project	2008-Present	To foster intercultural competencies, through a seminar during the entire study abroad cycle	Students on CIEE semester programs abroad

Source: Vande Berg and Paige (2009)

The first four initiatives fall under American higher education institutions or institutions of higher learning, while the latter project is part of a study abroad organization.

The first initiative was developed by the cultural anthropologist Bruce La Brack to respond to the problems faced by the University of Pacific students after returning to campus, following completion of a year abroad. For these purposes, La Brack developed a pre-departure and reentry cross-cultural training first offered as voluntary, non-credit seminars in one of Pacific's colleges, and later as two credit-bearing courses serving the entire university (Bathurst & La Brack, 2012; La Brack, 1993). Historically, these study abroad courses were the first to be embedded into an institution's curriculum in the US (ibid.).

Another interesting feature is the intercultural professional development required from faculty members teaching these courses.

The second initiative is related to the work of Lilli and John Engle who founded the American University Center of Provence (AUCP, <https://aucp.fr>). Their intentions were to offer purposefully designed exchange programs aimed at equipping US undergraduates with linguistic and (inter)cultural competencies through cultural immersion in Southern France (Engle & Engle, 2012). Today, the development of these competencies rests on pillars built into the programs' design: (a) attendance of 'in-house' coursework taught in French, (b) cultural immersion (c) a French-only speaking pledge, (d) community-based experiential activities, and (e) an intercultural communication course, along with an arrival orientation program (see Engle & Engle, 2004 for all eight programmatic features).

The third initiative was also carried out by individual scholars, Gabriele Bosley and Kris Lou, who developed what they designate today as The Intentional Targeted Intervention Model. This interventionist approach is offered to incoming and outgoing students at Bellarmine and Willamette universities and encompasses in-person pre-departure and reentry seminars, and online intercultural learning in the in-country phase (Lou & Bosley, 2012). The online feature is especially relevant as it brings together students, instructors and staff through learning communities. Besides facilitating intercultural learning at home and abroad, these online communities allow incoming and outgoing students to mentor the intercultural learning of their peers.

The Maximizing Study Abroad (MAXSA) of the University of Minnesota started as a research project led by Michael Paige, Andrew Cohen and colleagues. The goal of the first phase (1999 to 2001-09) was to enhance language and intercultural learning during study abroad through curriculum development (Vande Berg & Paige, 2009). The outcomes of this phase were three guides written for: (a) students (see Paige, Cohen, Kappler, Chi, & Lassegard, 2002b), (b) study abroad professionals (see Paige, Cohen, Kappler, Chi, & Lassegard, 2002a), and (c) language instructors (see Cohen et al., 2003). This phase was followed by the assessment of the impact and/or usefulness of these textbooks upon the three targeted audiences, leading to the later elaboration of an online course for in-country students. Today, this course is offered online as an elective, one-credit pass/fail subject conducted by interculturally-skilled and knowledgeable instructors or, in the words of Paige and Goode (2009), by effective *cultural mentors*.

Finally, the intervention of the Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE, www.ciee.org)²¹ arose out of the efforts to improve the intercultural, second language, and disciplinary learning of students enrolled in CIEE study centers (Vande Berg, Quinn, & Menyhart, 2012). To fulfill these needs, this study abroad organization developed an intervention whose centerpiece is an online seminar (on Living and Learning Abroad). The goal was (and still is) to help students shift cultural perspectives and engage effectively with different “Others” (ibid.). Delivered over the course of one semester to CIEE students on semester study abroad programs, the seminar is preceded by a pre-departure online orientation addressing logistical topics and introducing the program staff to students, as well as cultural issues they are likely to face abroad (CIEE, www.ciee.org). Upon successful completion of the seminar students receive a certificate of achievement in intercultural education. Similar to the MAXSA project, CIEE emphasizes cultural mentoring and requires its facilitators to receive intercultural preparation before they start teaching the seminar.

Theoretically, all five initiatives outlined above advocate interventionist approaches in study abroad and are grounded in experiential learning theories and intercultural developmental approaches. Specifically, Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning theories and the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) by Milton Bennett (1986, 1993b) which will be explained further ahead. Not surprisingly, all five initiatives use the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) in their empirical assessment efforts which typically adopt pre and posttest experimental designs. Methods aside, the aim here is to describe the most relevant features of these initiatives and their contribution to intentional intercultural pedagogies and/or training in US study abroad already in the 1970s.

A comparison with the 1970s in Europe shows a quite different scenario. At this time, the focus was on making intra-European educational opportunities more readily available via the shift from national to supranational steering, as discussed in the previous sections. Historical developments aside, at the present time purposeful intercultural pedagogies in study abroad are also advocated in Europe but efforts are still ill-structured as intercultural learning tends to occur accidentally and haphazardly (Hermans, 2005). Scholars like Anquetil (2006); Beaven and Borgetti (2015); Byram and Feng (2006); Dervin (2008); Shaules (2007); Strong (2011) all cite the importance of intercultural learning and pedagogies in

²¹ CIEE is a non-profit international exchange organization based in the US. Founded in 1947, CIEE offers today nearly 200 exchange programs across 40 countries (www.ciee.org).

student mobility. A recently-released themed issue by Beaven and Borgetti (2015) voices the urge to trigger discussion on educational initiatives which aim to support intercultural learning in European student mobility. Yet, there is still little implementation in the academic realm beyond a few individual cases. Similarly, in the political-educational realm, culture has only been explicitly emphasized from 2001 in the EU and Council of Europe (CoE) agendas in the field of culture, youth and education (Hoskins & Sallah, 2011).

Whether in the academic or political-educational arenas, until now efforts have not yet produced concerted intercultural actions in credit-bearing exchange programs. Aside from this doctoral research, only five other initiatives aimed at enhancing intercultural competencies in European student mobility through systematic actions have been identified. There may as well be other initiatives, but the search process is still a matter of luck. Of the five initiatives identified by this researcher, one addresses professional mobility. All are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5 - European initiatives promoting intercultural competencies in student mobility.

Project/Initiative	Timeline	Goal	Target population
1. Intercultural Educational Resources for Erasmus Students and their Teachers (IEREST)	2012-2015	To foster personal growth and intercultural competencies through a set of a set of online teaching modules	<i>Erasmus</i> students and their teachers
2. Erasmus Mundus Intercultural Competence (EMIC)	2013-?	To foster the intercultural competencies through an integrated learning program	<i>Erasmus Mundus</i> students
3. Mobility Programmes for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education (Phase 1)/ for Sustainable Plurilingual and Intercultural Learning (Phase 2) (PLURIMOBIL)	2010-2011 2012-2014	To foster linguistic and intercultural competencies based on the use of tools developed by the Council of Europe	Teacher trainers and their pupils in primary, lower & upper secondary education
4. Intercultural Competence for Professional Mobility (ICOPROMO)	2004-2006	To foster intercultural communication competencies and language learning through a set of activities used in training situations	Professionally mobile groups ^a
5. The International Center for Intercultural Exchange (The Siena Center)	2005-Present	To foster reflective intercultural competencies of individuals through a specific instructional approach	Undergraduate & graduate participants in exchange programs by the Siena Center

Note. ^aUndergraduates, recent graduates, junior and mid-career professionals (in Social Sciences)

The first and second initiatives are recent research projects by consortia of higher education institutions, under the financial support of the EU and underlying targeted

education and training programs. These two multilateral projects share the goal of fostering intercultural competencies among exchange students across pre-departure, in-country and reentry phases. They differ, however, in their target populations. The IEREST project (www.ierest-project.eu) targets at *Erasmus* students, while the EMIC (www.emic-project.org) caters for *Erasmus Mundus* students. In both research efforts web-based learning and sharing is key to achieve the expected outcomes. Among the intended outcomes are web-based platforms to administer teaching modules or learning programs, while serving as repositories of teaching materials, guidelines and relevant publications. The second main outcome is the establishment of agreements with higher education stakeholders to adopt the elaborated learning programs in order to enhance the educational quality of the targeted exchange programs.

The third and fourth projects fall within the scope of the CoE and the European Centre for Modern Languages' medium-term programs of activities aimed at promoting excellence in language education (ECML, www.ecml.at).²² The former project, PLURIMOBIL encompasses two phases. The first phase focused on primary and lower secondary levels, while the second addressed the upper secondary level. Together, the two phases aimed to build pedagogical tools and materials to assist teachers in initial training and their future pupils to fully reap the benefits of the mobility experience across its three phases (PLURIMOBIL, <http://plurimobil.ecml.at/>). The underlying intent was to foster a *double learning scenario*, combining teachers and pupils' mobility, on the assumption that teachers would more likely incorporate into their teaching practices what they had experienced themselves. Another important feature of this project is the use of CoE instruments promoting plurilingualism as a skill and a value, particularly those encouraging reflective practice such as the *European Language Portfolio* and the *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters*.²³

The outcomes of the PLURIMOBIL project include: a website, online lesson plans for the targeted groups, along with a quick start guide, and a thorough booklet demonstrating how to use the elaborated lesson plans and supporting learning mobility.

²² The ECML is an institution of the CoE which, in cooperation with the Language Policy Unit, functions as a catalyst for reform in the teaching and learning of languages (www.ecml.at).

²³ Both instruments are personal documents where learners can keep a record of their language learning and intercultural experiences. For more information please see: <http://elp.ecml.at/> and http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/autobiography/default_EN.asp

The other project under the auspices of the CoE and the ECML is the ICOPROMO. This project is in line with the endeavors of the CoE and the EU regarding professional development policies, and it is complemented by its counterpart project funded by the EU's *Leonardo Da Vinci* program. For this reason, both projects bear the same name.²⁴

Similar to PLURIMOBIL, ICOPROMO relied upon CoE instruments but adapted them to professional training needs. These instruments included the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) and, once again, the *European Language Portfolio*. The goals of this research effort were bound to social cohesion and democratic citizenship principles in professional groups, by fostering their intercultural and interaction competencies in professional environments. Given the working and/or training environments addressed, the project focused on intercultural and interaction competencies that were group-oriented in order to emphasize teamwork.

The outcomes of ICOPROMO include: a comprehensive model of intercultural communication/interaction competencies for professional mobility, a book summarizing the project's efforts and including a CD-Room with 18 training activities (see Glaser, Guilherme, Méndez García, & Mughan, 2007).

Finally, the Siena Center is an international exchange organization based in Siena, Italy, and founded in 2005. The mission of this organization is to promote intercultural exchange in Italy, the U.S. and around the world (The Siena Center, www.ticfie.com). To foster the development of intercultural competencies among its exchange program's participants, this center developed a specific instructional approach. This approach is called "Full-Immersion Culture, Content and Service" and utilizes reflective writing as a key activity to promoting intercultural competencies.

These five examples aside, a more "traditional learning paradigm" which assumes that contact with cultural differences will lead to intercultural competencies (Vande Berg, 2007; Vande Berg & Paige, 2009; Vande Berg, Paige, et al., 2012), seems to be the prevalent model of credit student mobility in Europe. Ironically, this programmatic type of academic mobility constitutes a fertile ground for implementing purposeful intercultural pedagogy, were it not closely bound to EU supranational exchange schemes. For this reason, credit mobility could be a vehicle for joint intercultural actions among the 33 countries currently

²⁴ For more information please see: http://archive.ecml.at/mtp2/ICOPROMO/html/Icopromo_E_pdesc.htm (about ECLM - ICOPROMO) or <http://www.ces.uc.pt/icopromo/> (*Leonardo Da Vinci* - ICOPROMO).

participating in Key Action 1 of the *Erasmus+* program. The same is valid for the *Campus Europae* (CE) program and its 18 participant institutions. As a programmatic form of student mobility, CE also lacks pedagogies designed to foster intercultural learning and development. These pedagogies can also play a crucial role among other sojourner populations like the highly skilled immigrants addressed in this dissertation.

In summary, despite some recognition of intercultural pedagogies and support for sojourners in Europe, this acknowledgment is expressed only by a few voices in the scholarly field. This appears also to be the case in the political realm. Although the CoE has various policy approaches to cultural diversity and materials to help teachers foster learner intercultural competencies, “these materials need to be formally evaluated for their effectiveness in actually bringing about change in learners” (Barrett, 2011, p. 4). In addition to the clear gaps in knowledge, intercultural actions in European student mobility happen unsystematically and are difficult to trace. For these actions to become systematic, it is necessary to incorporate the lessons learned from intercultural studies and its constructs.

2.4.2 Intercultural Competence: A Chronological Synopsis

The first studies on culturally-related competencies emerged in the US in the 1950s and 1960s out of efforts to deal with practical problems encountered by sojourners living and working abroad and organizations involved in the postwar rebuilding such as the Peace Corps (Ruben, 1989; Sinicrope et al., 2006; Spitzberg & Changon, 2009). Problems or obstacles such as *culture shock*, *personal adjustment*, *cultural adaptation*, *cross-cultural effectiveness* provided the impetus for governmental and scientific interest in the skills and competencies for overseas success. Tackling these problems involved joint efforts from linguists and anthropologists whose collaboration led to the early studies in intercultural communication. These studies were influenced by work developed in the 1930s and 1940s by US anthropologists, including Margaret Mead, Ruth Benedict, Gregory Bateson, and Clyde Kluckhohn, as well as linguists like Benjamin Whorf who introduced the notion of *linguistic relativity* (Martin, Nakayama, & Carbaugh, 2012).

Among the linguists and anthropologists who developed the first intercultural communication studies for the US Foreign Service Institute were Glenn Fisher and Edward T. Hall. Hall, in particular, is considered by many as the founding father of the (sub)field of intercultural communication (Leeds-Hurwitz, 1990; Martin et al., 2012; Rogers & Hart,

2001; Rogers, Hart, & Miike, 2002). In his 1959 book, *The Silent Language*, Hall demonstrated why culture is communication and communication is culture.

The need to prepare sojourners with skills and competencies that could facilitate and render effective cultural immersion quickly flourished. As a result, several studies emerged in the 1960s focusing on the identification of predictor variables which could predispose individuals to success or failure overseas - e.g., Ezekiel (1968); Guthrie and Zektick (1967); see Ruben (1989) for a review.

The late 1970s on through the 1990s in the US were characterized by an expansion of the contexts and purposes for researching about intercultural competencies, as well as of trainings of various kinds. These contexts included study abroad (as previously examined), international business, overseas expatriates, and immigrant acculturation through multicultural education. Research in this era was highly influenced by the behavioral sciences and social psychology approaches marked by a functionalist/postpositive paradigm (Martin et al., 2012). A well-known example is the work of Ruben (1976) which defined intercultural communication competence according to seven dimensions and used observational procedures and rating scales to assess this competency.

A comparison with the European scenario shows a different reality in light of distinct social and political developments. The early intercultural studies in Europe resulted from decolonization processes and increasing migration flows to industrialized countries in the 1970s which led to the need to cater for the educational integration of migrant workers' children (Kramersch, 2001; Portera, 2011).

The 1980s, witnessed a move from a pedagogy for foreigners (somewhat similar to multicultural education in the US) to intercultural pedagogy, as we know it today. These studies were geared toward language issues and were situated in language-related disciplines, including applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, language education (Corbett, 2003; Kramersch, 2001). This focus on language was reemphasized in the 1990s, alongside an increasing academic interest in the teaching of language-and-culture and the political- educational strategies of the EU and the CoE toward European integration.

Politically, the widening interest for European language and cultural diversity came onto the agenda of the EU in the 1990s. In this decade, not only was the single market and the free movement of people cemented through the Treaty of the EU, but important concepts were also introduced. Particularly, the notion of European citizenship and the learning of

three European languages (see section 2.3). At the same time, the CoE also implemented language policies and instruments toward linguistic diversity and plurilingual education.

In 1996, the CoE introduced the CEFR along with the *European Language Portfolio*. The CEFR remained an influential language policy instrument ever since, providing a frame of reference to facilitate transparency and comparability in the provision of language education and qualifications across Europe.²⁵ Besides the guidelines regarding language teaching and assessment, the CEFR clarifies the differences between *multilingualism* and *plurilingualism*, situating the former at the societal level and the latter at the individual level (the *repertoires* of languages an individual uses). The CEFR underscores the relation between *plurilingualism* and *interculturality* as well, by considering that the learner of a second (L2) or foreign language is also a learner of the associated culture. Nonetheless, the framework does not enter into great detail about sociocultural and intercultural competencies nor the notion of the *intercultural speaker*, introduced by Byram and Zarate in 1994.

Other intercultural initiatives (the *European Day of Languages*, the *European Year of Intercultural Dialogue* in 2008...), pedagogical platforms (the *Platform of Resources for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education*...) and instruments (some of which identified in the previous section) are also attributed to the work of the CoE. The important point is that understanding intercultural studies in Europe cannot be disassociated from political-educational discourses. This influence is visible in the conceptual anchors which transcend political-educational and academic discourses. Hence the body of research devoted to *plurilingual* and *intercultural* competencies (e.g., Galisson, 1997) or *plurilingual* and *pluricultural* competencies in Europe (e.g., Coste, Moore, & Zarate, 1997) and in Portugal (e.g., Andrade et al., 2003).

Another strand of research in Europe is devoted to intercultural communicative competencies in the foreign language or L2 classrooms (e.g., Bredella, 1992; Byram, 1997; Kramersch, 1993; Risager, 1993). Both *plurilingual* and *intercultural communicative* research lines emerged alongside the intercultural orientation of western communicative approaches to language teaching in the late 1980s and 1990s. *Plurilingual* research places greater emphasis on the linguistic realm and uses plural linguistic repertoires as a way to foster intercultural competencies. Contrastingly, *intercultural communicative research* is more

²⁵ The CEFR purports six reference proficiency levels, viz.: basic user (A1; A2), independent user (B1; B2), and proficient user (C1; C2). For further information please refer to www.coe.int

concerned about the interplay of linguistic and sociocultural competencies within intercultural interactions.

Given that the construct of intercultural communicative competence is at the heart of this study, a distinction should be made regarding *intercultural communication competence* and *intercultural communicative competence*. To illuminate the confusing overlap between these conceptual anchors, one should be aware that these notions stem from two different academic traditions. *Intercultural communication competence* is situated within the subfield of intercultural communication studies (particularly prominent in the US), whereas *intercultural communicative competence* is rooted in applied linguistics and language-related disciplines (particularly prominent in Europe). Both fields underscore *effective* and *appropriate* communication in intercultural encounters, but from different standpoints. *Intercultural communication* studies tend to view those engaged in intercultural situations as communicators (of verbal and nonverbal messages), while *intercultural communicative* studies envisage these parties both as communicators and language learners (Dombi, 2013).

For clarity purposes, only the concept of *intercultural communicative competence* will be abbreviated hereafter as ICC. Whenever the notion of *intercultural communication competence* is used, it will be written in full. The term intercultural competence (hereafter abbreviated as IC) is used as a generic notion, irrespective of the conceptual foundations. The only assumption made is the meeting of two or more people of different cultural backgrounds regardless of sociopolitical boundaries (e.g., within or across nation-states).

Intercultural studies are as diverse as their conceptual anchors, academic disciplines, paradigmatic assumptions and even cultural perspectives. The development of these studies unfolded differently in the US and Europe, but it can be said that from the 1990s onwards there has been a daunting expansion of IC models and measurement tools on both sides of the ocean (and elsewhere). To review the current state of the art of IC conceptualizations, a typological review of models will be offered according to the following criteria:

1. Applicability - to the goals and educational background of this research;
2. Timeline and perspective - models published from the 1990s onwards from a western perspective wherein the individual is the locus of analysis;
3. Key characteristics - models whose key characteristics fit into the typology advanced by Spitzberg and Chagnon (2009).

This review is carried out in the following section.

2.4.3 Intercultural Competence: A Typological Synopsis

The review of IC models provided in this section is organized into the five categories purported by Spitzberg and Changon (2009), viz.: (a) compositional, (b) co-orientational, (c) developmental, (d) adaptational, and (e) causal path models. The aim is to offer a working grammar which will help framing the four intercultural models guiding this study. The fivefold typology will be described according to key characteristics for each conceptual type along with illustrative models. The listing of models is not exhaustive nor does it aim to describe individual models but rather their typological features, as summarized in Table 6.

Table 6 - Typological features of intercultural competence models after Spitzberg and Changon (2009).

Types	Key characteristics	Illustrative models
Compositional	Identify components of intercultural competence (e.g., traits, characteristics, skills) without specifying the relation between them	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pyramid model of intercultural competence (Deardorff, 2006b) • Intercultural competence components model (Howard Hamilton, Richardson, & Shuford, 1998) • Facework-based model of intercultural competence (Ting-Toomey, 1998) • Global competencies model (Hunter, White, & Godbey, 2006)
Co-orientational	Focus on interactional processes through communicative mutuality or shared meanings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intercultural communicative competence model (Byram, 1997) • Intercultural interlocutor competence model (Fantini, 1995) • Intercultural communicative model (Fantini, 2006a, 2009) • Intercultural communication competence model for Strategic Human Resource Management (Kupka, 2008)
Developmental	Describe the stages of progression through which intercultural competence is acquired	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (Bennett 1986, 1993b) • Developmental model of intercultural maturity (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005) • Framework of individual diversity development (Chávez, Guido-DiBrito, & Mallory, 2003)
Adaptational	Focus on mutual adjustment processes between interactants from different cultural backgrounds as criteria of competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relative acculturation extended model (Navas et al., 2005; Navas, Rojas, García, & Pumares, 2007)
Causal path	Postulate specific causal relationships between the components of intercultural competence, often translated into testable propositions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Process model of intercultural competence (Deardorff, 2006b) • Model of intercultural communication competence (Arasaratnam, 2008) • Multilevel process change model of intercultural competence (Ting-Toomey, 1999)

As Table 6 showed, different features characterize the five types of IC models even if categories are not mutually exclusive (Spitzberg & Chagon, 2009).

Compositional models' distinguishing feature is the composite nature which albeit useful in the identification of the elements, components or traits of IC conceptualizations, fails to explain the relationships between these components. The identification of individual constituents of competence may as well lead to an understanding of IC as an accumulated list of traits or abilities with disregard to the cultural context and its interactants. This liability is, nonetheless, where the strength of another type of model resides, namely *co-orientational models*. Contrary to the former type of model, in *co-orientational models* a common ground of mutual understanding in interaction is seen as a proxy for developing intercultural competencies. The designation of co-orientation by Spitzberg and Chagon (2009) stems from this alignment toward a minimal level of reciprocity. This common level of achievement can underscore different aspects of competence. The models purported by Fantini (2006a, 2009) and Byram (1997), for instance, stress the language-culture nexus (and concomitant abilities) in achieving a threshold of competence, as will be examined later. For Kupka (2008), foreign language competence is just one element of the wider construct of his model of intercultural communication competence for Strategic Human Resource Management.

A weakness of co-orientational models is the tendency to overlook time and the developmental stages inherent in the competence threshold. This does not mean that the developmental realm is completely disregarded, but that the stages of progression are not examined from a human lifespan perspective. To this shortcoming, Spitzberg and Chagon (2009) add the take-for-granted-value for mutual understanding which tends to minimize the ambiguities and uncertainties in interaction. The review provided here casts doubts on this specific critique as all four co-orientational models in Table 6 reiterate *co-creation* or *mediation* in dealing with misunderstandings between interactants from different cultural backgrounds. Kupka (2008), for example, uses the concept of *interculture* to describe the new reality which is co and re-created between interactants. Fantini (1995, 2006a, 2009) and Byram (1997, 2003, 2012) emphasize *mediation* whereby the identification of a common ground helps to manage misunderstandings and/or dysfunctions between interactants from different cultures. In effect, the articulation of language-and-culture is a fundamental aspect of these last two models. For this reason, this research argues that the essence of these models

would be better captured under the label *communicative models*, even if they could be considered as a subtype of the macro category purported by Spitzberg and Changon (2009) - co-orientational models. This issue will be reiterated in section 2.4.4.2.

Another type of intercultural models are *developmental models*. These models are concerned with understanding and identifying the stages and mechanisms of intercultural growth. As a result, they are mainly geared toward a developmental threshold rather than a competency standard. Their strength resides in conceptualizing intercultural experiences as part of an evolutionary process which unfolds over time rather than episodic achievements in and of themselves. The three developmental models in Table 6 demonstrate well this process, by outlining a progression of stages in a continuum of developmental growth. This growth entails a higher level of *intercultural maturity* in King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) model, of *intercultural sensitivity* in Bennett's (1986, 1993b) and of *individual diversity development* in Chávez, Guido-DiBrito and Mallory's (2003). Although the underlying constructs are not necessarily the same, the three models provide a framework which explains the increasing developmental sophistication in intercultural experiences. It is here where both the strengths and constraints of these models reside in that a sense of progression over time may overlook stagnation moments and the grounds for it. Stated differently, even though developmental models shed precious insights into the evolutionary course of intercultural development, the course of such development may not be linear and encompass variables other than constructs of mental organization.

The fourth type of intercultural models, *adaptational*, draws attention to the dyadic processes of adapting to a different cultural milieu (Spitzberg & Changon, 2009). It is, therefore, no surprise that the concepts of *acculturation*, *adjustment* and *adaptation* are at the heart of most of these models. Although this review presents only one illustrative adaptational model in Table 6, it should not lead to any consideration regarding the number of available adaptational models. For instance, there is a myriad of models which revolve around acculturation processes but those which incorporate a communication perspective date back mainly to the 1980s onwards - see, for example, Berry, Kim, Power, Young, and Bujaki (1989); Gallois, Franklyn-Stokes, Gilles, and Coupland (1988); Kim (1988).

The greatest strength of adaptational models is the fundamental role attributed to adaption to the host culture. Yet, these models come at odds with the required degree of adaptation while maintaining one's original cultural identity (Spitzberg & Changon, 2009).

It is this tension that remains unresolved. The Relative Acculturation Extended Model (RAEM) purported by Navas et al. (2005); Navas et al. (2007) is an example of a conceptualization which underscores acculturation strategies on both the part of hosts and immigrants or sojourners. One of its core axioms is the absence of an ideal degree of mutual adaptation as various strategies and attitudes can be adopted in reality.

Finally, *causal path models* specify the relationships between components and/or elements of intercultural competencies, by outlining paths taken by the variables involved. This specification facilitates empirical measurements and application of more sophisticated quantitative analyses.

The three causal path models listed in Table 6 illustrate different paths for developing intercultural competencies (as well as different variables). Ting-Toomey (1999), for example, contends three types of variables - antecedent, moderator and outcome variables - related to intercultural adaptation. Moderator variables, such as (managing) culture shock, identity change, new relationships and surrounding environment may influence both antecedent and outcome variables of intercultural adaptation. The outcomes are posited both at personal, interpersonal and system-level. Deardorff's (2006b) model, in turn, outlines a continuous cycle which contends that requisite attitudes (respect, openness, curiosity and discovery) are the starting point for developing the necessary knowledge and skills to produce internal and external outcomes of IC. Arasaratnam (2008), on the other hand, emphasizes empathy and motivation as having a direct impact on intercultural communication competence.

As demonstrated by the three models described above, causal path models delineate different paths for achieving a competence or adaptational threshold. It is this causal postulation between variables of interest that is the core feature of these models. Of the fivefold typology, this type of model is probably the one which makes more assumptions about how intercultural competencies unfold. This postulation may be considered either as an asset or constraint of these models - an asset, because it may facilitate empirical replication and testing; a constraint, because, on doing so, it may also limit other possible paths for intercultural achievement.

To summarize, the typological review of IC models offered in this section captures the array of available theoretical conceptualizations, conceptual anchors and academic disciplines in which these models are rooted. Neither the number nor the diversity of

conceptual frameworks seems to be the problem, but rather making sense of available frameworks. This quandary is highlighted by Spitzberg and Changon (2009) who draw attention to the need to identify and understand commonalities among models for future theory development and testing. On that account, this section attempted to offer the reader a working outline which, albeit limited in scope, will help to frame the four models that guided this study within two conceptual types, to wit:

- Developmental models: Bennett's (1986, 1993b) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) and King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) Developmental Model of Intercultural Maturity (DMIM);
- Communicative models: Fantini's (2006a, 2009) and Byram's (1997) models of intercultural communicative competence.

Before describing these four models, the reader should be made aware that they influenced this study at different levels. Fantini's (2006a, 2009) model was explicitly adopted as the ICC model guiding this study, as well as the pedagogical and assessment frameworks of the intervention. The other three models have an ancillary role in that they contributed further to the data analysis, as will be seen in Chapters 4 and 5. Bennett's (1986, 1993b) and King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) models, in particular, allowed this researcher to better understand and articulate the nuances of ICC development of research participants. Byram's (1997) model offered insights into teaching and assessment approaches employed in the intervention conducted in this research, and clarified the notion of critical cultural awareness.

A review of the four models is provided next since their theoretical foundations will be called upon in the data analysis offered in Chapters 4 and 5.

2.4.3.1 Developmental Models

Developmental models are concerned with identifying, describing and articulating the progressive steps in achieving an intercultural developmental threshold over time and through ongoing interaction. This type of model is typically rooted in developmental psychology but opens up to other academic disciplines. The two developmental models examined in this section are an example of this eclectic nature: whereas Bennett's (1986, 1993b) model is situated within the late 1980s and early 1990s intercultural communication field, King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) is more recent and draws on developmental

psychology. Naturally, different theories inform these two models. The former is informed by constructivist views on culture and grounded-theory approaches. The latter draws on human lifespan theories, particularly Kegan's (1994), and is informed by constructivist-developmental pedagogy. The model views on culture are not specified.

The selection of Bennett's (1986, 1993b) and King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) models is based on their added-value in grasping the developmental contours of intercultural development among adult learners. Although each conceptual framework derives from different disciplinary perspectives, both models attend to the development of cognitive structures. Each model is described in detail next.

Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity. Bennett's (1986, 1993b) model describes the ways in which individuals construe and make meaning of cultural differences along an ethnocentric-ethnorelative continuum of increasing sensitivity to differences. This continuum is segmented into six stages wherein the first three stages reflect ethnocentric worldviews and the latter three stages ethnorelative, as illustrated by Figure 6.

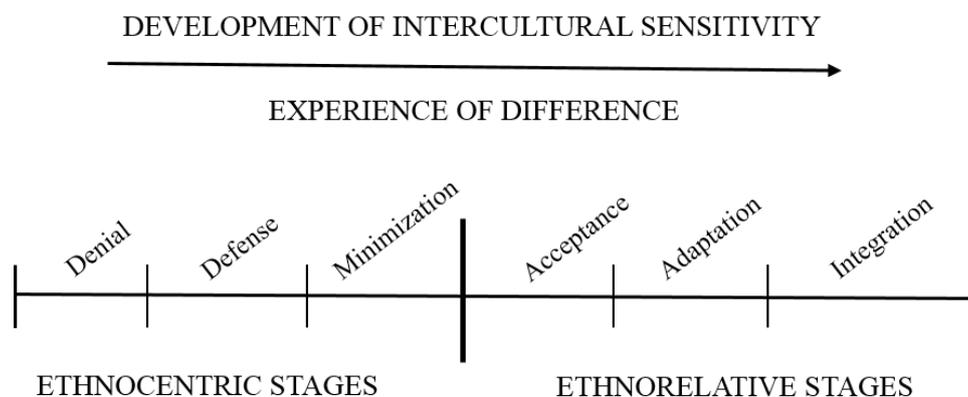


Figure 6 - Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity after Bennett (1986; 1993b).

Each stage in Figure 6 reflects a worldview configuration associated with certain attitudes and behaviors. Initial development (ethnocentric) is characterized by defensive worldviews of one's culture as superior. In more mature stages (ethnorelative), one increasingly integrates multiple perspectives and experiences culture in view of other cultures. The underlying assumption is that "as one's experience of cultural difference becomes more sophisticated, one's competence in intercultural relations increases" (Bennett & Bennett 2004, p. 153). Stated another way, there is an assumption of increasing sophistication in the ways individuals become more sensitive to cultural differences through

developmental shifts in their worldviews. It is in this assumption where both the strengths and constraints of this model reside. Although intercultural development is likely to be evolutionary, it is questionable whether this development follows a linear progress with only “occasional retreats” as purported by Bennett (2004). Even if individuals do not typically regress, there may be stagnation or absence of significant progress in intercultural development. Clear examples are those immigrant communities who remain in their own environmental bubbles and do not seek active integration. The exchange student community may reflect a similar situation as social networks are likely to be confined to others sojourners, as will be discussed in Chapters 4 and 5. The case of exchange students is suggestive because a compound development can occur, as illustrated by Figure 7.

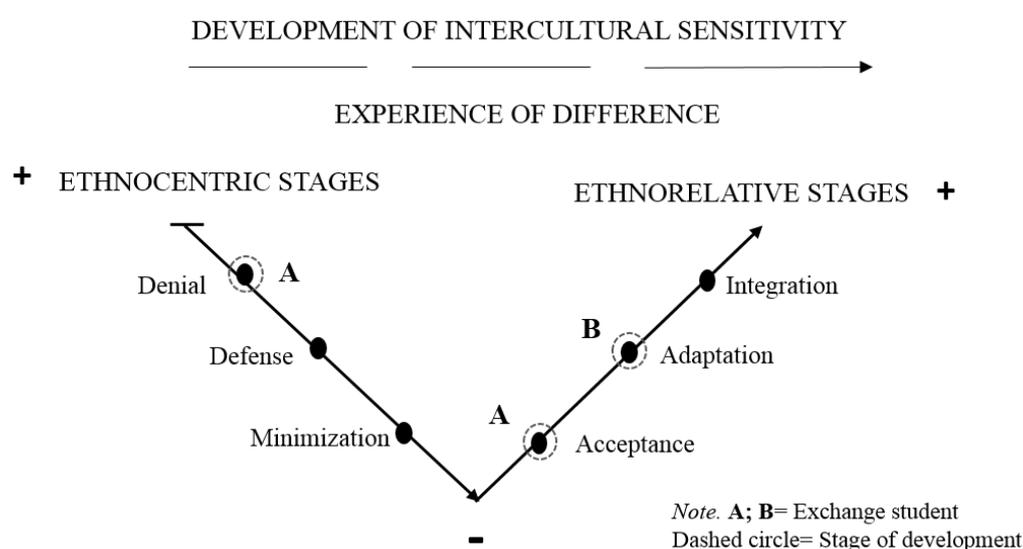


Figure 7 - Compound development of Intercultural Sensitivity [my representation].

To explain what is designated in this dissertation as a compound development, let us consider Bennett’s (1986, 1993b) developmental continuum (Figure 6) but represent it as two trajectories instead (Figure 7). The first trajectory encompasses the ethnocentric half and follows a descending movement (+/-) from more to less ethnocentric stages. The second trajectory, includes the ethnorelative half and follows an ascending movement (-/+) from less to more ethnorelative stages. Now, let us imagine the overall trajectory is symbolic of two exchange students’ (Students **A** and **B**) intercultural sensitivity developmental paths. **Student B**, a highly sociable individual, developed friendships both with other sojourners and hosts and is in the *adaptation* stage regarding the host culture and other cultures. **Student A**, a more introvert type, does not hold great curiosity toward the host culture and only

developed relationships with other sojourners. According to the six stages of the DMIS, this student holds a typical *denial* behavior in that the host culture is construed in vague ways and neither does the student wish to engage with hosts but only with undifferentiated “Others”. Yet, this same student accepts differences among peers from different cultural backgrounds and recognizes that one’s culture is just one of equally complex cultures. As such, the following question arises: *How can Student B’s developmental path be described in the DMIS if two contradictory worldviews (denial and acceptance) are held?*

Providing sustained responses to this question goes beyond the unidirectional progression purported by the DMIS since Student B manifests both ethnorelative and ethnocentric thinking (Figure 7). Additionally, there was no progression in the student’s sensitivity toward the host culture. It thus seems that worldviews cannot always be reduced to fixed cognitive structures indicative of certain kinds of attitudes and behaviors. It is in this aspect that the DMIS fails to explain intercultural development. This potential weakness is also a strength of the model as constructed cross-cultural experience provides a way to understanding intercultural development and typical cognitive structures (though the model should be read with care). The conceptualization into incremental worldviews gives the model’s major empirical applicability in training and research, as evidenced in the wide use of the assessment tool based on this model - the Intercultural Developmental Inventory (IDI - Hammer & Bennett, 1998). The IDI is also largely used in study abroad contexts, especially in US study abroad, as previously demonstrated in section 2.4.1.

Developmental Model of Intercultural Maturity. King and Baxter Magolda’s (2005) model articulates the developmental process which leads to increased intercultural maturity, i.e., the developmental capacity people have to “become increasingly capable of understanding and acting in ways that are interculturally aware and appropriate” (p. 573). This kind of psychosocial maturity can be reached through a multidimensional growth in cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal domains. That is, through the evolving complexity in the ways individuals construe and understand cultural differences (cognitive domain), view themselves (intrapersonal domain) and diverse others (interpersonal domain). Achieving intercultural maturity requires attention to all three developmental domains.

Two assumptions undergird this conceptual framework: (a) intercultural maturity is a desired collegiate outcome which encompasses a set of complex attributes in the

aforementioned developmental domains, and (b) development implies a sequence of steps or benchmarks along a developmental continuum. These benchmarks embody three developmental levels across each developmental domain, as illustrated by Figure 8.

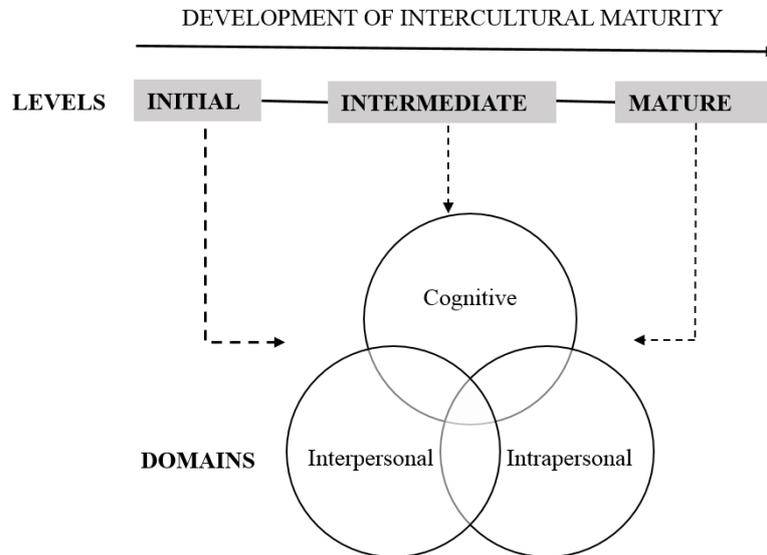


Figure 8 - Developmental Model of Intercultural Maturity [my representation].

Intercultural maturity implies a trajectory from an initial to an intermediate and mature level in each of the three domains (cognitive, interpersonal, and intrapersonal). At the intersection of each developmental level and domain are the necessary capacities for progression until the last developmental level (mature level). King and Baxter Magolda’s (2005) original representation of this trajectory is conveyed in a three-by-three matrix wherein the three developmental levels are listed horizontally, the domains vertically and the necessary capacities are at the intersection of the two (see p. 576). For illustrative purposes, this trajectory is represented in Figure 8 as a continuum emphasizing the expected progression both across levels and domains.

Progression until mature development is accompanied by increasingly complex *meaning making* which is defined by Baxter Magolda (1999) as the capacity of organizing, interpreting, and construing life experiences. The evolution to more complex forms of *meaning making* arises from the “ability to reflect upon one’s beliefs, organize one’s thoughts and feelings in the context of, but separate from, the thoughts and feelings of others and literally make up one’s mind”, i.e., *self-authorship* (Baxter Magolda, 1999, p. 6). In the early stages of development, learners’ *self-authorship* abilities are limited because learners are still influenced by others’ views on their own cultural perspectives (cognitive domain),

define themselves according to these views and expectations (intrapersonal domain), and develop relationships primarily with similar “Others” (interpersonal domain). At intermediate levels of development, learners are less dependent on others and manifest a growing awareness of the self and of cultural differences. In more mature levels, learners achieve self-authorship in all three developmental domains.

One of the greatest strengths of the DMIM is its multidimensionality and developmental nature. The model is a powerful and comprehensive framework to understand the developmental abilities which enable adult learners’ to apply their knowledge and skills in a variety of cultural settings. Given that the model has not yet been fully empirically tested, it lacks clarification about its applicability beyond developmental psychology; as well as about the challenges involved in assessing multiple developmental domains.

Similar to Bennett’s model (1986, 1993b), the DMIM warrants exploration of stagnation stages (or even regression) in developmental processes, even if these processes are typically evolutionary in motion. The model is, nonetheless, more eclectic than Bennett’s in that it is grounded in learner capacities for reflection and *meaning making* and not just in worldview configurations and underlying behaviors and attitudes.

The next section presents communicative models and the ICC construct as purported by theories of foreign and L2 language teaching.

2.4.3.2 Communicative competence models

As explained in section 2.4.2, communicative competence models are generally situated within theories of foreign language and L2 teaching. These theories developed an intercultural orientation in the late 1980s and 1990s, both in the US and in Europe. This orientation aimed at making language learners aware of the cultural context in which a language is set, and was inspired by western communicative approaches of the 1970s and 1980s. The term *communicative competence* was coined by Dell Hymes in reaction to Chomsky’s abstract conceptualization of linguistic competence and his distinction between *competence* and *performance*. Hymes (1972) proposed two competencies in recognition of the social dimension of language (which may affect *competence* and *performance*), to wit: *linguistic competence* and *communicative competence*. The notion of *communicative competence* was later brought to foreign language teaching and refined by Canale and Swain (1980) in the US, and Van Ek (1986, 1987) in Europe as part of the work he developed for the CoE. The two models contend a different understanding of communicative competence.

Canale and Swain (1980) defined communicative competence in *grammatical*, *sociolinguistic* and *strategic* terms, and Van Ek (1986, 1987) defined communicative ability as comprising six competencies: (1) linguistic, (2) sociolinguistic, (3) discourse, (4) strategic, (5) sociocultural, and (6) social competence.

Other works about communicative competence could be cited but what is important to stress is the articulation between linguistic and sociocultural competencies in ICC models. Stated differently, two types of learning should blend together in ICC development: language and (inter)cultural learning. In the words of Byram (1997), “teaching for linguistic competence cannot be separated from teaching for intercultural competence” (p. 22). The selection of Byram’s (1997) and Fantini’s (2006a, 2009) models is based on this understanding and on the operationalization of teaching and assessment frameworks which can be applied to language teaching, the context where the intervention of this research took place. Although only Fantini’s (2006a, 2009) model and its data collection instrument was adopted as the ICC model and tool at the heart of this study’s intervention, Byram’s (1997) model brought additional insights concerning the notion of critical cultural awareness and the formulation of learning objectives. Both models are examined in detail next.

Intercultural communicative model: Byram (1997). The model developed by Michael Byram in 1997 remains a very influential conceptual framework in foreign language and L2 teaching in Europe. Understanding this ICC model implies taking into account several assumptions, to wit: that (1) culture is envisaged in national terms (though considered as one among other sets of cultural practices and beliefs endorsed by the interlocutor); (2) the acquisition of ICC is posited in educational contexts (particularly in the language classroom); (3) the nature of ICC depends, in part, on the social context in which it takes place; (4) ICC implies articulation between linguistic and (inter)cultural competencies. It is in this articulation that “an individual’s ability to interact and communicate across cultural boundaries” lies (Byram, 1997, p. 7), as well as the concept of the *intercultural speaker* which replaces the monolingual figure of the *native speaker*. The figure of the intercultural speaker embodies well the theories influencing Byram’s (1997) model which draws on notions of applied and sociolinguistics, theories of social identity (Tajfel, 1981), cross-cultural communication (Gudykunst, 1994) and Bordieu’s theory of social and cultural capital (Bordieu, 1990) (Byram, 1997, 2009).

Byram's (1997) model can be divided into two parts: linguistic and (inter)cultural. The linguistic sphere of this model is influenced by notions of applied and sociolinguistics, particularly Van Ek's (1986, 1987) notion of *communicative ability* on which three of its competencies (of the original six) are based: (1) *linguistic*, (2) *sociolinguistic* and (3) *discourse* competence. These competencies are redefined and adjusted by Byram (1997) to the figure of the intercultural speaker. *Linguistic competence* is redefined in linguistic terms, excluding the contextual meanings which are embodied in *sociolinguistic competence*. The reformulation of *discourse competence* maintains an emphasis on strategies to produce and interpret texts but not simply on their application as skills of *discovery* and *negotiation* are essential to accommodate the dyadic nature of intercultural communication (Byram, 1997).

The above reformulations allowed Byram (1997) to bridge the gap between the linguistic and (inter)cultural learning realms. Stated another way, the *linguistic*, *sociolinguistic* and *discourse* components capture the essence of *communicative competence* which, when combined with the five factors involved in intercultural interaction, form the construct of ICC. The five factors or *savoirs* are summarized by Byram as follows:

- *Attitudes*: curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own (*savoir être*);
- *Knowledge*: of social groups and their practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of general processes of societal and individual interaction (*savoirs*);
- *Skills of interpreting and relating*: ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one's own (*savoir comprendre*);
- *Skills of discovery and interaction*: ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication (*savoir apprendre/faire*);
- *Critical cultural awareness*: an ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries (*savoir s'engager*).

(Byram in Roberts, Byram, Barro, Shirley, & Street, 2001, p. 233)

The comprehensiveness of Byram's (1997) model of ICC relies on the articulation of these five (inter)cultural factors with the three competencies of the linguistic (or communicative) realm, as illustrated by Figure 9.

Byram's (1997) twofold representation of an *intercultural competence* and an *intercultural communicative competence* is intentional, because ICC is only mobilized when interaction with people from another culture involves the use of a foreign language. When this interaction occurs in one's own environment and involves the use of one's own language, only IC is mobilized. Hence the provision of two models in Byram's (1997) monograph, viz.: a model of IC and its five factors or *savoirs* in a three by three matrix (see p. 34 in the original), and a comprehensive model of ICC (replicated in Figure 9).

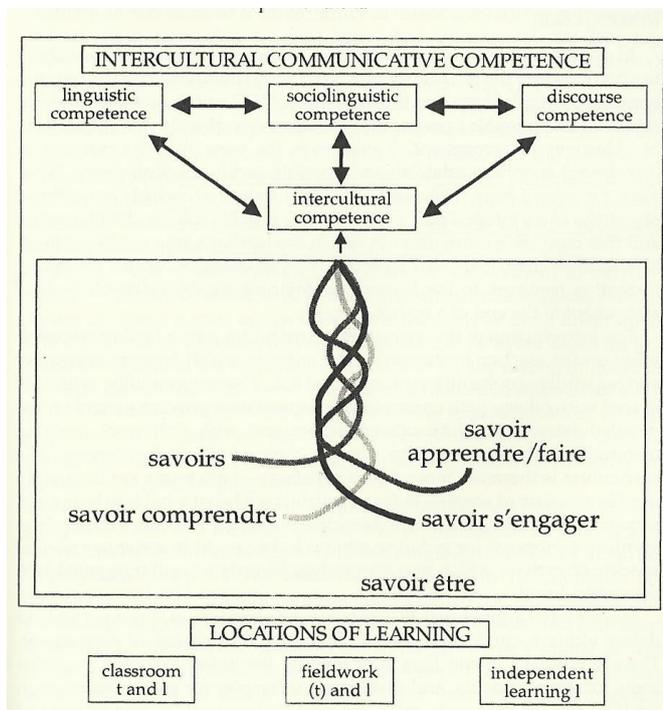


Figure 9 - Byram's (1997) Comprehensive Model of ICC (p. 73).

Tantamount to the development of IC in and by itself, or ICC as whole, is *critical cultural awareness*. This *savoir* purports the ability to decenter from oneself and *intercultural citizenship* which ensures a political dimension to language teaching, as reemphasized by Byram in later work (see Byram, 2008a).

Despite the centrality of critical cultural awareness, the model lacks specification on how this enhanced cultural awareness relates and contrasts to a 'regular' cultural awareness. The incorporation of critical cultural awareness in this dissertation bears in mind this critique, by attempting to shed insight into how *regular* and *critical* cultural awareness distinguish one from the other, as Chapters 4 and 5 will show. However, it should be noted that the notion of *critical cultural awareness* is incorporated in this dissertation not so much in political engagement terms but according to the capacities undergirding this ICC dimension. Specifically, the abilities to decenter from oneself and reflect critically. It is this

sort of abilities that requires the intervention of teachers and educational institutions, as argued by Byram (1997). It is here where formal interventions, like the one employed by this research, can make a difference.

Finally, it must be stressed that Byram's (1997) model posits the acquisition of ICC in an educational context, even if it encompasses other locations of learning (independent learning and fieldwork - see Figure 9). The depiction of detailed objectives (for the five *savoirs*) and a notional threshold derives from the nature of this context. This notional threshold is not broken down into levels of competency given that this conceptualization is an abstract and prescriptive model which is theory-driven. This abstract and general nature may represent a constraint to this ICC conceptualization in that the relations among its subcomponents remain somehow vague. This is evident in the lack of specification about the ways the language and cultural realms may relate in practice. Although this is intentional, outlining the ways in which all eight subcomponents relate would be of great empirical applicability. This is of special interest as the model attempts to serve as an auxiliary tool for language teachers who want to incorporate an intercultural dimension into their teaching. Not outlining possible paths of development may leave teachers (and other professionals) overwhelmed with the complexity of a competence which does require a clear definition of educational objectives, but above all how these objectives can be read in view of students' actual performance in the classroom.

Another constraint of the model is often attributed to its focus on a national understanding of culture (e.g., Belz, 2007; Kramsch, 1999). This critique is not shared by this researcher given that, as argued by Risager (2007), the focus of the model is not a matter of *banal nationalism*, but a conscious choice of Byram given his targeted audience and its didactic needs. This critique has been deconstructed by the scholar himself in the 1997 monograph and, in greater detail, in later work (see Byram, 2009). Making culture an object of study in foreign and L2 classrooms, even if couched in terms of a 'unified' concept of national culture, allows a tangible discourse focused on a common social identity. This does not make the approach structuralist nor does it invalidate other forms of social identity. This is mostly a matter of how culture is approached in the classroom.

Intercultural communicative model: Fantini (2006a, 2009). The model developed by Alvino E. Fantini in the US can be situated at the intersection of the language education

and intercultural communication fields. Chronologically, this model needs to be envisioned as a continuation of previous work developed by this scholar in the 1990s (see Fantini, 1993, 1995, 1997), at a time when language pedagogy witnessed a cultural turn in the US and in Europe (see section 2.4.2). As in the case of Byram (1989), the early work of Fantini (1997) aims to articulate language and (inter)cultural teaching/learning.

The theories influencing Fantini's (2006a, 2009) model reflect these intentions, drawing strongly on applied and sociolinguistics, intercultural communication, as well as on cultural anthropology views on culture as analogous to language and communication. Of tantamount importance are the notions of *linguistic* and *cultural relativity* in that not only does language influence an interlocutor's way of perceiving the world (*worldview*), but one's native cultural stance has also a bearing on one's worldviews. Stated differently, not only does language mirror culture but culture mirrors language as well. Three components inform a *worldview* according to Fantini (1995): (a) speakers (their values, beliefs and practices), (b) the speakers' symbol systems (i.e., the verbal and nonverbal dimensions), and (c) meanings (semantics). It is at the intersection of these components that a *worldview* resides, as illustrated by Fantini (1995, 2012a) and replicated in Figure 10.

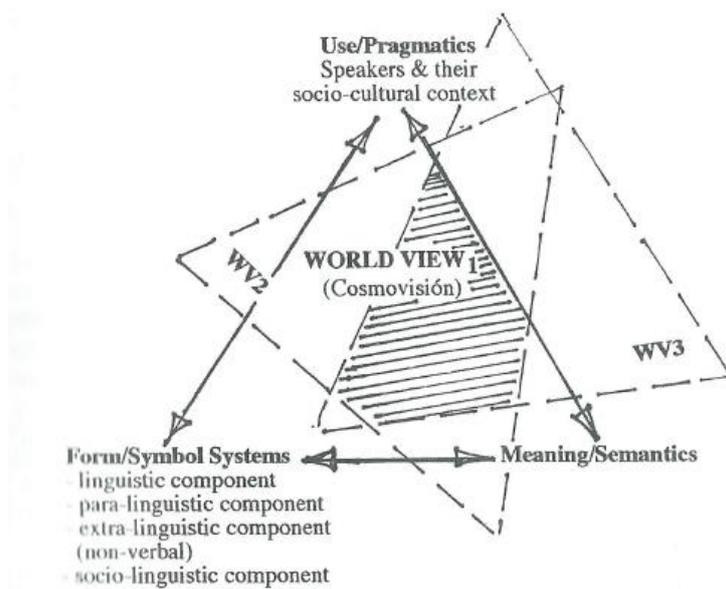


Figure 10 - Language, culture and worldview (Fantini, 1995, p. 151) - with author's permission.

As suggested by Fantini (1995, 2012a), the worldview of every individual in every society arises from the specific configuration of these three components; hence, the description of worldview as a *cultural-linguistic* construct and the assumption of a *linguaculture* paradigm for each speaker. In other words, in a situation with two interlocutors

from different cultural backgrounds, one is not only exposed to a second language (L2) but also to a second culture (C2) - a second *linguaculture* (LC2). The components of each *linguaculture* form a *worldview* which can interact with other realizations of the world (hence a WV1, WV2, WV3). The shaded area in Figure 10, where worldviews overlap, represents the aspects shared by all human beings (*universals*) of worldview configurations. The remaining areas represent the aspects which are specific to each *linguaculture* (*particulars*), as clarified by Fantini (1995).

It is against the background depicted above that Fantini's (2006a, 2009) conceptualization of ICC lies, by representing the competence needed to transcend one's singular worldview, one's native *linguaculture* (LC1), and develop a second *linguaculture* (LC2) or worldview. For this to happen, one needs to develop the set of "complex abilities needed to perform *effectively* and *appropriately* when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself"(Fantini, 2006a, p. 1 [italics in the original]). The quality standards on which this interaction is assessed is its *effectiveness*, according to one's own view of one's own performance in a LC2 (the *etic* perspective), and its *appropriateness* according to one's hosts' views (the *emic* perspective), as explained by Fantini (2006a, 2009).

The complex set in Fantini's definition includes several interrelated components: (1) various personal attributes (characteristics related to one's cultural context),²⁶ (2) three areas (the abilities to develop relationships, to communicate with minimal loss or distortion, and to cooperate with others to accomplish tasks of mutual interest or need), (3) four dimensions illustrated by Figure 11 on the right, (4) host language proficiency, and (5) various developmental levels.

Of the four ICC dimensions (attitudes, skills and knowledge), cultural awareness (A+ in Figure 11) stands out as central to ICC

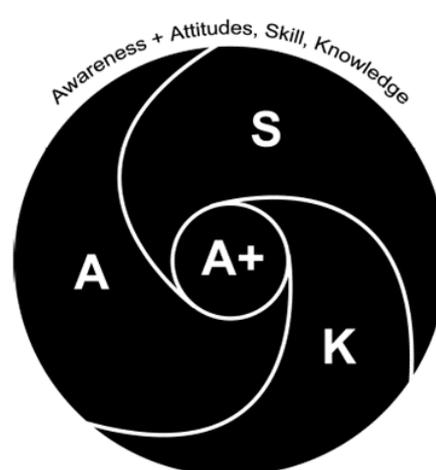


Figure 11 - Fantini's (2006a, 2009) ICC dimensions –with author's permission.

²⁶ Fantini (2006a, 2009) lists personal attributes commonly cited in the literature, including: flexibility, humor, patience, openness, interest, curiosity, empathy, tolerance for ambiguity and suspending judgments.

development, by stimulating and furthering the development of the other three dimensions through introspection and reflection. The centrality given to *cultural awareness* by Fantini (2006a, 2009) resembles the pivotal role attributed to the *fifth savoir* (*critical cultural awareness*) by Byram (1997). Both contend that (critical) cultural awareness does not normally occur in and by itself, but that it is facilitated by the intervention of educators and educational institutions. As a result, this *dimension* or *savoir* assumes its proper central role.

Another assumption of Fantini's (2006a, 2009) model is that effective and appropriate mobilization of the four dimensions entails proficiency in the host language (Subcomponent 4). This proficiency enhances entry possibilities in the host culture, whereas the lack of it may constrain entry and influence one's ICC development (Fantini, 2012a). To measure this progress, Fantini (2006a, 2009) posits four developmental levels (Subcomponent 5), which are related to the type of sojourning experience, to wit:

- Level I: Educational traveler – e.g., participants in short exchange programs (1-2 months);
- Level II: Sojourner – participants engaged in extended cultural immersion, e.g., internships of longer duration, including service programs (3-9 months);
- Level III: Professional – appropriate for individuals working in intercultural or multicultural contexts; e.g., staff employed in international institutions or organizations (...);
- Level IV: Intercultural/Multiculturalist specialist – appropriate for trainers and educators engaged in training, educating, consulting or advising multinational students.

(Fantini, 2006a, p. 2)

The levels described above are suggestive, and they may be reformulated or combined with varying degrees of attainment, such as: basic, intermediate, and advanced (ibid.). It should be noted that these levels refer to roles and situations of cultural immersion and are related to the specific research project and measurement tool underlying Fantini's (2006a, 2009) conceptualization of ICC. This project was developed for the Federation of the Experiment in International Living (FEIL, <http://federationeil.org>)²⁷ to assess the

²⁷ The FEIL is an international non-profit association composed of several member organizations, across 21 countries, which offer programs of cultural exchange.

intercultural outcomes and impact of its exchange programs (particularly, volunteer service programs). For those purposes, Fantini (2006b) developed a self-assessment instrument (Assessment of Intercultural Competence, AIC) which embodies the operationalization of the ICC construct here depicted.

One of the greatest strengths of this model, as in Byram's (1997) model, lies in its comprehensive nature and the articulation of *linguistic* and *(inter)cultural* components inherent to the broader construct of ICC. In this aspect, Fantini's (2006a, 2009) model is more explicit than Byram's (1997), particularly in how the two components relate through the *linguaculture* paradigm and the ways one's language-and-culture informs a given worldview. Moreover, Fantini's (2006a, 2009) model is translated into a clear high-order construct which facilitates its empirical replication in other research efforts, including this doctoral research. The model is, nevertheless, less specific than Byram's (1997) model in defining its subcomponents, even if the scope of each subcomponent can be delimited by the indicators in the corresponding assessment tool. Thus, if the model benefits from being empirically-driven and validated, a more detailed definition of its subcomponents would help to delimit their distinguishing features better. For instance, some personal attributes such as "openness" and "curiosity" may overlap with the "attitudinal" dimension of ICC.

Similar to Byram's (1997) model, Fantini's (2006a, 2009) model warrants further exploration of the developmental realm. Not that the two models do not draw attention to the longitudinal and psychological reality inherent to ICC (they do, indeed), but both would benefit from an articulation of its subcomponents with the interpersonal, intrapersonal, and cognitive dimensions of psychosocial development. This articulation may be useful to clarify the centrality attributed to *cultural awareness* by both models. Although there are differences in how Fantini (2006a, 2009) and Byram (1997) posit *cultural awareness* and *critical cultural awareness*, both stress abilities of high-order thinking and abstraction but lack specification about how these abilities relate to constructs of mental organization. Hence, the need to complement the guidelines offered by these models with the two developmental models described in section 2.4.3.1, as will be demonstrated by data analysis chapters, particularly by Chapter 5.

The strengths of Fantini's (2006a, 2009) model and its appropriateness to the research objectives of this study led to adopting this conceptualization of ICC as the unit of analysis, as will be described further in Chapter 3.

For now, it is necessary to clarify this study's understanding of other related concepts to ICC - *culture* and *competence*, described next.

Culture. The notion of culture is a contested conceptual site across disciplinary fields. Defining culture is a complex (and daunting) task that stands on the intellectual shoulders of prominent scholars and figures such as Edward Tylor, Edward T. Hall, Clyde Kluckhohn, Clifford Geertz, among so many others. The difficulty of such enterprise is often illustrated in the literature by the 164 different definitions of culture compiled by Alfred Kroeber and Clyde Kluckhohn in 1952. Any attempt to present here a definition would, therefore, most likely be inadequate, even if the entire dissertation were devoted to it. That said, the aim of this section is not to offer a definition of culture *per se* but to briefly clarify the assumptions behind this study.

To start with, it is advantageous to draw a line between the *discrete* and *abstract* components that inform culture or, in other words, the *explicit* and *implicit* dimensions purported by anthropologists like Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) or, more recently, the *objective* and *subjective* dimensions in Triandis (1972). These distinctions arose against theories of culture drawing heavily on psychoanalysis which posited culture at two levels: *overt*, the visible part, and *covert*, the invisible part of culture (Hall, [1959] 1990). Hence the iceberg analogy applied to culture.

The framework of discrete and abstract components will, thus, provide the background for clarifying the conceptual understanding of culture in this study. For these purposes, it is useful to draw on Triandis (1972) definition of *objective* (or material) and *subjective* culture. Accordingly, *objective culture* refers to the institutional (e.g., political and economic systems) and material aspects or products (e.g., art, music, gastronomy, literature) of culture. *Subjective* culture is a society's "characteristic way of perceiving its social environment" (Triandis, 1972, p. viii). Subjective culture can then encompass categories, attitudes, norms, roles, and values which are maintained by a group of interacting people (Triandis, 1972, 2002).

Certainly, there are many other ways to approach culture. Yet the logic behind this study, and its pedagogical intervention, was to address the objective and subjective dimensions of culture. For these purposes, the host culture (Portuguese) was used as the leverage for reflection about objective and subjective dimensions of culture and comparisons

between the multiples identities in the language classroom. Naturally, this implied making an assumption about culture based on national groupings. The aim was to approach culture from a tangible discourse that recognized national culture as one (of other forms) of social identity and met participants' areas of interest elicited in the questionnaire that preceded the intervention. This issue will be discussed in detail in the description of the intervention offered in Chapter 3. For now, it is necessary to explain that the understanding of culture in this study attends not only to regularities among national groups (as well as other cultural groupings) but also to their variability and fluidity.

Attendance to *regularity* and *variability* of culture implied oscillating between more *structuralist* and *constructivist* paradigmatic assumptions in a dialectical position which sees these approaches not just as contradictory but complementary. After all, as Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009) argue “regularity and variability go hand in hand (...) and a social constructivist perspective can be fully compatible with a view of culture that emphasizes regularities” (p. 36). To analyze regularities of (national) culture, Hofstede's (1991, 2001) framework was presented to this study's participants in Module 1 of the intervention, as will be examined in Chapter 3. The aim was to start with an approach that emphasized regularities among cultural groups to later attend to variability among cultural groupings. Selection of Hofstede's (1991, 2001) work was based on its empirical applicability and the identification of five key dimensions on which different cultural groups could be compared, to wit:

1. *High vs. low power distance* - the extent to which less powerful members within a cultural group accept and expect that power is distributed unequally;
2. *Individualism vs. collectivism* - preference for loosely or tightly-knit social ties over one's own preferences;
3. *Masculinity vs. femininity* - clearly differentiated gender roles (masculinity) vs overlapping gender roles (femininity);
4. *High and low uncertainty avoidance* - the extent to which members of a cultural group feel threatened by uncertainty and ambiguity;
5. *Long vs. short-term orientation* – orientation toward the future or the present.

(Hofstede 1991, 2001)

These five dimensions are based on the statistical analysis of survey data regarding work-related values of employees from the multinational corporation - IBM. Data were collected between 1967 and 1973 with 50 countries and three regions being the locus of

analysis offered by Hofstede in 1991 and 2001.²⁸ This analysis resulted in the multi-dimensions of national culture identified above, based on scores of country-level variation.

Hofstede's work has been widely quoted and replicated around the world but it has also been much criticized both in conceptual (e.g., Baskerville, 2003) and methodological terms (e.g., McSweeney, 2002). An object of "love or hate", the truth of the matter is that Hofstede's work has remained highly influential in the study of cultural groups. The point here is that, as in other conceptual frameworks, conceptualizations should not be envisioned as taken-for-granted assumptions.

Aware of the more static views of national culture and the political notions of nation-state in Hofstede's (1991, 2001) work, this framework offered, nonetheless, a clear starting point to analyze the concept of culture in Module 1 of this study's intervention.

From Module 1 until the last module of the intervention, there was a move toward more constructivist views of culture and internal variability. Hofstede's (1991, 2001) framework was very useful in offering students an objective frame of reference. For instance, Hofstede's conceptualization of manifestations of cultural relativism in an 'onion diagram' (Figure 12) provided a rich framework in Module 2 for thinking about cultural differences through analysis of the (subjective) *values* underpinning Portuguese proverbs.

From Module 3 on, the emphasis on more constructivist views of culture became evident by demonstrating how group members may hold different beliefs in life and also belong to various sociocultural groups. The next chapter will make the cultural assumptions behind the intervention's modules more explicit, as well as the balance sought between regularity and variability. For now, it is sufficient to say that the ultimate goal of the intervention was to offer participants in this study 'food for thought' to construct their own views of culture

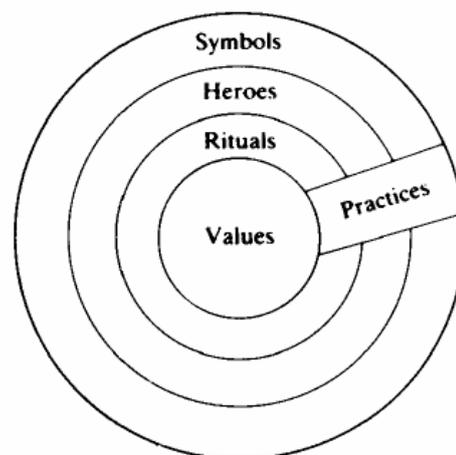


Figure 12 - Manifestations of cultural relativism after Hofstede (1991, p. 9).

²⁸ The initial work of Hofstede (1980) identified only the first four dimensions (covering 40 countries). The fifth dimension (long vs. short-term orientation) was only incorporated later, an error which the scholar attributes to the western biases of the research team (Hofstede 1991).

and enhance their abilities to reflect critically about their sojourning experiences, as well as their multiple identities in the language classroom. Stated another way, students were invited to reflect, interact, and exchange viewpoints through the provision of pedagogical materials and stimuli which encouraged the whole class to transcend the line between “our culture and their culture”. The approach chosen oscillated between *regularity* and *variability*, between more *structuralist* and *constructivist* views, or as Holliday (2012) puts it: by “acknowledging the substantial reality of national cultures, but in a contextual rather than a confining role - and coupling it with a social constructivist acknowledgement that culture is socially constructed”(p. 44).

Competence. Like culture, the notion of competence is a contested conceptual notion. Understanding any construct which includes competence in its designation entails grasping the conceptual underpinnings of competence, the elements it is composed of and the standards against which it is assessed. This section then examines competence as an abstract construct with reference to: (a) the conceptual assumptions made, and (b) its core elements. This examination is then placed in context; i.e., against the type of competence under scrutiny in this study - ICC. The standards according by which ICC is going to be assessed will be examined in the next section, alongside underlying evaluation theories.

The notion of competence goes back to the 1960s and the field of applied linguistics when Noam Chomsky introduced the distinction between *competence* and *performance*, as noted earlier in this chapter. In the Chomskyan taxonomy, *competence* refers to the internalized knowledge of the language, and *performance* to its use.

From the 1960s onwards various attempts have been made to define competence. To review some of these attempts, Bowden and Marten (1998) offer an overview of four types of approaches to competence: (1) *behaviorist*, based on (workplace) performance, (2) *additive*, whereby knowledge is added to performance but competence remains a separate construct, (3) *integrative*, whereby knowledge and performance are coupled to demonstrate competence and, finally, (4) *holistic* which views competence as a holistic construct. This holistic view entails: (4.1) self-perceptions about one’s role in a given context, (4.2) the capacity to undertake that very role, and (4.3) the integration of knowledge and performance within the given context.

Another review, provided by Gonczi and Hager (2010) overviews competence approaches in competency-based education and vocational education training. These approaches vary according to their focus, viz.: (1) on *tasks* as equating successful performance, (2) on *desirable attributes* (knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes) which are assessed separately based on performance and, finally, (3) on an *integrated conception* which “views competence in terms of knowledge, abilities, skills and attitudes displayed in the context of a carefully chosen set of realistic professional tasks” (p. 405). In the latter approach assessment is based on key tasks. Similar to Bowden and Marten’s (1998) *holistic approach*, the *integrated conception* is comprehensive and situates competence in context.

The two reviews of competence described above can be framed within a structuralist paradigm (e.g., the *behaviorist approach*; the *focus on tasks*) or more *constructivist* and *social constructivist* paradigms (e.g., the *holistic approach*; the *integrated conception*). Accordingly, learning is typically seen as *stimulus-response* in the first case; in the latter case, individuals and the contexts where they operate have an important part in construing one’s competence-development. Whatever the approach to competence, it is crucial to grasp the underlying epistemological assumptions which can be dialectical rather than just contradictory. The same applies to IC studies. This discussion is, nevertheless, often forgotten in intercultural literature as some scholars have pointed out (see, for instance, Deardorff, 2004; Spitzberg & Chagon, 2009; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2002).

Of the four models which guided this study, two attend to a threshold of competence - Byram’s (1997) and Fantini’s (2006a, 2009) models. Both address the notion of competence holistically, defining the core of (inter)cultural competence into a fourfold or fivefold modelization of *cultural awareness*, *attitudes*, *skills* and *knowledge*; Byram (1997) unfolds *skills* into two types as previously examined. The metacognitive aspect of competence is embodied by (critical) *cultural awareness* which assumes a superordinate role related to high-order thinking. This is illustrated by Byram (1997) through the concept of “deep learning” (after Entwistle) and by Fantini (2006a) through the concept of “conscientização crítica” (after Paulo Freire). Transposition of these abilities into the holistic view of competence described by Bowden and Marten (1998) would frame *knowledge*, *skills* and *attitudes* as necessary capacities to undertake a given role (of *intercultural speaker*, in the words of Byram), and (critical) *cultural awareness* as relating to one’s self-perceptions about that role in context.

The linguistic (or communicative) ability purported both in Byram’s (1997) and Fantini’s (2006a) models would be framed as another indispensable capacity to undertake the role of intercultural speaker or mediator. In Fantini’s (2006a) model, other abilities are deemed necessary for successful intercultural communication and interaction, viz.: the abilities encompassed in the three areas or domains identified in this model, along with personal attributes. The communicative ability stands out as having a central role in relating ICC to context. The same applies to Byram’s (1997) model in that it is only when one is able to communicate with different “Others” in a foreign language that language and (inter)cultural abilities blend together as required by the context of interaction. In other words, the ability to communicate with regard to context is crucial for integrating *knowledge* (in this case, linguistic and cultural) and *performance* within a given *context*. Thus, competence implies not only an *effective* display of abilities but also its *appropriateness* to context. Hence, Fantini’s (2006a) definition of ICC as the set of “complex abilities needed to perform *effectively* and *appropriately* when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself” (p. 1 [italics in the original]).

Figure 13 applies the holistic definition of competence purported by Bowden and Marten (1998) to Fantini’s (2006a, 2009) ICC model.

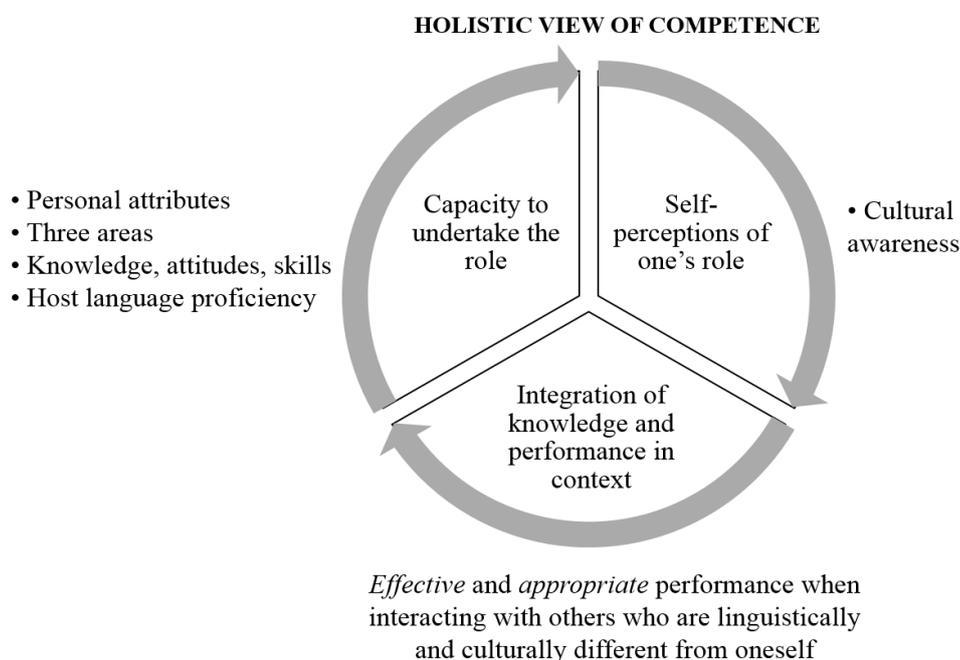


Figure 13 - Holistic view of competence after Bowden and Marten (1998) applied to Fantini’s (2006a, 2009) ICC model.

The conceptualization of competence in this research stems from the holistic representation in Figure 13. As such, ICC is understood both as a matter of performative abilities, of learners' self-reflections (and the capital they bring to interaction *in situ*), as well as the completion of tasks and stimuli during the pedagogical intervention. The core of ICC is thus represented as the four dimensions - *cultural awareness, attitudes, skills and knowledge* in Fantini's (2006a, 2009) model. The former dimension assumes a pivotal role in that it allows learners to situate and reflect critically about their learning experiences in practice, i.e., in relation to the sojourn. For this reason, the intervention is anchored in experiential learning theories, described later in Chapter 3.

Host language abilities are also taken into account to meet the demands of ICC development in the sojourning context. After all, *appropriate* and *effective* interaction with regard to context requires aligning both language and cultural abilities. It is assumed, this way, that effective and appropriate mobilizing of *cultural awareness, attitudes, skills and knowledge*, along with language, translates into a capacity to respond successfully to tasks and stimuli within the formal context of the intervention, as well as to sojourn challenges. This success means achieving a competence threshold of qualitative growth which bears in mind learner developmental trajectories and posits them on a longitudinal continuum.

To summarize, all three features in the holistic definition of competence in Figure 13 are taken into account in relation to the core elements of ICC. Specifically, (a) participant core capacities to perform a role, that of an intercultural speaker or mediator (knowledge, attitudes, skills and host language abilities), (b) self-reflections about that role (awareness), and (c) the integration of knowledge and performance into context (the sojourn). Naturally, the assessment framework derives from the core elements of ICC, and evaluation theories were chosen accordingly. This issue is examined next.

2.4.4 Intercultural Competence: Evaluation and Assessment

The conceptual understanding of competence previously described carries with it views on evaluation, in general, and assessment with respect to ICC, in particular, that need to be made explicit. This section, then, examines evaluation theories underlying this study and later places these theories in connection with student intercultural learning. For these purposes, it is imperative to differentiate between *evaluation* and *assessment* as this distinction is fundamental for the discussion offered in the following sections.

The terms *evaluation* and *assessment* are often used interchangeably. This study, however, posits these terms as distinct. Before contrasting one term to the other, it is important to acknowledge evaluation as an applied inquiry process that entails both an empirical and normative aspect. It is the latter component that gives a value feature to evaluation regarding the *merit* and *worth* of something (Fournier, 2005). Drawing from this understanding of *evaluation* as a systematic inquiry, with a transdisciplinary nature, the term evaluation will be used in this dissertation for the purposes of “investigat[ing] and judg[ing] the quality or worth of a program, project or other entity rather than student learning” (Suskie, 2009, p. 12). In the case of this research, the educational *quality* and *worth* of the intervention and the programmatic goal of enhancing the ICC of its participants. Before exploring the meaning of assessment (in contrast to evaluation), it is helpful to note the definitions of *quality* (or *merit*) and *worth*. The term *quality* or *merit* is used in this dissertation when referring to the intrinsic value of the intervention to its participants, and *worth* when considering its extrinsic value to those outside it (Patton, 2008). To clarify further, *quality* or *merit* consider the effectiveness of the intervention in meeting and enhancing participant intercultural communicative needs. *Worth*, in turn, refers to the value of the intervention to key stakeholders, as will be described in Chapter 3.

The term *assessment* has a more focused-meaning than *evaluation* and is understood in this dissertation as an ongoing process that aims to understand and improve student learning (Suskie, 2009). Accordingly, assessment is envisioned as a continuous loop with four steps: (1) establishing clear and measurable learning goals; (2) providing learning opportunities; (3) gathering, analyzing and interpreting evidence of student learning; and, finally, (4) using the results gathered to improve student learning (ibid.). To put it simply, *evaluation* is related to the quality and worth of the intervention and its overarching goal or mission, while *assessment* focuses on defining, monitoring and analyzing how well student learning goals have been achieved throughout the intervention and can be improved as a result.

The next section examines evaluation approaches, including the one which was chosen as most applicable to this study. This section will be followed by a critical examination of the chosen evaluation framework, along with the possibilities and challenges in assessing intercultural competencies and ICC in particular.

2.4.4.1 Approaches to evaluation

There are many different approaches to educational evaluation. Although the body of literature which attempts to define these approaches is extensive, it is usually unfamiliar to those outside this field. Some of these attempts include: the work of Alkin (2004, 2007); Fernandes (2011); Gardner (1994); Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (1989); Guba and Lincoln (1984); Mertens and Wilson (2012); Shadish, Cook, and Leviton (1991); Stufflebeam, Madaus, and Kellaghan (2000), among many others.

More important than providing an endless list of evaluation frameworks is to reflect on the conceptual organizers in these reviews. For instance, whereas Gardener's (1994) review is based on frameworks which correspond to five different definitions of evaluation,²⁹ Guba and Lincoln (1984) overview evaluation models onto four generations focused on: (1) measurement, (2) description, (3) judgment, and (4) constructivist approaches. Stufflebeam et al. (2000), on the other hand, provide a review mainly based on the purposes of evaluation models which are categorized into four types: (1) pseudo-evaluation models, (2) methods-oriented evaluation models, (3) improvement/accountability-oriented evaluation models, and (4) social agenda-directed/advocacy models. A more recent review by Mertens and Wilson (2012) emphasizes evaluation approaches according to philosophical paradigms and historical 'branches'. This latter component is based on the work of Alkin (2004, 2007) which describes the historical roots of evaluation (and underlying theories), by using a metaphor of a tree. The roots of the tree represent the nature of evaluation inquiries and its branches stand for theoretical perspectives in evaluation, viz.: (1) the use (2) methods, and (3) values-theories branches. These three branches are mapped by Mertens and Wilson (2012) onto four major paradigms: (a) pragmatic (the use branch), (b) postpositivist (the methods branch), (c) constructivist (the values branch), and (d) the transformative paradigm which the authors link to a new branch - (4) the social justice branch.

Greene et al. (1989) offer a review based on *evaluation designs* and its *purposes* rather than on specific evaluation models. This review will be used here to situate the evaluation underpinnings of this doctoral research. Criteria for selecting Greene's et al. (1989) review is the guidance provided to design and implement the type of evaluation embodied by this doctoral research - *mixed methods evaluation*. The pioneering work of

²⁹ (1) as professional judgment, (2) as measurement, (3) as the assessment of congruence between performance and objectives (4) decision-oriented evaluation and (5) goal-free/responsive evaluation.

Greene et al. (1989) emerged from the growing need to provide a conceptual framework to guide mixed methods evaluative inquiries in matching evaluation purposes with a recommended design. Five purposes for mixed-methods evaluations were identified by the authors, to wit: (1) *triangulation*, (2) *complementarity*, (3) *development*, (4) *initiation*, and (5) *expansion*, as summarized in Table 7. Each purpose corresponds to an equivalent design which is organized according to seven design features.

Table 7 - Purposes of mixed-methods evaluation designs after Greene et al. (1989, p. 259).

Purpose	Definition
Triangulation	Seeks convergence, corroboration and correspondence of results from the different methods
Complementarity	Seeks elaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of the results from one method with the results from the other method
Development	Seeks to use the results from one method to help develop or inform the other method, where development is broadly construed to include sampling and implementation, as well as measurement decisions
Initiation	Seeks discovery of paradox and contradiction, new perspectives of frameworks, the recasting of questions or results from one method with questions or results from the other method
Expansion	Seeks to extend the breath and range of the inquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components

The planned use of quantitative and qualitative methods for the five purposes outlined in Table 7 is what, ultimately, distinguishes a mixed methods evaluation from another type of evaluation. In the *Encyclopedia of Evaluation*, Greene (2005) provided the following general definition of *mixed-method evaluation*:

Mixed-method evaluation involves the planned use of two or more different kinds of empirical designs or data gathering and analysis tools in the same study or projects. (...). Evaluators routinely use a variety of methods because the field now accepts the legitimacy of various methodological traditions and because diverse methods enable better understanding of the complex, multifaceted, real-world social phenomena evaluators aim to understand. What distinguishes mixed-method evaluation is thus the *intentional* or *planned* use of diverse methods for particular mixed-method purposes using particular mixed-method designs. (Greene, 2005, p. 255 [italics in the original])

The definition provided by Greene (2005) is not replicated here in full, but continues with the specification of the five purposes outlined in Table 7, in addition to stressing the philosophical assumptions that underlie social scientific methods.

The philosophical underpinnings of the mixed methods design adopted in this dissertation will be described in detail later in Chapter 3. The aim of the current section is just to address the evaluative component of the larger (mixed methods) research inquiry and identify the intentional purposes of combining quantitative and qualitative methods. In the case of this research, *triangulation*, *complementary* and *expansion* purposes with the ultimate goal of producing a comprehensive evaluation of its intervention regarding the *process* and (learning) *outcomes*. In other words, the evaluative component of this research inquiry sought to understand the *process* of implementing the intervention and assessing its outcomes, *i.e.*, enhanced ICCs of participants. For this purpose, data strands were combined to yield cross-checking (*triangulation*) and overlapping (*complementary*) assessments of the perceptions of the evaluands regarding the intervention. Finally, it was necessary to extend (*expansion*) the breath of the inquiry with stakeholder perceptions, as will be described in Chapter 3.

Figure 14 illustrates the mixed-methods nature of the evaluative inquiry underpinning this research across the three aforementioned purposes.

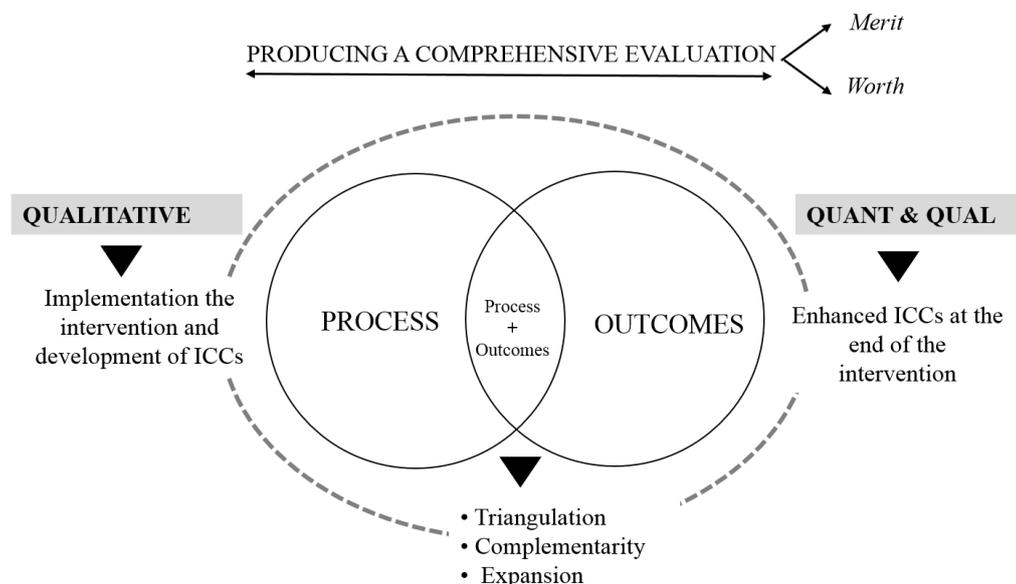


Figure 14 - Mixed-methods nature of the evaluative inquiry in this dissertation.

As Figure 14 illustrates, the purposes of *triangulation*, *complementary* and *expansion* are employed to produce a sound evaluation regarding the *merit* and *worth* of this study's

intervention. It is here where both research and evaluation intersect. Whereas evaluation allows one to examine valuing as a component of systematic inquiry, research guides overall conceptual and methodological foundations. This justifies the plural conception of this study as *mixed methods study* with an *evaluative inquiry* wherein the intentional combination of quantitative and qualitative methods threads through the evaluation program component which is part of the larger mixed methods research design. This overlap will become evident in Chapter 3 which examines the selected mixed methods research design. For now, it is important to describe the program evaluation component of this research inquiry in relation to its curricular design process. This is the topic of the next section, viewed against a background of assessing intercultural competencies within study abroad contexts.

2.4.4.2 Assessment of intercultural competence in study abroad

The conceptual frameworks of IC depicted in section 2.4.3 showed that there is no lack of a variety of IC conceptualizations but rather the challenge is to make sense of it in choosing an appropriate assessment framework. In other words, bridging the gap between conceptualizing and assessing these type of competencies. *What then are the appropriate ways for assessing intercultural competencies?*

Several attempts have been made by scholars to answer the question raised above (Byram, 1997; Byram, Gribkova, & Starkey, 2002; Dervin, 2010; Fantini, 2006b, 2009, 2012b; Lazár, Huber-Kriegler, Lussier, Matei, & Peck, 2007; Moloney & Harbon, 2010; Sercu, 2010) in view of the array of conceptual impulses IC has received since the 1990s. Of special importance is to situate these assessment efforts in context. In this regard, the cited examples can be situated within language education.

Another strand of research which aims to find appropriate and/or effective ways to assess intercultural competencies, are those studies situated at the intersection of *intercultural development* and *international education efforts* which include forms of cross-border education like study abroad (Deardorff, 2004, 2006a, 2006b, 2009a, 2009b; Engle, 2013; Engle & Engle, 2003, 2004; Fantini, 2004; Gillespie, Braskamp, & Braskamp, 1999; Médina-Lopez-Portillo, 2004; Paige, Cohen, & Shively, 2004; Pedersen, 2010; Vande Berg, Connor-Linton, & Paige, 2009; among others). Many of these studies pertain to intervening in student learning abroad and embody the assessment efforts of some of the US interventionist approaches described in section 2.4.1, in addition to others. Other studies are about program design and outcomes assessment (either individually or combined).

Additionally, there are also generalist studies and/or textbooks on outcomes assessment and standards of good practice in study abroad, viz.: The Forum in Education Abroad's (FEA) *Guide to Outcomes Assessment in Study Abroad* (see Bolen, 2007) and its *Standards of Good Practice* (see FEA, 2011), NAFSA's *Guide for Education Abroad* (see Wiedenhoeft, Hernandez, & Wicke, 2014) or *The Guide to Successful Short-term Programs Abroad* (see Spencer & Tuma, 2007) and individual studies like Rodman and Merrill's (2010).

The two strands of research described above mirror the assessment intentions of this study which can be located at the crossroads of ICC assessment in a language classroom (where the intervention took place) and international education assessment in study abroad. The question raised at the outset of this section should then be reformulated as follows: *What are the most appropriate ways to assess intercultural competencies in study abroad?*

To provide sustained responses to the reformulated question, it is necessary to build upon the lessons learned from the two aforementioned strands of studies. On that account, lessons from intercultural studies in language education were incorporated regarding a type of assessment that needs to be *ongoing, multidimensional, multipurpose* and *multimethod, prioritized* and *tailored* to student needs and the instructional context at hand. It should be noted that multimethod assessment implies not just the simultaneous employment of quantitative and qualitative data, but its actual integration. In this aspect, literature review efforts suggest that the international and intercultural fields have not yet have grown to a point where there is a continuous and explicit integration of quantitative and qualitative data. This issue will be explored in detail in Chapter 3.

On the study abroad front, lessons were learned on how to incorporate intercultural learning as part of the design and delivery of exchange programs throughout pre-departure, in-country and reentry phases. In this regard, European study abroad literature reveals clear gaps in knowledge, with assessment emerging mostly as a matter of metrics or, at best, of student satisfaction (Byram, 2008b). In effect, lessons on the specifics of education abroad programmatic assessment and standards of practice in field were exclusively drawn from North American literature. By contrast, similar resources were not found in European study abroad literature, when program assessment in European education abroad should be also a concern. Only then can exchange programs be assessed according to educational standards. Whether through a tool like the Model Assessment Practice developed for the US Institute for the International Education of Students (IES MAP; see Gillespie et al., 1999), through

standards of practice like the ones provided by the US FEA (see FEA 2011) or by reflecting upon the quality of study abroad program design (see Engle & Engle, 2003, 2004), it is paramount to define criteria for assessing exchange programs. The IES MAP, for example, defines *Student learning: Assessment and intercultural development* as an area of program assessment. Similarly, Engle and Engle (2003, 2004) argue that study abroad programs should be compared against design features, one of which is *Mentoring or guided cultural reflection*. Finally, the FEA considers *Student learning and development* as a key standard on which to assess the educational quality of study abroad programs.

The assessment criterion and standard of good practice (the two should blend together) advocated by this research is purposeful and effective intercultural learning and development. On that account, the intervention was designed and implemented intentionally in the language classroom as a way to incorporate intercultural learning in the design and delivery of credit-bearing exchange programs like *Campus Europae* and *Erasmus*. For these purposes, Figure 15 offers an evaluation framework which shows how to structure interventions that support intercultural learning during the stay abroad.

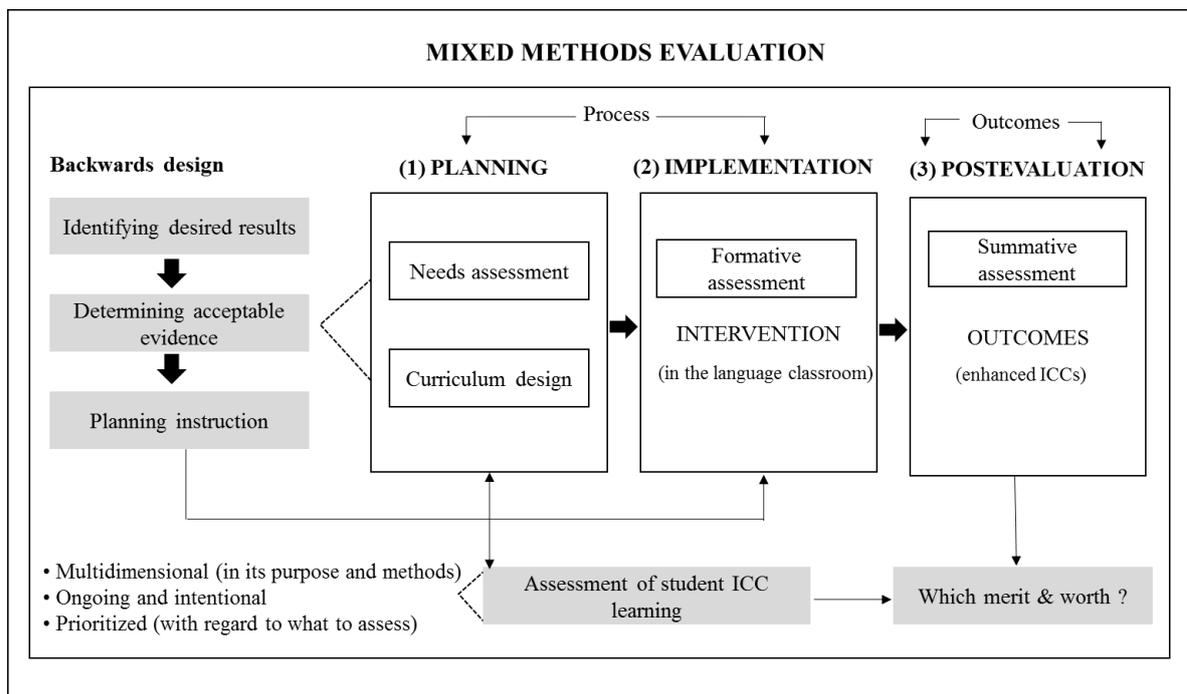


Figure 15 - Evaluation and assessment frameworks of the intervention.

As Figure 15 illustrates, the *planning* and *implementation* stages (1 and 2) refer to the process of articulating and setting up the instructional design and assessment of the intervention and its intercultural intentions. For these purposes, the intervention was planned

in reverse according to a type of approach to curriculum design called *backwards design*. This approach consists of three steps: (1) identifying desired results, (2) determining acceptable evidence, and (3) planning learning experiences and instruction (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Step 1 consisted of ‘diagnosing’ participants’ intercultural needs (*needs assessment*) to determine their stages of ICC development, as well as the teaching contents and learning goals of the intervention. After determining where the “intervention was headed”, it was necessary to define which evidence was acceptable for assessing the desired learning - Step 2. At this stage, it was decided to prioritize the ICC aspects to be assessed after Deardorff’s (2009a) advice. The desired learnings would then be assessed as congruence between *teaching objectives* and *learning outcomes* (i.e., performance indicators) around the fourfold modelization of *cultural awareness, attitudes, skills* and *knowledge*, i.e., the core of ICC, as discussed in section 2.4.3.2. Finally, it was possible to define the specifics of instructional planning - appropriate instructional activities, resources, teaching methods and the sequencing of lessons, as will be described in Chapter 3.

In summary, both the *instructional* and *assessment* frameworks were thought of as collaborative and integrated learning experiences, following current thinking about *curriculum design* and *assessment approaches*. The assessment of student ICC learning therefore informs Stage 3 of evaluating the *merit* and *worth* of the intervention. Stated another way, the ongoing and intentional *formative assessment*, occurring in *implementation* stages (Stage 2, Figure 15) seeks to determine whether student learning matches intended learning objectives and to adjust learning activities as necessary. *Summative assessment*, in turn, provides the basis for evaluating the value of the intervention (Stage 3, Figure 15). This value will be determined by attending both to student learning and to the views of stakeholders, as will be explained in Chapter 3.

Finally, whatever *curriculum design* and *assessment* approaches to IC in study abroad, international education professionals should have the knowledge and skills to develop, assess and facilitate an intercultural curriculum. This is already a concern of the US interventionist approaches in section 2.4.1. Moreover, there is a growing body of scholars stressing the professional preparation required from international educators to support the intercultural development of exchange students (e.g., Bennett 2008; Deardorf, 2008; Goode, 2008; Paige, 1993; Paige & Goode, 2009; Sunnygard, 2007; Ziegler, 2006). This professional development extends to the teaching profession (e.g., Kissock & Richardson,

2010; Koziol, Greenberg, Williams, Niehaus, & Jacobson, 2011; Moss, Manise, & Soppelsa, 2012) and to language instructors (e.g., Bastos, 2015; J. M. Bennett, Bennett, & Allen, 2003; Byram, 2009; Damen, 2003). In essence, this professional development extends to all those who work closely with exchange programs.

2.5 Summary

This chapter reviewed theoretical foundations for the empirical implementation of this study offered in the following chapters. These foundations are grounded in the cross-disciplinary field of international education as a gateway to integrate the international and intercultural dimensions of study abroad.

On the international front, literature was reviewed, synthesized and critiqued on the subject of student mobility and European credit student mobility in particular. This phenomenon was discussed against the macro and micro scenarios of higher education internationalization in Europe and Portugal, including the terminological disambiguation of credit, temporary or horizontally organized student mobility. This discussion was preceded by a review on the state of the art of international education research in Europe and in Portugal.

On the intercultural front, a discussion about the role of purposeful intercultural pedagogy in student exchange allowed situating past and current intercultural interventionist and/or intentional approaches in US study abroad and European student mobility. As these perspectives build upon intercultural education and IC studies, a chronological and typological overview of IC, in general, and ICC, in particular, was offered. This overview encompassed a discussion of the four models guiding this research along with the terminology used, viz.: *intercultural communicative competence*, *culture* and *competence*. Finally, a review was offered on evaluation theories, in general, and IC assessment, in particular. Evaluation theories were used to situate the mixed methods evaluative inquiry of this research. Intercultural assessment efforts in language education and study abroad, on the other hand, allowed placing the adopted curriculum and assessment approaches in context.

2.6 Limitations

Literature review efforts are usually geared toward their extensiveness regarding the thematic area under examination. The literature review offered in this chapter is no different,

even if a review is never extensive enough. This potential limitation is acknowledged simply because another researcher would likely add other studies to the ones reviewed here; nonetheless, the review process was carried out in a systematic manner. In addition, the focus of the search process was also twofold in its efforts so as to identify relevant national and international literature regarding the *international* and *intercultural* dimension of student exchange. It is, however, at the intersection of the two that gaps in knowledge were found, especially concerning European systematic initiatives that supported intercultural competencies in student learning abroad.

According to the literature review, interventionist approaches in Europe seem to be only taking the first steps. Despite the efforts of several interculturalists in Europe and the intercultural pedagogical tools and teaching materials offered by the CoE, there are few systematic initiatives which complete what is here defined as the entire cycle for supporting and enhancing the development of intercultural competencies among exchange students. That is: (1) mapping appropriate intercultural learning theories, (2) developing appropriate intercultural curricula and assessment approaches, (3) implementing/testing these same curricula and assessment approaches, and finally, (4) sharing the results.

It is in steps (3) and (4) where European literature is strikingly scarce. Not only are the few systematic initiatives found quite recent (see Table 5), but the primary focus seems to lie on the elaboration of pedagogical materials and/or learning paths. Not wanting to minimize this valid goal, an important part is forgotten - the empirical assessment of these materials and their impact on exchange students' intercultural learning and development. Hence the use in this dissertation of North American authors when dealing with the assessment of IC in study abroad contexts. As mentioned earlier, the design of intercultural learning as part of the design and delivery of exchange programs is largely unexplored in European literature on student exchange. Only when this concern is addressed can credit-bearing exchange programs, like CE and *Erasmus*, support the effective intercultural learning and development of exchange students. It is hoped, therefore, that this study will not only provide relevant information on the intersection of international and intercultural education, but it will be also a call for deliberate intercultural support for credit-seeking exchange students, and other sojourner populations who may also benefit from it.

Chapter 3 Methodology

«A three-paradigm method-ological world might be healthy because each approach has its strengths and weaknesses and times and places of need»

(Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007, p. 117).

This chapter presents the methodological outline of the research in its conceptual and operational realms. The chapter begins with a synopsis of mixed methods research, elaborating upon the rationale for mixing data according to the study's research problem, goal and objectives. The chapter then provides an overview of the type of mixed methods research design adopted and the underlying research paradigm. This overview is followed by a specification of the case study component the research design encompasses and a description of the intervention employed in the two case studies. Information on quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis procedures is also provided. The chapter concludes with a summary and a discussion of the methodological limitations of the study.

3.1 About Mixed Methods

Mixed methods (also called *mixed research* in this dissertation) is a relatively new methodology, dating back to the late 1980s and early 1990s, although its antecedents go back to the 1950s. As Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) explain, at that time scholars from various fields and countries highlighted ways to combine and integrate qualitative and quantitative methods. Voices from sociology in the US (Brewer & Hunter, 1989) and in the UK (Fielding & Fielding, 1986), from evaluation in the US (Greene et al., 1989), from nursing in Canada (Morse, 1991) and from education in the US (Creswell, 1994), contributed to what is now considered a distinct methodological orientation or even a “third methodological movement” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) or “paradigm” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

As a methodological approach to research inquiry, mixed research has been defined over the past 20 years according to different foci and standpoints. This study adopts the initial definition provided by Creswell and Plano Clark in 2007:

Mixed methods research is a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology, it involves

philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases of the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 5).

The reason for adopting this definition is that it addresses methods, research design and philosophical orientations. In other words, mixed research is envisaged both as a method and as an approach addressing methodological and epistemological realms.

Later, in 2011, Creswell and Plano Clark furthered their definition according to key characteristics or components of mixed research while putting an emphasis on what is required from the researcher to conduct this type of research. Table 8 summarizes these characteristics after Creswell and Plano Clark (2011, p. 5).

Table 8 - Characteristics of mixed methods research after Creswell and Plano Clark (2011).

Characteristics	Definition
Form of data collection	Collecting and analyzing qualitative and quantitative data in response to the research questions
Methods	Using rigorous quantitative and qualitative methods and procedures
Priority	Giving priority to one or both forms of data (in terms of what the research emphasizes)
Integration	Combining the two forms of data (either concurrently or sequentially) and integrating data strands as part of specific research designs
Philosophy & Worldviews	Framing mixed methods within broader philosophical assumptions (e.g., Constructivism) and theoretical lenses (e.g., Feminism)

Given these core characteristics of mixed research, the next section explains why this type of research emerges as a powerful methodology in international and intercultural studies, and why it is the most appropriate one for this study.

3.2 Mixed Methods in International and Intercultural Studies

Growing interest in the development of intercultural competencies in past decades has led to an array of theoretical frameworks (see section 2.4.3), but not necessarily to

adequate empirical testing. Scholars like Van de Vijver and Leung (2009) argue that this wide interest “has not led to a much better understanding of intercultural competency or to an adequate handling of methodological issues in such studies” (p. 405). The question of what research methodologies and methods are most effective in measuring this complex construct is seldom discussed. When this question is addressed it is mostly from a theoretical stance. For instance, Deardorff’s (2004) Delphi study showed that intercultural experts concurred that the best ways to measure intercultural competencies are mixed. Similarly, Byram (2014), in a 25-year retrospective review of the intercultural field, espouses that the picture with respect to assessment methods for teaching intercultural competencies is mixed. Yet, in both cases scholarly assertions are not grounded in empirical evidence of quantitative and qualitative methods integration, even if the two scholars contend that methodological and assessment matters in intercultural studies remain insufficiently developed.

As a result, there is a degree of methodological fuzziness in the intercultural field and a tendency to either focus on quantitative or qualitative approaches alone, or when employing both approaches very rarely are they integrated.

In international studies on European student mobility, the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches is also scarce. Existing studies tend to fall either on the quantitative or qualitative end of the methodological continuum, but seldom in the middle.

Examples of quantitative studies are numerous but hardly ever address intercultural competencies directly. These studies are mostly surveys, reports or evaluations related to *Erasmus* exchanges conducted either by the European Commission (EC) or by third parties. Take, for instance, the major evaluation studies commissioned by the EC and surveyed regularly since 1988 (Maiworm, Steube, & Teichler, 1991). Other studies supported by the EC include the Academic Association Cooperation (ACA, www.aca-secretariat.be) studies’ Eurodata I and II (Kelo et al., 2006; Teichler, Ferencz, & Wächter, 2011; Teichler, Ferencz, & Wächter, 2011) which offer comprehensive statistical analyses on inbound and outbound student (and staff) mobility. Many studies conducted by the *Erasmus Student Network* (ESN, www.esn.org) on student mobility-related issues are also commissioned by the EC. Well-known examples of ESN studies are: “E-Value-ate Your Exchange”, “Problems of Recognition in Making Erasmus – PRIME,” among others.

On the other end of the continuum, one can find qualitative studies that address either the human experience of European student mobility or the development of intercultural competencies. Studies about the human experience of student exchange include: Murphy- Lejeune's (2002) qualitative multiple-case study of 50 students in the theoretical light of the sociology of the stranger, Papatsiba's (2003) content analysis of 80 texts of *Erasmus* students from the Rhône-Alpes region (France) regarding their representations of Otherness; and Montgomery's (2010) ethnographic work on the human and learning experience of seven exchange students in a UK university.

With regard to intercultural development, Anquetil's (2006) action research stresses the adoption of pedagogical approaches to address exchange students' intercultural needs.

Overall, all qualitative studies listed above are concerned with providing a contextualized understanding of European student mobility against the preponderance of quantitative studies. In addition to these four studies, it is important to recall the five systematic intercultural initiatives in Table 5. Given the pragmatic focus on elaborating pedagogical tools, it is not adequate to frame these initiatives according to methodological frameworks. Nonetheless, all five initiatives make use of monitoring and evaluation systems.

In summary, the review offered here refers to systematic empirically-driven research efforts which are related to the content area of this study. Methodologically, these studies distance themselves from this research, by either using quantitative or qualitative approaches alone or, when using both approaches, there is no explicit integration of data strands. In effect, few are the international and intercultural studies that make overt use of mixed methodologies; those found by this researcher were essentially isolated initiatives, notably unpublished doctoral researches.³⁰ As such, the adoption of mixed research in this study can be considered innovative. Not only does this study apply mixed methods in the international and intercultural fields, but it does so by combining mixed methods with case study research.

The following sections describe how mixed research fits the goals and objectives of this research, and present the rationale for mixing quantitative and qualitative data.

³⁰ For intercultural studies see, for example, Brown (2008), Dombi (2013) and Lourenço (2013). For international education studies see, for instance, Salisbury (2011) and Harvey (2013).

3.3 Goal, Objectives and Mixing Rationale

The research problem and overarching goal of this study warranted a methodological approach that simultaneously provided a broad and contextualized examination of the intercultural communicative competence (ICC) development of the 31 participants involved in the two case studies. The overarching research goal is formulated as follows:

To understand, impact and evaluate the development of ICCs among European credit-seeking exchange students and other sojourner populations while in-country through purposeful intercultural pedagogy.

Given the threefold intentions inherent in this goal, one data source would be insufficient to address the nuances of ICC development along the three phases of the intervention. These intentions led to the formulation of various research objectives which correspond to the subquestions posed in Chapter 1, to wit:

- 1.1 To explore how credit-seeking exchange students, CE in particular, and other sojourners, can be taught or mentored regarding the development of ICCs;
- 1.2 To describe and understand how ICC development unfolds for case study 1 participants;
- 1.3 To determine which variables influence the ICC development of case 1 and 2 participants;
- 1.4 To describe and understand the impact of the intervention upon the ICC development of case 1 participants and compare to case 2 participants;
- 1.5 To advance knowledge on purposeful intercultural pedagogy in European credit student exchange and other sojourner populations, drawing on quantitative and qualitative results from the two case studies;
- 1.6 To identify intercultural constraints and benchmarks of the CE program (facing also wider European credit schemes);
- 1.7 To explore and evaluate ways to incorporate purposeful intercultural pedagogies in program design and delivery of European credit-bearing exchange programs and CE in particular.

In determining the research objectives, the qualitative and mixed components of the study were allocated to each of its phases. Figure 16 illustrates how these components inform the seven research objectives formulated above.

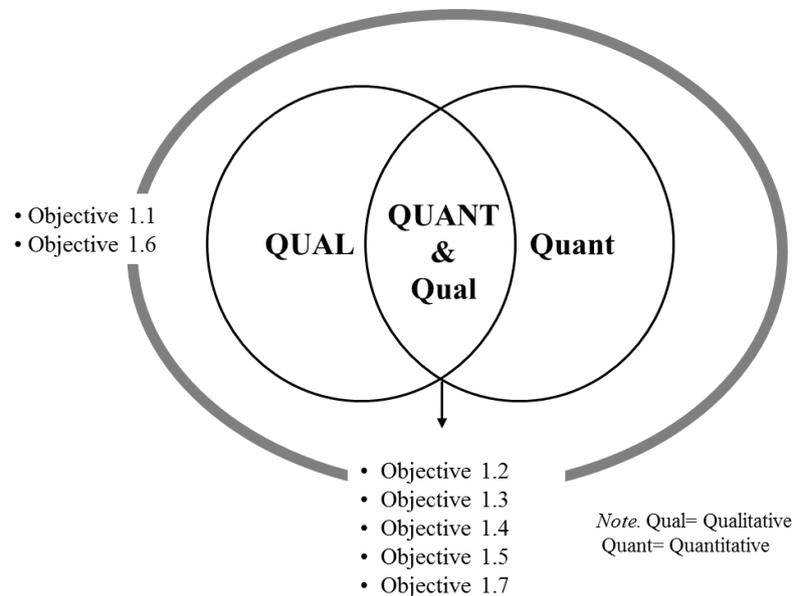


Figure 16 - Qualitative, quantitative and mixed components of research objectives.

As the Venn diagram illustrates, qualitative and quantitative components overlap in a mixed area at the center, encompassing the mixed research objectives 1.2 - 1.5 and 1.7. To elaborate further, objective 1.2, for instance, shows how quantitative and qualitative components inform one another. In this case, the quantitative piece (“To describe ICC development”) informs the qualitative piece (“To understand ICC development). In other words, the description of participants’ degrees of ICC attainment is gleaned from the quantitative component of the research objective, whereas the understanding of how this development unfolds derives from its qualitative part.

Additionally, the multi-perspective of mixed methods is inherent in the use of action verbs (either single or double-barreled) which derive from the exploratory, descriptive and explanatory purposes that cut across the seven research objectives. *Exploration*, foreshadows the qualitative component of this study and the use of inductive methods to discover ways to teach or mentor sojourner ICC development, to explore the process of incorporating ICC development into the design and delivery of exchange programs and to understand the multidimensionality of the ICC construct among case study participants. *Description*, in turn, foreshadows the quantitative component and use of deductive methods to delimit ICC development, to determine ICC-related variables - antecedent and extraneous variables - as

well as the intercultural impact of the intervention. *Explanation*, foreshadows both quantitative and qualitative components and refers essentially to theory development purposes (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). Theory development subsumes not only deduction and induction, but also abduction, i.e., “uncovering and relying on the best of a set of explanations for understanding one’s results” (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006, p. 174). In the case of this research, developing the most suitable theory that addresses the intercultural needs of European credit-seeking exchange students, CE in particular, and to some extent other sojourner populations.

To summarize, the rationale for mixing methods stems directly from the research problem, goal and underlying research objectives. Together, they inform the need to combine the strengths of quantitative and qualitative methods and to address the multiphase and multi- case components of the study in a larger mixed methods design. The type of mixed research design used and its characteristics are examined next.

3.4 Research Design

Research designs are “procedures for collecting, analyzing, interpreting, and reporting data in research studies” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 53). Research designs set the research logic and are, therefore, associated with specific research purposes, questions (and/or objectives), challenges and strengths, design variants, as well as philosophical assumptions (ibid.). This section elaborates on these characteristics, positing philosophical assumptions at a broader level by considering that these assumptions inform theoretical lenses used, as well as methodologies and methods employed (Crotty, 1998).

3.4.1 Research Paradigm

To understand the philosophy of inquiry behind this study, assumptions about the research paradigm need to be made explicit. The particular understanding of research paradigm in this study follows the definition posited by Guba (1990); Guba and Lincoln (2005). Accordingly, paradigms are envisaged as interpretative frameworks based on basic belief systems that guide action according to ontological, epistemological, methodological, axiological and rhetorical logics.

Five elements characterize research paradigms: *ontology* (i.e., nature of reality), *epistemology* (i.e., theory of knowledge), *methodology* (i.e., process of research), *axiology*

(i.e., the role of values) and *rhetoric* (i.e., type of language used). This study takes into account these five elements and adopts an eclectic or dialectical stance whereby paradigms can be combined (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This stance recognizes the mixing of philosophical assumptions and methods (quantitative and qualitative) to serve what best works in practice and best answers research questions (ibid.).

The umbrella paradigm of this study reflects these eclectic and dialectical perspectives. This paradigm is pragmatism, a paradigm which is considered by many as the philosophical umbrella of mixed methods (e.g., Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Pragmatism is a philosophical orientation that borrows the ideas of classical philosophers like John Dewey, William James, Charles Sanders Pierce and other contemporary theorists. Its fundamental principle is *paradigm integration*, i.e., the synthesis of quantitative and qualitative standpoints. Thus, pragmatism views the reality as both singular and multiple along a bottom-up/top-down research continuum wherein the dichotomy between quantitative and qualitative approaches is relativized (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Johnson et al., 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

Table 9 summarizes the main characteristics of pragmatism and how they relate to this study, based on the proposal of Creswell and Plano Clark (2011).

Table 9 - Pragmatism applied to the doctoral research after Creswell and Plano Clark (2011).

Characteristics	Pragmatism	Doctoral research
Ontology	Singular and multiple realities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Singular= hypothesis advanced by scientific literature on ICC development • Multiple= subjectivity of ICC development
Epistemology	Practicality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Objective knowledge= quantitative-oriented • Subjective knowledge= qualitative-oriented
Axiology	Multiple stances	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proximity= role and values of the researcher as a former exchange student • Distance= rigorous and valid research procedures
Methodology	Combining and mixing data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collection and integration of quantitative and qualitative data to address the overarching research question
Rhetoric	Formal and informal writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal writing in quantitative-driven research phases • Informal writing in qualitative-driven phases

In the end, pragmatism provides the overarching paradigm for moving across quantitative, qualitative and mixed phases of this doctoral research, and addressing the objective and subjective features of ICC development. Hence the simultaneous use of a

‘wide’ and ‘deep-angle lens’ (Johnson & Christensen, 2008) in a to-and-fro movement between causal attribution and natural fluidity of ICC development.

Finally, the eclecticism of pragmatism partners well with the multidimensionality of mixed methods multiphase designs, by allowing the allocation of different paradigms along this study’s research phases. This issue is discussed next.

3.4.2 Type of Design

As previously discussed, this study’s multiple purposes and philosophical standpoints called for a mixed research design which embraced its multiphase and multi- case components. To address these components, a multiphase mixed methods design was adopted from a typology of six major designs proposed by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011). Accordingly, a multiphase design is one which “combines both sequential and concurrent strands over a period of time that the researcher implements within a program of study addressing an overall program objective” (p. 172).

The multidimensional nature of multiphase designs provided a perfect fit for the longitudinal goal of this study and its evaluation background. In addition, its composite nature allowed to bring different design elements together, mixed methods and case study, and to integrate the quantitative and qualitative strands into a coherent whole (Figure 17).

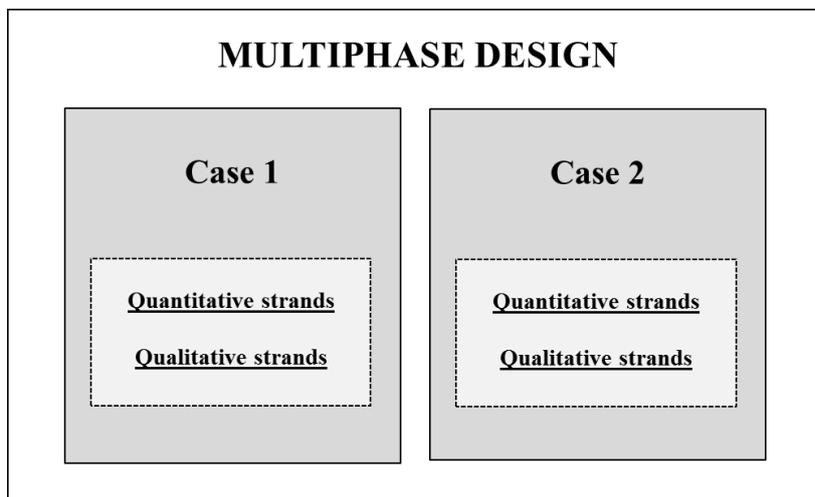


Figure 17 - Multiphase research design.

The general purpose of this study’s multiphase design is similar to the overall purpose defined by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) for this type of design: “to address a set of incremental research questions that all advance one programmatic research objective” (p. 100). In this study, the seven research questions and/or objectives that advance the

programmatic research goal of understanding, impacting and evaluating the development of ICCs of case study participants across one academic year. The longitudinal nature inherent to this goal called for three phases tied to the program evaluation background embodied by the intervention, to wit:

1. Needs assessment and intervention development (before);
2. Intervention implementation (during);
3. Intervention evaluation testing (after the intervention).

Implementation of the three research phases occurred during the 2011-2012 academic year. To these three main phases, a fourth was added in 2013: (4) a stakeholder analysis which characterizes institutional and programmatic contexts. All four phases required making five decisions regarding how the quantitative and qualitative strands relate. These decisions are defined in Table 10 according to Creswell and Plano Clark's (2011).

Table 10 - Multiphase design applied to the doctoral research after Creswell and Plano Clark (20011).

Key decisions	Definition	Doctoral research
Level of interaction	Independence or interaction between data strands	Interactive
Priority	Relative importance of quantitative and qualitative methods	Qualitative emphasis
Timing	Temporal relationship between quantitative and qualitative strands	Multiphase combination ^b
Mixing	Explicit combination of quantitative and qualitative strands	Combination of strands to address the research goal
Point of interface	Point at which quantitative and qualitative strands are mixed	At: (a) the level of design, (b) data collection, (c) interpretation

^bThis classification concerns the overall research design

As Table 10 shows, there is a *direct interaction* between quantitative and qualitative strands because the design and conduct of qualitative strands (in Phases 1 and 3) depend on results of the quantitative strands. The *priority* of each strand varies according to a *multiphase combination of timing* (i.e., combination of sequential and concurrent phases). Whereas Phase 1 has a quantitative priority, Phase 2 has a qualitative one. Phase 3 again places emphasis on quantitative methods and Phase 4 has a qualitative priority. Despite this

sequence, the overall design has a qualitative priority given the overarching research goal and scope of the research inquiry.

The *mixing* or *integration* of strands is interactive, with each phase building upon the previous one to address the overarching research goal. The *point of interface* occurs at the level of design, data collection and in the interpretation of quantitative and qualitative results.

The reason for using a multiphase design is fourfold: (a) to combine mixed methods and case study design, (b) to triangulate and (c) complement the quantitative with qualitative results and, finally, (d) to expand the breath of the inquiry.

Figure 18 illustrates the study’s multiphase design through a procedural diagram.³¹

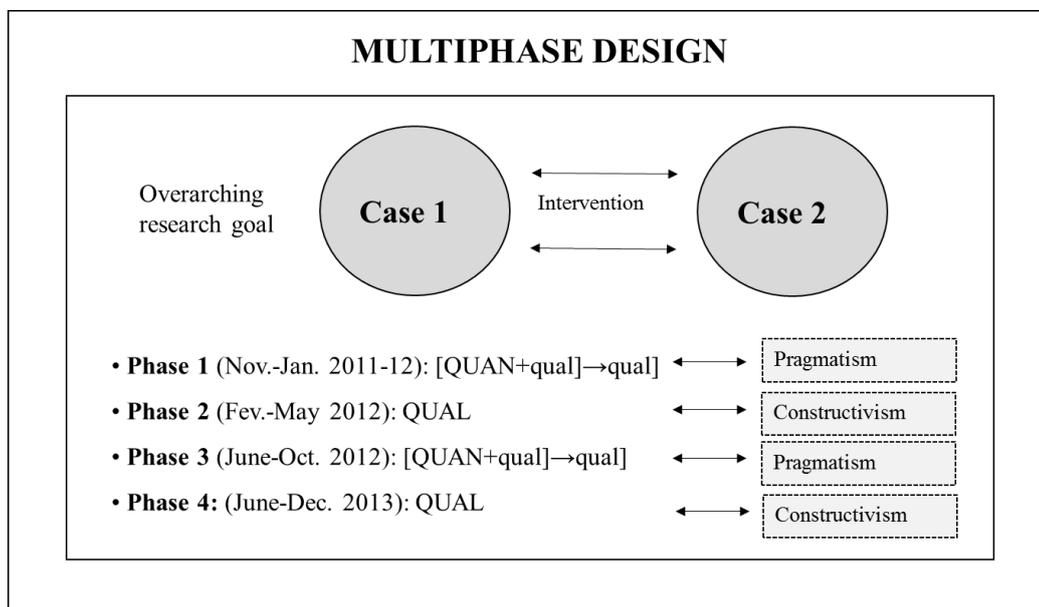


Figure 18 - Procedural diagram.

Finally, description of the design would not be complete without recalling the study’s philosophical orientations across research phases. As Figure 18 illustrates, paradigms can be tied to the different phases of the study even if the overarching paradigm is pragmatism (see section 3.4.1). Whereas in Phases 1 and 3 pragmatism is the all-encompassing paradigm as the qualitative strands are embedded in the quantitative source - [QUAN+qual]; in Phases 2 and 4, a constructivist paradigm prevails. Drawing from this constructivist stance, Phase 2 aims at building a deeper understanding of participant ICC development during the

³¹ Procedural diagrams are used in mixed research and follow specific guidelines and notation systems. The notation system in Figure 18 is adopted from Morse (1991); Morse and Niehaus (2009) whereby: Uppercase letters (e.g., QUAN) designate the priority of strands; Arrows (→).sequential timing; Plus sign (+) concurrent timing; and finally, Brackets ([]) when a method is embedded in another method - e.g., [QUAN+qual].

intervention implementation. Phase 4 provides a contextualized understanding of participant ICC development in regard to its macro and mezzo contexts.

The variation of research paradigms reflects the concurrent (Phases 1 and 3) and sequential combination of quantitative and qualitative strands (Phases 2 and 4). This variation is typical in multiphase designs wherein different phases can be researched from different philosophical assumptions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). It is this flexibility that allows combining the multiple research phases and design components of this study. The multi-case component is discussed next.

3.5 Case Study Component

Concurrent with the multiphase nature of the intervention, this study incorporates a multi-case component embedded in the larger multiphase design. Although this combination is not usual, the various ways of inferring meaning (Stake, 1995), the multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2009), and forms of cross-level inferences (Gerring, 2007) of case study research are compatible with the dialectical nature of mixed research. Yin (2009), for instance, not only considers that case studies can be part of larger mixed methods designs but also discusses how embedded case studies “already represent a form of mixed methods research” (p. 63).

Yin’s embedded case studies (2009) reflect the situation represented by this study. Whereas simultaneous analysis of both case studies called for survey techniques, the complexity of the embedded unit of analysis (ICC development) required a strong array of evidence that could not be accomplished by quantitative techniques alone.

To comprehend how mixed and case study research are harmonized in this study, it is necessary to explain the underlying understanding of case study research:

A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. The case study inquiry copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points (Yin, 2009, p. 18).

With this definition in mind, the following sections examine key features of case study research in relation to this study, viz.: case study selection (section 3.5.1), the two case

studies under examination (sections 3.5.1.1 - 3.5.1.2), the context they are part of (section 3.5.2), and finally, the unit of analysis (section 3.5.3).

3.5.1 Case Study Selection

Selection of the two cases under scrutiny follow purposive selection procedures, a type of qualitative sampling which reproduces (some) variation along the dimensions of theoretical interest according to prescribed criteria and/ or characteristics (Ritchie, Lewis, & Elam, 2003). The criterion for selecting the two case studies was their *typicality* or *theoretical representativeness* (Gerring, 2007; Ritchie et al., 2003; Yin, 2009) regarding the need for purposeful intercultural pedagogy in credit student mobility. To clarify further, two credit-bearing programs were targeted by this study:

1. The *Campus Europae* (CE) program;
2. The *Erasmus* program.

The first program is represented by case study 1, and was chosen for three reasons:

1. Lack of research about this exchange program, and the tendency of European research to focus on the *Erasmus* case;
2. Linguistic and intercultural features of the program (lacking, however, purposeful intercultural pedagogy);
3. Membership of the University of Aveiro (UA) in the EUF-CE network as the only Portuguese partner university.

Case 2, in turn, was chosen to add diversity and robustness to this research, through comparison of CE with another credit mobility program - *Erasmus*. Both programs represented a programmatic form of student mobility and both lacked purposeful intercultural pedagogy. As such, the researcher sought to find natural groups representing the two exchange programs under scrutiny. In addition, both groups had to be equivalent in terms of language learning since this study assumes that ICC development depends on an interplay between language and culture. Hence the intervention took place in two intermediate (B1) level Portuguese as a Foreign Language (PFL) classrooms, one including CE students and the other *Erasmus* students.

Accessibility to the PFL classrooms influenced selection procedures as the classroom attended by *Erasmus* students included highly skilled immigrants as well. Case study 2 was

composed of 10 *Erasmus* students, one *Erasmus Mundus* student and 13 highly skilled immigrants. The 23 CE students that formed case 1 were part of another B1 PFL classroom, taught by the same PFL teacher. Thus, the specific makeup of the two PFL classrooms determined the composition of two case studies, as illustrated by Figure 19.

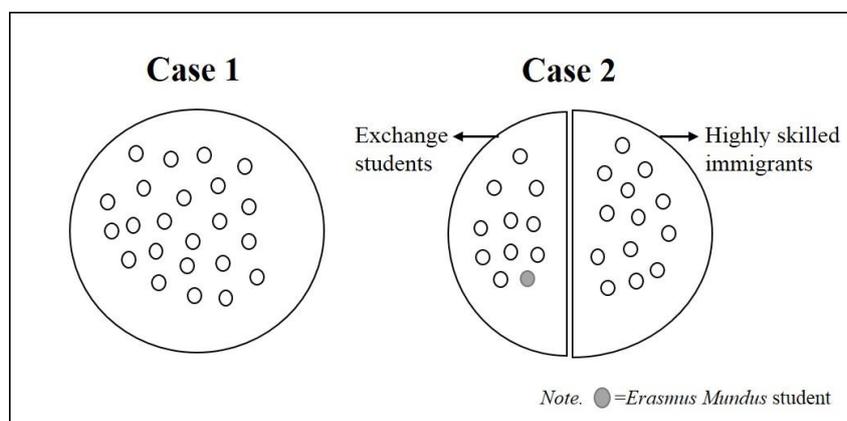


Figure 19 - Composition of case studies.

In summary, this study started with a total of 47 participants: 23 in case study 1, and 24 in case study 2. The unusual makeup of case study 2 provided additional leverage for exploration of the role of intercultural pedagogy in another sojourner population - highly skilled immigrants. This challenge was embraced by the researcher since credit student mobility and highly skilled immigration are two facets of the same phenomenon; i.e., migration. As suggested by Murphy-Lejeune (2002), immigration and mobility arise from “the movements which drive individuals or communities outside their national borders” (p. 2), even if exchange students and highly skilled immigrants move for different reasons and time periods.

The reasons for variation in the total number of participants are explored followingly.

3.5.1.1 Case 1 demographics

Upon administration of the pretest questionnaire in November 2012, case 1 comprised 23 CE students. At this stage, all 23 students attended the A2 (see Footnote 25) PFL course. However, not all 23 students proceeded to the B1 course where the intervention took place in the second semester. This involved four students for the following reasons: one student left the exchange program, two did not proceed to level B1, and one proceeded but later dropped the course.

As a result, only 19 students were enrolled in the B1 PFL course when the intervention started. Twelve of the participants were females (63.2%) and seven males (36.8%), ranging in age from 20 to 25; average age of 22.78 (SD=1.35). Participants came mostly from Eastern European countries and represented five different nationalities: Austrian (n=1; 5.3%); Finnish (n=3; 15.8%); Lithuanian (n=2; 10.5%); Latvian (n=2; 10.5%) and Polish (n=11; 57.9%). They spoke five mother tongues and no one was bilingual.

The majority of CE students pursued a Master's cycle (n=12; 63.2%) and a few were Bachelor's students (n=7; 36.8%) in six higher education institutions. The total number of study programs attended were eight (Figure 20).

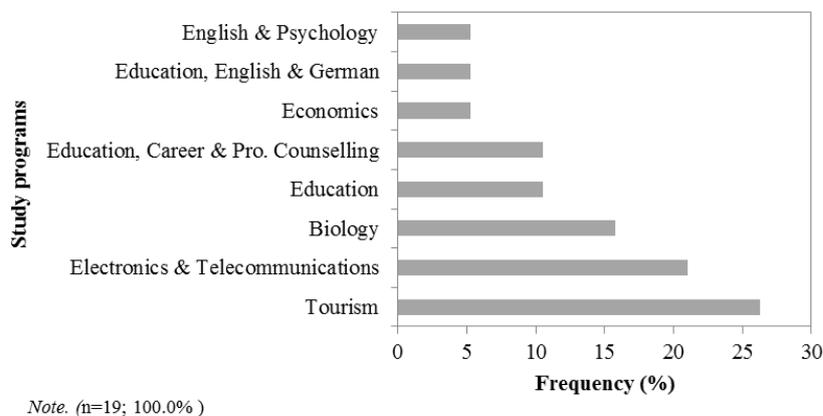


Figure 20 - Case 1: Study programs.

Finally, all 19 participants arrived in Portugal in August 2011 and all participated in the intensive PFL course (A1 level), offered by CE before the start of the academic year.

3.5.1.2 Case 2 demographics

The second case study comprised 24 students upon administration of the pretest questionnaire. This cohort, however, had a differential loss of 12 participants throughout the second semester while the intervention was already underway. The reasons varied, to wit:

- Four exchange students failed the PFL course due to excessive absences;
- One exchange student moved to the PFL classroom of case 1 due to schedule incompatibility, and another dropped the PFL course;
- One exchange student did not complete all the intervention modules, another student completed but never returned the posttest questionnaire;
- Four highly skilled immigrants did not complete the intervention for professional reasons.

Consequently, the cohort was reduced to 12 participants with a loss of eight exchange students and four highly skilled immigrants. As such, the numerical weight of highly skilled immigrants was reemphasized - nine immigrant participants, against three *Erasmus* students. Given that their profiles differ in many ways (though surprisingly similar in others), case 2 participant demographics are here analyzed according to the two subgroups.

Subgroup 1: *Erasmus*. The exchange subgroup was composed of three participants in the *Erasmus* program, although sojourns varied in length. Two participants were one-year students and the third was a semester student. Like the primary case study, this subgroup was young, between 19 and 25 years old (average age of 23.00; SD=1.73).

In terms of gender, two students were males and the other student female. Two students pursued the Master's cycle and one the Bachelor's in Chemical Engineering, Civil Engineering, and Electronics & Telecommunications. As for their countries of origin, two participants were from Spain and one from France and they spoke two different mother tongues: Spanish and French. Finally, two students arrived in Portugal in September 2011 and the other in February 2012.

Subgroup 2: Highly skilled immigrants. Nine skilled immigrants constitute this subgroup. Part of the global flows urging individuals to cross national borders, these nine individuals moved to Portugal for family reasons or to seek professional added-value. All held a higher education degree with educational qualifications ranging from Bachelor's, to Master's and PhD levels in the fields of Chemistry, Journalism, Physics, Psychology, Marketing, Management and Media studies. Together, these participants illustrate that contemporary international migration "is not just a reaction to difficult conditions at home: it is also motivated by the search for better opportunities and lifestyles elsewhere. It is not just the poor who move" (Castles & Miller, 2009, p. 5).

In age, participants ranged between 23 and 56 years, with an average age of 36 (M=35.78; SD=10.09). Eight participants were females (88.9%) and one male (11.1%). Participants represented three countries: Venezuela (n=3; 33.3%), Spain (n=3; 33.3%) and Russia (n=3; 33.3%). Accordingly, their mother tongues were: Castilian/Spanish, and Russian. Although one participant had dual nationalities (Portuguese and Venezuelan), this participant did not consider himself/herself to be bilingual.

Finally, participant dates of arrival in Portugal varied considerably: one participant arrived in 1999, another in 2009, two in 2010, and the remaining five in 2011.

3.5.2 The Context(s)

As posited by Yin's (2009) definition in section 3.5, any case study needs to be understood in its real-life context. This is exactly the purpose of this section - to offer a depiction of the settings that bind the cases under examination together, to wit: (a) the host institution, (b) the exchange programs/sojourn experience, and (c) the PFL classroom where the intervention took place. That is, (a) the University of Aveiro; (b) the *Campus Europae* program for case study1, the *Erasmus* program and the immigration experience for case study 2, and, finally, (c) the PFL classroom. The three contexts are interrelated (Figure 21).

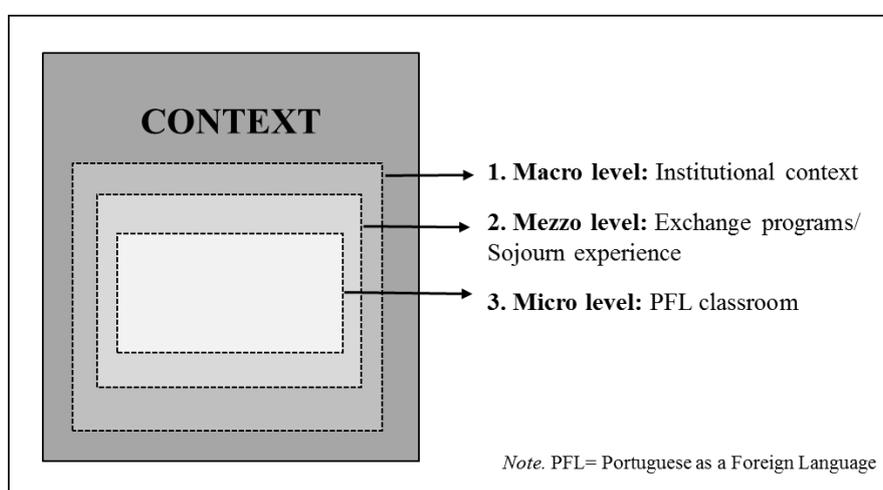


Figure 21 - Context(s) embedding the case studies.

Together, the three settings define the spatial boundaries of the two cases, the scope of the research inquiry and the type of population chosen. The *macro level* frames the target population (credit student mobility) within an institutional setting. The *mezzo level*, in turn, indicates the credit exchange programs targeted by the research inquiry (CE and *Erasmus*) and the type of sojourn (*student exchange* and *immigration*). Finally, the *micro level* identifies the social setting where the intervention took place - the PFL classroom. As with previous levels, the micro setting influences both case studies, particularly case 2, by determining the access to the subgroup of highly skilled immigrants.

Description of the three interrelated contexts is offered next.

3.5.2.1 Macro level

The macro level frames the two case studies as part of one higher education institution - the University of Aveiro (UA). The UA is a Portuguese public university located mainly in the city of Aveiro. Founded in 1973, the UA is one of the third generation Portuguese universities which emerged during the (re)establishment of Portuguese democracy. In 2010, the UA became a public foundation under private law.

The organization of the UA challenges the typical binary structure of Portuguese higher education described in Chapter 2, section 2.3.1.1. The UA is a university comprising 16 departments and 4 polytechnic schools, along with 18 research units and 4 associated research laboratories. This institution may be considered a medium-sized university enrolling approximately 12,500 students a year (UA, 2007).

Initial curricular offerings of the UA were undergraduate programs launched in the mid-1970s in innovative areas not yet explored by other Portuguese universities: Electronics, Ceramics and Teacher Education (UA, 2007). Today, these fields of study are still recognized as UA areas of excellence along with other pioneering areas.: “Electronics and Telecommunications, Materials & Nano-Sciences, Environment and Marine Studies and Teacher Education” (UA, 2007, p. 7). UA’s current curricular offerings integrate study programs in the first, second and third Bologna cycles with Bologna standards implemented for the majority of first and second cycle study programs in 2007-2008.

With regard to its academic profile, the UA has, since its inception, emphasized innovation and quality along the three pillars of Education, Research and Cooperation with society. The Cooperation pillar originally had a regional focus with regional industries inspiring two of the first study programs offered by the institution (UA, 2007). Today, the UA characterizes itself as a research-intensive university which affirms a strong national and international positioning, as evidenced in its mission statement:

The UA’s mission is to create knowledge and expand access to knowledge through research, education and cooperation for the benefit of people and society; to undertake the project of global development of the individual; to be active in the construction of a European research and education community; and to promote a model of regional development based on innovation and scientific and technological knowledge (UA, www.ua.pt [last accessed July 2015]).

Finally, the international aspirations of the institution and the role of student mobility are described next. The aim is to provide background information about the UA's international outlook in order to later compare it to stakeholder perceptions in Chapter 6.

International outlook of the institution. The international dimension of the UA was added to its agenda in the 1990s (UA, www.ua.pt) when Europe was waking up to the potential of internationalization in higher education. This new priority emerged alongside Cooperation, mainly due to:

(...) participation in European programmes, reinforcement of relations with countries where Portuguese and other Romance languages are spoken, participation in networks and partnerships with international universities, and the signing of protocols with national and international institutions, organisations and companies (UA, www.ua.pt [last accessed July 2015]).

Today, internationalization and international attractiveness are top priorities in the UA's agenda, especially in research and postgraduate education. This growing attention is demonstrated by documents cited by the General Council³² as reference material for systematizing knowledge concerning UA's profile and its threefold mission in Research, Education and Cooperation. These documents are as follows:

- Institutional evaluation conducted by the European University Association (EUA, 2007);
- Study conducted by Pricewaterhouse Coopers Portugal (2009);
- Protocol of the foundational regime of the UA, under the decree-law no. 97/2009, of Abril 27;
- Rector's action plan for 2010-2014 (Cotão de Assunção, 2010);
- Joint meeting between former rectors and external members of the General Council;
- Reports from the working group of the General Council.

(General Council of the UA, 2012, p. 3)

³² The General Council is a collegiate body of the UA created upon the adoption of the foundation regime and legally approved by the new *Statutes* of the UA - <http://www.ua.pt/PageText.aspx?id=14695>

Together, these documents form the basis for the overview offered here about UA’s international outlook. This documentation is complemented by: (a) online information available via the institutional website (www.ua.pt), (b) institutional power point about the UA, made available to its staff in July 2013, and (c) data regarding student mobility flows and the total student body requested by the researcher to UA’s International Office and Strategic Planning Section, respectively.

Based on the information sources listed above, the UA is depicted as an innovative, attractive and inclusive, interconnected university with several exchange and cooperation programs, as well as joint study programs. Further detail is provided in a list of mobility-related actions in 2011-2012 in Appendix A, Table A.1. This appendix is based on information provided by the International Office of the UA, and categorized by the researcher according to the type of mobility actions. These data should not be considered a full account of all international activities at the UA as, for example, research centers have other internationally-based activities. From the list of initiatives provided in Appendix A, Table A.1, five initiatives stand out. These are illustrated by Figure 22.

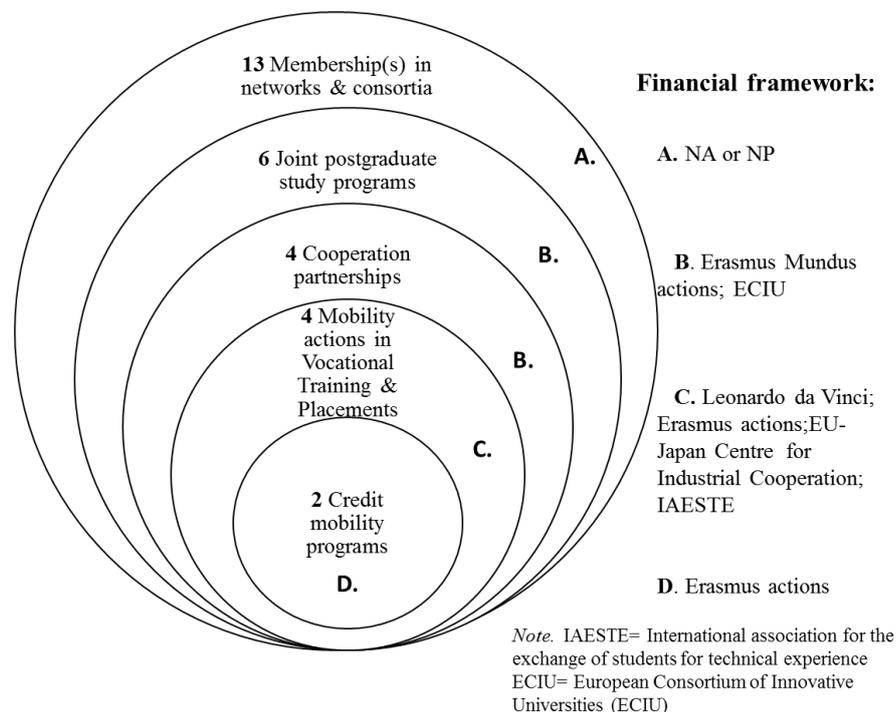


Figure 22 - UA: Top mobility actions in 2011-2012.

Membership in international networks or consortia emerges as the most frequent internationally-based activity followed by six joint study programs (four at the Master’s level

and two at the PhD level). Cooperative partnerships allowing the mobility of students, researchers and staff encompass four initiatives and four mobility actions in vocational training. The offer of (international) credit-bearing exchange programs is limited to the *Erasmus* and CE programs. Also noteworthy is the major source of funding via the EC Lifelong Learning subprograms and their centralized or decentralized actions, as well as via the external cooperation and mobility program *Erasmus Mundus*.

With regard to credit student mobility flows for the past four academic years, outbound flows have been consistently small, as shown in Figure 23.

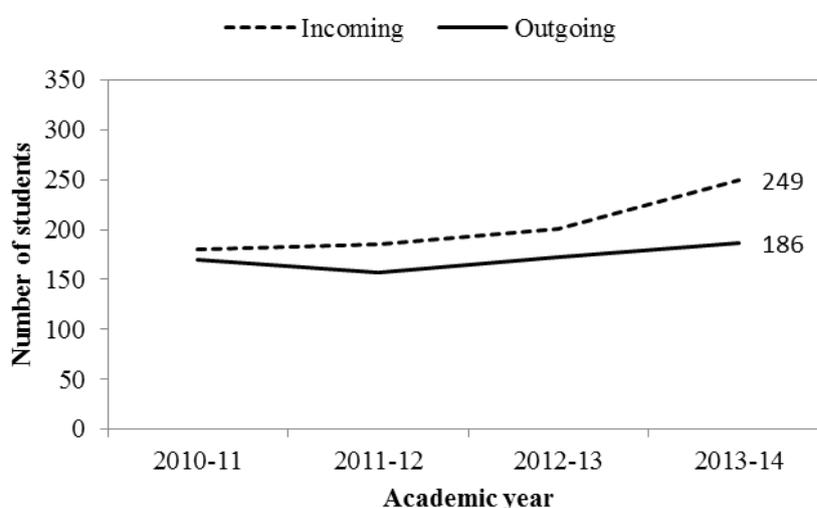


Figure 23 - Student exchange flows for credit from 2010 and 2014.

The UA emerges essentially as a net importer of credit-seeking exchange students with a total of 955 incoming students against 757 outgoing over four academic years in Figure 23. This tendency is consistent with institutional internal measures. For instance, in the rector’s action plan for 2010-2014 one of the measures for reinforcing UA’s international dimension was to increase the number of incoming students by 6% percent/year (Cotão de Assunção, 2010, p. 40- measure no. 108). Of the eight measures proposed by the rector for internationalization matters, none specified a goal for outgoing students.

Although the UA emerges as a net importer of credit student mobility, this influx plays a marginal role in supporting student enrollment. In the 2011-2012 academic year, for

example, inbound credit student mobility represented a share of 1.5 % share (n=211) of the 13,714 students enrolled in the first and second cycles at the UA.³³

It should be noted that the data analyzed in the current section represent the records used by UA's International Office to manage student flows. By implication, those students who gave up the exchange experience are not always weeded out from these data, and this affects the knowledge base on 'genuine mobility' at the UA. Furthermore, data regarding the numbers of Portuguese-speaking exchange students were not obtained by the researcher. However, this student population seems to have an increasing numerical weight in degree-seeking mobility flows. In effect, this type of student mobility may gain prominence in the forthcoming years, particularly now that the UA has approved access regulations for degree-seeking students to Undergraduate and Integrated Master's, following the Governmental approval of the International Student Status in 2014 (see Chapter 2, section 2.3.1.2).

Finally, UA's international outlook encompasses cooperation with industry and the research realm, often interrelated. On the cooperation front, the UA brings innovative technology to regional and national markets. Recently, the UA has reinforced its ties with regional industry by contributing to development of the Creative Science Park - Aveiro Region CSP-AR, www.pci.pt), a project at the intersection of cooperation with industry and innovation in research.

In recent years, the research realm has enjoyed increasing attention in UA's international outreach. This growing importance coincides with a national context of a steady reduction of government funding to public higher education. Consequently, research became a growing source of revenue for many Portuguese higher education institutions. For the UA, research represented the second largest source of income at 19% in 2012. Not surprisingly, research performance indicators, international rankings, number of international research projects, indexed citations, intellectual property patents and research events have taken central stage in the public's perception of UA's institutional performance and international research visibility.

To provide an overall idea of UA's international outreach in research, in 2013, Table 11 lists the number of national and international research projects the institution was involved in.

³³ Total number of domestic student enrollment in the first and second cycles of study in the departments and four schools of the UA, based on data provided by the Strategic Planning Section of the UA.

Table 11 - UA: International and national research projects.

Research projects	N
Participant in European/International projects	59
Coordinator of European/International projects	8
National projects	360
	427

Note. Ongoing projects on 31-07-2013

Source: Research support office of the UA

Most institutional international research projects are European, a result which is consistent with UA's ambitions to "become one of the foremost research organizations in Europe in terms of involvement in European collaborations, and a major player in the construction of the European Research Area" (UA, www.ua.pt).

In summary, the international dimension of the UA transcends its three pillars, but the Cooperation and Research pillars seem to have more explicit implementation policies. Internationally-based research, in particular, is envisioned as a means to enhancing the institution's prestige and visibility in the European knowledge economy. With regard to credit student mobility, the institution emerges mainly as a net importer of exchange students but no explicit strategy seems to be in place to attract this type of student mobility. This programmatic form of mobility is, therefore, largely subsidiary in terms of the total student enrollment.

The issue of intercultural competencies and internationally-based competencies is mentioned in UA's internal documentation but no active plan or measures are in place for fostering the development of such competencies among students. This is of special relevance if UA wants to reaffirm its civic mission, aided by the establishment of a working group devoted to reach such goal, as contended in the new Rector's action plan for 2014-2018 (Cotão de Assunção, 2014, p. 45 - measure no. 65).

Even though international prestige is seen as a proxy for institutional development, no definition was found regarding what *internationalization* means for the institution. Furthermore, institutional information regarding its international outlook is scattered. Data requested by researchers are, by implication, extremely difficult to obtain when their analyses can contribute to more systemic internationalization processes at the UA. This analysis in particular is limited in understanding other types of student mobility at the UA

besides credit-seeking. It lacks, for example, information about UA's cooperation with Portuguese-speaking countries and the role of this student mobility (typically, degree-seeking) for the institution.

Having characterized the macro context of this study and how credit student mobility fits into it, the next sections describe the mezzo setting.

3.5.2.2 Mezzo level

Both the CE and *Erasmus* credit exchange programs as well as the sojourn of the highly skilled immigrants can be situated at the mezzo level. Yet, given the lack of structured data regarding highly skilled immigration in the Aveiro region, this study cannot specify the context within which this latter subgroup forms part.

Campus Europae. The CE program frames the sojourn experience of the primary case study. This programmatic form of student mobility represents a special case of internationalization both at the UA and in Europe in general since CE can be perceived in two ways. On the one hand, it is a credit mobility program (emerging concurrently with *Erasmus*) and, on the other hand, it is a form of cooperation of a university consortium registered as a foundation.

The origins of CE date back to 1999, a time when the first steps for the Bologna Process (BP) were also taken, as explained earlier in Chapter 2, section 2.3. It was only in 2001 that the CE project was formally presented in an inaugural conference in Luxembourg after the government of the Grand Duchy assumed patronage of the project and the consortium of partner institutions was advanced (CE, www.campuseuropae.org). This inaugural conference determined the financial administration of the project. The original idea was shared administration between governments and universities but due to formal and ideological obstacles, the 12 universities at the conference agreed on their full autonomy. This autonomy determined the creation of a foundation - the *European University Foundation* (EUF) - later established formally in 2008. The EUF currently provides the legal framework of the consortium and the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg assumes the overall financing of the EUF-CE project. Student exchanges are, in turn, financed through grants from the Directorate General for Education and Culture of the EC.

Upon agreeing to form an autonomous consortium in 2001, the 12 partner institutions concurred on its purpose and reaffirmed the ideals of CE student exchanges in the following communiqué:

The main purpose of the consortium is to create a field of experimentation generating exemplary experiences, which would then feed into the process of establishing a network of higher education in Europe. The consortium mainly aims at allowing students to gather multifarious experiences in at least two participating universities in two different countries, as well as to efficiently pursue their studies. This should ultimately lead to the creation of a Campus Europae (CE) label. Close co-operation and effective co-ordination between universities is thus required. Degrees awarded by participating universities will identify graduates as being well prepared for professional requirements in European domains of business, science and culture (and politics, Ch Ehmann) (EUF-CE, 1999, p. 31).

In this communiqué, partner institutions also committed themselves to conduct feasibility studies leading to the first pilot exchanges of 50 students in the 2004-2005 and 2005-2006 academic years.

Currently, the EUF-CE network consists of 18 universities representing 15 countries (see Appendix B, Table B.1). When the CE project was formally established in 2003, the consortium was composed of 12 universities across 11 European countries. In 2004, when the first CE student exchanges took place, the group expanded to include 15 partner universities. In 2012, when the main phase of this research was conducted, the network accounted for 19 partner institutions across 15 countries (see Appendix B, Table B.2). Although the number of partner institutions in the network increased over time, there has been a lack of long-term participation. On the celebration of the tenth anniversary of CE in 2013, 27 universities had passed through the network. Of these 27 institutions, only eight remain from the initial group of 12 in 2003 and seven universities are no longer part of the network. Since then, another five institutions left the network, one of which was part of the initial group of 12.³⁴ The UA is one of the institutions which is part of the initial group and remains the only Portuguese higher education institution ever since.

³⁴ [Last update July 30 2015].

Membership in the network is based on acceptance of the Charter of the EUF-CE by prospective member universities. Although there are no legal constraints to joining the network, on signing the charter institutions acknowledge its regulations as well as the philosophy and mission of the EUF-CE.

With regard to CE exchanges, partner institutions can send and receive students according to subject areas appointed by subject committees. Subject committees are a legal body of the EUF-CE network composed of university professors from partner institutions across seven subject areas, to wit:

- Business and Economics;
- Engineering: Architecture, Computer Sciences, Electronic Engineering, Mechanical Engineering;
- Humanities and Social Sciences: History, Philology, Political Sciences, Tourism;
- Law;
- Medicine;
- Natural Sciences: Biochemistry, Biology, Physics;
- Teacher Training and Education.

Subject committees are primarily responsible for embedding CE student exchanges in the existing curricula of partner institutions and ensuring credit recognition. For those purposes, these expert committees establish equivalence matrices according to the ECTS.

The goal of CE exchanges is to foster European citizenship ideals and allow its students to experience “Europe’s unity in diversity”, as previously explained in Chapter 2, section 2.3. To accomplish this goal, CE offers a minimum of one and a maximum of two academic years abroad to equip students with language skills necessary to function as European citizens. This “2 years, 2 languages” concept follows a three-step language approach: an introductory online course of the target language via the language gateway *Hook-Up!*³⁵, followed by a 4-6 week intensive course before the start of the academic year, and language courses during the year abroad (CE, www.campuseuropae.org). At the end of the year, students are expected to reach B1 level according to the CEFR.

³⁵The *Hook Up!* operates via a Moodle server at: <http://languagelearning.campuseuropae.org/>

Besides length of sojourns and language tuition, CE offers additional benefits to participants: the awarding of a CE degree or diploma, assurance of academic recognition, and study-related professional experiences abroad³⁶ (EUF-CE, 2011-2012).

With regard to student flows, the number of students sent abroad has been relatively small since the first pilot exchanges in 2004-2005, as shown in Figure 24.

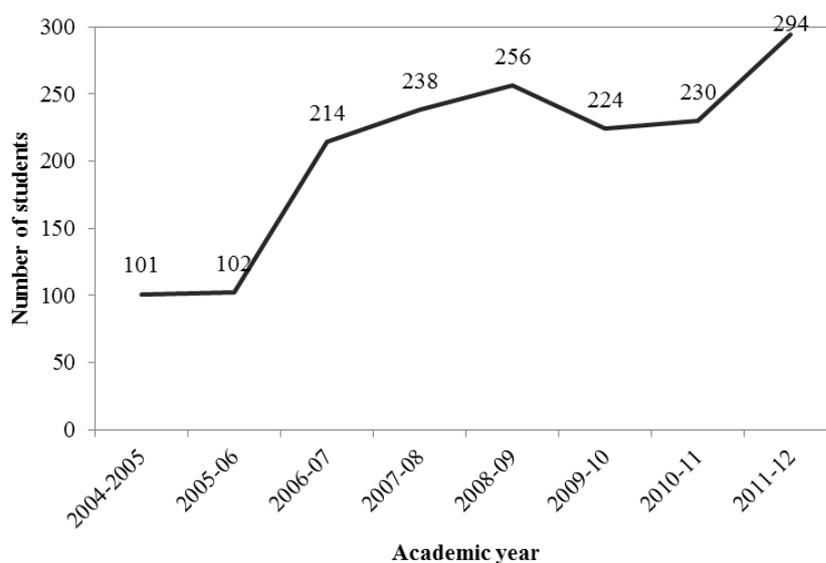


Figure 24 - EUF-CE: Student exchange flows by academic year from 2004 and 2012.

Despite slight increases between 2004-2005 and 2011-2012, with totals of 101 and 294 respectively, the number of CE movers has never exceeded 300 students annually, with an average of 207 students. Overall, the network registered a low enrollment rate considering the total student body of its partner institutions. The network justifies these low enrollments given the “intensive preparations necessary to establish recognition matrices” (EUF-CE, 2011-2012, p. 1). In addition to the low enrollment rate, student exchange flows across partner institutions are rather uneven. Examination of student movement across 11 institutions that were already members of the network in 2004, and were still partners in 2012, shows several discrepancies, as evident in Table 12.

³⁶ These employment opportunities are called “Learning Employability Places” (LEP). Through this program, CE offers its students part-time work placements while studying abroad. For more information please see: <http://www.campuseuropae.org/en/studying/internships/index.html>

Table 12 - EUF-CE: Student exchange flows from 2004 and 2012 across 11 partner institutions.

Partner institutions	Incoming	Outgoing	Total
University of Aveiro	156	109	265
University of Latvia	69	89	158
University Of Novi Sad	42	74	116
University of Lodz	38	72	110
Vytautas Magnus University	15	104	119
University Of Vienna	46	49	95
University of Greisfwald	30	21	51
University of Hamburg	31	20	51
University of Lorraine	20	18	38
University of Luxembourg	29	20	49
European Humanities University	2	21	23

Partner institutions like the UA has sent and received a total of 265 students in contrast to institutions like the European Humanities University (Lithuania) which registered 23 students over the same eight academic years. Internal differences come also to the fore with institutions like Vytautas Magnus University (Lithuania) sending seven times more students than receiving, a result of years when the institution received few or no CE students.

In summary, the CE is a credit-bearing exchange program providing academic, cultural, and professional experiences for first and second cycle students over the course of one up to two academic years. The number of students partaking of these exchanges is limited as the program has not yet registered major student flows. Through extended stays abroad, participants are expected to develop language and intercultural competencies necessary to function as European citizens in a unified and diverse Europe. The project lacks, nonetheless, monitoring and evaluation systems to assess the development of these competencies during the students' sojourns. The absence of such measures and evaluation systems are at the heart of this doctoral research and its long-term purpose of contributing to incorporating purposeful intercultural pedagogies as part of the design and delivery of credit exchange programs, particularly the CE program.

Erasmus. The *Erasmus* program is the best known credit exchange program in Portugal and in Europe and the first exchange program offered by the UA in the 1998-1999 academic year. Inaugurated by the European Economic Community in 1987, *Erasmus* was

during the main year of data collection (2011-2012) of this doctoral research one of EU's lifelong learning sectoral subprograms.

As discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.3, since the late 1970s EU education policies and mobility schemes have exerted increasing influence on European higher education. Portuguese higher education was no exception, with the *Erasmus* program quickly becoming a means for inter-university cooperation and the main vehicle for internationalizing Portuguese higher education institutions. The UA was no exception. When the institution joined the program, *Erasmus* was in transition between the first (1995-1999) and second phase (2000-2006) of the Socrates program. In 1998-1999, when the program ran for the first time in the UA, only six students participated.³⁷ In 2011-2012 this number increased to 342 students (incoming and outgoing), as illustrated by Figure 25.

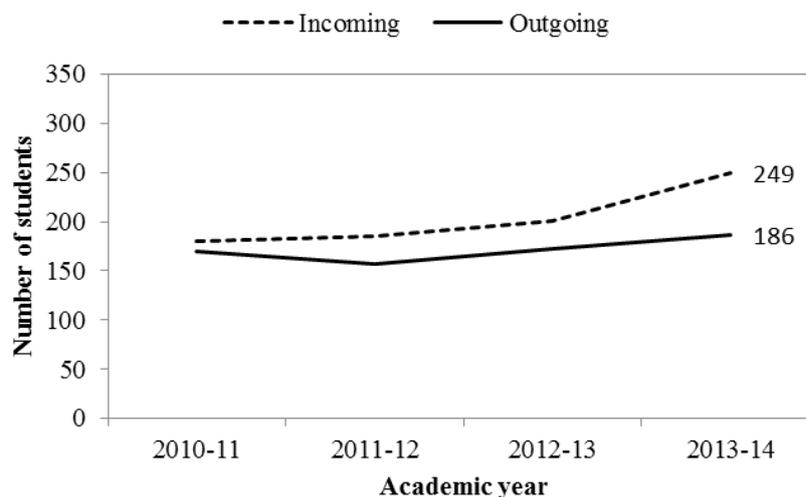


Figure 25 - UA: Erasmus student exchange flows from 2010 and 2014.

Despite an increase in the total number of *Erasmus* flows, the imbalance between inbound and outbound student mobility has remained a constant throughout the four academic years in Figure 25. This imbalance may be justified both by a lack of specific institutional strategies aiming at boosting credit student exchange flows, by a context of national crisis wherein financial resources for partaking of the study abroad experience is out of reach of most Portuguese households or simply by lack of interest or awareness of students. This particular issue will be explored further in Chapter 6, by examining stakeholder perceptions.

³⁷ Data based on information provided by an interviewee as it was not possible to obtain official records.

3.5.2.3 Micro level

The micro scenario frames the two case studies under scrutiny within the social context of the Portuguese language classroom and the process of learning Portuguese.

Portuguese as Foreign Language Classroom. *Erasmus* and CE students, as well as exchange students whose Learning Agreement includes Portuguese, are entitled to attend PFL courses during their stay at the UA. The courses are also offered to other audiences, but carry specific fees. The organization and teaching of PFL courses is the responsibility of the Department of Languages and Cultures at the UA and follows the proficiency guidelines of the CEFR (see Footnote 25).

Credit-seeking students, like *Erasmus* and CE, are offered an intensive language course before the start of the academic year, via the decentralized action of *Erasmus - Erasmus Intensive Language Courses* (EILC) – as previously explained in Chapter 2 (see Footnote 11). For *Erasmus* students, the intensive language course is optional. For CE students, this course is a requirement of the CE program and is therefore attended exclusively by these students over 15 week days for six working hours per day. The targeted level is A2 since CE students are expected to do level A1 beforehand via the online platform *Hook UP!* Intensive language courses are followed by semester courses which have a workload of 60 working hours per academic semester (two hours twice a week). Students are placed in one of the six proficiency levels of the CEFR based on information provided in their enrollment form, a proficiency certificate or the result obtained in an entry proficiency test. CE students usually proceed to level A2 in the first semester as the CE language goal is to reach B1 by the end of the second semester (UA, www.ua.pt/dlc/).³⁸

In order to be awarded a diploma, students must be approved according to assessment guidelines defined by their PFL teacher. Only exchange students are eligible for six ECTS provided that they have been approved and attended 80% of the classes.

3.5.3 Unit of Analysis

A central component of an embedded case study is a clear demarcation of its unit of analysis (Yin, 2009). For this reason, this section defines the unit analysis in relation to the cases and units of observation.

³⁸ For more information please see: <https://www.ua.pt/dlc/PageText.aspx?id=5966>

First, it is necessary to make the distinction between unit of analysis and unit of observation, two distinct concepts often confused. Statistics and survey methodology literature provide a clear demarcation between the two. Whereas, the unit of analysis is the major entity (the who or what) analyzed in a study and can be determined by theoretical interest, the unit of observation is the unit described by the data and is determined by the methods of data collection (Long, 2004). The unit of analysis of this research is ICC across the 31 participants in the two case studies. Each participant is thus the unit of observation. Observations are collected at the individual level (though conclusions are drawn at the collective level) according to the unit of analysis which, in turn, represents an abstract construct. This construct is operationalized in this research as a latent variable after Fantini's (2006a, 2009) definition of ICC, described earlier in Chapter 2, and recalled here - "the complex abilities needed to perform *effectively* and *appropriately* when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself" (Fantini, 2006a, p. 1 [italics in the original]).

From the multiple components purported by Fantini (2006a, 2009) (see Chapter 2, section 2.4.3.2), the subset of the four dimensions was chosen as the focus of the intervention while keeping in mind the role of host language proficiency (Portuguese proficiency, in this case) and various developmental levels.

Criteria for selecting Fantini's (2006a, 2009) conceptualization of ICC were:

1. Clear operationalization of ICC into a high-order construct;
2. Explicit articulation of the language-culture nexus;
3. Strong empirical and research-based underpinnings (based on the application of the AIC and extensive literature review);
4. Assessment orientation (ICC is both definable and measurable);
5. Measurability of the construct via an instrument.

Fantini's (2006a, 2009) model thus provided the underpinnings for the pedagogical and assessment frameworks of the intervention, described next.

3.6 Implementation of the Study

This section describes the intervention employed across the two case studies and its pedagogical and assessment frameworks which are tied to the program evaluation background of this study.

3.6.1 Intervention Implementation

The intervention employed in this study was designed to support and enhance the development of ICCs among the two case study participants during their sojourn in Portugal. The intervention plan was delivered as a sequence of eight two-hour modules over a four-month period, from February to May, during the second semester of the 2011-2012 academic year. The instructional time accounted for 20 hours (the eight two-hour modules, plus four additional hours).

Known to students as ‘Intercultural seminars’, the intervention was symbolized by the logo in Figure 26 which was intentionally created for this purpose only.

Implementation of the intervention was conducted by the researcher within the two PFL classrooms attended by participants of the two case studies, after negotiating the plan with the language instructor. Given that the PFL language courses targeted at B1 or intermediate level, the content of the intervention modules was also tailored to address pedagogical goals appropriate for intermediate language learners in order to guarantee curricular alignment. The main language of instruction was, therefore, Portuguese. English was used as an auxiliary language of instruction with case 1 participants due to the language difficulties shown by these students while the intervention was underway.



Figure 26 - Intervention logo.

3.6.2 Intervention Pedagogical and Assessment Frameworks

Pedagogical and assessment frameworks were designed after the main unit of analysis of this study and its operationalization into a high-order construct encompassing the subset of four dimensions (cultural awareness, attitudes, knowledge and skills), host language proficiency and various developmental levels.

Pedagogical contents were built from a review of the literature and, most importantly, from a needs analysis on participant levels of ICC development and thematic areas of interest for intercultural learning reported in a pretest questionnaire. These two steps were fundamental to the backward approach to curriculum design described in Chapter 2 (section

2.4.4.2). Participant choices in the pretest revealed a series of topics striving for a contextualized understanding of Portuguese culture in its *objective* and *subjective* dimensions (see the working definition of *culture* in section 2.4.3.2). This result set the culture-specific intentions of the intervention and the use of the host culture as the basis for exploring the multiple identities in the classroom and sojourning challenges.

To carry out this plan, a variety of intercultural educational materials were assembled and adapted in addition to creating new ones as needed. The materials were primarily drawn from authentic sources and from contemporary events occurring in the host culture. The result was a sequence of eight modules which attempted to address intercultural challenges during the host culture sojourn and to provide support for participants. Table 13 summarizes the eight modules and its learning goals.

Table 13 - Summary of intervention modules.

Modules	Pedagogical goals
1. What is culture, after all?	To raise understanding and critical reflection about the concept of culture, while stimulating self-awareness about how culture may influence individual identities
2. Cultural relativism: An everyday richness?	To promote critical reflection about cultural relativism, while enhancing abilities to compare values in home and host cultures (through language use)
3. How to live in another culture?	To stimulate self-awareness about the challenges of living in another culture and critical reflection about concepts such as culture shock/stress, acculturation, stereotypes and generalizations
4. Portuguese culture: A kaleidoscope of different images?	To promote understanding of host culture identity traits, while enhancing abilities to relate and contrast home and host cultures
5. Can I know your culture?	To stimulate understanding of cultures in the classroom, while enhancing abilities to relate and contrast time value orientations of home and host cultures
6. Intercultural Education: A positive approach toward difference?	To raise understanding and critical awareness about Intercultural Education and intercultural competencies, as well as interculturality in the Lusophone world
7. Is there space for culture in the PFL classroom?	To promote understanding of the language-culture nexus, while empowering learners with language-culture learning strategies during their sojourn
8. The EU: A union of different cultures?	To reflect critically about the linguistic and cultural diversity of Europe, and core concepts such as European citizenship

In the spirit of *praxis*, all modules in Table 13 integrated both theory and research-based content, implemented through experiential activities. For this reason, both

the students' host country experience and their diverse cultural backgrounds were areas for introspection, comparison, discussion and learning during in-class activities. Using Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle as a model, these activities utilized students' concrete experiences, followed by reflective observations and abstract conceptualizations. Given, however, the alternate use of English and Portuguese as media of instruction and the limited duration of sessions, the fourth stage of the cycle which involves testing implications was not always achieved. These experiential approaches influenced the design and delivery of modules that were sequenced so that each module was built upon preceding sessions and led to ascending levels of complexity.

The specifics of intercultural learning were also taken into account, by addressing the five areas of intercultural learning proposed by Paige (2006), to wit:

1. Learning about the self as a cultural being;
2. Learning about the elements of culture;
3. Culture-specific learning;
4. Culture-general learning;
5. Learning about learning.

These five areas were covered interchangeably by the eight modules but culture-specific learning transcended all modules given the intervention's overall purpose. All five areas were addressed in order to enhance learners' cultural awareness, attitudes, skills and knowledge. Naturally, the selection of pedagogical goals targeted by each module addressed the four ICC dimensions as well. For these purposes, the goals shown in Table 13 were further broken down into teaching objectives and learning outcomes (or indicators) by ICC dimension in each module, as illustrated by Figure 27.

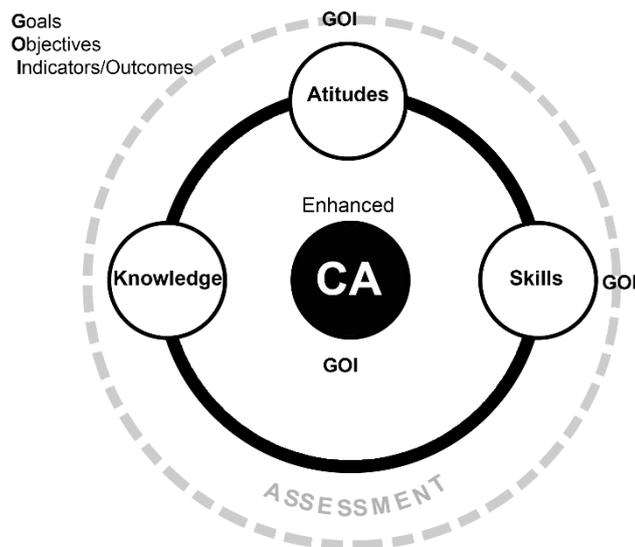


Figure 27 - Pedagogical and assessment frameworks of the intervention.

Given the centrality of cultural awareness for intercultural development, this dimension is at the center of Figure 27 surrounded by the other concomitant abilities.

The four ICC dimensions are inherent to the pedagogical and assessment frameworks, both inextricably linked. In effect, the process of specifying the pedagogical contents, learning activities, goals, objectives and indicators was done concurrently. In terms of research phases, this work started prior to implementation of the intervention right in Phase 1 and continued on through Phase 2 during the intervention (see section 3.4.2). In these phases there was a careful and aligned planning of the pedagogical and assessment structures, as previously explained in Chapter 2, section 2.4.4.2.

In summary, the approach to teaching and assessing purposeful intercultural pedagogies embodied by the intervention is both process-oriented and competency-based given a type of assessment which measures the congruence between teaching objectives and learner ICC performance. The ultimate goal is to establish the *merit* and *worth* intervention in enhancing the ICCs of participants.

Having introduced the pedagogical and assessment frameworks, the following sections describe each of the eight modules.

3.6.2.1 What is culture after all?

The first module took place on February 28 and 29 2012, for case study 2 and 1, respectively. This module addressed the dimensions of *learning about the elements of culture* and *about the self as a cultural being* (Paige, 2006). The goal was to promote

students' understanding and critical reflection about the concept of culture, and make them aware how the culture they were raised in contributes to their individual identities. The session was organized into three main moments.

The first moment consisted of having students recognize the multiple aspects and values that make up their individual identities and reflect upon its cultural elements. For these purposes, the instructor distributed a worksheet (see Appendix C1) containing a diagram with the word "You" at the center surrounded by eight empty circles. The students had then to fill in each circle with a word that described them or part of their identities. The instructor then asked students to share their choices while promoting a discussion around questions such as: *If you had to pick just one or two circles, which ones would it be? Why? Would you present yourself in the same way in your home country?* Followingly, students were asked to pair up, to swap worksheets with their colleagues and identify similarities between their identities. The aim was to promote critical reflection on the cultural elements of students' identities and the importance of this label during their sojourn.

Drawing on students' answers, the instructor introduced the next activity which aimed to elicit students' views of culture and discuss a possible definition. To trigger discussion, the teacher projected a slide with the results of the pretest questionnaire referring to Item 1 in the ICC scale which elicited the extent to which students could mention a basic definition of culture and identify its components.³⁹ To offer students a possible definition of culture, a reading-comprehension exercise of the text "The best country. a Fairy Tale!", by Hofstede, Pedersen, and Hofstede (2002), followed (see Appendix C2). This tale told the story of five cousins who grew up in different countries. Its exploration aimed to introduce students to the definition of national culture by Hofstede (1991, 2001). After the students read the text and unknown vocabulary was clarified, the instructor asked them to fill in a table on the worksheet with the main characteristics and/or values of the five imaginary countries. Afterwards, the teacher projected a slide with a scheme of Hofstede's (1991, 2001) definition of national culture and explained its five dimension and underlying values (see the working definition of *culture* in Chapter 2, section 2.4.3.2). This explanation was accompanied by a dialog with the students and finished with a matching exercise wherein students had to pair up each of the five imaginary countries with the five cultural dimensions purported by Hofstede (1991, 2001).

³⁹ See Appendices D or E, question 15, Item 1 of the knowledge dimension.

The lesson finished with the projection and discussion of more constructivist definitions of culture and recommended related activities. As homework, the students were asked to write their own definition of culture.

Table 14 summarizes the main pedagogical and assessment features of Module 1.

Table 14 - Module 1: What is culture, after all?

Features	Description
Contents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identity • Cultural identity • Otherness • Culture • Hofstede's (1991, 2001) definition of culture: dimensions and values
Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Filling-in exercise • Reading-comprehension exercise • Matching exercise • Guided discussions and dialogues
Learning outcomes	<p>(By the end of this module students will be able)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To identify relevant aspects and values of one's identity • To produce critical reflections about how culture may influence one's identity • To appreciate cultural differences, by showing openness, empathy and tolerance toward the Other • To identify the five dimensions and underlying values of Hofstede's (1991, 2001) definition of national culture • To apply the definition of national culture by Hofstede (1991, 2001) to the reading-comprehension of the text "The best country, a Fairy Tale" • To interpret and discuss different definitions of culture
Type of assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct and indirect
Kind of evidence ^a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Factual knowledge elicited by question/answer and by the pedagogical activities • Deep learning knowledge elicited by guided discussion and dialogues • Observation of students' attitudes, abilities to reflect critically and suspend disbelief
Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Worksheet: "Your cultural diversity" (Appendix C1) • Worksheet: "The best country, a fairy tale!" (Appendix C2) • Cards for the matching exercise and Blue-Tack • Power point, laptop, data show

Note. ^aAdapted from Byram (1997)

3.6.2.2 Cultural relativism: An everyday richness?

The second module took place on March 1 and 5, 2012, for case study 2 and 1, respectively. This module addressed the *culture-general and specific dimensions* of intercultural learning as well as *strategies to learn about learning* (Paige, 2006). The goal was to promote understanding and critical reflections about cultural relativism in relation to home and host cultures while enhancing abilities to compare values through language differences. The session was organized into five main moments.

In the first moment, the thematic topic at hand was introduced. The teacher placed a card with the word “Bread” on the board, and asked students to draw bread according to the first mental image that came up to their minds. For this purpose, she distributed a worksheet (see Appendix C3) and when the students finished drawing she collected the worksheets and grouped them by nationality. The drawings were then shared and a discussion was brought forward around key discussion points, viz.: *Are there similarities between your drawings? Why? Who has the most similar drawing to yours? And who has the most different?*

After having students recognize similarities between their representations of bread, the teacher furthered the discussion about how eating habits can be culturally determined. For these purposes, she asked questions about eating habits in students’ cultures and projected a video about cultural relativism and eating habits by HSBC.⁴⁰

To stimulate critical reflection, a dialogue around some key points followed, viz.: *What is the source of misunderstanding in the video? Is it personal or cultural? Is it inappropriate or rude in your culture to leave food on the plate? And, in Portuguese culture, what is the rule?* Drawing from students’ responses, the instructor asked them to identify other examples of cultural relativism besides eating habits. She then projected a possible definition of *cultural relativism* by Lévi-Strauss (1988), and explained that cultural relativism can take several manifestations, as purported by Hofstede’s (1991, 2001), viz.: *symbols, heroes, rituals, values, practices* (see Figure 12). Finally, the students were encouraged to reflect upon the central role of *values* in Hofstede’s (1991, 2001) definition. To exemplify this centrality in language use, the next exercise aimed at exploring cultural values inherent in Portuguese proverbs. For these purposes, the instructor distributed a worksheet with proverbs listed in a table which the students had then to fill in with the underlying meaning and value for each proverb.

It should be noted that the worksheet distributed to case study 1 (see Appendix C4) and case study 2 students (see Appendix C5) differed in the number of proverbs due to the language difficulties demonstrated by the first group of students in the Module 1. Moreover, the projected slide with the list of proverbs in case study 1 had illustrative pictures of the key words. In addition, the teacher had to use English as an auxiliary language of instruction in this cohort, which would be a common practice throughout the entire intervention.

⁴⁰ Available at http://youtu.be/6_WAmt3cMdk

After the students finished doing the exercise in pairs, the exercise was corrected. To systematize, the teacher initiated a discussion about the values conveyed by the Portuguese proverbs and asked whether students could find equivalent proverbs in their own languages. As usual, the lesson finished with recommended related activities.

Table 15 summarizes the main pedagogical and assessment features of Module 2.

Table 15 - Module 2: Cultural relativism: An everyday richness?

Features	Description
Contents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural differences and representations • Cultural relativism: Hofstede (1991, 2001), Lévi-Strauss (1988) • Manifestations of cultural relativism Hofstede (1991) • Cultural values and language (proverbs)
Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drawing one's cultural representations • Filling-in exercise (discovering the meaning of proverbs) • Matching exercise (matching a proverb to its underlying value) • Guided discussions and dialogues
Learning outcomes	<p>(By the end of this module students will be able)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To identify different manifestations of cultural relativism (by comparing cultural differences between home and host culture) • To appreciate cultural differences, by showing openness, empathy and tolerance toward the Other • To identify different sources of misunderstanding (personal and cultural), and mediate between conflicting interpretations of phenomena • To interpret and discuss the notions of cultural relativism and different manifestations of cultural relativism • To analyze and interpret Portuguese proverbs • To identify core values of the host culture in language use (proverbs), and infer the cultural assumptions conveyed • To develop an explanatory system regarding cultural values conveyed in language use which is susceptible of application to students own languages • To employ language learning strategies to enhance intercultural learning
Type of assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indirect and direct
Kind of evidence ^a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Factual knowledge elicited by question/answer, and by the pedagogical activities • Deep learning knowledge elicited by guided discussion and dialogues • Observation of students' attitudes, abilities to reflect critically and suspend disbelief
Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Worksheet: "Cultural Differences, An everyday richness?" (Appendix C3) • Worksheet: "Do proverbs convey values?" - Case 1(Appendix C4); Case 2 (Appendix C5) • Card with the word "Bread" and Blue-Tack • Power point, laptop, data show

Note. ^aAdapted from Byram (1997)

3.6.2.3 How to live in another culture

The third module took place on March 15 and 19, 2012, for case study 2 and 1, respectively. This module addressed the dimensions of *culture-general*, and to a smaller extent, *culture-specific learning* (Paige, 2006). The goal was to foment self-awareness about

the challenges of living in another culture and critical reflection about concepts like culture shock/stress, stereotypes and generalizations. The session was organized into six moments.

In the first moment, the thematic topic at hand was introduced by showing an excerpt from the documentary “Os Lisboetas” (2004), directed by Sérgio Tréffaut.⁴¹ This film clip was accompanied by a worksheet with interpretation questions about the documentary. For these purposes, the instructor asked the students to read the worksheet (see Appendix C6) beforehand and clarified doubts regarding vocabulary and interpretation questions. A debriefing followed along with the correction of the worksheet. The next activity was then introduced and consisted of a guided-discussion about immigration flows in Portugal. To initiate discussion, the instructor projected a slide showing the number of foreign residents living in Portugal, based on information provided by the 2010 statistical report from the Portuguese Immigration and Borders Service.⁴² The discussion revolved around the following key points: *Why do you think that these 10 nationalities are the most representative foreign communities in Portugal? Do you know of any reason that might have prompted these communities to immigrate to Portugal? And what about, their territorial distribution? Can you guess the areas in Portugal where immigration is more concentrated? Do you consider Portugal a country of immigrants or emigrants? Why?*

Drawing from the students’ reflections, the teacher furthered the discussion through interpretation of a cartoon of social and political satire regarding a speech of the current Portuguese Prime-Minister on the role of emigration for Portuguese society (see Appendix C7, Figure C.1). The aim was to have students comment on a current event in Portuguese society and reflect critically about it. After this reflection, the teacher introduced the second topic of the module: “Stereotyping and Generalizing”, by asking students to interpret a comic strip from the European Commission (1998) campaign “What? Me a racist?” published by the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities (see Appendix C7, Figure C.2). Once again, a debriefing followed around focus questions, viz.: *Which challenges do you think multicultural societies pose to human beings? Do you think these challenges and/or problems are only posed to immigrants or to natives as well? What about the characters in the comics? Which type of judgment are they being victims of? And which type of judgment are they holding against other characters?*

⁴¹ Available at: <http://youtu.be/5pZhh047ibU>

⁴² Available at: <http://sefstat.sef.pt/relatorios.aspx>

Following this discussion, the instructor distributed a worksheet (see Appendix C8) with the aim of improving students' understanding about stereotypes and generalizations, and encouraging students to question their subjective cultural assumptions toward others. To systematize these notions, students selected two stereotypes from the postcard "The perfect European" by J. N. Hughes-Wilson (see Appendix C7, Figure C.3). After discussion of these notions, the students paired up, wrote two stereotypes in the table provided in the worksheet and changed these into generalizations, while questioning the assumptions behind. The students were then asked to share their responses and the teacher reviewed some of them.

The class finished with a guided discussion around integration matters and cultural adjustment (including the notion of culture shock) during the sojourn. This discussion was accompanied by the projection of the acculturation curve by Hofstede (1991) along its four different phases (*euphoria, culture shock, acculturation and stable state*). After explaining the acculturation curve, the instructor asked students where they would situate themselves on an imaginary acculturation curve within Portuguese culture. To finish the lesson, the instructor assigned homework (see Appendix C9), which consisted of drawing one's own acculturation curve to Portuguese culture based on Hofstede's (1991, 2001) acculturation phases. The lesson finished with recommended related activities.

Table 16 summarizes the main pedagogical and assessment features of Module 3.

Table 16 - Module 3: How to live in another culture?

Features	Description
Contents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emigration and immigration in Portugal • Challenges of multicultural societies • Stereotypes (Tajfel, 1982), generalizations and questioning cultural assumptions • Adjustment challenges during the sojourn • Acculturation curve Hofstede (1991) • Culture shock (Hofstede, Pedersen, & Hofstede, 2002)
Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpretation exercises (documentary, cartoon and comics) • Writing exercise • Guided discussions and dialogues
Learning outcomes	<p>(By the end of this module students will be able)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To analyze and interpret the social message conveyed by a documentary, a cartoon and a comic strip • To discuss the human experience of migration • To operate factual knowledge regarding migration flows in Portugal and articulate sustained viewpoints about this social phenomenon in Portugal • To appreciate cultural differences, by showing openness, empathy and tolerance toward the Other • To differentiate between stereotypes, generalizations and questioning • To articulate well-informed and balanced viewpoints about cultural differences • To explain the notions of culture shock and acculturation processes, and to use these notions to understand the study abroad/sojourn experience

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To describe the four phases of the acculturation curve by Hofstede (1991) • To produce a written critical reflection about adaptation matters in the sojourn, by applying Hofstede's (1991) curve to one's adjustment to the host culture
Type of assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct and indirect
Kind of evidence ^a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Factual knowledge elicited by question/answer, the pedagogical activities and the assigned homework • Deep learning knowledge elicited by guided discussion and dialogues, and the assigned homework • Observation of students' attitudes, abilities to reflect critically and suspend disbelief
Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Worksheet: "Living in another culture" (Appendix C6) • Visual material (Appendix C7) • Worksheet: "Stereotypes, generalizations and questioning: What's the difference?" (appendix C8) • Worksheet: "Is it natural to feel culture shock?" (Appendix C9) • Power point, laptop, data show

Note. ^aAdapted from Byram (1997)

3.6.2.4 Portuguese culture: A kaleidoscope of different images?

The fourth module took place on March 29 and April 11, 2012, for case study 2 and 1, respectively. This module addressed the dimension of *culture-specific learning* (Paige, 2006). The goal was to promote understanding of host culture identity traits while enhancing abilities to relate and contrast home and host cultures. The session was organized into three main moments.

As usual, the first moment consisted of introducing the topic at hand. To do so, and to encourage classroom discussions, the teacher placed three representative objects of Portuguese culture on her desk, viz.: a "Barcelos Rooster", a traditional fishermen's boat from Aveiro (*Moliceiro*) and a miniature of a traditional house made of schist stone. The aim was to have students think about three characteristics they considered to be representative of Portuguese people and then write these characteristics on a strip of paper. After students finished writing, the instructor explained that the purpose of the exercise would only be revealed in the following lesson.

To continue the reflection about Portuguese culture, the promotional tourism film of Portugal, "The Beauty of Simplicity,"⁴³ was shown. Following this showing, the instructor initiated a debriefing by asking focus questions such as: *Do you recognize any of the places shown in the film? Which? Have you visited any of these places? Which elements were chosen to characterize Portuguese culture in the film?* Drawing from students' answers, the

⁴³ Available at: <http://www.youtube.com/turismodeportugal>

instructor conducted a brainstorming session with the word “Portugal” at the center and asked a student to write on the board the elements pointed out by his/her colleagues. Upon completion of the brainstorm, the instructor drew students’ attention to two of its elements, “Gastronomy” and “Geography”, which would be the focus of the following exercise.

The next exercise was a group work which consisted of matching seven top courses of Portuguese gastronomy with its geographical origin. The courses were selected from the Portuguese 2011 contest “Seven wonders of Portuguese gastronomy®” which aimed to promote Portuguese gastronomic heritage, and Portugal as a touristic destination. To proceed with the exercise, the teacher projected the “seven wonders” (see Appendix C10, Figure C.4) and distributed a worksheet wherein students had to write the “gastronomic wonder” and the corresponding province (see Appendix C11). After completing the exercise, a spokesperson for each group revealed the group’s responses and the winning group received a prize. Next, the instructor systematized knowledge about Portuguese regional identities and the administrative organization of Portugal into districts, municipalities and “freguesias” (usually translated *as civil parishes*, “freguesias” represent the third-level Portuguese administrative subdivision).

The last activity of Module 4 was a listening exercise about another element of Portuguese culture: “Music”. As an ice-breaker and to encourage classroom interaction around the subtopic at hand, the instructor asked focus questions, such as: *Do you usually listen to Portuguese music? Which type of music do you usually listen to? If you had to choose a single musical genre for Portuguese music, which one would you choose? Why?* Drawing from this discussion, the teacher introduced a gap-filling exercise to the lyrics “Parva que sou!” by Deolinda (see Appendix C12). The aim was to stimulate listening abilities while enhancing students’ understanding of the 2011 Portuguese youth protest inspired by this song. After the students completed the lyrics and unknown vocabulary was explored, the instructor corrected their responses and asked interpretation questions. These questions were twofold: the first set of questions addressed linguistic issues and the message conveyed by the lyrics and the second set addressed its symbolic meaning. The aim was to explore language use and figures of speech within the lyrics, while drawing students’ attention to the youth protest over austerity “Geração à Rasca”, the economic crisis and lack of employment prospects for Portuguese youth. To finish, the instructor, asked students if

they could relate to the situation depicted by the song and whether youth in their countries experienced anything similar.

As usual, the lesson finished with recommended related activities.

Table 17 summarizes the main pedagogical and assessment features of Module 4.

Table 17 - Module 4: Portuguese culture: A kaleidoscope of different images?

Features	Description
Contents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Host culture • Host culture identity traits (gastronomy, geography and Music) • Self-representations about the host culture • Current events in the Portuguese society: The 2011 Portuguese youth protest
Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpretation exercise (of the video “The Beauty of simplicity”) • Matching exercise (in groups) • Listening-comprehension exercise (gap-filling) • Guided discussions and dialogues
Learning outcomes	<p>(By the end of this module students will be able)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To identify identity traits of the host culture in a tourism promotional video • To appreciate cultural differences, by showing openness, readiness to suspend disbelief and curiosity toward values and practices of the Portuguese culture • To relate and contrast identity traits of host and home cultures • To display increased critical cultural awareness regarding one’s self-representations of the host culture • To identify Portuguese provinces • To operate factual knowledge about Portugal administrative subdivisions • To identify typical courses and regional characteristics of Portuguese gastronomy • To analyze and interpret the social message conveyed in the lyrics of the song “Que parva sou!” • To be familiar with Portuguese music • To discuss the socioeconomic situation of Portuguese youth • To relate and contrast the socioeconomic situation lived by Portuguese youth with the situation of the youth in students’ countries of origin
Type of assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct and indirect
Kind of evidence ^a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Factual knowledge elicited by question/answer, the pedagogical activities • Deep learning knowledge elicited by guided discussion and dialogues • Observation of students’ attitudes, abilities to reflect critically and suspend disbelief
Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strips of paper • Visual material (Appendix C10, Figure C.4) • Worksheet: “What’s your flavor, Portugal ” (Appendix C11) • Worksheet: “Parva que sou!”(Appendix C12) • Power point, laptop, data show

Note. ^aAdapted from Byram (1997)

3.6.2.5 Can I know your culture?

The fifth module took place on April 17 and 30, 2012, for case study 2 and case 1, respectively. This module addressed the dimension of *culture-general learning*. The goal was to stimulate understanding of cultures in the classroom while enhancing abilities to

relate and contrast cultural values of home and host cultures. For these purposes, the session was organized into three main moments.

It should be noted that this session differed for case 1 and case 2 participants in some pedagogical aspects. The underlying reasons were the language difficulties showed by case study 1 participants and the two extra classes needed to finish the previous modules, as well as the distress shown regarding the Portuguese sense of punctuality.

In the first moment, the thematic topic at hand was introduced by employing the same teaching strategy for both groups of students. This strategy consisted of projecting a word cloud of the three most representative characteristics of the Portuguese, as elicited in the previous module. The two word clouds are illustrated in Figure 28 and in Figure 29 for case study 1 and 2, respectively.



Figure 28 - Case 1: Representations of Portuguese people.



Figure 29 - Case 2: Representations of Portuguese people.

Given the centrality of punctuality for case study 1 students, the discussion centered on punctuality as a cultural value. After an exchange of viewpoints, the instructor systematized students' knowledge by explaining the difference between monochronic and polychronic time with the visual aid of a slide wherein these definitions were provided on a continuum. The second activity for case study 1 was then introduced. For these purposes, the instructor projected a five-point scale wherein 1 represented "Low punctuality" and 5 "High punctuality". She then asked students where would they place Portuguese culture on the punctuality scale, and posted a card with students' rating (2 out of 5) on the board. Students were then asked to form groups by nationality and discuss how they would place their own culture on the same scale, justify their choices and give practical examples. To guide group work, the instructor pointed out some key points around which students could organize their discussions, viz.: *What's the acceptable delay in your culture for a social*

event? At what time, for example, would it be acceptable in your culture to arrive at a dinner party that was supposed to start at 8 p.m.? Do university students have the academic quarter in your culture? The results of students' discussions were presented by a spokesperson to the rest of the class. After all groups presented, the instructor summarized the discussion.

In case study 2, the activity employed was different since the projection of the word cloud was not followed by group work about differing senses of punctuality. The activity consisted, instead, of preparing group presentations about students' cultures which would occur in the two following classes. For these purposes, the teacher shared the results of the three most representative characteristics of the Portuguese, viz.: gastronomy, punctuality, hospitality (see Appendix C13, Figure C.5). She then explained that the aim of the group work would not be simply to present their home cultures but to present their home cultures in relation to the same three characteristics. Each group would be assessed according to four criteria, viz.: Adequacy of the presentation to the learning objectives (30%), Visuals and/or layout (15%), Clarity of oral presentation (25%) and Reflexivity/Critical awareness (30%). Each student received a handout which summarized the aims and assessment criteria for the group work (see Appendix C13, Table C.1).

The two final moments of Module 5 employed the same strategies in both case studies. The first of these moments was the reading-interpretation of an excerpt from the poem "Somos estrangeiros onde quer que estejamos" by the heteronym of the Portuguese poet Fernando Pessoa. This excerpt is given below along with the English translation.

"Lídia, ignoramos. Somos estrangeiros
Onde quer que estejamos.
Lídia, ignoramos. Somos estrangeiros
Onde quer que moramos, tudo é alheio,
Nem fala língua nossa. (...)"

Ricardo Reis/ Odes⁴⁴

"Lydia, we know nothing. We are strangers
Wherever we may be.
Lydia, we know nothing, We are strangers
Wherever we may live. Everything is alien,
Nor speaks our language. (...)"

Ricardo Reis/ Odes⁴⁵

The aim of the exercise was to stimulate critical reflection about the notion of the Stranger while enhancing students' interpretation abilities of literary texts. To fulfill this aim, the instructor initiated discussion about what makes one a stranger abroad. Drawing

⁴⁴ Silva, M.P. (Eds). (2001). Poesia, Ricardo Reis. Obras de Fernando Pessoa. Lisboa: Assírio & Alvim.

⁴⁵ Translated by Honig, E. & Brown, S. In Honig, S. M., E. & Brown, S. M (Eds). (1986). *Poems of Fernando Pessoa*. San Francisco, CA: City Light Books.

from this debriefing, the teacher projected a slide with the notion of stranger from Simmel's seminal essay (1908), to wit:

(...) The stranger is an element of the group itself (...) – an element whose membership with the group involves both being it and confronting it” (Simmel in Levine, 1971, pp. 143-144).

The discussion finished with an explanation of the phenomenon of heteronym purported by Fernando Pessoa and referring to the different imaginary characters and identities created by the poet, one of which is Ricardo Reis. The conclusion drawn was that we are all strangers because, as Fernando Pessoa once wrote: “My art is to be me. I am, many.” (Fernando Pessoa, n.d.)

The lesson finished with the correction of the written essays assigned in Module 1 and Module 3. Before distributing the corrected essays, the teacher explained the three assessment criteria to the students for the written essays:

1. Syntax: Appropriate use of sentence structure;
2. Semantics: Appropriate use of words;
3. Reflexivity/Critical awareness: Articulation of ideas in critical and reflective ways.

Given the difficulties shown in the essays, particularly for case 1 participants, the instructor devoted the last moment of this lesson to providing students a series of steps to write effectively in Portuguese. For case study 1 students, this explanation was followed by an exercise wherein some sentences retrieved from student essays were provided to the students (see Appendix C14, activity 1). With the help of the instructor, they then had to identify their mistakes and correct them. Corrections were followed by an explanation of the type of mistake, its source, and guidelines for effective writing.

As usual, the lesson finished with recommended related activities.

Table 18 summarizes the main pedagogical and assessment features of Module 5.

Table 18 - Module 5: Can I know your culture?

Features	Description
Contents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Culturally determined values: time • Monochronic and polychronic time • Otherness • The stranger (Simmel, 1908) • Heteronym (literary concept)
Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpretation exercise (of a poem) • Group work • Guided discussions and dialogues • Writing practice exercise
Learning outcomes	<p>(By the end of this module students will be able)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To recognize one's culturally influenced values, behavior and ways of thinking • To display increased critical awareness regarding time values and how these values may vary across cultures (case 1 participants) • To relate and contrast home and host culture values • To value the different cultures represented in the classroom, by showing openness and readiness to suspend disbelief toward different cultural values • To evaluate one's self-representations about the Other (Portuguese people) • To describe the notions of Otherness, and Strangeness • To identify the steps to write effectively in Portuguese and apply these steps in written productions • To identify, correct and explain morphological and syntactic mistakes in written essays
Type of assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct and indirect
Kind of evidence ^a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Factual knowledge elicited by question/answer, the pedagogical activities, and written essays • Deep learning knowledge elicited by guided discussion and dialogues, the pedagogical activities, and written essays • Observation of students' attitudes, abilities to reflect critically and suspend disbelief
Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cards • Worksheet: "Assessment criteria for group work – Case 2" (Appendix C13) • Worksheet: "How to write in Portuguese?" (Appendix C14) • Laptop, power point, data show

Note. ^aAdapted from Byram (1997)

3.6.2.6 Intercultural Education: A positive approach toward difference?

The sixth module took place on May 17 and 21, 2012, for case study 2 and case 1, respectively. This module attended to the dimensions of *culture-general and specific learning* (Paige, 2006). The goal was to raise understanding and critical awareness about intercultural education and intercultural competencies as well as interculturality in the Lusophone world. The session was organized into three moments.

In the first moment, the thematic topic at hand was introduced. To do so, the instructor projected an institutional advertisement from the Council of Europe (CoE, www.coe.int) campaign for Diversity, Human Rights and Participation "All equal, all different" which was launched for the first time in 1995 and re-launched in 2007 in

partnership with the EC. She then asked students if they were familiar with the campaign and if their countries participated in it. Next, students paired up and described the advertisement according to seven elements, viz.: (1) type of campaign, (2) context of emergence, (3) the campaign promoter, (4) graphics, (5) slogan, (6) message and targeted feelings, and (7) target audience (see Appendix C15). Afterwards, the instructor elicited student responses and corrected them on the board. To debrief, she projected other advertisements about human rights and diversity and explained the characteristics of a good advisement, to wit: Attention, Interest, Desire, Memory, Action (AIDMA).

The second pedagogical activity was a guided discussion about intercultural education and its role in multicultural societies. During this discussion, the instructor projected a possible definition of intercultural education. She then asked students which competencies this type of education addressed. To stimulate reflection, the instructor recalled the question in the pretest survey questionnaire (questions 17 and 17.1, Appendices D and E) which elicited if students knew what IC was and the underlying definition. She then presented the numerical results, and the definitions provided.

Drawing from the definitions of IC provided by the students, the instructor initiated discussion around key points such as: *Is there any word or aspect which is constantly mentioned in your definitions? Which? What are the commonalities in your definitions? What differentiates intercultural competence from other competencies?* To systematize students' feedback, the instructor encouraged them to define collectively IC, and wrote the definition on the board. To promote a more sophisticated understanding of intercultural competencies, the instructor gave a definition from European scholarly literature, namely the ICC model by Byram (1997). She then went through the definition and the five factors needed in intercultural communication (see Chapter 2, section 2.4.3.2), while promoting a discussion about the importance of this competence in study abroad and sojourning.

From this definition and the notion of the intercultural speaker, the teacher drew students' attention to interculturality within the Lusophone world. For these purposes, she explained the concept of "Lusofonia" as referring to Portuguese-speaking countries united by language and culture ties. To clarify the concept, the instructor decomposed the word into its morphemes: "Luso", which is equivalent to "Lusitano" (i.e., Portuguese) and derives from the ancient region corresponding approximately to modern Portugal ("Lusitânia"), and the suffix "Fonia" which means "sound" and derives from the Greek word *foneo*.

To put students' knowledge to the test and to introduce the Community of Portuguese-Speaking Countries (CPLP, see Footnote 19), the instructor showed eight cards with the eight flags of CPLP Member States in 2012. She then asked students to identify the countries represented by the flags and questioned them about the community that binds those countries together. To systematize knowledge, the instructor projected a slide with the map of the CPLP countries around the world, and asked students if they have any similar community in their countries of origin. She then briefly explained the CPLP and its aims, drawing students' attention to the role of the Portuguese language around the world.

The lesson finished with recommended related activities, particularly the youth festival of "Lusofonia" which would take place in Aveiro from June 4 to 30, 2012, and to the documentary "Língua: Vidas em Português" by Vítor Lopes.

Table 19 summarizes the main pedagogical and assessment features of Module 6.

Table 19 - Module 6: Intercultural Education: A positive approach toward difference?

Features	Description
Contents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intercultural education • Cultural differences • Media literacy: Noncommercial advertisements and Human Rights • Multicultural societies • Intercultural competencies; Byram's (1997) model of ICC • "Lusofonia", Interculturality and the CPLP
Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpretation exercise (of an advertisement) • Guided discussions and dialogues • Matching exercise (flags and countries of the CPLP)
Learning outcomes	<p>(By the end of this module students will be able)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To identify the elements and characteristics of print advertisements • To explain the overall intents of Intercultural Education as a positive approach to difference • To interpret and distinguish the notions of IC and ICC • To discuss Byram's (1997) model of ICC • To discuss the role of intercultural competencies in sojourning • To discuss the importance of language as an element of cultural identity • To display awareness of interculturality in the Lusophone world and in the CPLP
Type of assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct and indirect
Kind of evidence ^a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Factual knowledge elicited by question/answer, the pedagogical activities, and the pretest • Deep learning knowledge elicited by guided discussions and dialogues, the pedagogical activities, and the pretest • Observation of students' attitudes, abilities to reflect critically and suspend disbelief
Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cards with flags • Worksheet: "What approach toward difference?" (Appendix C15) • Laptop, power point, data show

Note. ^aAdapted from Byram (1997)

3.6.2.7 Is there space for culture in the PFL classroom?

The seventh module took place on May 21 and 22, 2012, for case study 1 and 2, respectively. This module addressed the dimension of *learning about learning* (Paige, 2006). The goal was to promote understanding of the language-culture nexus while empowering learners with language-culture learning strategies which could enhance their ICC development during the sojourn. The session was organized into four moments.

In the first moment, the thematic topic at hand was introduced by showing an excerpt from the 2003 documentary “Língua: Vidas em Português.” by Vítor Lopes,⁴⁶ along with the following passage: “Every night two hundred million people dream in Portuguese. These are some of them.” The aim was to use this passage as the *leitmotiv* for reflection about the language-culture nexus. With this aim in mind, the instructor questioned students what language did they dream in while in Portugal. To further the discussion, a series of sentences and poems which illustrated the intersection between language and culture (see Appendix C16, Figure C.6) was projected. This discussion was organized around focus questions: *Why are words like a dagger? What is the idea conveyed by this metaphor? And why does Vírgilio Ferreira claim that from his language he sees the sea? Why does Nelson Mandela distinguish between a language that talks to a man’s heart and to a man’s head?*

The following activity extended the previous one through examination of the meaning of the word *chrysanthemum*. The instructor projected this word at the center of a diagram with empty circles. She then asked students what was the ‘meaning’ of chrysanthemums in their home cultures. To illustrate how language can be a window to a culture, the instructor⁴⁷ projected a commercial from HSBC⁴⁷ depicting a misunderstanding based on the “cultural meaning” of white chrysanthemums in Italian culture.

To empower learners with an explanatory system susceptible for situations of cultural misunderstanding, the instructor provided students with a model to describe, interpret and evaluate (D-I-E), as purported by Bennett and Bennett (n.d.). The aim was to apply the three stages of the D-I-E model to the situation depicted by the HSBC commercial. After going through each step of the model, the instructor distributed a worksheet wherein the students had to describe, interpret and evaluate the aforementioned situation (see Appendix C17).

⁴⁶ Available at <http://youtu.be/b7cIiiHmFI8>

⁴⁷ Available at <http://youtu.be/QOCqv1WcqBM>

After the students finished the exercise, the instructor elicited their responses, provided a sample correction on the board and systematized students' knowledge with a debriefing.

In the last moment of the lesson, the instructor initiated a discussion about the role of the 'intercultural seminars' in the PFL classroom and in enhancing students' intercultural gains during the sojourn. For this purpose, she projected a slide with a brief definition of the two types of possible pedagogical approaches in study abroad (see Chapter 2, section 2.4.1). She then questioned students about the approach they considered to be the most appropriate for exchange students and for immigrant sojourners. As a final activity, the instructor showed the trailer of a documentary "Universo Erasmus"⁴⁸ to trigger a dialog about student sojourns: description of the experience, highs and lows, things they would miss, things they learned...

As usual, the lesson finished with recommended related activities.

Table 20 summarizes the main pedagogical and assessment features Module 7.

Table 20 - Module 7: Is there space for culture in the PFL classroom?

Features	Description
Contents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language-culture nexus • The Description-Interpretation-Evaluation model (Bennett & Bennett, n.d.) • Educational approaches in study abroad/ sojourning • The experience of sojourning
Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpretation exercise (of a documentary, a commercial and a reporting) • Guided discussions and dialogues • Systematization exercise of the D-I-E model of debriefing
Learning outcomes	<p>(By the end of this module students will be able)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To explain how language and culture erelate (the language-culture nexus) • To discuss the role of culture in the PFL classroom • To discuss the role of interventionist approaches in sojourning • To apply the the D-I-E model of debriefing to a situation of cultural misunderstanding • To develop an explanatory system susceptible of application in situations of cultural misunderstanding or dysfunction • To show interest and flexibility in incorporating other's viewpoints • To produce critical reflections about one's sojourn
Type of assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct and indirect
Kind of evidence ^a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Factual knowledge elicited by question/answer and the pedagogical activities • Deep learning knowledge elicited by guided discussion, dialogues, the pedagogical activities, and the pretest • Observation of students' attitudes, abilities to reflect critically and suspend disbelief
Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sentences and poems about the language-culture nexus (Appendix C16) • Worksheet: "Do words have a cultural meanings?" (Appendix C17) • Laptop, power point, data show

Note. ^aAdapted from Byram (1997)

⁴⁸ Documentary broadcasted by the Portuguese TV channel RTP2: <http://youtu.be/66pLPoVXyC8>

3.6.2.8 The EU: A union of different cultures?

The eighth module took place on May 24 and 28, 2012, for case 2 and 1, respectively. This module addressed the culture-general dimension (Paige, 2006). The goal was to reflect critically about European linguistic and cultural diversity and core concepts such as European citizenship. The session was organized into three moments.

In order to introduce the topic at hand and encourage classroom discussion, the instructor first projected the motto of the EU, “United in diversity” in all the languages represented in the classroom. She then encouraged discussion around whether this “unity in diversity” is a reality or utopia. To put students’ knowledge at test and to promote an improved understanding of the EU as a politic-economic body and an institution which has contributed to the advancement of peace and cultural understanding, the instructor introduced a quiz. This quiz consisted of two subsets of questions. The first subset related to the thematic topics related to the EU, viz.:

- The EU: A union of different cultures. Reality or utopia?
- The Exchange student/Sojourner: An intercultural European citizen?

The second subset, on the other hand, related to the contents of the past seven ‘intercultural seminars’ and aimed to review previously taught contents. Both subsets of questions (see Appendix C18) were addressed during the module, by dividing the class into groups. Each group had to pick cards with questions which the instructor would read aloud). The group who got the most answers right would win a prize. During the quiz, the instructor provided information and clarified doubts regarding the two subsets of questions. Both subsets were accompanied by projection of slides which clarified information with regard to the EU and systematized knowledge in the case of the ‘intercultural seminars’. In the latter case, students were provided with a worksheet where they could write notes about the contents addressed in the seminars (see Appendix C19).

During the part of the quiz which referred to the EU, particular attention was given to EU citizenship ideals as *European citizenship* was one of the core concepts approached during this session. The teacher projected a definition of European citizenship as purported by the Maastricht treaty and stimulated discussion around key points such as: *.Do you feel you are a European citizen? Is it compatible to have both a national and supranational sense of identity? Does the experience of student mobility make you more European? Why? Are exchange students the ‘prototype’ of this European citizen? Why is it so?*

After the quiz finished and the students clarified doubts regarding the content of the seminars, they filled in the posttest questionnaire.

Table 21 summarizes the main pedagogical and assessment features of Module 8.

Table 21 - Module 8: The EU: A union of different cultures?

Features	Description
Contents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The EU • Linguistic and cultural diversity within the EU • European citizenship (national vs. supranational citizenship) • The exchange student: the ‘prototype’ of the European intercultural citizen
Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quiz • Guided discussions and dialogues
Learning outcomes	<p>(By the end of this module students will be able)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To articulate well-informed and sophisticated viewpoints about Europe’s linguistic and cultural diversity • To show interest, openness and curiosity regarding that diversity • To describe the notions of supranational (European) citizenship and identity • To relate and contrast national and supranational citizenship • To discuss how European citizenship ideals can be fostered during the sojourn • To articulate sustained viewpoints about the role of the exchange student as an exemplary European citizen • To identify and describe some of the concepts learned in the previous intervention modules
Type of assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct and Indirect
Kind of evidence ^a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Factual knowledge elicited by question/answer and the quiz • Deep learning knowledge elicited by guided discussions, dialogues and the quiz • Observation of students’ attitudes, abilities to reflect critically and suspend disbelief • Posttest survey questionnaire
Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quiz questions (Appendix C18) • Worksheet: What Did You Learn in the Intercultural Seminars (Appendix C19) • Laptop, power point, data show

Note. ^aAdapted from Byram (1997)

Having characterized the intervention, the following sections describe the data collection process and analysis procedures for the four research phases.

3.7 Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

This section provides an overview of the data collection process and analysis procedures before, during and after the intervention. This overview is organized into two parts: section 3.7.1 describes data collection procedures and the operationalization of the ICC construct in the pre and posttests, while section 3.7.2 specifies data analysis procedures. Data analysis procedures can be broadly defined as quantitative (3.7.2.1),

qualitative (3.7.2.2) or mixed (3.7.2.3). Both data collection and analysis procedures derive from the mixed methods multiphase design, previously described in section 3.4.2.

3.7.1 Data Collection

Data collection involved quantitative and qualitative methods across research phases or the combination of both in a single research phase given a multiphase combination of timing. Whereas in concurrent phases there was a simultaneous use of quantitative and qualitative methods, in sequential phases only a qualitative method was used. In other words, research phases involved *mono* and *multi* forms of data collection, defined by Johnson and Christensen (2008) as forms of data collection involving one (either quantitative or qualitative) or two data types in a single research study. To clarify further, the procedural diagram in Figure 18 (section 3.4.2) is replicated in Figure 30 regarding the methods of data collection and procedures across the four research phases.

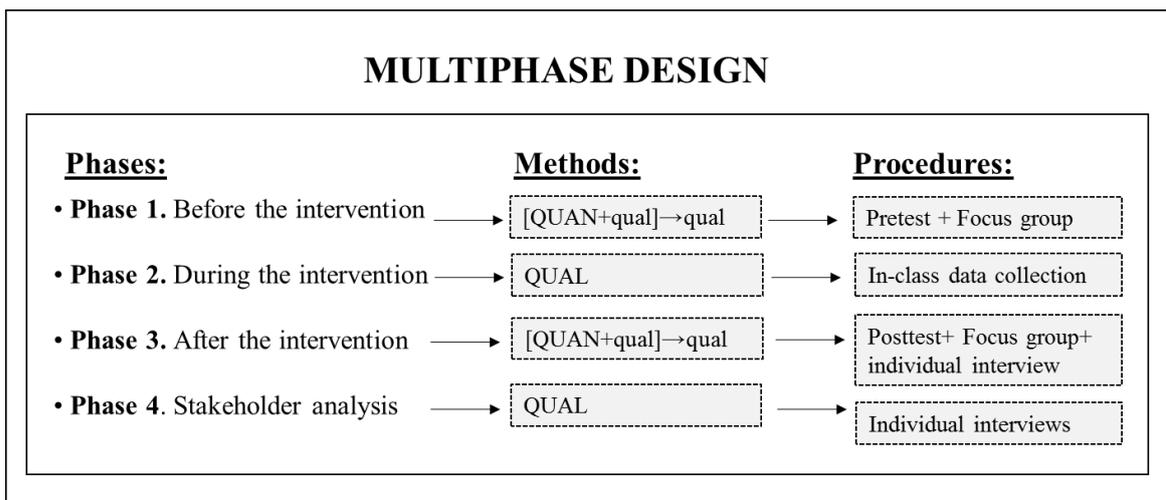


Figure 30 - Methods and procedures across research phases.

As Figure 30 shows, Phase 1 involved multiple approaches to data collection. On the one hand, there was simultaneous collection of quantitative and qualitative data types - [QUAN+qual] - embodied by the pretest questionnaire representing a form of *multidata* collection. This form of simultaneous data collection was, on the other hand, followed by the sequential collection of qualitative data (→qual) represented by the focus group interview, a form of *monodata* collection.

The phase which corresponds to the implementation of the intervention (Phase 2) involved only qualitative methods (QUAL) via audio and video-recorded classes, in-class assignments, field notes from the PFL teacher, or the researcher's logbook. These qualitative

data collection instruments aided the programmatic intentions of the intervention which occurred *in situ*, as previously explained.

The phase which followed the intervention encompassed, as in Phase 1, concurrent collection of quantitative and qualitative data via the posttest which was, in turn, followed by qualitative methods. Specifically, the focus group interview and the individual interview of the PFL teacher. As in Phase 1, the focus group interview was only conducted with case study 1 participants given their central role in this research.

Finally, Phase 4 involved only qualitative methods via individual semi-structured interviews with stakeholders at macro and mezzo contextual levels.

Next, a description of the main data collection instruments is provided.

3.7.1.1 Pre and posttest

Pre and posttest survey questionnaires are the key measurement pieces in this research, along with follow-up focus groups. These data collection instruments were administered by the researcher in the PFL classes of the two case participants. Administration of the pretest occurred before the intervention in early November 2011 for case 1, and in early February 2012, for case 2. The posttest was administered at the end of the intervention (at the end of Module 8) for both case participants.

The pre and posttest are self-report paper-and-pencil instruments, written in English, which aim to obtain information about the participants:

1. Background and demographic characteristics (pretest);
2. Intercultural experiences previous to the intervention (pretest);
3. Behavioral intentions and motivations regarding the sojourn (pretest);
4. Opinions about the elaboration (pretest) and impact of the intervention (posttest);
5. Attitudes and beliefs regarding ICC development (pre and posttest) and ICC related variables (pre and posttest).

Altogether, these five objectives tap the variables related to the operationalization of research objectives 1.1-1.5 outlined in section 3.3. Both questionnaires are organized into sections which include open-ended and closed questions targeting at several variable groupings (e.g., “0. Profile”, “I. Language biography”, “II. Life path”, and so forth). The use of open-ended and closed questions stems from the exploratory (open-ended questions),

descriptive and explanatory (closed questions) purposes described in section 3.3. Stated another way, whereas open-ended questions are at the heart of qualitative approaches used in this study, closed questions stem from its quantitative approaches. Hence the classification of the pre and posttest as *mixed questionnaires*, i.e., questionnaires which employ a mixture of open-ended and closed questions and/or items (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). The levels of measurement in closed questions were nominal, ordinal and numerical via the use of checklists, Likert-type scales and numerical rating scales.⁴⁹

In addition to the use of open-ended and closed questions, the pre and posttest included a scale with multiple items (or indicators) tapping the ICC construct. This construct is operationalized into four dimensions and assessed through a summated rating scale.⁵⁰ Table 22 lists the number of questions and scales by test instrument.

Table 22 - Number of questions by test instrument.

Instrument	Case study	Number of	
		Questions	Scales ^a
Pretest	Case 1	43	1
Pretest	Case 2	41	1
Posttest	Case 1	33	1
Posttest	Case 2 - Erasmus	33	1
Posttest	Case 2 - Immigrants	30	1

Note. ^aNot to be confused with measurement scales

The pretest was essentially the same for case 1 (Appendix D) and 2 participants (Appendix E). Differences in the number of questions between both case studies derive from additional questions in case 1 referring to CE language features (see Appendix D, section IV), and one question in case 2 (see Appendix E, question 6) eliciting immigrant motivations to come to Portugal. While administering the pretest, the researcher noticed that, contrary to exchange participants whose level of English was much higher than Portuguese, the immigrants' level of English was lower. As such, the researcher provided an oral translation while immigrant participants filled in the pretest questionnaire. For this reason, the posttest

⁴⁹ A numerical rating scale is “a rating scale that includes a set of numbers with anchored endpoints” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

⁵⁰ A summated rating scale is a measurement scale composed by multiple items which are designated to measure abstract constructs. Each of the items is rated by the respondent and summed in order to provide a score for each participant (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

was already designed as two questionnaires: (a) the posttest to CE and *Erasmus* students which is written in English (Appendix F), and (b) the immigrant posttest which is written in Portuguese (Appendix G). The difference in the number of questions in the exchange students' and immigrants' posttest is due to three additional questions⁵¹ in the exchange students' posttest reporting only to the exchange student subsamples.

Finally, it is important to examine validity and construct operationalization issues addressed during the questionnaire construction.

Validity and construct operationalization. To ensure validity and reliability of the pre and posttest, several principles of questionnaire construction were borne in mind. First, an extensive literature review of studies on student mobility, as well as of intercultural competence models and measurement tools described in Chapter 2 (section 2.4.3), was carried out. These efforts aided the construction of the following questionnaire sections:

- Section II (“Life path”) of the pretest questionnaire which was inspired by Murphy Lejeune’s (2002) definition of mobility capital;
- Section III (“Participation in exchange programs”) of the pretest questionnaire which was inspired by European studies on student mobility which targeted or included motivation as a variable, particularly: Krzaklewska (2008), as well as survey research from the *Erasmus Student Network* (ESN) – Alfranseder, Fellingner, and Taivere (2011); Krzaklewska and Krupnik (2007);
- Section V and VI (“Intercultural competence”) of the pre and posttest, respectively, whose composite scale is an adaptation of the YOGA (“Your Objectives, Guidelines, and Assessment”) form of AIC by Fantini (2000).

The ways in which each of these studies aided the construction of the pre and posttest will be explained in the data analysis chapters, along with the respective survey questions. The only exception is the scale representing the ICC construct whose operationalization will be described here.

The operationalization of the ICC construct was also accompanied by a careful review of existing literature on intercultural instruments which are understood in this

⁵¹ Question 6, 17 and 17.1 (see Appendix F).

research as "any measurement device that identifies, describes, assesses, categorizes or evaluates the cultural characteristics of individuals, groups, and organizations" (Paige, 2004, p. 86). To review these instruments, the extensive and selective lists of 90 and 44 intercultural instruments provided by Fantini (2006c, 2009) were examined. Seven criteria determined the selection of the YOGA AIC, as discussed in Almeida, Simões, and Costa (2012) and replicated in Table 23.

Table 23 - Criteria for data collection instrument selection.

Criteria	Description of the YOGA AIC applicability
1. Construct validity	Higher-order construct with linguistic and cultural indicators, according to 4 complementary dimensions + language proficiency
2. Type of assessment	Self-assessment feature fulfills the need to diagnose the target population's stage of ICC development previously to the intervention
3. Theory-grounded instrument	Theory-grounded instrument, providing a useful frame of reference for the empirical study and for the psychometric data analysis
4. Response measurement format	Measurement via a numerical rating scale within a range of 6 competency levels (0= No competence; 5= Very high competence)
5. Measurement reliability	Reliability of the YOGA AIC which was tested with audiences of different cultural backgrounds
6. Feasibility	Cost-free instrument and easily accessed under the time limits of this PhD study
7. Target population and development levels	Definition of 4 developmental levels, including the one which matches the target population needs - Sojourner (II)

Selection of the instrument was followed by its adaptation and operationalization into the composite scale representing the ICC construct in the pre and posttest. During this process, the four component variables or dimensions (cultural awareness, attitudes, knowledge and skills) in the original instrument were retained. The number of individual items (or indicators) which embody the prototypical features of the component variables were also maintained. Yet, they were turned into culture-specific indicators to match the intentions of the intervention and tackle social desirability bias yielded by the pilot test, as will be described next. The result is a total of 19 culture-specific items which capture the essential empirical meaning of the ICC construct and define its boundaries.

Measurement of items occurs via participant self-assessment ratings on a six-point numerical rating scale wherein 0 ("No competence") represents the lowest point, and 5 the highest ("Very high competence"). As in the original instrument, each point on the measurement scale embodies differing degrees of competence with which the four

dimensions can be assessed. Given that successful mobilization of the four ICC dimensions implies some proficiency in the host language, this variable was also targeted by the test instrument. However, contrary to the YOGA AIC, host language proficiency was not included as a component variable of the ICC self-assessment scale but represented as two separate questions in the pre and posttest.⁵² These questions elicit student ratings regarding their Portuguese proficiency at the beginning and end of their sojourn, based on a checklist wherein each category corresponds to a proficiency level on the CEFR (see Footnote 25).

It should be noted that although host language proficiency was represented as a separate question for keeping the ICC scale short and easy to respond to, this variable was treated as an integral part of ICC development.

The natural step which followed was to pilot test the pretest questionnaire and determine if it operated properly, particularly in relation to the reliability and validity of the ICC construct. This step is described next.

Pilot test reliability. The pretest questionnaire was tested with 30 incoming CE students at the UA in 2010-2011 and was administered by the researcher in May 2011 in one PFL class.

With regard to the pilot group demographics, 17 (56.7%) participants were female and 13 (43.3%) were male, ranging in age from 21 to 25; average age 22.23 (SD=1.22). Most participants attended the Bachelor's cycle (n=22; 73.3%) in contrast to a minority of Master's students (n=8; 26.7%). Participants came mostly from Eastern European countries, representing six nationalities: Austrian (n=1; 3.3%); Byelorussian (n=3; 10.0%); Lithuanian (n=2; 6.7%); Polish (n=17; 56.7%); Serbian (n=6; 20.0%) and Russian (n=1; 3.3%).

The reliability of the ICC scale was assessed by computing Cronbach's alpha (α), which is the most common reliability index for instruments using rating scales (DeVellis, 2012). To ascertain the scale's quality, this reliability coefficient was computed for each of the four component variables. The 'comfort ranges' followed were the ones suggested by DeVellis (2012) for *stable alphas*, viz.: "below .60 unacceptable; between .60 and .65, undesirable; between .65 and .70 minimally acceptable; between .70 and .80 respectable;

⁵² Questions 13 and 9.1 in the exchange students' pre and posttest, respectively; questions 13 and 8.1 in the immigrant pre and posttest, respectively.

between .80 and .90 very good; and much above .90, one should consider shortening the scale” (p. 109).

Table 24 shows the results yielded by each component variable in the pilot test.

Table 24 - Pilot test: Reliability of the ICC scale.

	Awareness (n=30)	Attitudes (n=30)	Skills (n=29)	Knowledge (n=30)
Cronbach's alpha				
α	.59	.73	.72	.68

Results yielded by the pilot test confirmed the reliability of the scale, although the .59 alpha for the awareness dimension did not exactly reach the .60 lower reliability bound suggested by DeVellis (2012). For this reason, a careful analysis of items was carried out in order to ascertain which items should be weeded out and which should be retained. Furthermore, a think aloud group session with four respondents was conducted upon administration of the pilot test. The aim was to determine how respondents interpreted the questionnaire, in general, and the ICC scale, in particular. The pilot test was then revised and items were turned culture-specific to match the culture-specific intentions of the intervention and to deal with social desirability bias (in view of the considerably high mean values yielded by ICC dimension). A fourfold strategic plan was thus put into place according to the four sources of bias found: (a) construct bias, (b) item bias, (c) meaningful discrimination, and (d) measurement format. Appropriate solutions were devised and implemented, as described in Almeida et al. (2012).

Finally, the improved version of the pilot test was validated by three scholars from three different areas of expertise, viz.: (a) European student mobility, (b) intercultural education, and (c) psychometric analysis. Each of the three scholars performed different roles. Scholar (a) provided input on questions related to student mobility, scholar (b) provided input on the ICC scale, and the input of scholar (c) targeted at measurement issues and principles of questionnaire construction. The next step was the administration of the pretest questionnaire with the target groups along with a reliability analysis of the improved ICC scale, examined next.

ICC scale reliability. Upon administration of the pre and posttest across the two case studies, the first step taken was a reliability analysis of the improved ICC scale. For these

purposes, Cronbach's alpha was once again calculated for each component variable and individual items. Table 25 displays the reliability coefficients of each component variable by test instrument.

Table 25 - Pretest: Internal consistency of the ICC scale.

Component variable	Cronbach's alpha (α)	
	Pretest	Posttest
Awareness	.85 (n=31)	.92 (n=28)
Attitudes	.32 (n=31)	.62 (n=30)
Skills	.72 (n=31)	.86 (n=28)
Knowledge	.62 (n=31)	.86 (n=31)

As Table 25 shows, with the exception of attitudes in the pretest all other component variables yielded coefficients above the .60 lower reliability bound suggested by DeVellis (2012). Given, however, the violation of reliability assumptions in the attitudinal dimension, a careful analysis was carried out across the two case studies. This analysis showed that the grounds for the .32 alpha in the pretest stemmed from case study 1 given a **.00** alpha for attitudes in the pretest. Interestingly, case study 2, who had been immersed for a longer period of time, yielded an alpha of **.66** in the pretest. As such, the following question arose: *Could attitudes toward Portuguese culture of case 1 participants be completely formed when the sojourning experience was starting?*

In view of the above results, it was hypothesized that attitudes toward the host culture could require a minimum immersion length. It was thus decided to take the risk and maintain the attitudinal dimension exactly the same. Re-administration of the ICC scale in the posttest confirmed the hypothesis in that not only did the attitudes dimension yield a **.62** alpha for the whole group (case 1 and 2), but case study 1 yielded an acceptable alpha of **.67** as well. It should be noted that although a .62 alpha is acceptable, it is not desirable according to DeVellis (2012). Further testing in larger samples would clarify this instability, but were out of the reach of this study. Moreover, the ICC scale is not the only measure used to ascertain the intercultural gains of participants while in Portugal. This is precisely where *mixed methods* and the concept of *multiple operationalism* enter, by drawing attention to the need to measure a construct in multiple ways (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Hence the use of qualitative methods, described next.

3.7.1.2 Interviews

Different types of interviews were conducted across research phases according to the research objectives outlined in section 3.3, to wit: (a) focus group interviews, and (b) individual interviews. Both types assumed a semi-structured form. The focus groups interviews were conducted with case 1 participants, and individual interviews with the following interviewees:

- The PFL teacher of the two case studies;
- Two stakeholders involved in internationalization processes at the UA and in the CE project;
- One stakeholder of the EUF-CE network;
- Two stakeholders involved in internationalization processes at Vytautas Magnus University (VMU), in Lithuania, and in the CE project.

The interview inquiry was organized into seven stages, as purported by Kvale and Brinkmann (2009). These steps are: (1) thematizing, (2) designing, (3) interviewing, (4) transcribing, (5) analyzing, (6) verifying, and (7) reporting. It is the subset of the first four steps which are described in this section. The three remaining steps correspond to data analysis processes and will be described in section 3.7.2.

The first stage, *thematizing*, corresponds to the formulation of the themes and objectives of interviews according to exploratory, descriptive and more explanatory purposes. The *designing* of interviews in semi-structured ways and logistics followed (Stage 2). The logistics of interviews were determined according to: time, venue, number of interviewees, support materials (power points), informed consent forms (see Appendix H), as well as to the availability of (nonparticipant) observers for assisting the pre and posttest follow-up focus groups. Only then were the *interviews conducted* by the researcher (Stage 3). The stage which followed (Stage 4) was the verbatim transcription of interviews according to transcript symbols and guidelines (see Appendix I).

Table 26 summarizes the first four stages in developing the eight interviews conducted throughout this research. Specifically, the two focus groups with case 1 participants (column 1), the interview with the PFL teacher (column 2) and the five stakeholder interviews (column 3).

Table 26 - Interview data collection stages after Kvale and Brinkmann (2009).

	Focus groups	PFL interview	Stakeholder interviews
Stage			
1. Thematising	Formulation of themes according to exploratory and explanatory purposes	Formulation of themes according to exploratory and explanatory purposes	Formulation of themes according to descriptive and exploratory purposes
2. Designing	Planning the interview with 8 case 1 participants in two group sessions (pretest) and with a group of 6 participants which lasted about: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pretest, group A - 1hr • Pretest, group B - 50min • Posttest - 1hr 30 min 	Planning the interview in an individual session which lasted about 35 minutes	Planning the interview in individual sessions which lasted about: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stakeholder 1 - 1hr 25 min • Stakeholder 2 - 2hr • Stakeholder 3 - 1hr • Stakeholder 5 - 30 min • Stakeholder 6 - 45 min
3. Interviewing	Use of two semi-structured interview guides, field notes from a non-participant observer	Use of a semi-structured interview guide	Use of six semi-structured interview guides
4. Transcribing	All interviews were digitally audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim according to prior transcription guidelines		

A description of objectives and administration details of interviews is provided next.

Focus groups. Two focus groups interviews were conducted by the researcher in English with case 1 participants before and after the intervention. Both focus group interviews followed a pre-analysis of the pre and posttest questionnaires and both have exploratory and explanatory purposes, viz.: to expand (exploratory) and triangulate (explanatory) quantitative data drawn from the pre and posttest questionnaires in order to address research objectives 1.1 - 1.5 in section 3.3.

The selection of interviewees was based on the number of volunteers. Both focus groups were assisted by nonparticipant observers to aid the understanding of group dynamics. For these purposes, the two observers filled in a field note form (see Appendix J) and debriefed the focus groups sessions with the interviewer.

The pretest follow-up focus group was conducted with eight students in two different sessions in December 2011. Interviewees were divided into subgroups according to whether they reported feelings of cultural stress in questions 15 and 15.1 in the pretest (see Appendix D). Those students who did not report feelings of cultural stress formed Group A, and those who expressed feelings of cultural stress formed Group B. The first subgroup was composed of one male and three female students. Two students came from Poland, and the

other two from Lithuania. Group B was composed of three female students from Finland and Latvia. Each session had an approximate duration of one hour.

The follow-up posttest focus group was conducted with six CE students in one session which lasted about 1hr 30 minutes, in June 2012. The group was formed of two female and four male Polish students. Contrary to the pretest focus group, this group was not subdivided since there was no differentiating variable among participants.

Table 27 summarizes the specific objectives of the two focus groups. For a detailed analysis, the reader is referred to Appendices K and L (pre and posttest focus groups).

Table 27 - Objectives of the focus groups interviews.

Pretest follow-up focus group	Posttest follow-up focus group
1. To build a more comprehensive profile of case 1 participants, by expanding data from the pretest	1. To ascertain with greater reliability the impact of the intervention, by deepening the understanding of variables raised by the posttest, viz. 1.1. Language of instruction of the intervention 1.2. language motivation 1.3. ICC self-assessment 1.4. Timing of the intervention
2. To triangulate results of the pretest, viz.: Motivations to participate in an exchange program	2. To expand interviewees' perceptions about the role of non-formal experiences, identified in the posttest, in enhancing their intercultural gains
3. To expand some content areas targeted by the pretest, viz.: • Thematic areas of interest for the intervention plan • Cultural stress and adaptation • Cultural relativism	3. To ascertain interviewees' perceptions about the necessary steps into mobility: ^a 3.1. Urge to travel 3.2. Language jump 3.3. Self-sufficiency 3.4. No constraining responsibilities 3.5. Shared lifestyle

Note. ^aBased on the work of Murphy-Lejeune (2002), with exception of step 3.5

To accomplish the objectives in Table 27, the interviewer facilitated and moderated discussions around the focus groups' agreement or disagreement regarding the issues embodied in the objectives. It was sought this way to generate data through interaction among group participants, a key feature of focus group interviews (Finch & Lewis, 2003). On that account, discussions were organized into tasks containing different types of exercises (see Appendices K and L) which facilitated the exchange of viewpoints among interviewees. Additionally, internal validation strategies were actively sought upon by probing for fuller or clearer responses both in regard to the group as a whole and to individuals.

PFL teacher interview. The interview with the PFL teacher was conducted in Portuguese in October 2012, research Phase 3, and lasted about 30 minutes. Similar to the focus groups, this interview had exploratory and explanatory purposes in order to expand and triangulate quantitative data drawn from the students' posttest, by gathering new reflections about: (1) the variables which influenced the ICC development of case 1 participants, (2) the impact of the intervention upon the intercultural gains of both case study participants, and (3) the pedagogical value of the intervention in view of results drawn from the two case studies. These purposes address research objectives 1.3 - 1.5.

To achieve breadth and depth, the interview guide (see Appendix M) was only designed after a pre-analysis of the pre and posttest questionnaires and follow-up focus groups. The aim was to compare the variables which influenced the impact of the intervention upon participant intercultural gains according to the perceptions of the students and to those of the PFL teacher (the PFL teacher was a nonparticipant observer during the intervention). In addition to this cross-comparison, it was sought to understand the interviewee's viewpoints about the pedagogical value of the intervention and its potential incorporation in the PFL classes.

Stakeholder interviews. Five interviews were conducted with stakeholders between June and December 2013 to address research objectives 1.6 and 1.7 All five interviews have exploratory and descriptive purposes which aim to: (1) better understand the influence of the macro and mezzo contexts on the ICC development of participants, (2) explore and evaluate ways to incorporate intentional intercultural pedagogies as part of the design and delivery of European credit student exchange and CE in particular, and (3) identify the intercultural benchmarks and constraints of CE. To fulfil these objectives, five interviewees were chosen. Two of them shed insight into the macro (the UA) and mezzo (the CE program) contexts, and the other three interviewees into the mezzo context only.

The interviews conducted at the macro level encompassed a stakeholder involved in the internationalization processes at the UA and in the CE program as a member of a subject committee (Stakeholder 1), and one stakeholder of the International Office of the UA (Stakeholder 2). At the mezzo level, one finds two type of interviewees: the President of the EUF-CE (Stakeholder 3), and two stakeholders (Stakeholder 4 and 5) from a partner institution of the EUF-CE network other than the UA - Vytautas Magnus University (VMU),

in Lithuania. One of these stakeholders (Stakeholder 4) was member of a CE subject committee, and the other interviewee (Stakeholder 5) was a member of the International Office of this university. Inclusion of interviewees from another EUF-CE partner institution aimed to offer an improved understanding of CE from a different institutional perspective as the first three stakeholders were all from the UA.

Table 28 summarizes the objectives of the five stakeholder interviews.

Table 28 - Objectives of stakeholder interviews.

Stakeholder	Context level	Objectives
Stakeholder 1 (UA)	Macro & mezzo	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To understand what internationalization of the UA means for its stakeholders and collect contextual information 2. To chart perceptions about the CE project, its linguistic and intercultural goals, its functioning at the UA, and the PhD intervention
Stakeholder 2 (UA)	Macro & mezzo	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To understand what internationalization of the UA means for its stakeholders and collect contextual information 2. To collect contextual information about student mobility at the UA and chart perceptions about the CE project, its linguistic and intercultural goals, its functioning at the UA, and the PhD intervention
Stakeholder 3: (EUF-CE)	Mezzo	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To ascertain and clarify perceptions about the role of CE among other European credit mobility programs 2. To ascertain perceptions about the CE project mission, linguistic and intercultural goals, and the feasibility of these goals in view of the intervention's results
Stakeholder 4: (VMU)	Mezzo	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To understand what internationalization of the VMU means for its stakeholders and collect contextual information 2. To chart perceptions about the CE project, its linguistic and intercultural goals, its functioning at the VMU, and the PhD intervention
Stakeholder 5 (VMU)	Mezzo	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To understand what internationalization of the VMU means for its stakeholders and collect contextual information 2. To collect contextual information about student mobility at the VMU and chart perceptions about the CE project, its linguistic and intercultural goals, its functioning at the VMU, and the PhD intervention

As Table 28 demonstrates, the five interviews embody similar objectives. The aim is to facilitate a comparison of stakeholder viewpoints in the analysis of these data in Chapter 6. For an overview of the interview guides the reader is referred to Appendices N (Stakeholder 1), O (Stakeholder 2), P (Stakeholder 3), Q (stakeholder 4) and R (Stakeholder 5).

Having provided a description of data collection instruments and its objectives, the next section examines the analytical procedures used.

3.7.2 Data Analysis

Data analysis procedures are built upon the methods and instruments of data collection previously described; hence, the application of *mono* and *multi* analytical procedures. *Monoanalysis* refers to the analysis of quantitative or qualitative data via one analytical procedure. In the case of this research, this is when analytical procedures of statistical (section 3.7.2.1) and thematic analyses (section 3.7.2.2) are used alone. *Multianalysis* (or *mixed analysis*; section 3.7.2.3) refers to the use of these quantitative and qualitative analytical procedures in tandem (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

The results yielded by these analyses will be reported in the following chapters according to the type of research objectives sought. Chapter 4, which will report the within-case results, makes use of *mixed analysis* procedures: statistical and thematic analysis employed sequentially. Chapter 5 will address cross-case results by relying on the sequential and concurrent application of mixed procedures. Chapter 6 will address the macro and mezzo contexts embedding the two case studies by relying on the *monoanalysis* of qualitative data through thematic procedures. Each type of analysis used and underlying procedures is described next.

3.7.2.1 Quantitative analysis

Quantitative analysis refers to the application of descriptive and inferential statistical procedures to the variables of interest to this study. For these purposes, quantitative strands in mixed questionnaires (the pre and posttest), drawn from closed questions, were analyzed. The statistical software used was the IBM SPSS (V.22).

Descriptive procedures were employed first by computing frequency distributions (absolute and relative) for nominal and ordinal variables, and central tendency and dispersion measures for both numerical and ordinal variables (measured through Likert-type scales). The aim was to summarize the data by analyzing the observations of variables one at a time (Field, 2009).

To explore the relationship between two variables (either numerical or dichotomous), Spearman correlation coefficients (r_s) were calculated, as suggested by Field (2009). It should be noted that dichotomous variables were treated as ranking data, since these kind of variables take only one of two possible values - presence (1= Observed) or absence (0=Non- observed) of a given attribute. Specific criteria for selecting Spearman's correlation

will be described in Chapters 4 and 5. For now, it is sufficient to say that this nonparametric correlation, as well as other nonparametric procedures, do not require normal distribution to hold. Correlation coefficients can range from 0 to 1 (either positively or negatively), with 0 standing for no correlation at all, i.e., no relation between variables. The higher the number, the stronger the relationship. The correlation is considered perfect at +1 or -1. To assess the strength of Spearman's correlation coefficients, Cohen's effect ranges (1988, 1992) were used, as recommended by Field (2009). Accordingly, a .10 correlation coefficient constitutes a small effect, a .30 a medium effect and a .50 a large effect (p. 59).

To go further into the quantitative data set and make general inferences about the observations of the 31 participants in both case studies, inferential procedures were computed. Once again, nonparametric tests were employed for the reasons explained above. These were the Wilcoxon signed-rank test and the Kruskal-Wallis test. Both tests work on the principle of ranking data but whereas the former tests differences between two related conditions, the latter tests differences between three or more independent groups (Field, 2009; Howell, 2013). Given these assumptions, the Wilcoxon-signed-rank test was used to compare the scores yielded by the four component variables of the ICC construct from the pre to the posttest. This test statistic was employed in both the within and cross-case analyses, Chapters 4 and 5, respectively.

The Kruskal-Wallis test was only used in the cross-case analysis as a *mixed analysis procedure* combining quantitative and qualitative analytical procedures (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). For this reason, the application of this test statistic will be described in section 3.7.2.3.

Statistical significant results were reported on the basis of a probability level (p) equal or smaller than .050 ($<.050$). Stated another way, a 5% probability was assumed for results which may have occurred by chance given a confidence interval of 95%.

3.7.2.2 Qualitative analysis

Qualitative analysis refers to the application of thematic analytical procedures to: (a) the open-ended questions in the pre and posttest, (b) the verbatim text of the posttest follow-up focus group, and (c) the the verbatim text of the six individual interviews - the interview of the PFL teacher and the five stakeholder interviews. Thematic analysis is understood in this study as a process of systematic pattern recognition within data wherein themes which capture the richness of the phenomenon of interest, become the categories for

analysis (Boyatzis, 1998; Fereday & Muir-Chochrane, 2006). A theme emerges thus as the basic coding unit which is here envisaged as a “pattern found in the information that at minimum describes and organizes possible observations and at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon” (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 4).

Selection of this qualitative analysis method is based upon five reasons, to wit: (1) the exploratory side of the research, (2) the voluminous subset of qualitative data collected which could be substantially reduced by employing thematic analysis, (3) the flexibility of performing within-case and cross-case comparisons, (4) the ease of articulation with quantitative data strands drawn from the pre and posttests, and (5) the interpretation of themes based on patterns instead of nuances of language use *per se*. This last feature was especially relevant as all but one interview were conducted in a foreign language (English).

The generation of themes followed both inductive and deductive approaches. Inductive themes were generated directly from qualitative raw information and deductive themes were generated from theory, from prior quantitative data in this study or cross-sectional comparisons across qualitative data sources. Constant comparison across data sources was particularly valuable in refining data-driven themes in open-ended questions, as will be shown in Chapter 5.

The analytical process was continuous and iterative, beginning with (re)familiarization with raw data, data management, making sense of data at latent and manifest levels and, finally, generating and assigning themes (i.e., the coding process). The data management process was both manual and electronic given the use of an online computer-assisted data analysis software - WebQDA (www.webqda.com). This software was useful for long-term storage of data and for text search or retrieval.

In generating themes, the following aspects were specified: the label and definition of each theme and subtheme, the underlying descriptors which flag when a theme or subtheme occurs, illustrative excerpts in both range and diversity, qualifications and exclusions to the identification of a given theme or subtheme (Boyatzis, 1998). The coding process was only considered complete when all key data drawn from interviews and open-ended responses were categorized, cross-checked and saturation was reached.

Reliability and consistency of observation and judgment was attained by seeking convergence of participant perceptions and interrater reliability. The convergence of perception stems from the mixed nature of this research via a continuous triangulation of

data types and sources (Creswell & Miller, 2000) which led to more complete and refined themes. Interrater reliability was sought in labeling data-driven themes which arose doubts, namely by cross-checking the reliability of the labels, definitions and illustrative examples of these themes with one member of the supervision team and two PhD students.

3.7.2.3 Mixed analysis

Mixed methods analysis refers to the “use of quantitative and qualitative analytical procedures in a single research study” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 553). The type of *mixed methods analysis* employed in this study encompassed the use of two data types (*multidata*) and multiple analytical procedures (*multianalysis*) - *multidata-multianalysis* or simply *multitype mixed analysis* (ibid.). The application of multiple analytical procedures (statistical and thematic, in this study) can occur either sequentially or concurrently.

The sequential application of multiple analytical procedures is found in Chapter 4 wherein quantitative findings, yielded by the pre and posttest, inform qualitative findings.

In Chapter 5, the combination of multiple analytical procedures occurs concurrently in order to transform qualitative data into quantitative data; i.e., to quantitize (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). For these purposes, two strategies were employed. The first strategy consisted of representing numerically qualitative themes generated from open-ended questions in the pre and posttest, and analyze these statistically through a frequency count of recurrence. The aim was to expand qualitative with quantitative data by understanding how often categories or themes occurred in the qualitative data set. It should be noted that data drawn from the posttest focus group and the interview of the PFL teacher were not quantitized as the interview protocols were semi-structured. This meant that there was a set of prior themes defined by the researcher which made it illogical to use frequency counts as part of the evidential base of this qualitative data subset.

The second strategy used to quantitize data consisted of combining analytical procedures to integrate data types (quantitative and qualitative) as if they were one single data set. This type of analysis is employed in section 5.3.4 wherein quantitative and qualitative results are associated through application of the Kruskal-Wallis test. To clarify further, open-ended questions from the pre and posttest were categorized into (one-meaning) themes which were later statistically analyzed at descriptive and inferential levels. Descriptive statistics, involved frequency counts of themes. Inferential statistics, in turn, involved cross-classifying themes generated from open-ended questions with the

quantitative ratings attributed by participants in equivalent closed questions. This cross-classification allowed to compute the test statistic so as to infer the reliability of generated themes and to draw meta-inferences from the two data strands into a coherent whole.

The concurrent combination of analytical procedures (Strategy 2) implied a higher level of statistical sophistication than the sequential (Strategy 1) as “latent effect sizes” were associated to qualitative themes (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003). The aim was not simply to expand the breath and range of inquiry but to triangulate qualitative and quantitative data by seeking convergence of results between the two methods. The potential corroboration of results would then enhance the validity of findings and bring about the concept of multiple validities through the combination of quantitative and qualitative significance indices (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004).

To summarize information and guide the reader in the following chapters, Table 29 summarizes the type of analysis and procedures used across the data analysis chapters, along with underlying research objectives.

Table 29 - Type of analysis and procedures by research objectives and chapters.

Research objective	Chapter	Type of analysis	Procedures
1.1. To explore how credit-seeking exchange students, CE in particular, and other sojourners, can be taught or mentored regarding the development of ICCs;	4	Mixed	Statistical and Thematic
1.2. To describe and understand how ICC development unfolds in case study 1 participants	4	Mixed	Statistical and Thematic
1.3. To determine which variables influence the ICC development of case 1 and 2 participants	4&5	Mixed	Statistical and Thematic
1.4. To describe and understand the impact of the intervention upon the ICC development of case 1 participants and compare to case 2 participants	4&5	Mixed	Statistical and Thematic
1.5. To advance knowledge on purposeful intercultural pedagogy in European credit student exchange and other sojourner populations, drawing on quantitative and qualitative results from the two case studies	5	Mixed	Statistical and Thematic
1.6. To identify the intercultural constraints and benchmarks of the CE program	6	Monoanalysis	Thematic
1.7. To explore and evaluate ways to incorporate ICCs in program design and delivery of European credit-bearing exchange programs and CE in particular	6	Monoanalysis	Thematic

3.8 Summary

This chapter presented the methodological outline of the research in its conceptual and operational realms. By elaborating upon mixed methods research, a description of the adopted research design, underlying paradigms, mixing rationale, overarching research goal and operational research objectives, was offered. This description was accompanied by a specification of the case-component which is part of the larger multi-phase design. The case study component was described according to its key elements: (a) the two case studies, (b) the contexts they are embedded in, and (c) the unit of analysis.

Following the account of the unit of analysis, the intervention employed in the two case studies was depicted with regard to its pedagogical and assessment frameworks.

Finally, data collection and analysis procedures were presented across the four research phases of the study in light of the methodological approaches previously outlined. By outlining the data collection and analysis procedures, it was sought to guide the reader in the presentation and discussion of results offered in the forthcoming chapters.

3.9 Limitations

As with all research, there are limitations to the conclusions that can be drawn from this study. In this case, the conclusions should be read considering case study participants and the contexts that frame their ICC development. Despite limitations in the number of participants, this research seeks to offer insights into the need for purposeful intercultural pedagogy among sojourner populations, credit-seeking exchange students in particular.

With regard to instrumentation, the limitations in the internal consistency of the attitudinal component of the ICC scale should be also taken into account and further testing in larger samples is required. Yet, as explained earlier, the ICC self-assessment scale was never envisaged as the sole measure concerning participant intercultural gains. It is precisely here where the strengths of mixed research and multiple operationalism are evident. After all, as purported by Johnson and Christensen (2008), seldom does a single measure give an entirely accurate representation of a construct, exactly because seldom, if ever, does a given operationalization completely represent the construct under scrutiny.

The multiphase mixed methods design revealed to be extremely useful in addressing the programmatic research goal and its underlying objectives from different methods and standpoints. In addition, its flexibility partnered well with the evaluation background of the

intervention, and the case study component. In effect, the combination of mixed methods and case study research allowed an extended understanding of the research problem without disregarding the need to understand this problem *in situ*. The challenges found do not report to this combination but to the time, resources and effort to implement the several research phases, especially because multiphase designs are usually done by large teams of researchers performing different tasks (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This justifies the multiple roles performed by the researcher which included both the role of teacher and evaluator in the intervention as well as that of interviewer. There was, however, an explicit attempt to counterbalance this prominent role in both data collection and analysis. In data collection, through the inclusion of nonparticipant observers in the intervention and in the follow-up focus groups (including, the use of field notes) as well through multiple ways to collect data. In data analysis, through the employment of internal validation strategies that addressed the nuances of quantitative and qualitative methods.

The efforts developed were grounded in a strong conviction that a multiphase design would allow this researcher to address the research objectives in more valid, comprehensive and effective ways. But that will be up to the reader to judge in the forthcoming chapters.

Chapter 4 Within-case Results: Data Analysis and Discussion

«All meanings we know,
depend on the key of interpretation»

(Eliot, [1878] 1966, p. 40).

This chapter provides a comprehensive overview of case study 1 research results, by examining patterns drawn from its quantitative and qualitative strands. Quantitative data will be presented first followed by qualitative strands which contextualize the numbers in the words of participants. The order of the quantitative and qualitative data is thus informed by the need to triangulate, complement and expand the quantitative data source with qualitative strands.

4.1 Data Presentation

Quantitative research findings are based on data collected from pre and posttest questionnaires, analyzed in this chapter within the framework of closed questions posed in these instruments. Qualitative findings, in turn, stem from the open-ended questions of these very instruments, as well as data from the posttest follow-up focus group interview and the individual interview with the Portuguese as a Foreign Language (PFL) teacher. The two data sets are analyzed in this chapter to respond to the following research subquestions:

- 1.1 How can credit-seeking exchange students, *Campus Europae* in particular, be taught or mentored regarding the development of ICCs?
- 1.2 How does ICC development unfold for case 1 participants?
- 1.3 Which variables influence the ICC development of case 1 participants?
- 1.4 What is the impact of the intervention upon the ICC development of case 1 participants?

Presentation of the data follows the chronological sequence of the study abroad experience, viz.: (a) pre-departure variables and arrival (section 4.2), (b) adaptation to Portuguese culture (section 4.3) and, finally, (c) outcomes of the experience in terms of personal development and intercultural learning (section 4.4). Procedures involved include descriptive and inferential statistics for quantitative data and thematic analysis for qualitative

data, as previously explained in Chapter 3. Specific statistical models used are restated within the text of each chronological instance of the study abroad experience which are, in turn, subdivided into overarching themes (e.g., for pre-departure variables and arrival - “Language Biography”, “Motivations”, and so forth). The specification of overarching themes aids integration of both quantitative and qualitative analyses while helping to frame the findings according to the relationship between variables and corresponding groupings.

Integration of data sources as part of data analysis and discussion reflects the gist of mixed research by reinforcing the interdependence of quantitative and qualitative strands in reaching the overarching research goal (Bazeley, 2010). For these purposes, both data strands are combined within each general theme (i.e., variable groupings) to provide a more comprehensive picture of participant ICC development. In those cases wherein one type of data reaches its full explanatory power, the second data source is not used.

4.2 Pre-departure Variables and Arrival

The study abroad experience starts well before arriving in the host country, and may either be an expected or an entirely new step in one’s individual trajectory. The period preceding the actual move, and the accumulated capital exchange students bring with them, is crucial for understanding how the exchange experience and intercultural development unfolds. For this reason, this section depicts pre-departure variables (including, background sociocultural variables) which add important information to the demographic profile offered in Chapter 3. Pre-departure variables such as language biography (section 4.2.1), motivations for participation in exchange programs (section 4.2.2), mobility capital (section 4.2.3), and steps into mobility (section 4.2.4) can permeate the exchange experience and influence its intercultural outcomes. The aim of this section is thus to account for these pre-departure variables in the exchange experience and ICC development of case 1 participants. To do so, sections of the pretest questionnaire (sections I, II and III) which correspond to the first three variable groupings described above (4.2.1 - 4.2.3) will be analyzed, along with analytic themes in the posttest follow-up focus group which correspond to the fourth variable grouping (4.2.4).

4.2.1 Language Biography

Case study 1 is essentially a plurilingual group as participants mastered three foreign languages on average (SD=0.88) and learned a minimum of two and a maximum of five languages before the exchange program began. All students studied English as a foreign language before the exchange, for six years or more. Their English proficiency levels ranged between intermediate and advanced. The group’s language biography is particularly rich in the number of foreign languages learned, as illustrated by Figure 31.

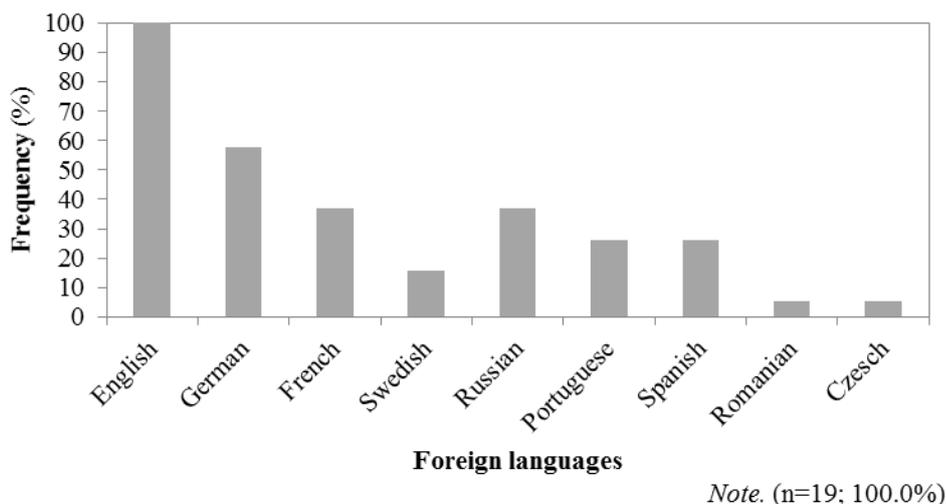


Figure 31 - Case 1: Foreign languages learned before the exchange.

Portuguese figures among the nine foreign languages learned by students before the exchange period, but only five (26.3%) students had studied it. With regard to the online A1 course offered through the CE platform *Hook Up!*, only three (15.8%) students enrolled. All students enrolled, nonetheless, in the intensive course offered before the start of the academic year. This course was targeted at A2 level and built upon the previous proficiency level (A1) learned online. However, given the small number of students who took the online course beforehand, the intensive course became the first approach to the beginners’ level A1. This gap had a snowball effect since the first semester of Portuguese as a foreign language (PFL) targeted both A1 and A2 levels. This may account for discrepancies in student responses to question 13 of the pretest whereby 31.6% (n=6) of students deemed their level of PFL proficiency as A1, and 88.4% (n=13) as A2. This rapid movement across proficiency levels might have negatively influenced student motivation to learn Portuguese, as will be discussed later in section 4.4.2. This issue may be especially relevant to an examination of motivational aspects of study abroad, discussed next.

4.2.2 Motivations

Study abroad is affected by personal and social variables, including varying motivations with which students embark on this experience.

In European research on student mobility, motivation is not always included as an explanatory variable of the student exchange experience and when used it is often not expected to add essential information to the research (Krzaklewska, 2008). Yet, examining the role of motivation prior to student departure can help understanding factors affecting decisions for studying abroad as well as the expectations and evaluation of the experience itself. Ultimately, motivation also provides insights about the impact of the intervention on participants, as will be seen later in this chapter.

To determine student motivations for participating in an exchange program, question 7 of the pretest elicited the top four motivations out of 13 possible categories. These categories were assembled by reviewing those European studies on student mobility that included motivation as a variable (see Chapter 3, section 3.7.1.1) and by analyzing data from the pilot test questionnaire. The 13 categories assembled cover four main areas of motivation, as posited by Krzaklewska (2008), to wit:

1. *Academic*: “Field-specific knowledge”, “academic quality of host institution”, “international career prospects”, “improving marks easily”;
2. *Linguistic*: “Learning a foreign language”;
3. *Cultural*: “Knowing another culture”, “broadening European identity”;
4. *Personal*: “Personal development”, “having new experiences”, “having fun”, “doing tourism”, “meeting new people”.

All 13 categories are analyzed and discussed in this dissertation according to frequency of observations. Percentage differences reflect the number of positive (“yes”) responses in each category, as shown in Figure 32.

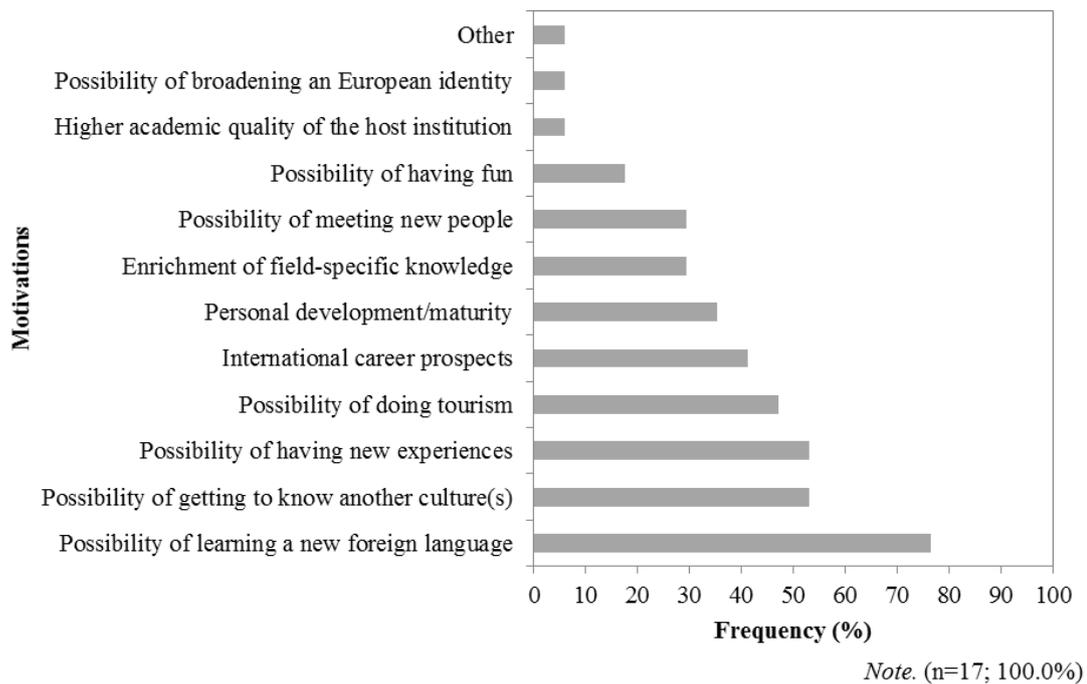


Figure 32 - Case 1: Motivations to participate in an exchange program.

As Figure 32 illustrates, the “possibility of learning a foreign language” ranks as the top reason (n=13; 76.5%), followed by the “possibility of knowing another culture” and “having new experiences”, both showing the same percentage (n=9; 52.9%). The “possibility of doing tourism” falls into third place (n=8; 47.1%), followed by the role exchange programs can play in furthering “international career prospects” (n=7; 41.2%).

Overall, results indicate that distinct motivations can trigger students’ decision to apply to exchange programs. The motivation with greater weight for the analyzed cohort of students is “language learning”, a result which confirms previous research on study abroad which targets at student motivation or includes motivation as a variable (see Alfranseder et al., 2011; Krzaklewska & Krupnik, 2007; Murphy-Lejeune, 2002; Teichler & Maiworn, 1997).⁵³ Language motivation, however, is not necessarily accompanied by “cultural motivation” as will be demonstrated by section 4.4.2 which examines participant linguistic and cultural motivations regarding the PFL classes and the intercultural intervention.

The predominance of the categories outlined above underscore both personal and academic/professional motivations for studying abroad. A possible explanation for this

⁵³ In these studies, the language dimension is deemed of highest importance according to the following categories: “Learning a foreign language”, “Speaking foreignness”, “To practice a foreign language”. In the ESN 2011 report (Alfranseder et al., 2011) “improving foreign skills” is also of importance, but it comes in fifth place.

finding is the young age range of the cohort (20-25 years old). As posited by youth developmental theories, today's transition into adulthood is characterized by experimentation in different spheres of life (Arnett, 2004). This transition is clearly embodied by this young group as their longing for new experiences and tourism is accompanied by competition for a space in a competitive labor market where linguistic and cultural skills are highly valued. Hence the high percentage share of categories such as “having new experiences” (52.9%) and “international career prospects” (41.2%).

The motivations that led students to participate in *Campus Europae* (CE) are presented in Table 30, based on data drawn from question 8 of the pretest.

Table 30 - Case 1: Top four motivations to participate in CE.

Motivations to participate in CE	n/N	%
Linguistic preparation offered by CE	16/17	94.1
Possibility to study abroad in BA and MA cycles	13/17	76.5
(Inter)cultural preparation by CE	10/17	58.8
Student recommendation	9/17	52.9

Note. (N=17; 100.0%)

Results in Table 30 show that all but one student selected the linguistic preparation offered by CE as the key reason for choosing this exchange program. This pattern is consistent with the importance CE has for language learning and the support it offers to students through a three-step language approach, described in Chapter 3 (section 3.5.2.2). Interestingly, intercultural preparation offered by CE does not seem to have the same importance even if participants ranked “intercultural preparation” as the top third reason (note that while linguistic preparation scored 94.1%, intercultural preparation scored only 58.8% - Table 30).

The second most common reason for participating in CE is the opportunity to have the exchange experience in both study cycles (“Bachelor’s” & “Master’s”). Less commonly chosen is the academic certification offered by CE since the possibility of obtaining a CE certificate or diploma falls into sixth place (see Appendix S, Table S.1 for a detailed analysis). Finally, for 52.9% of respondents, participation in CE was based on recommendations from other students. The role of teacher recommendations (n=3; 17.6%) appears to be more subsidiary, both by comparing it to the role of student recommendations and to the results of the pilot group who did not even select this category as a reason.

When examining participant reasons for choosing Portugal, different patterns emerge. These patterns are summarized in Table 31, based on data drawn from question 9 of the pretest. For a more detailed analysis the reader is referred to Appendix S, Table S.2.

Table 31 - Case 1: Top four motivations to choose Portugal.

Motivations to study in Portugal	n/ N	%
Cultural reasons	11/17	64.7
Good weather	10/17	58.8
Linguistic reasons	10/17	58.8
Academic quality of the University of Aveiro	7/17	41.2
Economic reasons (lower cost of living)	5/17	29.4

Note. (N=17; 100.0%)

Before examining the reasons presiding over students' destination choices, it is essential to remember that mobility levels differ dramatically between individual European countries (Teichler, Ferencz, & Wätcher, 2011). Although Portugal is part of "Europe 33 region,"⁵⁴ it is seldom selected as object of study in European Commission's in-depth studies on individual countries. Little is known about exchange student motivations for choosing Portugal as a destination nor about the specifics of inbound and outbound student mobility in Portugal. For this reason, this analysis aims also to shed light on how Portugal is perceived by those who choose to study in this country.

According to the 17 students who answered question 9, Portuguese culture is the most attractive factor for spending their year abroad in Portugal. The second top reason was good weather, a category which was only included because in the pilot test 16.7% (n=5) of respondents specified "good weather" in the open category "Other". On par with "good weather", "linguistic reasons" were also selected as the second top reason for studying in Portugal. The academic quality of the University of Aveiro (UA) was also emphasized by seven students who selected this option. Of these seven students, five are from "Electronics and Telecommunications". All case 1 participants who attended this study program selected this category, a perception which coincides with UA's academic profile given that "Electronics and Telecommunications" is one of its pioneering areas (see Chapter 3, section 3.5.2.1). Finally, the low costs of living in Portugal were also a factor of attraction.

⁵⁴ The term "Europe 33 region" is based on the Eurodata II study (Teichler, Ferencz, & Wätcher, 2011) and refers to participant countries in the LLP Erasmus (sub)program (see Footnote 20).

In the end, this section demonstrates that student motivations are interrelated and can be interwoven with other social and personal strands as part of a complex individual narrative that starts well before the stay abroad (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002). It is this narrative and the accumulated capital students bring with them that is examined next.

4.2.3 Mobility Capital

As mentioned earlier, it may be that pre-departure variables like background sociocultural characteristics have a bearing on participant intercultural development as well as on the significance they ascribe to the study abroad experience. Exchange students, as social agents, have their own personal history and accumulated knowledge, i.e., a particular capital, termed “mobility capital” in a work by Murphy-Lejeune (2002). Her definition builds on Bordieu’s (1980) notion of cultural capital and applies it to the exchange student population as “a subcomponent of human capital, enabling individuals to enhance their skills because of the richness of the international experience gained by living abroad” (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 51). This capital is composed of four main constituent pre-departure elements: “family and personal history, previous experience of mobility including language competence, the first experience of adaptation which serves as an initiation, and finally the personality features of the potential wanderer” (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002, p. 52).

The seven variables in this analysis were created on the basis of Murphy-Lejeune’s four constituent elements, summarized in Table 32. The fourth element (“Personality features”) is not targeted here because it is outside the scope of this research and it requires background knowledge in cross-cultural psychology and personality tests.

Table 32 - Definition of mobility capital.

Elements	Variables	Q	Instrument
I Family and personal history	Multicultural family background	Q1	Pretest
II Previous experience of mobility	N of languages studied	Q2	Pretest
	Previous experience of living abroad	Q3	Pretest
	N of countries visited before the exchange	Q4	Pretest
	Previous exchange participation	Q6	Pretest
III The first experience of adaptation	Foreign relationships abroad before the exchange	Q4.2	Pretest
	Foreign relationships in home country before the exchange	Q4.2	Pretest
IV Personality features			

Note. Q= question

Before discussing the constituent elements and corresponding variables, one should note that this analysis and working hypothesis is different from Murphy-Lejeune's (2002) in that it is embedded within a different theory and has a different intent. Whereas her premise identifies the social variables that characterize European exchange students as the 'new modern strangers' in light of the sociology of the stranger, the proposition undergirding this analysis is non-directional and seeks to examine whether mobility-capital variables (i.e., background sociocultural variables) influence the ICC development of exchange students while abroad. In other words, the aim of this analysis is to examine whether these background variables correlate positively or negatively with ICC development attained by participants at the end of the intervention. For this purpose, the association between the last six variables listed in Table 32 and ICC development is tested using Spearman's bivariate correlation coefficient. Criteria for selecting this measure of statistical dependence are:

1. The need to use a nonparametric measure for populations smaller than 30 that does not rely on data belonging to a any particular distribution;
2. The ordinal and dichotomous nature of the variables used;⁵⁵
3. The impossibility of predicting the nature of the relationship between each of the six variables and ICC development.

Criteria one and two determined the use of Spearman's rho (r_s), while criterion three justifies the use of a 2-tailed test. Cohen's (1988, 1992) effect ranges are used to assess the strength of correlation coefficients, as suggested by Field (2009, p. 57):

- small effect: $r_s = [.10, .30[$
- medium effect: $r_s = [.30, .50[$
- large effect: $r_s = [.50, 1]$

Table 33 displays the correlation coefficients between mobility-capital variables and the development attained in ICC dimensions in the posttest. The variable "multicultural family background" is excluded from the analysis because none of the participants had family members with different cultural backgrounds.

⁵⁵ The ICC latent variable is based on a six-point numerical rating scale. The other five variables ("multicultural family background, previous life abroad, previous participation in exchange programs, foreign relationships abroad and in home country") are dichotomous variables.

Table 33 - Case 1: Mobility capital correlation matrix.

Mobility-capital variables	Awareness	Attitudes	Skills	Knowledge
	(n=17)	(n=18)	(n=16)	(n=19)
N of languages studied before the exchange	.564*	.193	.237	.259
Previous experience of living abroad	.286	.240	.158	.528*
N of countries visited before the exchange	.267	.351	.235	.070
Foreign relationships abroad before the exchange	.253	.360	-.173	-.033
Foreign relationships in home country before the exchange	-.012	-.172	-.303	-.204
Previous participation in exchange programs	.253	.456	.118	.000

Note. *Correlation is significant at $p < .050$, 2-tailed

Correlation coefficients indicate that ICC development unfolds differently in the four dimensions. ICC dimensions seem to manifest themselves differently across mobility-capital variables with situations triggering different aspects in participants' ICC development (or conversely, distinct dimensions of ICC development leading participants to embrace the six situations differently). For instance, while the number of foreign languages learned is highly and significantly associated ($r_s=.564$) with cultural awareness, the number of foreign countries visited, relationships developed during those journeys and previous participation in exchange programs are moderately related to the attitudinal realm, as indicated by correlation coefficients of .351, .360 and .456, respectively. The only common element is the positive nature (or direction) of the relationship in all four cases, to wit: as the number of languages studied increased, awareness also increased (and vice versa). The same applies to the other three variables, but in relation to the attitudinal dimension. Note, however, as Field (2009) points out, that "correlation coefficients say nothing about which variable causes the other to change", and there may be other measured or unmeasured variables affecting the results (p. 174). Even if intuitively it might be appealing to conclude that background sociocultural variables like mobility-capital variables are a trigger for ICC development, one can only infer that these variables may influence this type of development (but not necessarily as triggers). Statistically, because correlation coefficients do not indicate in which direction the association operates (i.e., which of the variables occurs first); conceptually, because it would be naïve to assume that case study 1 participants initiate international living experiences without any degree of intercultural development. Intercultural competence can, *de facto*, unfold into different levels of development as

indicated by the theoretical perspectives underlying the ICC conceptualization adopted in this study, as well as by IC developmental models (see Chapter 2, section 2.4.3.1).

Finally, the relationship between paired variables varies both in strength and direction. Although in most cases the relationship between mobility-capital variables and ICC development is positive, there are two cases where it is negative, to wit:

1. “Foreign relationships abroad” and the knowledge ($r_s=-.173$) dimension;
2. “Foreign relationships in home country” and three ICC dimensions - attitudes ($r_s=-.172$), knowledge ($r_s=-.303$) and skills ($r_s=-.204$).

To discuss these correlations, one should note that the nature of the relationship is not only negative but manifests itself differently in the four ICC dimensions. This is particularly evident in the first example because although foreign relationships abroad are positively associated with the development of awareness ($r_s=.253$) and attitudes ($r_s=.360$), they are negatively related to the development of knowledge, even if the effect size is small ($r_s=-.173$). This contradiction may lay partly on the small sample size and on the dichotomous nature of the variables involved and subsequent limitations in the calculations. Dichotomous variables take only one of two possible values - presence (1= Observed) or absence (0=Non-observed) - which may have affected the statistical power of the dependence measures used.

Despite limitations in calculations, results prompt one to question which social contacts influence ICC development and impactful relationships. *Are foreign relationships developed in one’s country of origin as impactful? Or, do foreign relationships developed outside one’s country of origin promote higher levels of ICC development? Moreover, does not adaptation take place in a different milieu, where one is not simply confronted with difference on an occasional basis but lives it daily?* These questions provide points for contemplation regarding the negative association between foreign relationships in one’s home country and ICC development. Concurrently, they highlight “the power of the intercultural sojourn in providing a chance to seeing things ‘anew’” (Fantini, 2006d, p. 11).

4.2.4 Steps into Mobility

The budding capital previously examined is related to certain steps which lead students to embark on the study abroad experience. Yet, the stock of dispositions, skills and social habits embodied in the mobility capital advanced by Murphy-Lejeune (2002) may also

be furthered during the stay abroad. This section then examines the four steps into mobility by Murphy-Lejeune (2002) from a non-linear chronological perspective which admits that this set of variables can also be enhanced (or even triggered) during the sojourn. These steps are as follows: (1) the urge to travel (“travel bug”), (2) language jump, (3) self-sufficiency, and (4) no constraining responsibilities.

To the four steps listed above, two were added: (5) personal attributes other than self-sufficiency, and (6) a shared lifestyle. All six steps are examined in this section based on data drawn from the posttest follow-up focus group, and all but step five were contemplated in the interview protocol (see Appendix L). Examination of data is done thematically (see Chapter 3, section 3.7.2.2), with each step or variable corresponding to one subtheme, i.e., the subcategories for analysis. Analytic purposes are both inductive and deductive in that the analysis explores unexpected viewpoints, but is also guided by prior theoretical assumptions which gave direction to what to analyze in the focus group interview.

Table 34 summarizes the six subthemes. For a detailed account of all generated themes and subthemes the reader is referred to Appendix T; Table T.1.

Table 34 - Case 1: Subthemes of “Steps into mobility”.

Code	Subthemes	Descriptors
2.1.	Urge to travel	The urge or strong desire to travel
2.2.	Language jump	Condition of not being afraid to learn or speak a new foreign language
2.3.	Self-sufficiency	Condition or attribute of being autonomous
2.4.	No constraining responsibilities	Condition of not being constrained by personal or family responsibilities
2.5.	Other personal attributes	Personal attributes other than self-sufficiency
2.6.	Shared lifestyle	Condition or willingness to share a communal way of living

The subthemes identified in Table 34 are illustrated by verbatim excerpts relevant to understanding participant viewpoints about the variables which influenced their exchange experience. These verbatim examples are listed in Table 35 according to the corresponding subtheme. The only exception is Subtheme 2.6 which will be analyzed separately due to its prominence throughout the entire focus group interview.

Table 35 - Case 1: Participant perceptions about steps into mobility.

Subthemes	Particips.	Excerpts
(2.1) Urge to travel	A9	I travel since I remember. So, for me Portugal and Aveiro was a good base to travel even more. Even this year, I visited three countries.
	A13	For me, actually it's different because before coming here I wasn't such a big fan of travels. Maybe because here I have more free time and I think it's easier.
(2.2) Language jump	A13	You have to know the language, (...) because if you don't know the language that's impossible to go.
	A21	I you don't know the language it's harder.
(2.3) Self-sufficiency	A7	I agree in part that we have self-sufficiency before coming. But on the other hand, usually we don't have it before going. When we come here we develop it. Before coming here, we don't know what's going to happen. I was always afraid of missing my family and everything, but when I came here I got to know that I can live like this. I became autonomous here not before.
(2.4) No constraining responsibilities	A23	At thirty no <i>Erasmus!</i>
(2.5) Other personal attributes	A10	You have to be open-minded just as curious.
	A23	Curiosity, open-mindedness.

Note. Particips.=participants

As the above excerpts illustrate, participants concur on the group of variables which characterizes them as exchange students. They disagree, however, on the temporality assigned. The urge to travel (Step 1), for instance, can either be a long-term orientation in students' lives, as in the case of participant A9, or something triggered during the exchange period, as reported by participant A13. The willingness to take the language jump (Step 2) is a necessary condition which when missed out can make the experience unbearable (A13) or at least harder (A21). Self-sufficiency (Step 3), is perceived by participants as an ability more than a personal attribute or mental disposition before departure. As noted by participants A7 and A10, embarking on the exchange experience is about gaining abilities students did not know they had before coming. Free from constraining responsibilities (Step 4), participants' youth allows them to enjoy a privileged freedom and to take full advantage of a new social life. This new social life and the exchange experience as a whole requires students to be as curious just as open-minded (Step 5). This aspect of their lives is intimately related to a lifestyle shared by the student exchange community and which is a

crucial part of their group identity during the sojourn. This way of life reflects the double life of exchange students, as highlighted by Tsoukalas (2008) in relation to *Erasmus* students. To understand this way of living, the viewpoints of interviewees⁵⁶ are given below.

- A21:** “I think the most common experience was that every time I met an *Erasmus* student it was this shared atmosphere of having fun, partying, and having a great time. I think it was the most common thing. The rest, like travelling, not all Erasmus were travelling. Not all Erasmus are learning culture, not all came here for learning their field of study. So, I think the most common interest is this atmosphere of having a great time (...).”
- A7:** “I have points. It’s like: Travelling, living on your own, partying, relaxing, meeting new people.”
- A13:** “*Erasmus* lifestyle is basically about enjoying, enjoying your time, enjoying your life. And then, I also wrote some points like parties, for example, just for having fun. The people, like making some friendships, talking to people, getting to know some other cultures. And also, travelling, seeing other places, widening your horizons.”
- A23:** “My *Erasmus* lifestyle means less stress, less rush, more time for friends, more sleep and more time for everything which I love but I didn’t have a chance to develop before. But, /Laughing/, after I wrote this I just noticed that I think that one year of *Erasmus* is like five years less of life, generally.”
- A10:** “I defined a lifestyle, in overall, as a basic way of living, spending time, deciding what you’d like to do and where to spend your money too, and in addition to what A23 said, for me it’s like trying to combine the sleeping, the working, the studying, the partying. It’s hard to combine it.”
- A9:** “I have six points about *Erasmus* lifestyle. It's travelling, meeting people, partying and waking up late. Going to *pastelaria*¹ to have breakfast or something like that, doing some activities (sports, beach), and I forgot about studies in the end.”

Note. ¹*Pastelaria* is a shop where baked goods are sold.

(From left to right: interviewer or interviewees, and focus group excerpts)

As participant comments illustrate, the shared lifestyle which brings exchange students together is deeply rooted in the personal dimension of the exchange experience. It is a physically and emotionally intense way of living wherein traveling, partying and meeting people emerge as core social activities in view of a reduced academic workload. This particular way of living allows a rupture with past everyday routines and obligations attached to the home environment, as noted by participant A23. The intensity of the experience is,

⁵⁶ See task 2 of the focus group interview protocol in Appendix L, section L.3. In this task interviewees had to write their definition of an exchange student lifestyle on an individual card and discuss it out loud.

nonetheless, physically strenuous and that is why “one year of *Erasmus* is like five years less of life” (A23). Above all, this urge to spend a great time is highlighted by all six interviewees as part of a communal life which makes exchange students a distinctive group with a clear-cut social identity. Interestingly, while describing their social identities none of the interviewees points out *Campus Europae* as a category of self-identification, emphasizing their membership in a wider *Erasmus* community.

In the end, the strong group identity embodied in the students’ lifestyle is based on assumed similarity with their peers which may influence how students adapt to the host environment, examined next.

4.3 Adaptation to Portuguese Culture

Cultural adaptation is subtle and multifaceted, often placing individuals at the crossroads of homelessness and shelter, of inclusion and exclusion. Understanding exchange students’ entry into any host culture is highly complex, depending, among other factors, on the relative weight students assign to their integration into the host society. *Do mobile students feel, for instance, the urge to integrate when their passage is temporary and when the international community provides a shelter and a family they can lean on? Conversely, what is the degree of receptivity of host members toward exchange students?*

Providing responses to these questions implies understanding how exchange students engage in the various facets of the new socialization process. The four facets explored in this analysis concern: (1) living conditions (section 4.3.1); (2) friendships and social networks (section 4.3.2); (3) host culture facilities, including activities organized by an international student association (section 4.3.3); and finally, (4) integration in the local community, i.e., Aveiro, (section 4.3.4). These facets correspond to sections I, II and III of the posttest, and will be complemented with data strands from the follow-up focus group to elaborate further the quantitative inquiry. Considered together, the facets examined in this section illustrate that the study abroad experience is embedded in an intricate sociocultural fabric.

4.3.1 Living Conditions

Accommodation choices can provide clues to exchange students’ social participation in the host environment and the type of social networks they are part of. The issue of accommodation can, however, be problematic as demonstrated by *Erasmus* surveys (see

Teichler & Maiworn, 1997). In the case of the CE group, and other incoming students at the UA, exchange students benefit from support offered by the international student association *Erasmus Student Network* (ESN) Aveiro. This support is offered through the “Buddy program”, a program which aims to facilitate the search for accommodations by pairing a domestic student (“the buddy”) with an exchange student. The exchange student, thus, benefits from the host student’s guidance and knowledge of local renting practices throughout the process. Despite this guidance, most incoming exchange students at the UA tend to live together, usually in a shared apartment. This is the case of the CE group analyzed here. All 19 CE students shared accommodations with other international students, in either a single or shared bedroom. None lived in the UA student residence halls. Of the 19 students who shared accommodations with other exchange students, four (21.1%) had both exchange and Portuguese housemates. This finding highlights the tendency of exchange students to opt for international cohabitation with peers. Moreover, it reinforces the international social networks exchange students often form, as discussed below.

4.3.2 Friendships and Social Networks

The web of social networks exchange students form during the sojourn may elucidate how they envision themselves within host cultures.

This section, then, explores social networks formed by participants during their stay in Portugal. Specifically, it looks at the following posttest questions: the type of people participants spent most of their time with (Q2), the number of peer (Q3) and Portuguese friends (Q4), the level of difficulty in making Portuguese friends (Q4.1) and, finally, friendship groups (Q5). The open-ended questions 4.2 and 5.1 will be analyzed in the following chapter.

According to question 2, CE students spent most of their time with other international students (n=17; 89.5%), and a small minority with Portuguese students (n=3; 15.8%). Other social contacts included: (their) buddy partner(s), other foreign people besides exchange peers, and Portuguese people other than Portuguese students, as illustrated by Figure 33. The “Tandem partner”, like the “Buddy partner”, refers to exchange students’ partners in two activities offered by the ESN Aveiro. These activities and preferred host culture facilities will be explored in the following section.

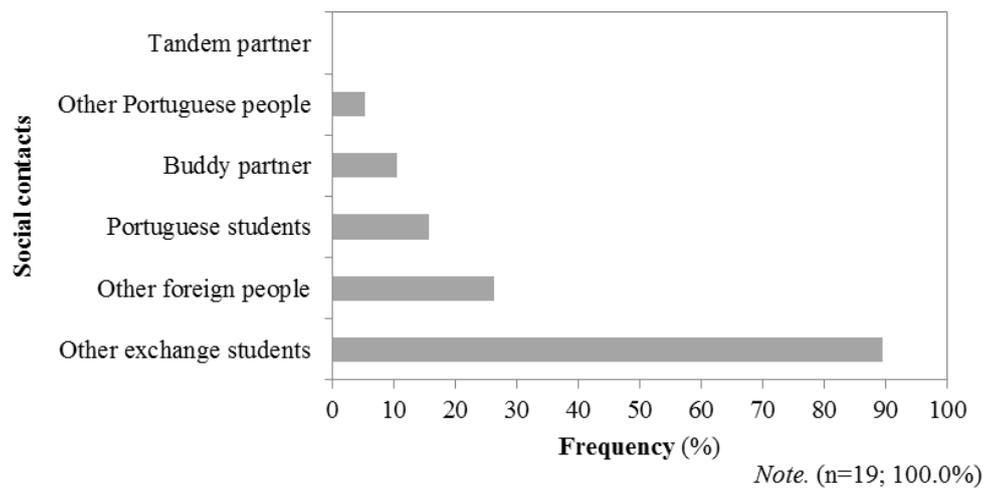


Figure 33 - Case 1: Social contacts according to time spent.

Data drawn from questions 3 and 4 shed further insight into the type of relationships exchange students develop during the sojourn, as summarized in Table 36.

Table 36 - Case 1: Number of exchange and Portuguese friends.

	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Friends					
Other exchange friends (Q3)	22.35	14.32	20	10	50
Portuguese friends (Q4)	4.82	3.64	5	0	4

Note. (n=17; 100.0%)

Q3= question 3; Q4= question 4

According to the 17 valid responses⁵⁷ given to question 3 (row 1) and question 4 (row 2), participants have considerably more exchange friends than Portuguese friends. The means for the two friendship groups are quite distant from each other - participants made approximately 22 exchange friends on average and only five Portuguese friends. Furthermore, while some participants made at least 10 exchange friends during their sojourn, others left the country without making any Portuguese friends, as seen in the minimum value (0). In fact, 41.3% (n=7) of respondents stated they made less than five Portuguese friends during their year in Portugal. These results sharply contrast with those yielded by “exchange friends” because only one participant had made less than five exchange friends. Stated another way, 94.1% (n=16) of respondents made between five and 50 exchange friends.

⁵⁷ All 19 participants responded to this question, but the values given by two participants fell into a range type “greater than or less than x”. These responses were therefore invalidated.

Based on the data drawn from questions 3 and 4, it is not totally unexpected that all 19 participants chose the international network of “exchange students” as their friendship group in question 5. Only one student selected both exchange and domestic students as a friendship group. As such, the following questions arise: *Are exchange and domestic students two worlds apart? And why is it so? Is it simply because of cultural differences? In any case, the exchange student network is a multinational and multicultural network whereby cultural differences can work as a unifying element. So, can lack of interaction between both groups be just ‘a cultural thing’?*

For possible explanations to these questions, question 4.1 is analyzed. This question elicited from participants the level of difficulty in making friends with hosts on a five-point Likert-type scale. The lowest point on the scale is 0 (“To no extent”), and 4 (“To a great extent”) the highest. Table 37 displays the descriptive ratings yielded.

Table 37 - Case 1: Level of difficulty in making friends with hosts.

Difficulty	N	%
(0) To no extent		
(1) To a small extent	5	26.3
(2) To a moderate extent	7	36.8
(3) To a large extent	6	31.6
(4) To a great extent	1	5.3
Total	19	100.0

The numerical patterns in Table 37 show that for 36.8% (n=7) of participants it was moderately difficult to make friends with Portuguese people. All of them assigned some level of difficulty to the friendship-making process and no one considered it to be nil (0=“To no extent”). On average, participants considered this level of difficulty to be 2.16 (SD=0.90), giving a sense that making friends with hosts was moderately difficult for case 1 participants. Yet, this information does not say much about how participants envisaged this process at the individual level. This issue will be analyzed in the following chapter.

To summarize, all five questions analyzed here (questions 2, 3, 4, 4.1 and 5) demonstrate that the world of exchange students is made of a deliberate choice of friends. These friends are essentially undifferentiated “Others” who are brought together through the closed social networks which underlay the ‘communities of practice’ exchange students

often form (Montgomery, 2010). This idea is elaborated further in the next section which explores the social practices and activities participants were most commonly engaged in.

4.3.3 Host Culture Facilities

Taking on the idea advanced by Montgomery (2010) that exchange students can represent specific communities of practice⁵⁸ through the social networks they form and underlying group identity and lifestyle (see section 4.2.4), this section looks at: (a) specific social activities they engaged in as a group, and (b) host culture facilities they used to familiarize themselves with Portuguese culture.

To consider the first aspect, data from question 6 of the posttest referring to student participation in ESN Aveiro activities, are analyzed. The criterion for analyzing ESN activities is the role they play in the “international community” student life, notably as an element that unifies all sorts of incoming exchange students at the UA. From among ESN activities, the posttest listed only those with a clear cultural component. Figure 34 illustrates ESN activities case 1 participants were engaged in.

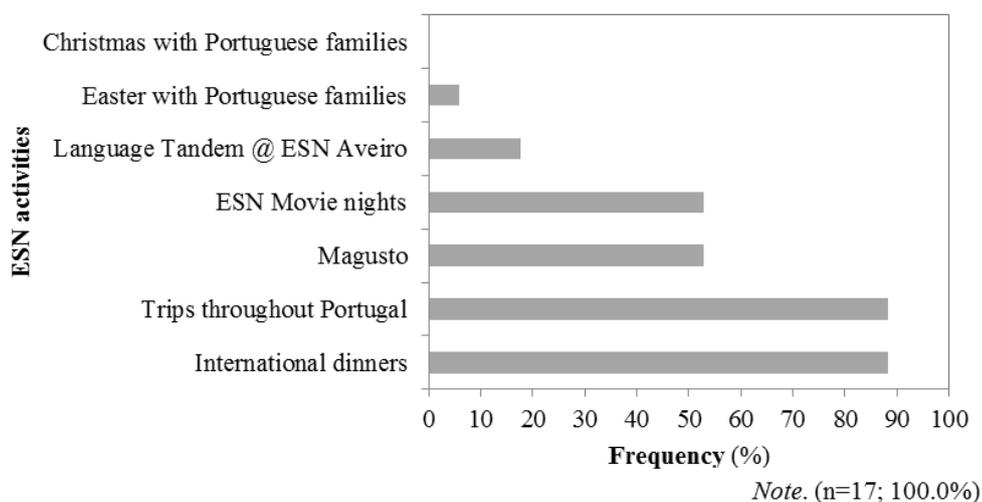


Figure 34 - Case 1: Attendance of ESN activities.

Figure 34 shows that “International dinners” and “Trips throughout Portugal” were the most popular activities, with only two students not taking part. This result is consistent with the top popular ESN activities given that both “International dinners” and “Trips

⁵⁸ Community of practice is here understood as a group of people who shares common concerns, problems, interests, values and knowledge by interacting on an ongoing basis (Montgomery, 2010; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002).

throughout Portugal” received good responses from the larger exchange student community. Nonetheless, both activities were attended mainly by exchange students and seldom included domestic students.

With regard to “trips throughout Portugal”, it is worth remembering that traveling is a key constituent of exchange student “mobility capital”, as discussed in sections 4.2.3 and 4.2.4. This aspect will be also demonstrated by the top host culture facilities selected by participants, examined next.

The Portuguese Fall festivity “Magusto” was also well attended by CE students, demonstrating their interest in getting to know host culture customs and events. The same applies to “Portuguese movie nights”, even if in different ways. As for the “Language Tandem project”, it may not only reflect participants’ willingness to share their own language (and culture), but also their commitment to practice Portuguese outside the language classroom and attempts to make friends with domestic students. However, this activity was attended by three CE students only.

Finally, even if “Christmas and Easter with Portuguese families” received low attendance rates from the CE group, these rates are not indicative of the popularity nor impact, as noted by the only CE student who attended this activity.

- I:** “Can ESN activities help exchange students get to know the Portuguese culture or the Portuguese way of life? (...) For example, A23 I know you participated in the Easter activity.”
- A23:** “Yes, yes, I participated in Easter, and I must say that this was a really experience for us. It was one of the best experiences. (...) It was a different perspective because here in Portugal we were rather in our *Erasmus* family or also our peers of Portuguese people, but not seeing all the families in majority. And then, all the sudden we saw... we saw the normal, regular families, who are living in Aveiro. It was something really enriching.”

(**From left to right:** interviewer or interviewees, and focus group excerpts)

As disclosed by the above excerpt⁵⁹, participant A23 deemed the Easter activity the most powerful and transformative one given the rare possibility to enter the local community inner circles and see things anew. With respect to the Christmas activity, none of the CE students participated in it because all returned home for Christmas.

⁵⁹ This excerpt was categorized as Subtheme 3.2 in the thematic analysis, see Appendix T, Table T1.

Despite active participation in ESN activities, students' sociocultural practices go beyond those offered by this international student association. In effect, the entry process in the host culture can be also perceived through the facilities students chose for familiarization with host culture and interaction with hosts. And yet, both ESN activities and host culture facilities have the potential of producing feelings of social distance or proximity to the local community, depending on whom exchange students share them with. Figure 35 illustrates those host culture facilities selected by participants for familiarization with Portuguese culture according to responses given to question 7 of the posttest.

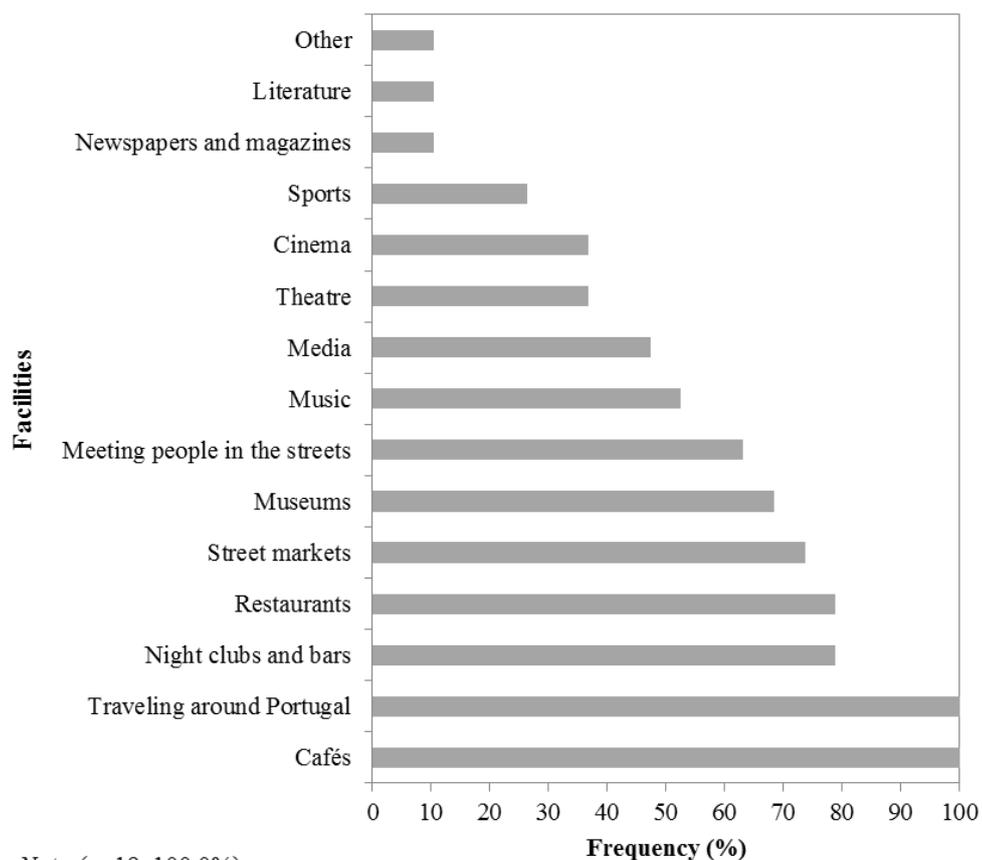


Figure 35 - Case 1: Host culture facilities.

All participants agreed that the best opportunities for familiarization with Portuguese culture were “going to “cafés⁶⁰” and “traveling around the country”. Participants’ views of “going to cafés” reflect also the importance of “cafés” in Portuguese culture. As for traveling,

⁶⁰ “Cafés” are coffeehouses that serve light meals, coffee and other refreshments. One can find a “café” in any main avenue or street of a Portuguese city or town. They are also a site of touristic attraction and a privileged site of socialization.

it emerges as a hallmark of the exchange student community as previously examined in sections 4.2.3 and 4.2.4.

Around three quarters of participants (78.9%) chose “night clubs & bars” and “restaurants” as the second top facility allowing familiarization with Portuguese culture. This finding supports the top motivational factors discussed in section 4.2.2. Specifically, the agenda of exchange students for active experimentation in different spheres of life; an agenda whereby having fun and participating in informal events such as parties, going to restaurants or street markets is as important as developing formal educational skills. Hence, cultural facilities allowing little or no interaction are less commonly chosen by CE students (e.g., “music”; “media”; “theatre”; “cinema”; “sports”; “newspapers and magazines”). This interpretation is supported and expanded further by qualitative data from the focus group which falls under the Subtheme 3.1, “Facilities for cultural immersion” (see Appendix T, Table T.1, Theme 3). Once again, excerpts are provided given their relevance to understanding the subtheme in question.

I: “So, why did you choose travelling, nightclubs, cafes, museums? Were these your favorite facilities? And, for example, magazines, literature, cinema, do not seem to be so important? So, this time I’m going to start with A21.”

A21: “*Hmm*, (...) newspapers, magazines are not trendy. I mean it’s not so popular now.”
/Laughter/

I: “And because they are written in Portuguese?”

A7: /Laughing/

I: “It’s hard? *Yeah?*”

A21: “I think yes. It is one of the reasons to travel around, to go to night club, to go to museums, because you eventually go there.”

I: “And do you think in nightclubs you can grasp culture, also?”

A21: “In some clubs, yes.” (...)

A9: “I think these five things really good characterize *Erasmus* life.”

: /Laughter/

I: “*Yeah. Erasmus* life?”

A21: “Because *Erasmus* is for doing this, not for doing that.”

(From left to right: interviewer or interviewees, and focus group excerpts)

As the focus group dialogue illustrates, interviewees do not only highlight activities which imply interaction with other people, but also reiterate who they interact with; that is, other exchange students, as section 4.3.2 has demonstrated as well. The new social setting is thus apprehended with similar “Others”, those with whom participants share a common lifestyle (section 4.2.4). The *Erasmus life* participants A9 and A21 allude to touches again upon the group identity of the community of practice they are part of, as well as expectations associated with this type of student exchange. Above all, as participant A21 clarifies, *Erasmus* is for travelling, having fun, interacting with others and not so much for activities of aesthetic appreciation which imply individual discoveries.

In summary, host culture facilities and ESN activities participants take part in are not just indicative of their personal preferences, but they also reflect the avenues exchange students take to enter the local community. The type of sociocultural activities chosen by participants and whom they share them with are symptomatic of how students participate and integrate in the local community, examined next.

4.3.4 Integration in the Local Community

This section examines integration in the local community, based on data drawn from question 8 of the posttest. This question elicited the extent to which participants felt at home in Aveiro on a five-point Likert-type scale wherein 0 (“To no extent”) is the lowest point, and 5 (“To a great extent”) the highest. Table 38 shows the distribution of ratings attributed by respondents.

Table 38 - Case 1: Extent to which participants felt at home.

Feeling at home	N	%
(0) To no extent		
(1) To a small extent	2	10.5
(2) To a moderate extent	4	21.1
(3) To a large extent	10	52.6
(4) To a great extent	3	15.8
Total	19	100.0

According to results in Table 38, the majority of participants (52.6%) felt at home in Aveiro against a minority (10.5%) who stated they felt so only to a small extent. Central tendency measures clarify these results further, with the CE group feeling moderately at

home in Aveiro by the end of their stay given a mean of 2.74 (SD=0.87) and a mode of 3. The reasons that led students to feel to a greater or lesser extent at home in Aveiro vary and will be explored in the next chapter based on data drawn from the open-ended question 8.1 of the posttest.

In summary, both the findings drawn from the three questions 6, 7 and 8, examined in this section, and those drawn from the other three sections - (4.3.1) living conditions, (4.3.2) friendships and social networks (4.3.3) host culture facilities and ESN activities - underscore that participant adaptation to the host culture takes many forms and encompasses diverse sociocultural activities. Discovery of Portuguese culture is not limited to the confines of Aveiro nor to the smaller microcosm of the host institution. And yet, this discovery is lived almost entirely with participants' own peers in a community of practice with a strong group identity.

4.4 Outcomes and Transformations

The transformative power of the study abroad experience is often translated into two broad dimensions - academic and personal, or in a finer categorization of academic, cultural and linguistic achievements, as reflected by *Erasmus* surveys (see Teichler & Maiworm, 1997). Accordingly, the academic front is usually depicted as an increase of the knowledge base. The linguistic and cultural realms are also viewed as educational goals but “not just merely as a tool for improving academic learning” (Teichler & Maiworm, 1997, p. 114). There is, however, some overlap between academic practicalities (including, “recognition of the period of studies abroad”, “integration into study programs”, “professional value of study abroad”, etc.), and student language and cultural learning achievements. In fact, the three dimensions often converge under the umbrella term “academic achievements” when distinctions need to be made. This section is therefore subdivided into three parts: (1) “Personal outcomes” (section 4.4.1), (2) “Language outcomes” (section 4.4.2), and (3) “Intercultural outcomes” (section 4.4.3). The first part refers to how participants envisage the study abroad experience and the relative value they assign to it. The language and intercultural outcomes, in turn, refer to student linguistic and intercultural learning outcomes, and are directly related to the intervention.

4.4.1 Personal Outcomes

To examine participant personal outcomes at the end of the sojourn, data from questions 15 and 17, section VI (“Study abroad experience”) of the posttest, are analyzed.

Question 15 elicited participants’ ratings regarding their study abroad experience in Portugal. Responses are based on a five-point Likert-type scale wherein 1 represents the lowest point on the scale (“Poor”), and 5 the highest (“Excellent”). Responses to question 15 show that most respondents deemed their overall experience very good. The mean was 4.11 (SD=0.81) and the most frequent rating was 4 (“Very good”). Table 39 shows the frequency distribution of each point on the measurement scale.

Table 39 - Case 1: Ratings of the study abroad experience.

Study abroad experience	N	%
(1) Poor		
(2) Fair	1	5.3
(3) Good	2	10.5
(4) Very good	10	52.6
(5) Excellent	6	31.6
Total	19	100.0

According to results, a clear majority of participants (94.7%) assigned quite positive ratings to their year abroad in Portugal. Only one participant rated the study abroad experience as fair, and no one rated it as poor. Stated differently, most participants rated their experience as 3 or higher on the Likert-type scale. Despite the greater number of positive ratings, not all students would consider participating again in an exchange program as data drawn from question 17 indicate - 57.9% (n=11) of students considered participating again, while 42.1% of them discounted this possibility. The reasons for disregarding this possibility were mostly academic and economic (and to a smaller extent, personal), but may be also related to the relative balance between the highs and lows of the study abroad experience, as yielded by questions 16 and 17.1 of the posttest.

4.4.2 Language Outcomes

A commonly expected learning outcome of study abroad is improved oral production skills which learners gain through immersion in the host culture, as highlighted by studies

of second language acquisition (SLA) in study abroad (see, for instance, Churchill & Dufon, 2006; Freed, 1995; Isabelli-García, 2003; Kinginger, 2009).

To comprehend the language development process of case 1 participants, this section analyzes closed questions 9, 9.1 and 10 of the posttest which are then expanded by qualitative data drawn from the follow-up focus group and the interview with the PFL teacher. The three closed questions elicit quantitative information regarding participant Portuguese proficiency at the end of sojourn (Q9.1), and participant motivations to learn both language (Q9) and intercultural issues (Q10).

Table 40 shows the frequency distribution of participant proficiency levels yielded by question 9.1 according to the CEFR (see Footnote 25).

Table 40 - Case 1: Portuguese proficiency in the posttest.

Proficiency levels	N	%
A1 (Breakthrough)	5	26.3
A2 (Waystage)	9	47.3
B1 (Threshold)	5	26.3
Total	19	99.9 [#]

Note. [#] Percentages may not total 100.0 due to rounding

Given the above results, 73.6% of students consider their language proficiency below B1. Yet, all 19 CE students but one were awarded B1 which is the linguistic proficiency level targeted by the CE program (see Chapter 3, section 3.5.2.2). As such, the following questions arise: *Which variables influence language learning in study abroad contexts? And, can exchange program design and teaching-related factors influence participant language learning and, by implication, intercultural learning?*

In this analysis, it is posited that motivation is among the variables influencing language and intercultural learning. More concretely, the motivation to learn Portuguese can influence intercultural learning and the outcome results of the intervention, functioning as an extraneous variable.⁶¹ For purposes of data analysis, information drawn from questions 9 and 10 is examined according to the division of the motivational realm into motivation to learn the Portuguese language (Q9) and to learn cultural and intercultural issues (Q10).

⁶¹ For the purposes of this analysis, an extraneous variable is understood as “a variable that may compete with the independent variable in explaining the outcome” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 42).

Responses are based on a six-point numerical rating scale wherein 0 represents the lowest point (“No motivation”), and 5 the highest (“Very high motivation”). Figure 36 displays the relative frequencies of observations on the motivation scale.

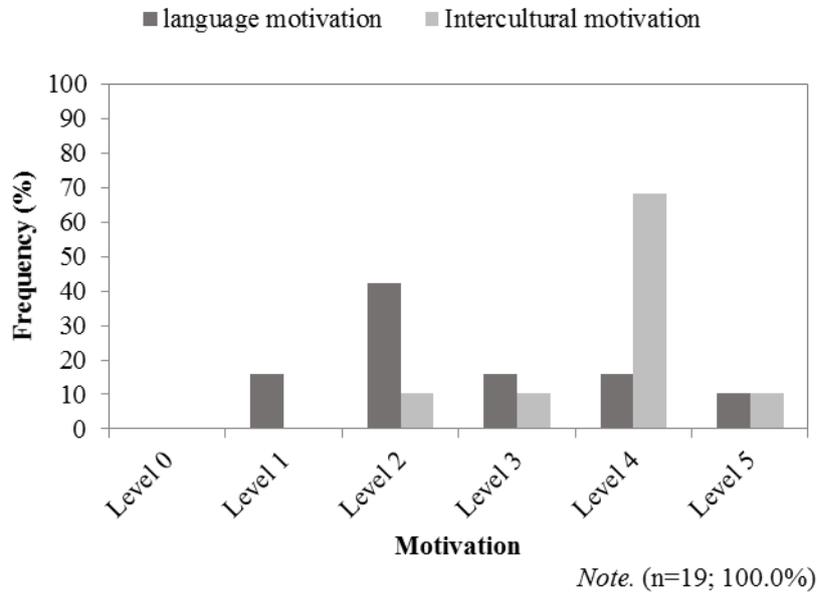


Figure 36 - Case 1: Language and intercultural motivation.

Results in Figure 36 show a discrepancy between language and (inter)cultural motivations. Whereas 42.1% students consider their linguistic motivation to be 2 on a six-point scale, 68.4% of students deem their (inter)cultural motivation 4. This discrepancy becomes clearer by computing measures of central tendency and dispersion in Table 41.

Table 41 - Case 1: Language and intercultural motivation.

	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Motivation					
Language	2.63	1.26	2	1	5
Intercultural	3.79	0.79	4	2	5

Note. (n=19; 100.0%)

As reemphasized by central tendency and dispersion measures, motivation for learning language is consistently lower than motivation for learning cultural and intercultural issues. Whereas in the former the mean falls closer to Level 3, in the latter it approaches Level 4. Moreover, the distribution of observations is more regular in the intercultural than in the language domain, as shown by the smaller standard deviation for language motivation.

Overall, quantitative findings indicate that learner motivation plays a central role in both language and intercultural learning. Nonetheless, language motivation does not necessarily equal intercultural motivation (and vice versa) even if the two are interrelated. In this sense, participant resulting motivation, analyzed here, may not only act as an extraneous variable, but also as a mirror reflecting other variables which may be related to the outcome results, as the qualitative data will show. Before delving into the qualitative data set, it is important to triangulate the posttest quantitative results with pre-departure motivations (see section 4.2.2) and Portuguese proficiency in the pretest (see section 4.2.1). This triangulation produces two patterns:

1. A mismatch between pre-departure and resulting motivations. Even if language learning strongly motivated students to participate in CE (see section 4.2.2), they seem to acknowledge some frustration in its actualization. Hence the low levels of resulting language motivation; in contrast with the high levels of resulting intercultural motivation;
2. The percentage increase of students who considered their Portuguese proficiency lower than the targeted proficiency level. Whereas in the pretest the percentage was 31.6% (see section 4.2.1), in the posttest it rose to 73.6%, meaning that the number more than doubled (133.3%).

These numerical patterns demonstrate that participant language development is far from linear as extraneous variables, such as motivation, may influence the process. To explore this issue further, the last part of this section examines the qualitative subthemes generated from the focus group and the individual interview with the PFL teacher. For the sake of clarity, all subthemes referring to the Portuguese language learning process in both interviews are brought together in Figure 37. These themes are both empirically (inductive) and theoretically-driven (deductive) from theories of SLA in study abroad contexts. For a detailed analysis of all subthemes generated from the focus group and the interview with the PFL teacher the reader is referred to Appendices U, Tables U.1 and U.2, respectively.

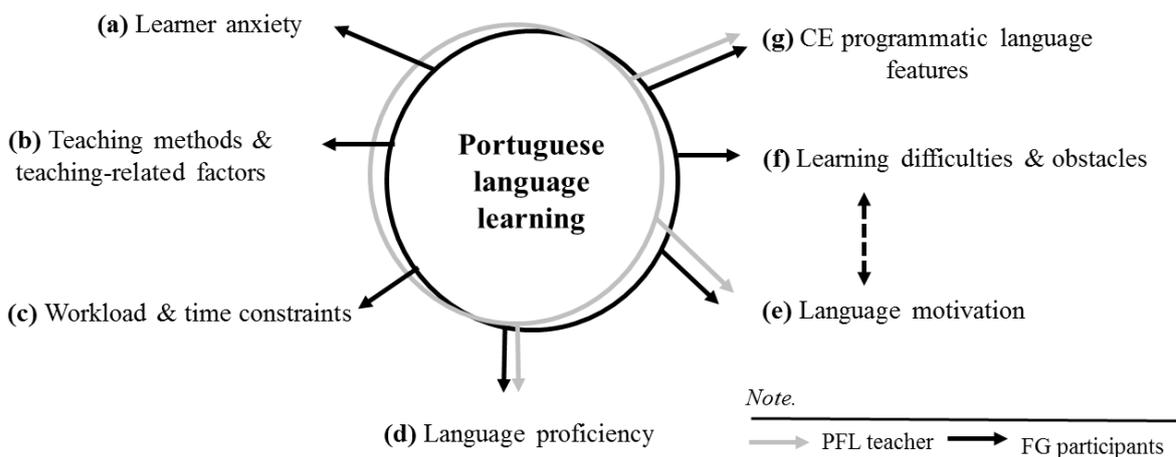


Figure 37 - Case 1: Subthemes of “Portuguese language learning”.

Several variables (some of which disclosed by quantitative results) may have interfered in the language learning process and, by implication, in intercultural learning. Those variables (presented here as subthemes) raised by the students are represented in Figure 37 by black arrows, and those raised by the PFL teacher by grey arrows. Whenever the identified variables were brought forward by the two groups of interviewees, both arrows are given. This is the case of variables - (d) language proficiency, (e) motivation, and (g) CE programmatic language features.

To start with, those variables brought up only by the students are examined. *Learner anxiety*, Subtheme (a), is related to the affective dimension of language learning, in this case Portuguese language learning. It comprehends feelings and emotional reactions of uneasiness, apprehension or discomfort toward learning Portuguese. According to psychosocial learning theories, anxiety is usually defined as an anticipatory disposition. Bandura (1986), for example, defines anxiety as a “state of anticipatory apprehension over possible deleterious happenings” (p. 391). This state of anxiety can, nonetheless, remain high and hamper the achievement of a certain goal (in this case, linguistic). This seems to apply to case 1 participants, as illustrated by the excerpts below.

- I:** “How was the process of learning Portuguese for you? Was it stimulating? Did you find many obstacles? Was it disappointing, frustrating or stimulating?”
- A21:** “It's very, very much like...I like very much the Portuguese language. It sounds very pleasant, and I just like it, and I would like to know it, but the big disappointment was the classes.”

A7: “It’s basically the same, because it was really, really, really disappointing! I was coming... It started in my home country, we started having classes in my home country before coming here. It was fine, it was nice, but then there was... I am now speaking about *Campus* program... then, there were... the meetings. You were supposed to learn during the holidays the language...”

(From left to right: interviewer or interviewees, and focus group excerpts)

As the above viewpoints demonstrate, participant retrospective evaluation of the language learning process reflects some frustration and little reduction of anxiety levels after one academic year of cultural immersion. This anxiety is, according to participants A21 and A7, essentially attributable to the Portuguese classes, although participant A21 still manifests a desire to master the host language. This frustration with the pedagogical realm of language learning may be also related to *workload and time constraints*, Subtheme (b), as well as to *programmatically language features of CE*, Subtheme (g), as participant A7 notes. To explain his/her point of view further, the interviewee clarifies these two other variables:

A7: “...and unfortunately it is not possible, because our meetings on *Hook Up!* started when we really didn’t feel yet going, we were inside of our studies, we had exams, we had internships. We didn’t really want, because holidays were coming. We had to earn money to come here. We didn’t feel at all yet *Erasmus*... and we had many obligations and then there was millions of mails - do this, do *Hook Up!*, we should meet. I was like very, very against, I didn’t do it.... I tried, I started, but then it wasn’t possible.”

According to participant A7 the state of anxiety goes back to the first step of the language learning process, i.e., the online course *Hook Up!* (see Chapter 3, section 3.5.2.2) required by CE. The timing of the online course, which usually starts in mid-May and finishes in mid-July, did not match students’ academic timeline and led to distress on the students’ part. The second step, the intensive course at the host institution, triggered similar feelings, as participant A9 explains:

A9: “It was too fast. Six hour per day of intensive course... Ok, we could learn, but after these six hours we came back home and we didn’t do nothing unfortunately, because we were totally exhausted!”

The hasty movement between the two first steps of language learning and the number of learning hours had a snowball effect, as interviewee A21 elucidates:

A21: “I think the Portuguese program is not well constructed and it is not taught as I think it should, but well... It has not started from the beginning very well, it’s then hard to get it right.”

While expressing his/her perspective, interviewee A21 touches also upon another variable represented by Subtheme (c) - *Teaching methods and teaching-related factors*. This variable is also noted by another three participants.

A13: “I cannot see the point of knowing and studying ten different tenses...and basically don't know any vocabulary. Of course, you can say: ‘Come on, you can learn vocabulary on your own!’”

A7: “We are not at all at the level, maybe A2. We cannot speak with people! For example, we don't have listening exercises and then we have, suddenly, listening in the exam. We don't talk we just do exercises mainly grammar, not vocabulary.”

A23: “Just grammar, grammar, grammar.”

According to participants the pedagogical approaches were inappropriate and focused on grammar acquisition in detriment to oral production and vocabulary acquisition. This mismatch between teaching approaches and students' needs may have also negatively influenced *participant language proficiency*, Subtheme (d), as interviewee A7 reiterates. Hence 73.6% of students consider to have a proficiency lower than B1 as quantitative results have demonstrated (Table 40). These results were also discussed in the interview with the PFL teacher, as illustrated below.

I: “I asked the students to rate their language proficiency and seventy three point six percent rated themselves at beginners' level. Of this percentage, forty seven point three percent considered their level to be A2. Does this result surprise you? How do you see it?”

PFL: “Bearing in mind that these results refer to the end of the second semester and that the students should answer a B1 proficiency level, it surprises me. Bearing in mind the in-class work developed by the students, the assignments done, it doesn't surprise me.”

I: “It doesn't surprise you, *ok*. Do you think it's a result you would expect given the factors you have already explained?”

PFL: “Precisely.”

I: “...factors which interfere with learning?”

PFL: “Clearly, yes, yes.”

(From left to right: interviewer or interviewees, and PFL interview excerpts)

The dialogue with the PFL teacher shows that quantitative results do not come up as completely unexpected to this interviewee in view of participant classwork and *learning difficulties*, Subtheme (f). These difficulties are clarified further by the interviewee.

PFL: “Well, I think that from the outset we all have our abilities and our difficulties, and from that we can already realize that there are people who might have greater empathy with a new language...a foreign language than others. That’s a starting point.”

I: “*Humhum.*”

PFL: “Then, there’s also another important question which concerns the fact that a class is composed of a reasonable number of students, but the majority belongs to the same country of origin. Thus, they can continue communicating in their own language...”

I: *Right.*

PFL: “...or then in English, as typical of *Erasmus* students. (...) Then we have to say that their academic leisure life is another obstacle to learn a language, because sometimes the time which should be spent learning a language is spent in the academic leisure life...that and the fact that sometimes they are more worried about organizing parties, because as I mentioned before they have a close relationship with their colleagues who have the same nationality, and this ends up distracting them from what they should be actually doing.”

(From left to right: interviewer or interviewees, and PFL interview excerpts)

Based on the above passages, four learning difficulties and/or obstacles may have hindered participant language learning, viz.: (f.i) individual empathy with foreign language learning, (f.ii) communication in own language, (f.iii) communication in a lingua franca, and (f.iv) academic leisure life. This last aspect noted by the teacher highlights the particular lifestyle of exchange students (see section 4.2.4), but also casts doubt on student investment in language learning and the degree of involvement in the host context (and constant language practice of Portuguese). In addition to the four learning difficulties, the interviewee pointed out throughout the interview students’ lack of *motivation to learn Portuguese* - Subtheme (e). Thus, when confronted with the quantitative results regarding students’ motivation to learn Portuguese (Table 31) the teacher did not seem completely surprised.

PFL: “It doesn’t surprise me because learning a language during one year is an evolutionary process, and, as a matter of fact, this class did not seem to be motivated from the outset, nor ready, nor even aware of the language learning process.”

The students, on the other hand, consider that it is “the teacher who is motivating people, generally”, as participant A23 notes.

Finally, exchange program design features can also affect language learning. Previous excerpts drawn from the focus group disclosed interviewees’ frustration regarding the workload and timeline required by CE in the two first stages of the language learning process (i.e., the online and the intensive courses). In other moments during the focus groups, interviewees explicitly stated that the CE language goal is unreachable, as evident in participant A7 comment.

A7: “Doing one level or even two levels in one semester when I was learning languages like French for ten years or eight to reach B2. It's not possible! There's no point! We should learn, in my opinion, until the level we are able to do!”

The PFL teacher does also consider the goal somehow unrealistic, but reachable, as the following quotation illustrates.

PFL: “Feasible, yes. Difficult to attain, also. Realistic maybe not so much. It all depends on the type of students we have. Attaining the B1 proficiency level 'yes', but with different proficiency levels, that is, attaining B1 is possible but there's a big difference and we can perceive it later on in the grades students get.”

In summary, all seven variables in Figure 37 seem to have negatively influenced participant Portuguese acquisition process, showing that learners do not magically become motivated nor fluent by being immersed in another culture. Their linguistic and motivation gains are situationally-dependent as both intra and extra-linguistic factors may influence the learning process. Only by acknowledging so, can exchange programs and language teachers equip learners with the necessary linguistic tools to function in a new social setting.

Next, participant intercultural outcomes are examined to help clarifying the mix of variables affecting participants’ language and intercultural learning processes.

4.4.3 Intercultural Outcomes

Data in this section focus on intercultural learning outcomes drawn from the ICC self-assessment scale in the pre and posttests, questions 16 and 14 respectively. These quantitative data are complemented with qualitative data strands the posttest follow-up focus group. Quantitative responses are based on a six-point numerical rating scale wherein 0 (“No competence”) represents the lowest point, and 5 the highest (“Very high competence”), as

described earlier in Chapter 3. For analysis purposes, examination of data is organized into three parts referring to: (1) the four ICC dimensions or component variables (section 4.4.3.1), (2) correlations between these dimensions (section 4.4.3.2) and, finally, (3) the intercultural impact or effectiveness of the intervention (section 4.4.3.3). In the latter section, data are based on two separate questions which measure the impact of the intervention (questions 11 and 12 of the posttest).

Statistical procedures involved are descriptive and inferential and follow a four step- approach, described as follows:

1. The first step, reported upon in the instrument development phase (see Chapter 3, section 3.7.1.1), aimed to assess the reliability of the ICC scale;
2. The second step, which will be reported in section 4.4.3.1, analyzes the ICC self-assessment scale by test instrument, starting with a descriptive analysis for each component followed by the Wilcoxon signed-rank test which compares differences between ICC attainment in the pre and posttests via a z-score.⁶² If the results are statistically significant one can reject the null hypothesis (H_0) that “purposeful intercultural pedagogy does not enhance the ICC of exchange students while abroad”, and accept the alternative hypothesis (H_1) that “purposeful intercultural pedagogy enhances the ICC of exchange students while abroad”;
3. Step 3 expands the previous step by analyzing once again the ICC scale, but the aim now is to evaluate how its components correlate in the posttest. Calculations are based on Spearman’s bivariate correlation (2-tailed) (Step 3 will be reported in section 4.4.3.2);
4. Step 4 expands Step 2, by analyzing the impact of the intervention on participant intercultural gains as yielded by questions 11 and 12 of the posttest. Statistical procedures used are frequency distribution, central tendency and dispersion measures (Step 4 will be reported in section 4.4.3.3).

⁶² A z-score (z) is a “raw score that has been transformed into standard deviation units (...). [It] tells how many standard deviations a raw score is from the mean” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 481). The new transformed scores (yielded by the Wilcoxon-signed rank test) are called z -scores.

4.4.3.1 ICC self-assessment scale

Cultural awareness. Cultural awareness involves the self vis-à-vis the other and is a central dimension both in in this study's construct and the model upon which it is based. Given Fantini's (2006a, 2009) theoretical assumption that cultural awareness stimulates or furthers the development of the other three ICC dimensions, this section has a twofold purpose: (a) to test the null hypothesis and (b) to evaluate whether Fantini's premise is empirically corroborated by the potentially high levels of cultural awareness in face of the other three dimensions. For these reasons, the differences between descriptive ratings in the pre and posttest are reported first and then expanded by applying the Wilcoxon signed-rank test. Descriptive ratings are essentially expressed as mean differences between conditions (the awareness dimension in the pre and posttest), and complemented by other measures of central tendency and dispersion (Table 42).

Table 42 - Case 1: Awareness descriptive statistics.

	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Awareness					
Pretest (n=17)	2.62	1.06	2.80	0.80	4.60
Posttest (n=17)	3.08	1.15	3.40	1.00	5.00

Results in Table 42 show that participants attained higher levels of awareness at the end of the intervention, with a 0.46 increase of the mean value. Figure 38 illustrates these results in a boxplot.

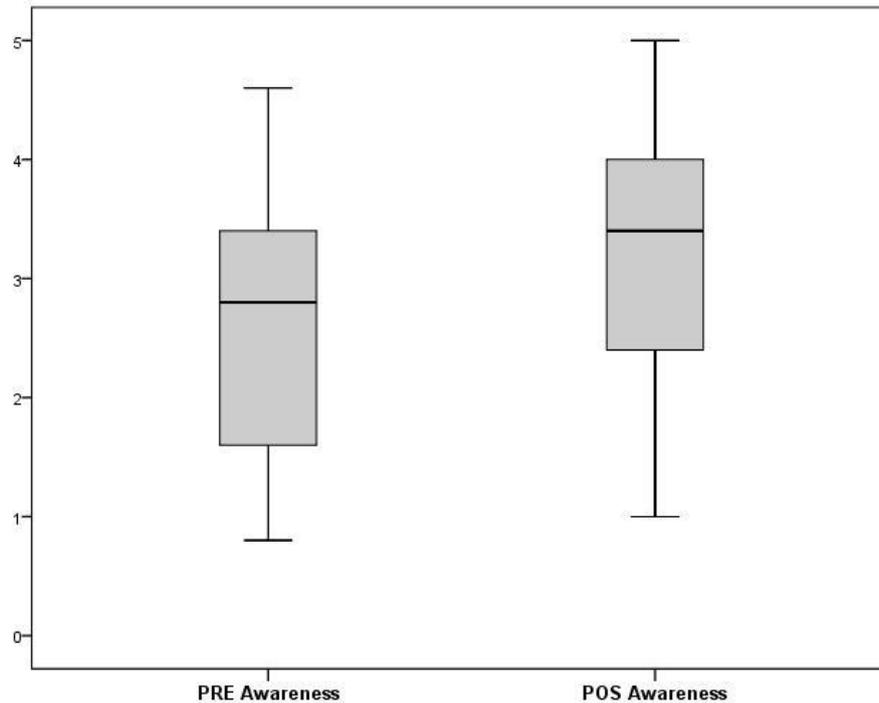


Figure 38 - Case 1: Awareness boxplot.

Note. ($z=1.424$; $p=.154$). PRE= Pretest and POS= Posttest

According to the Wilcoxon test there are no significant differences between awareness ratings from pre to posttest ($z=1.424$; $p=.154$). Simply put, there is a positive difference between conditions but this difference is not statistically significant at $<.050$. The null hypothesis is, therefore, not rejected by the data and one cannot infer that the intervention had a positive impact on participant ICC development. Stated another way, the variation between conditions is not big enough to be statistically interpreted as something other than chance.

Attitudes. Any sojourn experience is expected to foster positive attitudes in sojourners. Tolerance, openness, respect, curiosity or discovery, and flexibility are the attitudes embodied by the four items of this ICC component. As in the previous ICC dimension, central tendency and dispersion measures are presented for the two conditions, followed by application of the test statistic. Table 43 shows descriptive statistics of central tendency and dispersion for the attitudinal dimension by test instrument.

Table 43 - Case 1: Attitudes descriptive statistics.

	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Attitudes					
Pretest (n=17)	3.25	0.56	3.25	2.50	4.50
Posttest (n=17)	2.90	0.87	2.75	1.75	4.75

Results in Table 43 indicate that the attitudes mean decreased in the posttest. Figure 39 illustrates the distribution of results in the two conditions.

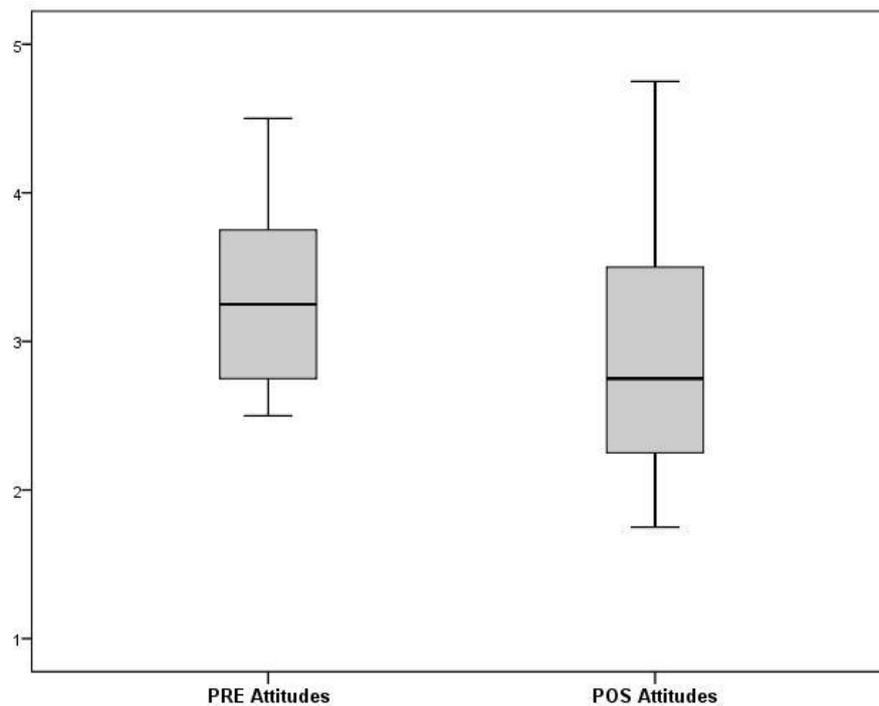


Figure 39 - Case 1: Attitudes boxplot.

Note. ($z=-1.943$; $p=.052$)

Based on results in Figure 39, there is not only a decrease of ratings in the attitudinal dimension in the posttest, but the distribution is also more spread out at the end of the intervention. In addition to the decrease of ratings between conditions, the statistical test yielded a nonsignificant result ($p=.052$), even if the result is on the threshold of the cut-off point. Given these unexpected results, the effectiveness of the intervention was put into question. To dispel doubts, the two questions (11 and 12) referring to the impact of the intervention in the posttest were also analyzed. Yet, results showed that participants considered the intervention to have maximized their intercultural gains during their study abroad experience, as will be discussed in section 4.4.3.3, in this chapter, and in section

5.4.3.3 in Chapter 5. Next, the researcher questioned the self-assessment nature of the ICC scale and how respondents rated themselves before and after the intervention. As such, key questions arise: *Is the attitudes decrease a true decrease in competence* (due to a negative experience, for instance)? *Or is it the result of inflated self-assessment?* *Is it possible that respondents rate themselves more stringently after the intervention?* After all, the more one knows, the more one knows he doesn't know. As argued by Krueger and Dunning (2009), "people tend to hold overly favorable views of their abilities in many social and intellectual domains" (p. 1). This is certainly the case of the intercultural domain. That said, four possible explanations for the decrease in ratings may be: (a) participant overestimation of their performance (due to social desirability bias), (b) actual regression in terms of attitudinal development, (c) participant recognition of the limitations of their attitudinal abilities, based on a higher degree of cultural awareness and, finally, (d) an imperfect relationship between the way ICC is represented and the way it is measured.

In the first instance, all central tendency scores are lower in the posttest, suggesting that respondents can rate themselves more severely at the end of the sojourn. In turn, ratings may also be related to participant overestimation of their attitudinal abilities based on a deeper cultural awareness at the end of the sojourn. This may be also supported by the strong correlation between the attitudinal and cultural awareness development attained in the posttest, as discussed further on (see section 4.4.3.2).

Actual decrease in the attitudinal component is not discounted since this dimension is inextricably linked to interaction with hosts and appropriate behavior. As such, another variable needs to be added to the equation: sojourner interaction with hosts. Intuitively, one would expect that sojourners' attitudes would follow a linear developmental process whereby one starts with more negative attitudes and ends the sojourn with very positive ones. *But what if the degree of interaction with hosts is minimal, non-existent or even negative?* A simple descriptive item analysis may provide clues to answering this question. For instance, the two posttest attitudinal items (Item 1 and 2), which are directly related to interaction with hosts, yielded the lowest degrees of attainment. In both items most respondents reached a degree of attainment of 2, with 29.4% (n=5) and of 47.1% (n=8) of observations, respectively. Accordingly, these items yielded the two lowest means: 2.47 (SD=1.33) for Item 1, and 2.06 (SD=1.30) for Item 2. Furthermore, the test statistic showed statistically significant differences ($p=.007$) for Item 1. Results are summarized in Table 44.

Table 44 - Case 1: Attitudes item analysis.

Attitudes	Pretest (n=17)					Posttest (n=17)					z
	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max	
Item 1	3.53	1.32	4.00	1	5	2.47	1.33	2.00	0	5	.007*
Item 2	2.47	1.23	2.00	0	5	2.06	1.30	2.00	0	4	.223
Item 3	4.06	0.90	4.00	2	5	4.06	1.03	4.00	1	5	1.00
Item 4	3.35	0.10	3.00	2	5	3.00	1.37	3.00	0	5	.437

Note. *Significant at $p < .050$, z = z-score, Wilcoxon signed-rank test

Results in Table 44 support previous findings by showing once again how limited interaction with hosts (Item 1) and paucity of language gains (Item 2) can negatively influence participant ICC development (at least, concerning culture-specific development). This finding seems to substantiate Fantini's (2012a) assertion that "host language proficiency enhances entry possibilities, whereas lack of proficiency constrains entry, adaptation and understanding of the host culture" (p. 273).

Lastly, results may reflect participants' attitudes, behaviors or both attitudes and behaviors. While attitudes and behaviors are distinct, they are not watertight compartments. Participants' responses are a clear indication of that, were not behavior "the most observable and significant manifestation of attitudes and knowledges" (Ruben, 1989, p. 234).

Skills. Skills embody the performative component of ICC, the know-how dimension. The five items in this dimension of the ICC construct reflect this performative realm, by stressing appropriate interactional and behavioral skills in relation to Portuguese culture. Table 45 shows descriptive statistics of central tendency and dispersion for the skills dimension by test instrument.

Table 45 - Case 1: Skills descriptive statistics.

Skills	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Pretest (n=16)	3.23	0.88	3.40	1.60	5.00
Posttest (n=16)	3.09	1.00	3.00	1.20	4.80

As in the attitudes dimension, the skills dimension reregistered a decrease after the intervention, as also illustrated by Figure 40.

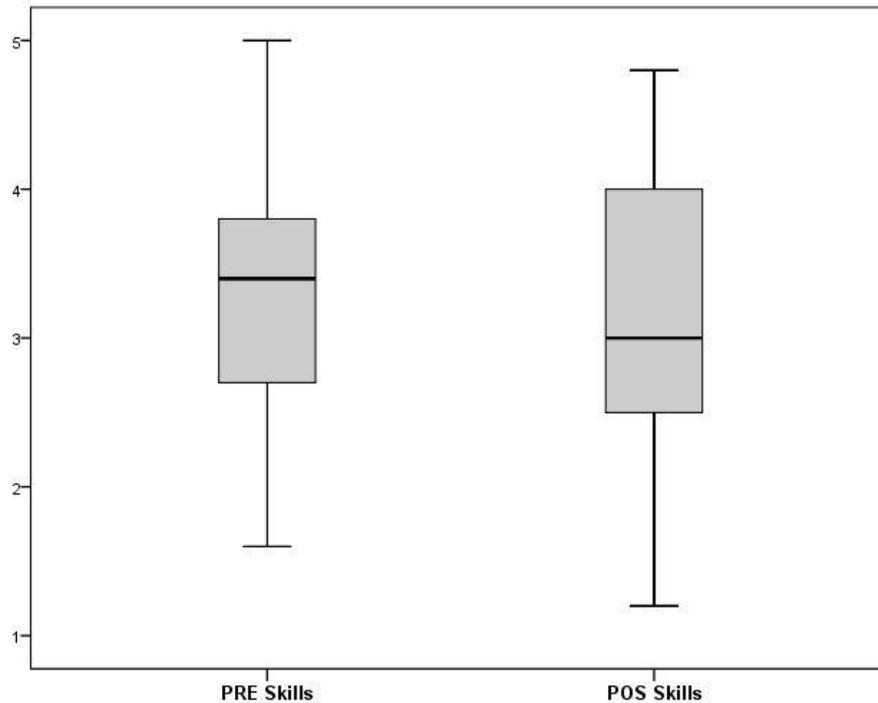


Figure 40 - Case 1: Skills boxplot.

Note. ($z = -.392$; $p = .695$)

Based on results yielded by the Wilcoxon-test, the difference between conditions is not only negative but it is also not statistically significant at $<.050$ ($p = .695$).

Overall, the conclusions drawn from the skills dimension concur with those drawn from the attitudes dimension. Thus, the decrease in skills may again be due to: (a) participant overestimation of their performance (due to social desirability bias), (b) actual decrease in terms of performance (due to a negative experience, for example), (c) participant overestimation of their performative abilities, based on a higher degree of cultural awareness or knowledge and, finally, (d) an imperfect relationship between the way ICC is represented and the way it is measured. The decrease in both the attitudinal and performative dimensions is particularly telling since both skills and attitudes are strongly based on interaction between exchange students and hosts.

Knowledge. The knowledge dimension is portrayed in the ICC construct in relation to participants' *objective* knowledge of home and host cultures. Of course, cultural knowledge also encompasses the subjective worldviews of people of those with whom they interact. For the sake of clarity, this dimension can be considered to be geared toward "objective culture" (see Chapter 2, section 3.6.2). Such objective knowledge also involves

mastering techniques or strategies to enhance language and cultural learning needed for successful interaction with hosts, as evident in Item 5 of the ICC construct.

Table 46 shows descriptive scores of central tendency and dispersion for the knowledge dimension by test instrument.

Table 46 - Case 1: Knowledge descriptive statistics.

	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Knowledge					
Pretest (n=17)	2.82	0.67	2.80	1.60	4.20
Posttest (n=17)	2.99	0.79	3.00	1.40	4.20

According to univariate measures, the knowledge dimension increased from the pre to posttest. Both the mean and the mode increased, even if the minimum value in the posttest is lower than the minimum value in the pretest. Figure 41 illustrates results in a boxplot.

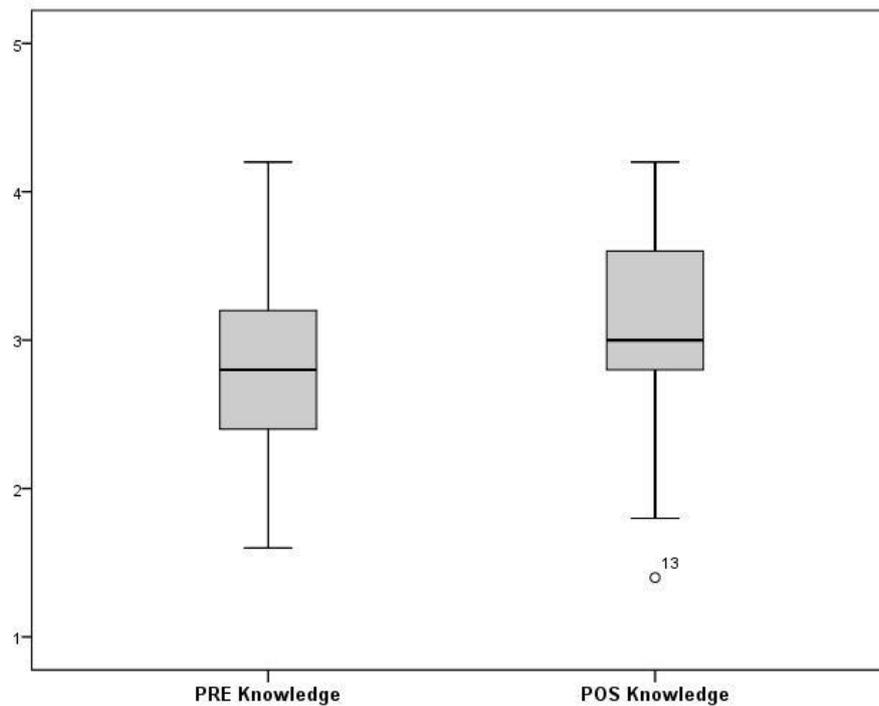


Figure 41 - Case 1: Knowledge boxplot.

Note. ($z = -1.115$; $p = .265$)

Although the boxplot shows a higher level of attainment in the knowledge dimension in the posttest, application of Wilcoxon test shows that this increase is not significant, with a p value equal to .265 ($z = -1.115$).

To summarize, the inferential analysis of all four component variables shows that the null hypothesis is not rejected by the data, i.e., that “purposeful intercultural pedagogy does not enhance the ICC of exchange students while abroad”. The central question of this research inquiry does not depend, however, on one single question in the test instruments (questions 16 and 14 of the pre and posttest, respectively). Discrepancies in this question can be regarded either as conflicting results or as evidence that ICC development patterns are highly complex and that its development with regard to the host culture is highly dependent on social interactions between sojourners and hosts. This interpretation seems to be acknowledged by the interviewees in the focus group discussion, when confronted with results of ICC attainment from pre to posttest, as illustrated below. For a detailed analysis, the reader is referred to Appendix T (Table T.1, Subtheme 5.3).

- I:** “(...) These are the results...Your awareness and your knowledge about culture raised, and your attitudes and skills seemed to decrease. Which of these components or dimensions did you feel that the seminars contributed more for your development?”
- A7:** “Awareness!”
- I:** “Awareness?”
- A7:** “Yes.”
- I:** “And knowledge?”
- A7:** “Yes, also knowledge about cultures.”
- I:** “Your attitudes you develop outside?”
- A7:** “Yes, yes...I didn’t have a lot of comments, you know...Skills are also like learning practice.”
- A7:** “So, awareness and knowledge are connected with these classes.”
- I:** “*Ok.*”
- A23:** “I think even attitudes. Actually, I think that the four components could be raised by the intercultural seminars.”
- I:** “But do you think that the focus was more on awareness and knowledge, because attitudes and skills decreased?”
- A21:** “Maybe because of the language.”
- A7:** “Maybe because the questionnaire was very long /Laughing/”

- A23:** “And we didn’t know what to answer /Laughing/”
- I:** “Because the first two items in the attitudes dimension say: “I can make more friends among Portuguese people” and “I can use Portuguese language in my daily life”... And you didn’t feel comfortable to use it?”
- A7:** “Because maybe we didn’t! In the beginning we thought we would, but at the end we didn’t.”
- I:** “*Yeah, ok.*”
- A21:** “We know that we do not know, *yes?* And we cannot do this... And in the beginning we didn’t know.” (...)
- I:** “Because these two dimensions refer more to what you did inside the Portuguese culture...”
- A7:** “*Yeah...* I think I told you is rather an *Erasmus* family than a Portuguese family.”

(**From left to right:** interviewer or interviewees, and focus group excerpts)

The above dialogue seems to support previous interpretations in that the paucity of interaction with hosts and lack of constant practice in Portuguese may have hindered participant culture-specific ICC development. This may have had a cumulative effect given that the intervention’s main medium of instruction was Portuguese and participant actual linguistic development did not match the proficiency level targeted by the PFL classes, as previously discussed in section 4.4.2.

To explore participant intercultural learning outcomes further, the two following sections shed insights into the correlations between the four ICC dimensions (4.4.3.2), and the impact of the intervention on participant intercultural gains (4.4.3.3).

4.4.3.2 Correlations between ICC dimensions

This section examines the correlation coefficients between participant ICC attainment in its four dimensions, based on the posttest results in the ICC scale (question 14). Similar to section 4.2.3, bivariate relationships are based on Spearman’s coefficient and take into account Cohen’s effect ranges to assess the coefficients yielded by the paired variables. Table 47 displays the correlations between ICC dimensions in the posttest.

Table 47 - Case 1: ICC correlation matrix.

	Awaranness	Attitudes	Skills	Knowledge
ICC dimensions				
Awareness	---			
Attitudes	.762** (n=17)	---		
Skills	.759** (n=16)	.640** (n=16)	---	
Knowledge	.704** (n=17)	.618** (n=18)	.852** (n=16)	---

Note. **Correlation is significant at $p < .010$, 2-tailed

All correlations between ICC dimensions are not only positive (above $r_s=.617$) but they are also significantly related to each other at $<.010$. This finding confirms the hierarchical nature of the ICC construct with its various interrelated components. The strong correlations might indicate this superordinate nature given their common dependence on a single latent factor - ICC.

Although ICC dimensions are inextricably linked, there is no indication so far that awareness furthers the development of knowledge, positive attitudes and skills, which in turn further awareness, as suggested by Fantini (2006a, 2009). In fact, according to case 1 results, the strongest association among ICC dimensions is between knowledge and skills, with a correlation coefficient of .852. Awareness, in turn, is strongly correlated to all other three dimensions given an equivalent strength of association ($r_s=.762$; $r_s=.759$; $r_s=.704$). There is, however, no suggestion so far that cultural awareness is more influential than the other ICC dimensions. Of course, results may be also dependent on the specific make up of case study 1 and the contextual variables affecting the ICC development of individual participants. Hence the need to compare these results with case study 2 to understand if they are purely contextual, an issue discussed in the following chapter. First, it is necessary to examine the impact of the intervention upon the intercultural gains of case 1 participants.

4.4.3.3 Impact of the intervention

Analysis of the intercultural impact or effectiveness of the intervention is based on closed questions 11 and 12 of the posttest. These questions elicited the extent to which the intervention maximized participant intercultural gains, and the extent to which participants would recommend it to prospective exchange students, respectively. Quantitative data yielded by these two closed questions will be complemented with qualitative data drawn from the posttest follow-up focus group. The two open-ended questions (11.1 and 11.2)

which elicited participant justifications for the attributed ratings will be examined in the cross-case analysis, because it was the only form of qualitative data collection common to both cohorts.

As usual, quantitative data are examined first according to participant ratings on the five-point Likert-type scale in questions 11 and 12. The lowest point on this measurement scale is 0 (“No extent”) and the highest is 4 (“To a great extent”). Descriptive statistical procedures computed include frequency of distribution, measures of central tendency and dispersion. Table 48 shows the frequency distribution of each point on the scale.

Table 48 - Case 1: Intercultural impact of the intervention (Frequency distribution).

Intercultural gains	Participants (Q11)		Future exchange studs. (Q12)	
	N	%	N	%
(0) No extent	1	5.3		
(1) To a small extent			1	5.3
(2) To a moderate extent	13	68.4	10	52.6
(3) To a large extent	5	26.3	5	26.3
(4) To a great extent			3	15.8
Total	19	100.0	19	100.0

Note. Q11= question 11; Q12= question 12 ; studs= students

Results referring to question 11 (column 1) demonstrate that 68.4% of the sample rate the ‘intercultural seminars’ (as the intervention was known to participants) as having a moderate impact. In contrast with this majority, 26.3% of participants consider the extent to be large and one individual (5.3%) considers it to be nil. These results are reinforced by those yielded by question 12 (column 2) as nearly 95% (15.8 + 26.3 + 52.6) of respondents would positively recommend the seminars to future exchange students for maximization of intercultural gains. Only one respondent stated that he/she would recommend the seminars to a small extent.

When interviewees were questioned about the intercultural value of the intervention, several variables were brought to the focus group discussion. These variables are presented as subthemes in Figure 42.

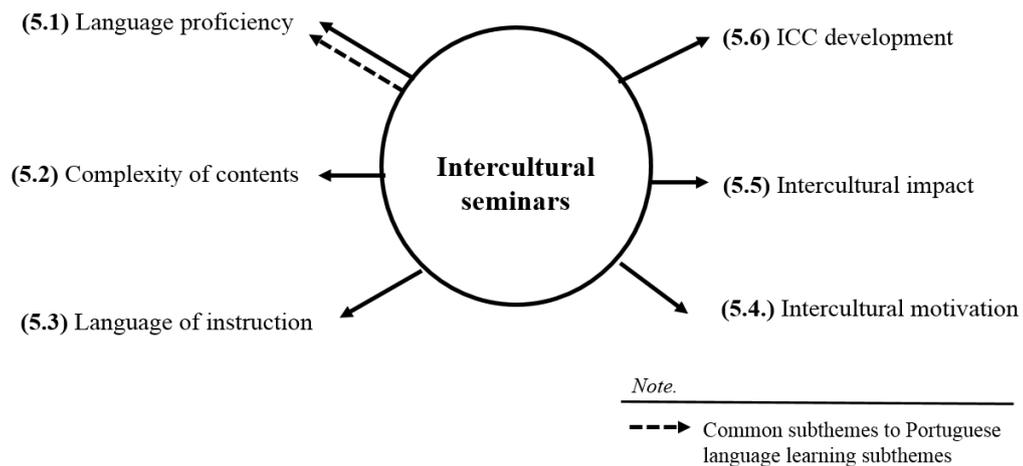


Figure 42 - Case 1: Subthemes of the intercultural impact of the intervention.

Six variables relate to the intercultural value of the intervention. Of the six variables, one (Subtheme 5.6) was already examined in section 4.4.3.1 as it refers to participant perceptions about ICC development from pre to posttest, based on the self-assessment scale. The other six variables are examined here.

To start with, *participant language proficiency*, Subtheme (5.1), was once again considered a learning obstacle which hindered the intercultural gains participants could have reaped from the intervention, as evident in participant A21 comment.

A23: "...I think Portuguese was an obstacle during the intercultural seminars, because the majority was on the level that was a little bit below."

The lack of an intermediate Portuguese language proficiency had a cumulative effect on the apprehension of *complex cultural contents*, Subtheme (5.2), as participant A23 notes:

A23: "...then we were talking about things that even in our native language, you know, were pretty complicated."

When questioned by the interviewer about their level of understanding in the intercultural seminars and the effectiveness of *code-switching strategies*, Subtheme (5.3), interviewees reinforced the need to use English as an auxiliary language of instruction:

I: "But you seemed to understand the overall meaning of the seminars...."

A7: "Yes, because..."

A10: "Yes, of course."

A7: "Yes, because after a few classes you stopped explaining the Portuguese words in Portuguese. You started explaining in English and we started getting it."

The *intercultural motivational realm*, Subtheme (5.4), did not seem to be an obstacle in terms of student disposition or willingness to learn intercultural issues.

A23: "...And I think you motivated us, by the end, because it was evident by the end of the activity that the group was interested. There were some discussions also. It's all the matter of the teacher."

Finally, when confronted with the quantitative results yielded by the posttest question referring to the *intercultural impact of the intervention*, Subtheme (5.5), (see question 11, Table 48), interviewees acknowledged some gains, but also pointed out time constraints.

A7: "Well the seminars started so late... in the second semester. So, I already understood a lot about differences between cultures, between friends, between people from different cultures...So, these classes..."

I: "Even about the concept of culture?"

A7: "I got to know how these things are called. But it didn't really influence a lot my life here."

I: "Well, not your life but your way of thinking and your reflexive thinking...Would you think on some issues on you own?"

A7: "No, probably not."

I: "Hmm, ok. A23?"

A23: "I think we started late, as A7 says. We had been after one semester. So, it was the practice, never ending practice, practice, practice...and then we have the theory of that. And so, the conclusion, naming it for the first time, we just knew that it existed...That "bread" means a different thing, for example, for each us. It was the theory, so calling the names by the names...that we knew already, but that was the big conclusion for us."

((Participant A23 refers to Module 2 wherein cultural relativism was explored through students' representations about "bread"))

(**From left to right:** interviewer or interviewees, and focus group excerpts)

As explored in previous sections (see section 4.4.3.1), interviewees seem to acknowledge the intercultural added-value of the intervention mainly in the knowledge and awareness dimensions. The key constraints pointed out by participants may be related to Portuguese language learning, as well as to the timing of the intervention.

In summary, examination of quantitative and qualitative data shows that participants not only acknowledge the intercultural benefits of the intervention, but they would also recommend it to prospective exchange students. Most importantly, triangulation of

descriptive results yielded by questions 11 and 12, and the ICC self-assessment scale (see section 4.4.3.1), demonstrate that the effect of intercultural competence training should not simply be a consequence of increased scores in the posttest (Van de Vijver & Leung, 2009). If that were the case, this intervention would have completely failed in its purpose. This issue will be explored further in the cross-case analysis of the following chapter.

4.5 Summary

This chapter analyzed and discussed quantitative data drawn from pre and posttests, as well as qualitative data yielded by the follow-up focus group and the interview with the PFL teacher. By elaborating upon research subquestion 1.1, responses were offered as to how credit-seeking exchange students, like CE participants, can be taught or mentored regarding the development of ICC in formal and non-formal contexts.

Results concerning research subquestions 1.2 and 1.3 underscore the particular mobility capital, pre-departure motivations, previous language learning and ICC developmental levels with which case study 1 students embark on the study abroad experience. Variables which may influence the ICC development of case participants 1 encompass not only these differing individual pre-departure variables, but also variables occurring during the sojourn itself. Part of this intricate mix are variables such as: the programmatic features of exchange programs (CE, in this case), teaching-related factors, learner motivation to learn Portuguese and actual language proficiency (which differs from the proficiency level students were enrolled in). Although multiple variables may influence ICC development, not all of them behave in the same way. Whereas background profile variables (such as mobility-capital variables) may positively influence ICC development, the language learning process comes up as having a negative influence.

Finally, results yielded by the ICC self-assessment scale demonstrate that the effectiveness of an intercultural intervention cannot simply be a consequence of statistically significant results and rejection of the null hypothesis. The nuances of ICC development may not be captured by a survey questionnaire alone, nor should it be bound to a single significance index (i.e., statistical significance). Qualitative indexes emphasized the added value participants assigned to the intervention and the relative weight it had on their intercultural development. Participant perceptions of their ratings on the ICC scale disclosed their ability to interpret their own behaviors in interculturally appropriate ways, and to

recognize that interaction with hosts is not a taken-for-granted aspect of study abroad. Thus, it may be that a decrease in the more performative dimensions of ICC (attitudes and skills) reflects the paucity of interaction with Portuguese hosts. Hence the importance of examining the informal and non-formal facets of the sojourn as well. Ultimately, it is this authentic experience outside that provides the leverage for teaching or mentoring ICC development inside the language classroom.

4.6 Limitations

As in all data analyses processes, there are limitations in the conclusions drawn. Although the conclusions of this research are limited to its participants, its insights may elucidate some of the intricacies of ICC development in other credit-seeking exchange students, as well as the nature, duration, and quality of the design and implementation of interventions in (foreign) language courses.

With regard to limitations in statistical procedures, these occurred essentially in quantitative significance indices (i.e., statistical significance) due to the small sample size. It would be difficult a priori to obtain significant results as *p* values are also a function of the sample size. After all, “holding everything else constant, the smaller the sample, the smaller the probability of obtaining statistically significant results” (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004, p. 775). This limitation hindered the statistical power of quantitative findings. It is likely that this statistical power would have been greater had there been more variability in the distribution of participant ICC development. Subsequent testing in larger samples would yield new insights into the research subquestions. Such limitations, however, should not overshadow the insights provided by this study. These insights include the importance of contrasting quantitative and qualitative significance indices to deal with validity threats and minimize misleading interpretation of findings (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004). Probing further into the quantitative dataset, by cross-checking closed questions of the pre and posttest questionnaires and triangulating these data with qualitative strands from the posttest follow-up focus group and the interview with the PFL teacher, allowed a more thorough understanding of the intervention and its impact on the ICC development of case 1 participants. Of course, there is the possibility that the within-case results are contextual and depend on the specific composition of case study 1. For this reason, the next chapter aims to shed more light into these results by comparing them with those yielded by case study 2.

Chapter 5 Cross-case Results: Data Analysis and Discussion

*«Not everything that can be counted counts,
and not everything that counts, can be counted»*

Einstein. A. (1879-1955).

This chapter provides a comparative understanding of the research results of the two case studies, by relating and contrasting patterns drawn from their quantitative and qualitative strands. For ease of comparison, quantitative data will be given priority over qualitative data. Whenever quantitative methods yield insufficient information, qualitative methods will be used to illuminate quantitative data strands.

5.1 Data Presentation

As in the previous chapter, quantitative research findings are based on data collected from pre and posttest questionnaires, analyzed within the framework of closed questions posed in these instruments. Qualitative findings, on the other hand, stem mainly from open-ended questions contained within these same instruments, but also include data drawn from an interview with the PFL teacher. Both data sets are analyzed in this chapter to respond to the following research subquestions:

- 1.3 Which variables influence the ICC development of case 1 and 2 participants?
- 1.4 What is the impact of the intervention upon the ICC development of case 1 and 2 participants? (What commonalities and differences emerge?)
- 1.5 What quantitative and qualitative results and/or taxonomy emerge from the two case studies that account for purposeful intercultural pedagogy in European credit student exchange and other sojourner populations?

The presentation of data follows the same organization of the within-case analysis in Chapter 4. That is, data are primarily organized according to the chronological order of the study abroad experience and subdivided into the same comprehensive themes or variable groupings.

Procedures are also the same as those employed in the within-case analysis, and include descriptive and inferential statistics for the quantitative data set and thematic analysis for the qualitative data source. The analytic strategy used follows a pattern-matching logic.⁶³ Such logic aids comparison of commonalities and differences across data patterns yielded by the two case studies, particularly in relation to the dependent variable (ICC development). Where patterns coincide, the results strengthen the validity of the two case studies under scrutiny and confirm the study's initial proposition (Yin, 2009). In the case of this research, if the impact of the intervention (via a literal replication) produces positive outcome results in both case studies, one can conclude that purposeful intercultural pedagogy enhances the ICC development of credit-seeking exchange students (and to some extent, other sojourner populations).

5.2 Pre-departure and Arrival

Although student mobility and immigration experiences share common challenges, the decision to leave one's home country is motivated by distinct reasons which may influence sojourn outcomes. For this reason, this section examines both case studies in relation to pre-departure variables to provide a more thorough picture of participant profiles. The aim is to determine whether the ICC development of case 2 participants is influenced by the same pre-departure variables of the primary case study. One of these pre-departure variables is the language biography students departure with, examined next.

5.2.1 Language Biography

Like case study 1, case study 2 is also a plurilingual group. Case 2 participants mastered two foreign languages on average ($SD=0.90$) and learned a minimum of one and a maximum of three foreign languages before the sojourn. In terms of exchange and immigrant subgroups, a distinction should be made: whereas the three *Erasmus* students learned three languages on average before the sojourn, the nine highly skilled immigrants learned two.

Of the 12 participants, all but one learned English as a foreign language before the sojourn, varying between one to more than six years of study. Accordingly, participants' English proficiency varied between elementary, intermediate and advanced. Overall, the

⁶³ A pattern-matching analysis is a type of analytic strategy which consists of "predicting a pattern of results and determining whether the actual results fit the predicted pattern" (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 279).

language biography of the group is rich but not as rich as in case study 1, at least regarding the number of foreign languages learned. Figure 43 illustrates the foreign languages learned by case 2 participants before the sojourn.

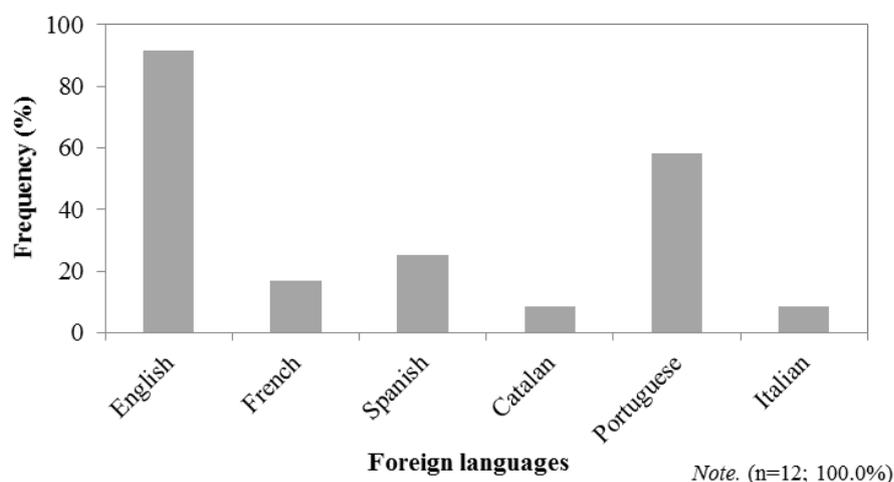


Figure 43 - Case 2: Foreign languages learned before the sojourn.

Figure 43 shows that Portuguese is the second most common foreign language learned ($n=7$; 58.3%) among the six languages learned by participants before the sojourn. When comparing these results with case 1, previous knowledge of Portuguese emerges as a differentiating profile variable. While in case 1 the number of participants who studied Portuguese before the sojourn represented a minority ($n=3$; 26.3% - see Figure 31), this number represented the majority of students in case 2 (Figure 43). Portuguese proficiency levels varied between A2 ($n=4$; 33.3%), B1 ($n=6$; 50.0%) and even B2 (2; 16.7%) for case 2 participants. Unlike case 1, this cohort had actual intermediate Portuguese proficiency, as section 5.4.2 will show. The underlying reason is not only previous knowledge of Portuguese and the longer period of immersion, but also because this particular group included: (a) six speakers of other Romance languages, (b) three Luso-descendant speakers, and (c) one speaker who lived in a Portuguese-speaking country for six months. This issue may be particularly relevant to ICC development, as will be discussed later.

As in the previous chapter, the account of pre-departure language learning variables is key to an examination of motivational aspects of study abroad, discussed next.

5.2.2 Motivations

Pre-departure motivations of case study 2 are analyzed differently from case study 1, essentially because the equivalent question for the immigrant subgroup is open-ended. The *Erasmus* subgroup maintains, however, the same closed question of case study 1. The underlying reason for this discrepancy was the selection of case study 2 at a later stage in the research, which invalidated the possibility of pilot testing the immigrant subgroup. As such, if for the *Erasmus* subgroup the categories used for case study 1 could be maintained, for the immigrant subgroup a closed question would force participants to choose from a set of pre-determined categories which were not pilot tested beforehand.

This section thus examines data yielded by the open-ended question 6 for the immigrant subgroup and the closed question 8 for the *Erasmus* subgroup. Although the two questions produced different types of data (qualitative and quantitative), all responses are here quantified. For these purposes, data drawn from question 6 are analyzed thematically (see Chapter 3, section 3.7.2.2) and quantified by counting the number of times a theme occurred. Based on responses generated from this question, four themes or categories were generated. The relative frequencies of these categories are illustrated by Figure 44.

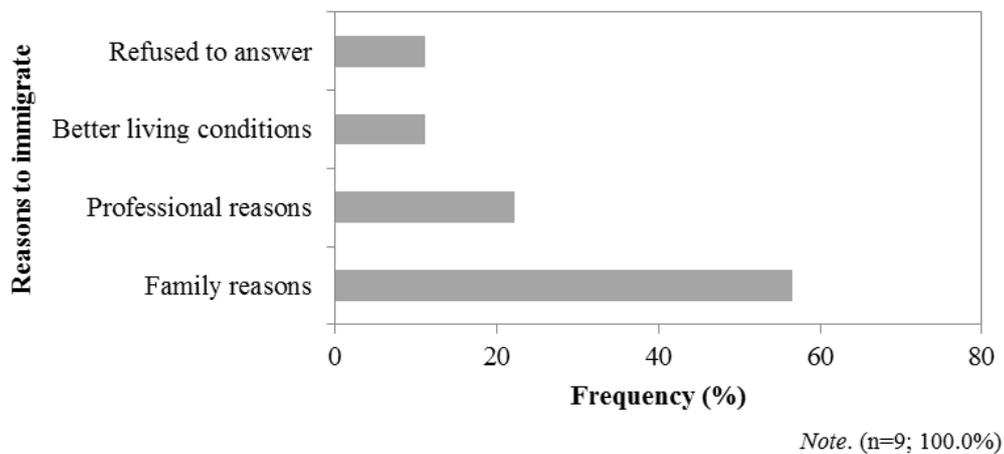


Figure 44 - Case 2: Top reasons to immigrate to Portugal (Immigrant subgroup).

As Figure 44 illustrates, 55.6% (n=6) of the nine participants immigrated to Portugal for family reasons. These participants had prior links to the country due to direct or indirect kinship ties. In other words, these six participants were descendants by lineage or they were married to or partners of a Portuguese person. The remaining participants refer to two

individuals who moved to Portugal for work, one individual who declined to answer and another who sought a better and quieter life for his/her family.

With regard to the *Erasmus* subgroup, all 13 categories assembled for case study 1 were kept. Figure 45 illustrates the categories selected by the three *Erasmus* participants according to frequency of observations. For ease of comparison with the primary case study, the motivations of CE students are also represented in this figure by dark grey columns. Categories are given as percentages. Each category accounts for 100%.

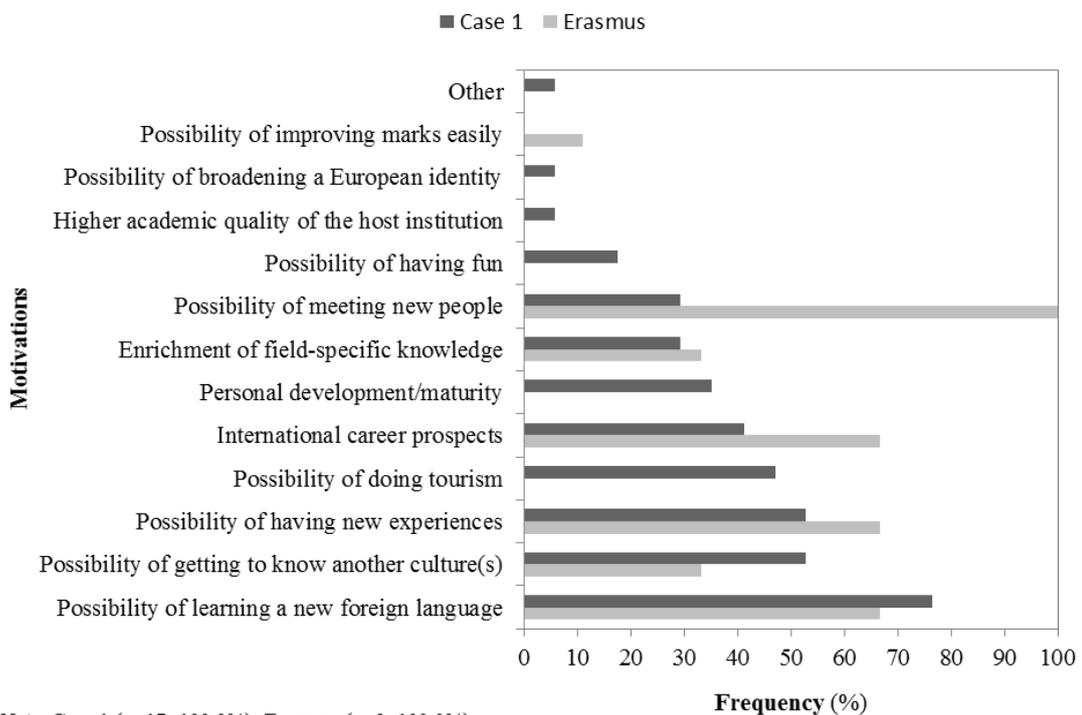


Figure 45 - Cross-case: Motivations to participate in an exchange program.

A cross-case comparison of the *Erasmus* subgroup and case 1 shows similarities between CE and *Erasmus* students' choices, even if the importance assigned is somehow different. These differences may be a result of the reduced number of *Erasmus* students and their own personal motivations. Despite these limitations, both subgroups of students selected the "possibility of learning a foreign language" and "knowing another culture" among their top four choices. Yet, whereas for CE students foreign language learning emerges as the top choice (n=13; 76.5%), it falls in second place for *Erasmus* students on par with "international career prospects" and "having new experiences" (n=2; 66.7%). Getting to know a new culture also drops one position in the *Erasmus* subgroup, ranking as the top third reason along with "enrichment of field-specific knowledge"(n=1; 33.3%). The

top choice for *Erasmus* students was the opportunity to meet new people, a category which falls into sixth place in case study 1. Despite these differences, overall the motivations of the two groups of exchange students are alike.

Finally, whether the sojourn is part of an educational journey such as student exchange or of the global flows urging individuals to cross national borders, the account of motivations is key to grasping the meaning of participant choices.

5.2.3 Mobility Capital

As in section 4.2.3, Chapter 4, this section examines how the mobility capital of case 2 participants correlates to ICC development. Calculations are again based on Spearman's bivariate correlation and Cohen's (1988, 1992) effect ranges. Correlations between mobility-capital variables and ICC development attained in the posttest by case study 1 and 2 participants are given in Table 49.

Table 49 - Cross-case: Correlation matrix for mobility capital.

Mobility-capital variables	Awareness		Attitudes		Skills		Knowledge	
	Case1	Case2	Case 1	Case 2	Case 1	Case 2	Case 1	Case 2
N of languages studied before the sojourn	.564* (n=17)	-.560 (n=11)	.193 (n=18)	-.023 (n=11)	.237 (n=16)	-.350 (n=12)	.259 (n=19)	-.263 (n=12)
Previous experience of living abroad	.286 (n=17)	.570 (n=10)	.240 (n=18)	.395 (n=11)	.158 (n=16)	.439 (n=11)	.528* (n=19)	.484 (n=11)
N of countries visited before the sojourn	.267 (n=17)	-.267 (n=9)	.351 (n=18)	.047 (n=10)	.235 (n=16)	-.345 (n=10)	.070 (n=19)	-.143 (n=10)
Foreign relationships abroad before the sojourn	.253 (n=17)	-.303 (n=11)	.360 (n=18)	.358 (n=12)	-.173 (n=16)	-.045 (n=12)	-.033 (n=19)	-.044 (n=12)
Foreign relationships in home country before the sojourn	-.012 (n=17)	-.301 (n=11)	-.172 (n=18)	-.066 (n=12)	-.303 (n=16)	-.067 (n=12)	-.204 (n=19)	-.065 (n=12)

Note. Largest coefficients are given in bold for the two case studies

*Correlation is significant at $p < .050$, 2-tailed

Similar to case study 1, correlation coefficients show that ICC dimensions unfold differently across mobility-capital variables (and vice versa). Developmental patterns are, nonetheless, distinct for the two case studies as evident in the dissimilar correlations yielded by the same paired variables. For instance, whereas in case 1 the “number of foreign languages learned” is positively and significantly correlated ($r_s = .564$) with awareness, in case study 2 this relationship is negative ($r_s = -.560$). The strength of the association is, nevertheless, strong for both cases. These results indicate that ICC development and

“number of foreign languages” move in opposite directions for the two case studies. Whereas for case 1 participants the higher the number of foreign languages learned, the higher their awareness levels; for case 2, the higher the number of foreign languages, the lower their awareness levels (and vice versa). This might suggest that awareness is less dependent on foreign language learning in case 2 than in case 1.

The remaining four mobility-capital variables, with the exception of “previous life abroad”, correlate mostly negatively with ICC development in case study 2. The only two exceptions (in these three variables)⁶⁴ are the positive correlation between the attitudinal dimension and the “number of countries visited before the sojourn” ($r_s=.047$) and “foreign relationships abroad” ($r_s=.358$). Accordingly, two patterns emerge in this mini data set:

1. “Previous life abroad” was the only variable which never decreased as case 2 participants’ ICC development increased;
2. The increase of “foreign relationships developed abroad and in-country”, “number of countries visited” and “number of languages studied” was never accompanied by an increase in ICC development.

To summarize, the cross-case analysis suggests that the relationship between mobility-capital variables and ICC development differs from one cohort to the other. Whereas in case 2 “previous life abroad” is essentially the only variable that correlates positively with ICC development in its four dimensions, in case 1 positive correlations include other mobility-capital variables. Additionally, while in case 1 there were two pairs of variables showing statistically significant correlations, all correlations in case 2 were not significant. These results suggest that mobility-capital variables might have more strongly influenced the ICC development of case 1 participants than case 2. It thus seems that ICC development unfolds differently not only across mobility-capital variables, but also across individuals and their developmental stages or psychological maturity.

Finally, it is important to understand the weight assigned by participants to their integration in the host society, discussed next.

⁶⁴ “N of countries visited before the sojourn”, “Foreign relationships in abroad”, “Foreign relationships in home country”.

5.3 Adaptation to Portuguese Culture

Similar to section 4.3 in Chapter 4, this section examines how participants engage in socialization, adaptation and integration processes in the host culture. To facilitate comparison of case studies, the four aspects explored in the previous chapter are maintained: (1) living conditions (section 5.3.1), (2) friendships and social networks (section 5.3.2), (3) host culture facilities (section 5.3.3), and (4) integration in the local community (section 5.3.4). Participation in ESN activities is excluded from this analysis, because these activities refer only to the exchange community sociocultural practices.

5.3.1 Living Conditions

Living conditions of case 2 participants differ from case 1. Whereas all case 1 participants opted to live in rented accommodation with other international students, in case 2 this was only the case of the three *Erasmus* students. All highly skilled immigrants opted to live in private rented accommodation. Seven of the immigrant participants lived with their families, while two participants lived on their own.

The accommodation choices of CE and *Erasmus* students differentiate these 22 exchange students from the subgroup of nine highly skilled immigrants who seek independence and private moments with their relatives. And yet, both mixed and independent housing may reflect absence of contact with locals, lack of constant host language practice and social networks closed to other sojourners or family members. This issue is examined next.

5.3.2 Friendships and Social Networks

Social networks of case 1 and 2 participants differ in that they are not exclusively built upon peers and may include hosts.

To examine case 2 participants' social networks and compare them to case 1, this section analyzes the same five closed questions of the equivalent section (4.3.2) in the within-case analysis. These questions are as follows: the type of people participants spent most of their time with (Q2), the number of peer (Q3) and Portuguese friends (Q4), the level of difficulty in making Portuguese friends (Q4.1) and, finally, friendship groups (Q5). To gain a more thorough understanding, two open-ended questions are included in this analysis,

viz.: participant justifications for the level of difficulty felt in making friends with hosts and for chosen friendship groups, questions 4.2 and 5.1, respectively.

Analytical procedures include descriptive statistics for the five quantitative questions and the thematic analysis of responses given to open-ended questions 4.2 and 5.1, along with the frequency of recurrence of the generated themes.

Analysis of closed questions is carried out first. To start with, data regarding question 2, i.e., the social contacts with whom case 2 participants most commonly spent time during the sojourn, are examined. Given that categories provided in this question are not completely comparable, analysis of frequency distribution is done separately for the two subgroups that form case study 2 (immigrants and *Erasmus* students). Each category accounts for 100%, i.e., number of positive (“yes”) responses.

Results yielded by *Erasmus* students show that these participants spent more time with other exchange students (n=3; 100.0%). The immigrant subgroup choices were wider and are given in Table 50.

Table 50 - Case 2: Social contacts of the immigrant subgroup.

Social contacts	n/N	%
Co-workers	4/9	44.4
Other immigrants	3/9	33.3
Portuguese people	3/9	33.3
PFL colleagues	3/9	33.3
Family	2/9	16.7

Note. (N=9; 100.0%)

PFL= Portuguese as a foreign language

Comparison of data drawn from the two subgroups indicate that while *Erasmus* students’ social networks are confined to other sojourners, immigrant networks are minimally extended to hosts. Social contacts with whom immigrants spent more time with are their colleagues at work, a finding which reinforces the importance of their socioprofessional roles as a differentiating variable. Naturally, family members also emerge among categories selected by immigrant participants.

To explore further the results examined above, data regarding the number of sojourner and Portuguese friends (questions 3 and 4, respectively) are analyzed. For a cross- comparison, results drawn from each case study are summarized in Table 51.

Table 51 - Cross-case: Number of sojourner and Portuguese friends.

Friends	Case 1					Case 2				
	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Other sojourners ^a (Q3)	22.35	14.32	20	10	50	18.90	20.25	10	2	60
Portuguese friends ^b (Q4)	4.82	3.64	5	0	4	8.11	9.02	5	1	30

Note. Case 1:^a or ^b(n=19; 100.0%); Case 2:^a(n=10; 100.0%); ^b(n=9; 100.0%)

Q3= question 3; Q4= question 4

Results in Table 51 show that participant observations in each case study are not very different from one another. Although the mean and maximum number of Portuguese friends is greater in case 2, these differences seem to be residual. The underlying reason is that the average number of Portuguese friends in case 2 is affected by an outlier⁶⁵ - a participant who stated he/she had 30 (maximum value) Portuguese friends. Since this extreme value severely affects the distribution, the reader is offered an alternative analysis, to wit: if the extreme value is weeded out, the mean of Portuguese friends drops to 5.38 (SD=4.00) and the maximum value to 10. The extreme value of 30 friends made the mean value (which is a hypothetical value) misleading.

Data drawn from questions 4.1 and 4.2 complement the results described above, by providing quantitative and qualitative evidence regarding the friendship-making process with hosts and the level of difficulty felt by participants, respectively. Table 52 displays the descriptive ratings of the two case studies based on the five-point scale in question 4.1.

Table 52 - Cross-case: Level of difficulty in making friends with hosts.

Difficulty	Case 1		Case 2	
	N	%	N	%
(0) To no extent			2	16.7
(1) To a small extent	5	26.3	2	16.7
(2) To a moderate extent	7	36.8	6	50.0
(3) To a large extent	6	31.6	2	16.7
(4) To a great extent	1	5.3		
Total	19	100.0	12	100.1 [#]

Note.[#] Percentages may not total 100.0 due to rounding

⁶⁵ This number is considered an outlier based on information given by the respondent to question 4.2 which contradicted the response given to question 4.

As displayed in Table 52, most participants in both cohorts assigned a moderate level of difficulty to the process of making friends with hosts. Case 1 participants assigned on average a level of difficulty of 2.16 (SD=0.90), and case 2 of 1.67 (SD=0.99). Participants who considered this process to be slightly difficult, or not difficult at all, represent only a minority (26.3% in case 1, and 33.4% in case 2).

Overall, case 1 and 2 participants concur on the difficulty assigned to the friendship-making process with hosts, a finding which justifies the small number of Portuguese friends previously discussed (see Table 51). Yet, the similar level of difficulty felt by both cohorts does not mean that the underlying reasons are the same. In effect, qualitative data drawn from open-ended question 4.2 show three different reasons for the difficulties felt in building relationships with hosts. These three reasons stem from those participant responses which fell between Level 2 (“To a moderate”) and 4 (“To a great extent”) on the measurement scale in closed question 4.1. Responses yielded by this closed question which were situated on the first two points on the scale are not contemplated in this analysis because they refer to absence of or to a small level of difficulty. Accordingly, a total of 22 responses are analyzed here (14 responses in case study 1, and 8 in case study 2).

From the 22 responses, three themes emerged: (4.2.a) “Closure of hosts”, (4.2.b) “Language barriers”, and (4.2.c) “Personal circumstances”. Out of the 22 responses, three were considered not applicable (NA) and one was not provided (NP), accounting for a total of 18 valid responses. For a detailed analysis of the three sets of themes and frequency of recurrence by case study the reader is referred to Appendix U, Table U.1.

Verbatim excerpts of the three identified themes (or categories) are provided to show how participants perceived the friendship-making process with hosts, and the type of difficulties experienced. Excerpts were selected for their relevance and, because considered together, they display enough range and diversity of experiences and perspectives of participants in making friends with hosts.

To start with, four excerpts are provided to illustrate Theme 4.2.a - “Closure of hosts”, a type of difficulty which assembles the opinion of 55.6 % of respondents.

A3: “First, I was spending time more with foreign students. Portuguese sometimes, I felt that they were a little closed and skeptic and sometimes it was difficult to contact with them.”

- A18:** “Usually it's not a problem to make friends with Portuguese people, but at university students stick strongly to some small groups and don't socialize with foreigners.”
- B13:** “They (Portuguese people) don't have time for friendships. Portuguese people have always many things to do and they don't interact with other people. Going out and sharing is not part of their lives.”
- A7:** “There are some people who already had international relationships and friends or speak well English - they are open. But the Portuguese people who don't speak English are either shy or not so outgoing.”

All four respondents attribute the lack of openness of hosts to the difficulties felt in the friendship-making process, but they differ in how they understand it. Respondents B13 and A7, for instance, attribute this lack of openness mainly to personal traits or disposition of hosts, disclosing somehow unfavorable views toward out-group interactions. Participant B13 considers that “going out and sharing is not part of [hosts'] lives”, and A7 even makes the distinction between those who, like him/her, are open because they have international relationships and speak English and those, who lacking these experiences, are closed.

Respondents A3 and A18, on the other hand, seem to hold a more nuanced understanding of their experiences, by acknowledging that the friendship-making process involves also their own personal affinities (with other foreign students) and group dynamics within the host environment (specifically the academic environment).

Besides social distance, other factors may have negatively influenced relationships between sojourners and hosts. Language barriers (Theme 4.2.b) are part of these factors, with 27.8% of respondents attributing the difficulties felt to the language realm. Three examples of the language barriers experienced by participants are provided.

- B14:** “Problems with the [Portuguese] language. Sometimes I'm afraid to speak, because people don't understand me.”
- A20:** “It is difficult to find common interests, because for me it was hard to speak Portuguese and I felt that Portuguese people didn't want to speak English.”
- A23:** Portuguese people are very open, but when we first came to Portugal we didn't speak Portuguese. That's why the contact was limited, and we had more contact with *Erasmus* students.”

As illustrated by responses, communication strain can be experienced even after one academic year of immersion (or more, in the case of immigrant participants). Language can block mutual understanding and cause frustration or psychological distress, as expressed by

respondent B14. Concurrently, language can mirror participant social interactions, which are essentially build upon sojourners (particularly in the case of exchange students). These closed social networks may, *de facto*, hinder entry into host social circles and, by implication, constant practice of Portuguese, as previously noted in the within-case analysis. Participant A20 and A23 responses concur with this assumption, by demonstrating that sojourner social networks although providing a shelter of refuge may also discourage the use of Portuguese since the means of communication is English. This finding calls, once again, into question whether exchange students envisage integration and communication in the host language as primary social needs. This issue will be discussed in more detail in the remaining posttest questions analyzed in this section, as well as in section 5.3.4.

Finally, 16.7% of participants pinpointed personal circumstances (Theme 4.2.c) as a factor which hampered the development of relationships with hosts. Verbatim excerpts are provided below.

B6: “I think my personal circumstances didn't help. Most of the time I had to take care of my baby.”

A6: “I was spending almost all the time with exchange students and I think I didn't have so big motivation to make friends with Portuguese people.”

As evident in these responses, personal circumstances can refer to family responsibilities, in the case of immigrant participants (B6), or simply to the lack of personal motivation in extending social relationships to hosts (A6). Once again, lack of integration in the Portuguese culture comes to the fore given that peer networks can hold sojourners back from investing effort and energy in socializing with hosts. Analysis of questions 5 and 5.1 of the posttest sheds insights into this aspect of international living, examined next.

As noted earlier in the within-case analysis, closed question 5 elicited participant friendship groups during the sojourn and question 5.1 justifications for the chosen friendship group. According to data drawn from question 5, the majority of participants in both case studies selected other sojourners as their friendship group. In case study 1 this choice corresponds to 94.7% (n=18) of participants,⁶⁶ and in case 2 to 58.3% (n=7). Of the 41.7 % of participants in case 2 who did not choose other sojourners: (a) two participants considered co-workers to be their closest friends, (b) one participant considered his/her own family, (c)

⁶⁶ One CE participant (5.3%) chose both sojourners and hosts.

another considered both his/her family and peers and, finally, (d) one participant deemed both sojourners and hosts. And yet, both case study participants seem to cling mainly to their peers (exchange students for CE and *Erasmus* students; and immigrants for the immigrant subgroup) who share the same situation and common adjustment challenges to Portuguese culture.

Question 5.1 sheds further insight into why peer social networks are a major source of social support for participants during their stay in Portugal. Two reasons (presented here as themes) explain participant choices for friendship groups and the type of social support, viz.: (5.1.a) “Companionship support”, and (5.1.b) “Instrumental support”. Verbatim quotations are provided to offer the reader a window into the data set. For a detailed analysis of themes and frequency of recurrence across the 28 valid responses given to question 5.1, the reader is again referred to Appendix U, Table U.2.

Companionship support, (Theme 5.1.a), is the most frequent response, since 82.1% of participants simultaneously emphasized the provision of social support and a sense of belonging to a wider community of practice or “family” (in their own words). Five examples are given below.

- A21:** “We are ‘riding mostly the same shopping car’. All of us struggle with new challenges: new place, new accommodation ... In extreme groups, you are on your own.”
- A11:** “Because we are like the same family. We are here for more or less the same reasons. And we are more open minded and also it is easier to talk with exchange students.”
- A10:** “It's simply the easier way. When it comes to Portuguese students, since this was my last year, groups usually consist of less than 10 people (with at least 3 foreigners) and sometimes it was really a challenge to hang out with them.”
- B4:** “We went to [Portuguese] classes together, studied together, had lunch together or a coffee.”
- B9:** “There are many people from my nationality at the university.”

An analysis of participant responses suggests that in “Companionship support” the provision of social support goes hand in hand with a strong sense of identification with friendship group. This is the case of 82.1% of participants in case study 1 and 63.6% in case study 2, representing also those participants who chose other sojourners as their source of social support. Other sojourners were people who, just like the respondents, lived in a foreign

country, shared similar interests, activities (leisure and academic) or even lifestyle (particularly in the case of exchange students, see Chapter 4, section 4.2.4), cultural adjustment challenges and were open to making friends. This shared understanding of a unique live experience seems to promote well-being and uncertainty reduction in view of adjustment challenges, as participant A21 notes. Or, maybe the provision of support by similar “Others” is just easier given their availability and readiness to offer a type of protection commonly sought by sojourners, as participant A10 notes.

By contrast, “Instrumental support” (Theme 5.1.b) does not stress a sense of belonging to a wider social network. This represents a 17.9% share across the two case studies, and encompasses those respondents whose sources of support included: (a) co-workers, (b) family members, (c) family and peers, and (d) peers and hosts. For those (immigrant) participants whose source of support were their co-workers the compatibility of schedules and common professional interests bring them closer to those they work with, as is evident in the two excerpts below.

B6: “Work colleagues, because our schedules are compatible. We still don’t have many friends.”

B16: “I feel closer to my work colleagues who are mostly Portuguese and some are Brazilian.”

The powerful role of the family household should not be dismissed as well, as highlighted by two participants who considered their family a source of social support.

B2: “My friends in Portugal are my family.”

B16: “Friends at the moment are immigrants and the remaining friends belong to my husband’s.”

Like participant B16, who considers to have two main sources of social support, another participant deems his/her social provision twofold, including both sojourners and hosts. The reason given was the time spent with both types of friends, to wit:

A18: “Both, because I spent as much time with exchange students as with Portuguese students, and I can’t describe only one group as friends.”

Considered together, participant responses demonstrate that “Companionship support” (Theme 5.1.a) represents the opinion of those participants who chose other sojourners as their friendship group. The shelter provided and the sense of belonging to a

wider community of practice is key in making friends with peers, a finding emphasized throughout this and the previous chapter. By contrast, in “Instrumental support” (Theme 5.1.b) the sense of belonging does not come as a determinant factor of social provision and refers mainly to immigrant participant choices of social support.

To summarize, results drawn from all seven posttest questions analyzed in this section are interrelated and indicate that socialization and friendship-making processes with hosts are far from linear and involve multiple adjustments (on both parts). Adaptation to the host environment follows closely socialization and language acquisition processes. While adapting to the new cultural setting, sojourners go through multiple transitions and rely essentially on the social support provided by their peer group. These transitions can be psychological, linguistic, cultural, social, professional or other (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002). Those encountered by participants were mainly linguistic and social. Together their adjustments demonstrate that adaptation can lead to negative reactions or feelings of alienation regarding the host environment and hosts.

Personal friends of sojourners were rarely among hosts as participants could easily lean on the communities of practice they are part of. These communities, while an important protection against feelings of isolation and disorientation, may also fence in participants from seeking actual adaptation and socialization with hosts (particularly in the case of exchange students). Closed friendship ties developed in peer communities are furthered by living and interacting in the same cultural *milieu* while away from home.

5.3.3 Host Culture Facilities

Living in a different cultural *milieu* is a multidimensional experience. Sociocultural choices such as host cultural facilities are part of this experience and can influence (both positively and negatively) the sojourn experience. This section then analyzes the facilities participants chose to familiarize themselves within Portuguese culture. This analysis is based on data drawn from question 7 in the CE and *Erasmus* posttest, and question 6 in the immigrant posttest.⁶⁷ As in the equivalent section in Chapter 4, each category accounts for 100%. Table 53 shows the top four top facilities for both cohorts.

⁶⁷ As explained in Chapter 3, the posttest of the CE group and the *Erasmus* subgroup was the same. The immigrant posttest, suffered some adjustments to address the profile of this population – e.g, in question 7 the category “Immigrant associations” was added to the 15 categories provided to CE and *Erasmus* students.

Table 53 - Cross-case: Top four host culture facilities.

Case 1				Case 2			
Rank	Facilities	n/N	%	Rank	Facilities	n/N	%
1	Cafés	19/19	100.0	1	Newspapers and magazines	10/12	83.3
1	Traveling around Portugal	19/19	100.0	2	Restaurants	9/12	75.0
2	Night clubs and bars	15/19	78.9	3	Media	8/12	66.7
2	Restaurants	15/19	78.9	4	Music	7/12	58.3
3	Street markets	14/19	73.7	4	Cafés	7/12	58.3
4	Museums	13/19	68.4	4	Street markets	7/12	58.3

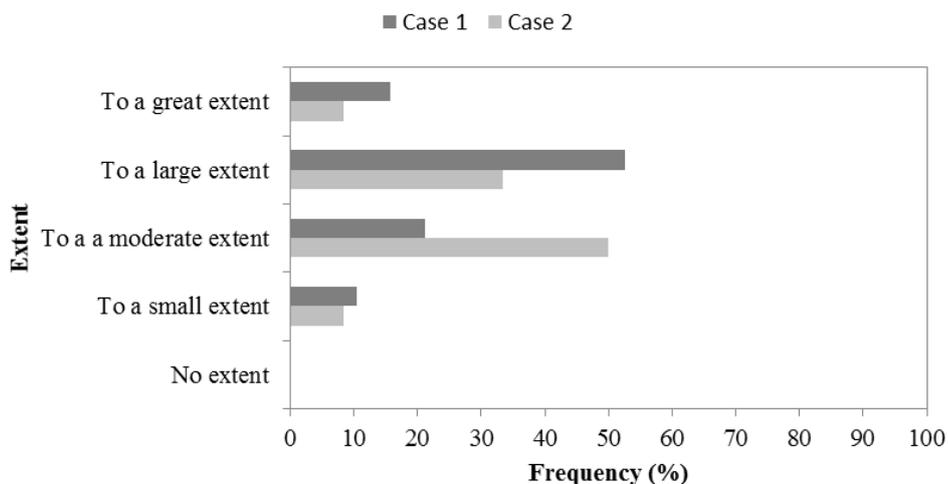
Note. Case 1 (N=19; 100.0%); Case 2 (N=12; 100.0%)

Results in Table 53 show points of convergence and divergence among the top choices of the two cohorts. Both groups concurred on the role of “restaurants”, “cafés” and “street markets”, but diverged on the importance they assigned to each. Furthermore, whereas case 1 chose essentially facilities that allowed active experimentation and interaction, case 2 included facilities related to knowledge development and aesthetic appreciation, specifically: print media, broadcast media and music. These differences stem mostly from the immigrant subgroup as the choices of *Erasmus* students were close to their exchange counterparts. Similar to CE students, the three *Erasmus* students included “night clubs and bars”, “traveling throughout Portugal” and “restaurants” among their top choices.

As a final point, the diverse choices of exchange students and immigrants may also mirror their different agendas and age ranges. Whereas, exchange students are young and marked by an agenda of active experimentation, immigrants have other interests, as well as professional and family responsibilities.

5.3.4 Integration in the Local Community

This section expands data discussed in previous sections by examining the extent to which participants felt at home in the local community. As in the corresponding section (4.3.4) in Chapter 4, data drawn from question 8 are examined but these data are complemented here by an analysis of the open-ended question 8.1. Data from question 8, which elicited the extent to which participants felt at home in Aveiro, are examined first. Figure 46 illustrates the ratings attributed by both case studies’ participants in question 8, based on the five-point Likert-type scale given.



Note. Case 1 (n=19; 100.0%); Case 2 (n=12; 100.0%)

Figure 46 - Cross-case: Extent to which participants felt at home in Aveiro (Frequency distribution).

Results in Figure 46 show that most case 1 participants (52.6%) felt at home to a large extent in Aveiro whereas most case 2 participants (50.0%) felt at home only to a moderate extent. None of them stated that they did not feel at home in Aveiro (“To no extent”). Overall, the groups of participants felt at home in Aveiro as reflected by a mean of 2.74 (SD=0.87) in case 1, and of 2.42 (SD=0.79) in case 2.

Statistically, there are no major differences between responses from the two participant cohorts. However, the process of integration and appropriation of the “new home” may imply both similar and distinct challenges for the two groups of sojourners. For this reason, the open-ended question 8.1 is examined next.

Thematic analysis of question 8.1 yielded 29 valid responses (for a detailed analysis see Appendix U, Table U.3). Three themes emerged from these 29 responses, viz.: (8.1.a) “Uprootedness and/or homesickness”, (8.1.b) “Cityness”, and (8.1.c) “Rootedness to the local community through others” or “Rootedness through others” for short. Considered together, these themes reflect the ways participants apprehended and staked out the spatial conditions of the city of Aveiro and its local community.

Participants who expressed uprootedness toward Aveiro manifested feelings of physical and social distance. This was the case of 20.7% of responses which fall under theme “Uprootedness and/or homesickness” (8.1.a), a category which designates a stage wherein feelings of strangeness, non-adaptation and homesickness prevail over relationships with the local community. Five illustrative excerpts are given.

- B7:** “I don't really feel at home in the local community because even if I consider Aveiro as my city. I'm still feeling like a stranger.”
- B19:** “I don't spend much time living a Portuguese life.”
- B10:** “Because of the non-adaptation.”
- A2:** “Different food, culture and friends at home.”
- A20:** “I feel homesick and I miss my culture and my country.”

As demonstrated by participant responses, feelings which would expectably occur in initial stages of adaptation may linger, irrespective of the sojourn duration. Of the six participants who reported feelings of displacement and/or homesickness, five were exchange students and one was an immigrant (for a detailed analysis see Appendix U, Table U.3). Although both groups felt uprooted, this feeling was more frequent among exchange students than immigrants. Exchange students such as B19, for instance, did not even consider to “live a Portuguese life”, a statement which again casts doubt on whether exchange students perceive integration in the host culture as a primary social need.

Participant responses which expressed familiarization with the city of Aveiro were categorized as “Cityness” (8.1.b), a theme which registered 31.0% of recurrence. The label of this theme is inspired by the notion of “Cityness” advanced by the sociologist Saskia Sassen (2010a, 2010b) to refer to the communal experience of the city as the site of continuous and open social intersections. Drawing from these notions, the theme “Cityness” is here used to convey participant appropriation of the city of Aveiro and its urban life, but not necessarily social proximity to the local community. If one conceives a continuum along the three themes generated from question 8.1, “Cityness” falls right in the middle of those participants who felt uprooted (Theme a) and those who felt rooted (Theme c). Four verbatim quotations are given below.

- B4:** “I adapted well to this city and to this beaches.”
- A1:** “Aveiro is a nice city and if only I would have more local friends this would definitely feel like home.”
- A19:** “I lived here more than nine months, Aveiro gets to you.”
- A11:** “I spent a lot of time in Aveiro. I know all the streets. I have my favourite meals, drinks. I know workers in the shops, cafes, university. So, in this way I feel like here is my home. After all trips it is very nice to come back to Aveiro.”

Unlike those participants who felt displaced, these four participants perceive Aveiro as a familiar place. They are able to map the city out into sub-units, identifiable areas and their favorite places, as evident in A11 response. In terms of discourse, these participants do not yet express feelings of strong social proximity, since familiarization with the local community is explained through the passage of time (A19), appropriation of the city (B4, A1) or both (A11). Significant interaction with others or social relations are not mentioned as key variables for proximity to the city of Aveiro. Contrariwise, participants who expressed rootedness to Aveiro manifested both physical and social proximity. This was the case of 48.3% of participants i.e., 14 responses which were categorized as “Rootedness through others” (Theme c). Five excerpts are given below.

B2: “I feel quite a home, because my family is numerous and so far I had a good experience living in Portugal.”

B16: “I think I have a regular life, integrated with my peers and Portuguese friends.”

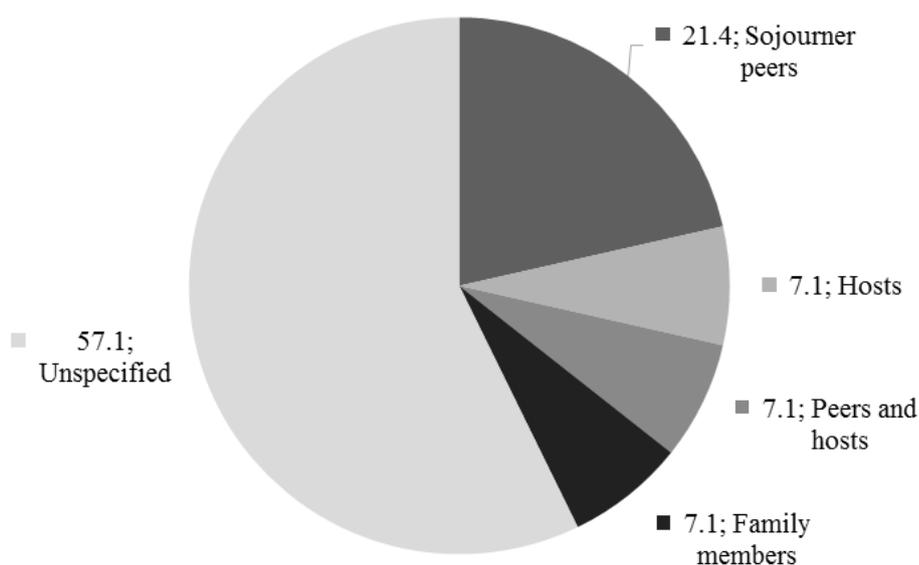
A7: “When I was in my home country for Christmas break I was looking forward to come back ‘home’ and ‘*Erasmus* family’.”

A18: “ ‘Portugueses’ I have met are very friendly and make you feel like at home very easily.”

A17: “Mostly, because of the long period of my stay - I know my way around the city, have my “local shops”, supermarkets, favourite cafes... And also, I have found good friends here which contribute to a feeling of being rooted (more than I would feel like if I were alone).”

As displayed by excerpts, Aveiro is no longer apprehended as a strange place but as a social entity which gained meaning through readiness for exploration and significant interaction with others. Participants learned their way around the city, as participant A17 explains and, on doing so, what was before meaningless became a city with familiar areas, favorite places and shared memories. This proximity was only possible through social relations, i.e., by making “good friends [who] contributed to a feeling of being rooted” (A17). Considered together, excerpts demonstrate that the city space is not merely a physical or topological unit but a condition and symbol of human relations, as argued by sociologists such as George Simmel and human geographers like David Harvey. The differentiating variable here is the type of human relations developed by sojourners. As such, the following question arises: *Who are these “Others” who contributed to a feeling of belonging?* Further

analysis of Theme (c), “Rootedness through others”, offers possible answers to this question. Accordingly, these “Others” are: (c.i) sojourner peers, (c.ii), peers and hosts, (c.iii) hosts, (c.iv) family members and, finally, (c.v) unspecified others. Figure 47 displays the recurrence of the five subthemes across the 14 responses which expressed feelings of rootedness to the local community.



Note. (n=14; 100.0%)
Percentages may not total 100.0 due to rounding

Figure 47 - Cross-case: Subthemes of “Rootedness through others” (Theme 5.1.c).

Recurrence of the five subthemes in Figure 47 shows that unspecified others stand out among participant responses. Triangulation of these subcategories with results yielded by question 5 (“Friendship group”) gives greater clarity to these responses (see section 5.3.2). The underlying reason is that all eight participants (57.1%) who did not specify those who made them feel at home selected “Other exchange students” as their friendship group in question 5. It is therefore likely that “Sojourner peers” represents 78.5% of recurrence, instead of 21.4% in Theme 5.1.c. This finding reinforces the prominence of sojourner social networks which, while enclosed in themselves, very rarely open up to the local community. Once again, those participants who chose “Peers and hosts” or just “Hosts” are almost an exception, corresponding to the two participants who considered their friendship groups to be “Hosts and peers” and “Co-workers” in closed question 5 (see section 5.3.2).

In the end, participant feelings toward the local community can offer clues to where participants are located in the adaptation process. Figure 48 illustrates the relationships

between themes drawn from question 8.1 according to where participants are positioned on an imaginary adaptation continuum wherein “Uprootedness” represents lower stages of adaptation and “Rootedness” higher.

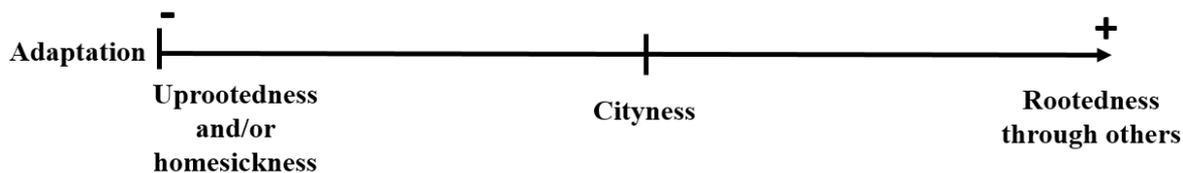


Figure 48 - Cross-case: Extent to which participants felt at home in Aveiro (Themes).

As Figure 48 illustrates, those participants who are rooted to the local community through others are possibly more adapted because interaction was the key for feeling at home in the local community. This is mostly applicable to those two participants who felt rooted through hosts, in question 5, as they could access the local community “from the inside”.

In the middle of the continuum one finds participants for whom Aveiro has become a familiar place via proximity with the urban space. Naturally, there is the chance that “Others” were also a significant element of spatial appropriation, but were omitted in participant discourse. Thus, if textually one cannot infer that these participants apprehended Aveiro through others and meaningful interaction, conceptually it is extremely unlikely that space was not socially constructed. After all, “a space is a site of relations of one entity to another and it therefore contains ‘the other’ precisely because no entity can rest in isolation”(Harvey 1996, p. 261). While concurring with this assumption, it might fix symbolic meanings which were not truly expressed by participants. For this reason, “Cityness” should be envisaged as a hybrid category which, despite emphasizing the urban realm, does not necessarily disregard sociospatial relations. Triangulation of these qualitative data with quantitative strands drawn from question 8 provides fuller information regarding the accuracy of this interpretation. For this reason, a mixed methods matrix is given in Table 54.

Table 54 - Mixed methods matrix: Extent to which participants felt at home in Aveiro.

Qualitative data (Q8.1)		Quantitative data (Q8)				Mixed methods characteristics	
Code	Themes	M	SD	Mdn	χ^2	Priority & Timing	Use of adjunct
8.1.a	Uprootedness and/or homesickness	1.67	0.52	2.00			
8.1.b	Cityness	2.89	0.89	3.00	11.133**	QUAN+qual	qualitative: Triangulation & complementarity
8.1.c	Rootedness to the local community through others	2.86	0.59	3.00			

Note. (n=29; 100.0%); number of valid quantitative and qualitative responses

Adapted from Sandelowski (2000); QUAN= priority was given to quantitative strands; + Concurrent timing

**Significant at $p < .010$, χ^2 = Chi-square, Kruskal-Wallis test

As Table 54 demonstrates, participant ratings in closed question 8 are consistent with the conceptual categories generated from question 8.1. Hence the higher median registered by those 23 participant responses which fell under Theme (b) and (c) in comparison with the lower median of the six responses which expressed uprootedness from the local community (Theme a). Concurrently, the equal median values of Themes (b) and (c) and the computation of post-hoc pairwise comparisons supports the accuracy of the interpretation made above in that omission of “Others” in participant discourse may not be indicative of the role they play in sojourners’ adaptation to the local community. Most importantly, application of the Kruskal-Wallis test shows that the differences between the distribution of ratings (in question 8) underlying the three themes generated in question 8.1 are statistically significant, with a p value of .004. The consistency between quantitative and qualitative data validates the conceptual categories created and demonstrates the importance of mixed methods research in using multiple validities to enhance the interpretation of significant findings (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004).

To summarize, this section demonstrates that social relations and interactions with hosts are key for adaptation and integration into the local community. On missing this essential element of cultural immersion, sojourners may stay on the doorstep of adaptation, away from rich intercultural interactions with locals. Ultimately, and as pointed out by participant A1, it is by “having more local friends that the local community can definitely feel like home”.

5.4 Outcomes and Transformations

To examine participant outcomes, this section follows the organization of the equivalent section (4.4) in the within-case analysis and is equally organized into three parts, to wit: (1) “Personal outcomes” (section 5.4.1), (2) “Language outcomes” (section 5.4.2), and (3) “Intercultural outcomes” (section 5.4.3). The assumption is that the gains of both groups of sojourners involve personal and intercultural transformations even if the type of sojourn and their socioprofessional roles may have introduced them to Portuguese culture in different ways.

5.4.1 Personal Outcomes

This section analyzes data from questions 14 or 15, section VI (“Study Abroad”/“Estadia em Portugal”), of the exchange students’ and immigrants’ posttests. As described in the within-case analysis, this question elicited participant ratings for their sojourn in Portugal on a five-point Likert-type scale. Table 55 shows the distribution of ratings on the measurement scale.

Table 55 - Cross-case: Ratings of the sojourn experience.

Sojourn experience	Case 1		Case 2	
	N	%	N	%
(1) Poor				
(2) Fair	1	5.3		
(3) Good	2	10.5	3	25.0
(4) Very good	10	52.6	6	50.0
(5) Excellent	6	31.6	3	25.0
Total	19	100.0	12	100.0

As descriptive ratings in Table 55 demonstrate, most case 1 and 2 participants deemed their sojourn experience very good (4). The mean values of both cases are close to each other - 4.11 (SD=0.81) in case 1, and 4.00 (SD=0.74) in case 2. The only exception was one respondent in case 1 who considered the experience to be fair.

Overall, ratings attributed by case 1 and 2 participants coincide but this finding does not necessarily mean that they faced the same challenges, as discussed in previous sections. In fact, the experiences of exchange students (both CE and *Erasmus*) and immigrants are

distinct, first and foremost because their entrance into Portuguese society is marked by the type of sojourn and different socioprofessional roles.

5.4.2 Language Outcomes

As mentioned in section 5.2.2, the two case studies differ in their pre-departure Portuguese language abilities.

Similar to the equivalent section (4.4.2) in Chapter 4, this section analyzes questions 9 and 9.1 of the posttest. Unlike case study 1, question 10⁶⁸ is not incorporated in this analysis because in the immigrant posttest the question was accidentally worded as “linguistic and intercultural issues”, instead of “cultural and intercultural issues”. For this reason, this cross-case analysis does not compare the motivation to learn intercultural issues of both case studies. Table 56 shows the frequency distribution of participant proficiency levels yielded by question 9.1.

Table 56 - Cross-case: Portuguese proficiency in the posttest.

Proficiency levels	Case 1		Case 2	
	N	%	N	%
A1 (Breakthrough)	5	26.3	1	8.3
A2 (Waystage)	9	47.3	1	8.3
B1 (Threshold)	5	26.3	9	75.0
B2 (Vantage)			1	8.3
Total	19	99.9 [#]	12	99.9 [#]

Note. [#] Percentages may not total 100.0 due to rounding

Results in Table 56 demonstrate that whereas 73.6% of case 1 participants deem their Portuguese proficiency below B1 level, for 75.0% of case 2 participants their proficiency equals the targeted level. Additionally, one participant in case 2 considers his/her proficiency above the targeted level (B1), and two participants below. Overall, the two cohorts differ in their language abilities both before and at the end of the intervention. Portuguese proficiency emerges as a clear differentiating variable between groups, raising once again the question of whether different language outcomes stem from differing learner motivations. Analysis of question 9 provides possible responses to this question, summarized in Table 57.

⁶⁸ Question 9 in the immigrant posttest.

Table 57 - Cross-case: Language motivation

	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Language motivation					
Case 1 (n=19)	2.63	1.26	2	1	5
Case 2 (n=11)	4.18	0.87	4	2	5

Results in Table 57 suggest that higher levels of language proficiency are accompanied by greater motivational levels as demonstrated by the means of the two cohorts. It is at least intriguing that the case study with lower proficiency levels registered lesser motivation to learn linguistic issues. Case 2, in turn, showed a considerably higher motivation to learn language-related issues. Most importantly, differences in resulting motivations may suggest that learners who experience success in language learning become more motivated to learn, whereas learners who experience failure become less motivated. This variation may be due to the participants' differing motivations (which may cause L2 achievement or failure), but it might also be a result of the learning process (Isabelli-García, 2006). This may be the case of the CE cohort, as previously discussed in Chapter 4.

Finally, it is important to examine both groups' intercultural outcomes and understand whether intercultural learning varies as well, and whether it is dependent on language learning. This is examined next.

5.4.3 Intercultural Outcomes

Given that the language learning experiences of both case studies vary substantially, this section examines if this variation occurs in the intercultural domain as well. Once again, data are drawn from the ICC self-assessment scale (questions 16 and 14 in the exchange students' pre and posttest, and questions 16 and 13 in the immigrant pre and posttest). Statistical procedures and organization of data are the same as the equivalent section (4.4.3) in Chapter 4, but in relation to the two case studies. The aim is to offer the reader a comparative analysis of ICC attainment from pre to posttest by the two case studies.

5.4.3.1 ICC self-assessment scale

Cultural Awareness. Curle (1972) posited that awareness can be higher or lower, in other words, individuals can be more or less aware of themselves and the outer world. This aspect of human development applies to cultural awareness. This dimension may thus be the

key to understanding the distinct paths ICC development can take. Table 58 shows the levels of cultural awareness attained by case 1 and 2 participants by test instrument.

Table 58 - Cross-case: Awareness descriptive statistics.

Awareness	Case 1 (n=17)					Case 2 (n=11)				
	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Pretest	2.62	1.06	2.80	0.80	4.60	3.31	1.36	3.60	1.00	5.00
Posttest	3.08	1.15	3.40	1.00	5.00	3.53	1.10	3.40	1.00	5.00

Results in Table 58 indicate that case 1 participants both started and ended with a lower level of awareness than case 2 participants. Yet, the evolution was greater for case 1 given a mean increase of 0.46, against a mean increase of 0.22 in case 2. Figure 49 illustrates the evolution of cultural awareness average ratings of the two cohorts by test instrument.

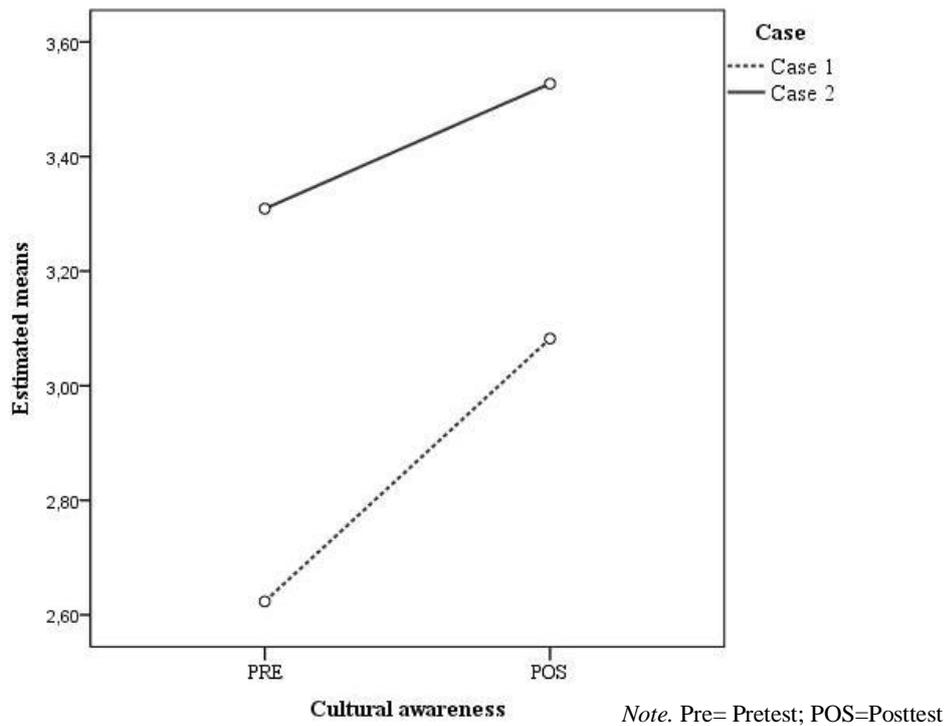


Figure 49 - Cross-case: Evolution of the cultural awareness mean.

As Figure 49 illustrates, both participant groups developed greater levels of awareness at the end of the sojourn. Yet, the evolution was greater for case 1 than case 2. Results yielded by the Wilcoxon signed-rank test show that differences between the initial and final average levels of ICC attainment were not statically significant for the two cases, given the *p* values of .154 ($z=1.424$) in case 1, and of .722 ($z=-.356$) in case 2. Consequently,

the null hypothesis is not rejected by the data even if the awareness dimension was greater in the posttest for both cohorts. In other words, test statistics do not lead to rejection of the null hypothesis and, by implication, acceptance of the alternative hypothesis that purposeful intercultural pedagogies enhance the ICC development of participants.

Despite the nonsignificant results, it is worth noting that cultural awareness levels are not alike for both groups nor probably is the center of gravity of individual participants' awareness, i.e., "an average [awareness] level that can be higher or lower" for each individual (Curle, 1972, p. 16). For instance, the evolution of this ICC dimension in case 1 participants was greater than in case 2 participants because the former started from a lower level of cultural awareness.

Attitudes. If the ultimate goal of cultural awareness is to cause a change in perception about inner and outer worlds, it is imperative to understand participants' attitudes toward the surrounding culture and hosts (Portuguese culture and hosts, in the case of this research). Cultural awareness and attitudes are coupled in intricate ways as changes in perception (of the self and others) supposedly imply attitudinal and behavioral changes. *But what if reaching a higher level of awareness does not lead to a change in perception and, by implication, a change in attitudes and behaviors?* The cross-case analysis of the attitudinal development of case 1 and 2 participants provides some possible responses to this question. Table 59 shows the descriptive attitudinal ratings of the two case studies' participants by test instrument.

Table 59 - Cross-case: Attitudes descriptive statistics.

Attitudes	Case 1 (n=18)					Case 2 (n=12)				
	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Pretest	3.32	0.56	3.25	2.50	4.50	3.50	0.97	3.75	1.25	4.50
Posttest	2.97	0.90	2.75	1.75	4.75	3.67	0.63	3.50	2.25	4.50

Results in Table 59 display an increase in the ICC development of case 2 participants in contrast with a decrease in case 1 participants. Whereas, case 1 registered a 0.35 decrease in the average attitudinal development in the posttest, case 2 registered a 0.17 increase. Figure 50 illustrates the attitudinal developmental paths undertaken by both participant groups by test instrument.

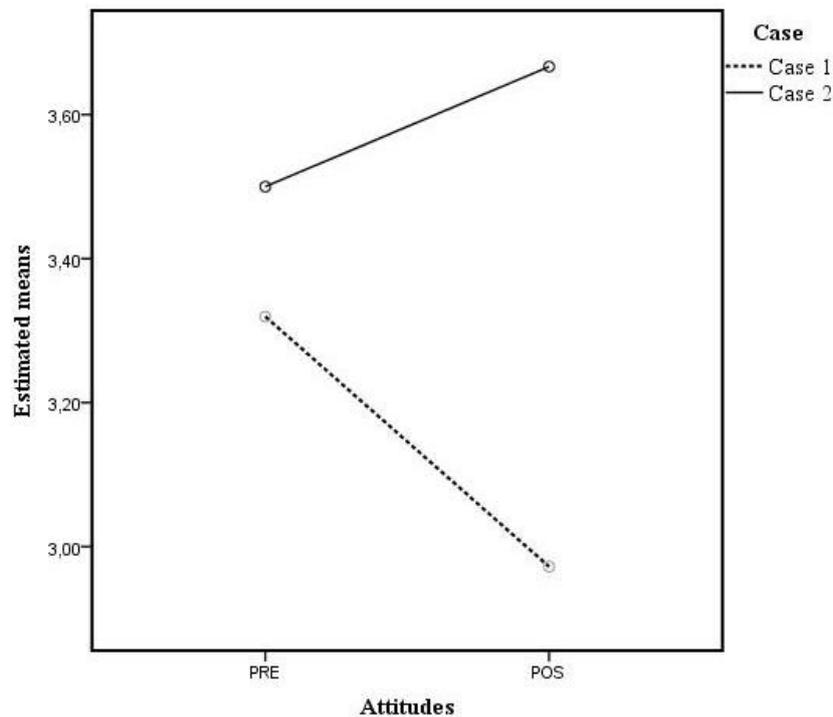


Figure 50 - Cross-case: Evolution of the attitudinal mean.

As Figure 50 shows, each cohort started from different developmental stages (wherever they are located on a lifelong continuum) in the pretest, and each attained distinct levels in the posttest. The difference between initial and final developmental stages was nonsignificant for both cohorts at $<.050$. The Wilcoxon test yielded p values of .052 ($z=-.1424$) in case 1, and of .390 ($z=-.860$) in case 2. Similar to the awareness dimension, the null hypothesis is not rejected by the data.

Overall, the inferential analysis leads one to assume that the results have occurred by chance and that mean differences are not attributable to the effect of the intervention. Without wanting to minimize these results, it should be noted that these results may also mirror the small sample size. Consequently, the possibility that the data may reflect as well the different ICC development paths taken by participants should not be completely disregarded. Returning to the question posed in the beginning of this section, it is, at the very least, intriguing that the group with higher levels of awareness registered an increase in the attitudinal dimension as well. It thus may be that the awareness increase of case 1 was not accompanied by a change in perception, whereas in case 2 it might have been. As such, the scores attained in the pre and posttest may reflect the different developmental paths taken by the two groups in the four ICC dimensions. This issue will be discussed in more detail in

section 5.4.3.3, by comparing the impact of the intervention upon the intercultural gains of the two case studies.

Skills. Similar to previous dimensions, the performative dimension of ICC unfolds differently for each cohort. Table 60 shows descriptive ratings of central tendency and dispersion for the skills dimension in both case studies (by test instrument).

Table 60 - Cross-case: Skills descriptive statistics.

Skills	Case 1 (n=16)					Case 2 (n=12)				
	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Pretest	3.23	0.88	3.40	1.60	5.00	3.56	0.69	3.70	2.40	3.00
Posttest	3.09	1.00	3.00	1.20	4.80	3.95	0.60	4.00	4.40	5.00

According to results in Table 60, case 1 registered a decrease in the skills dimension, whereas case 2 witnessed an increase. Hence the different directions of the developmental continuum, as illustrated by Figure 51.

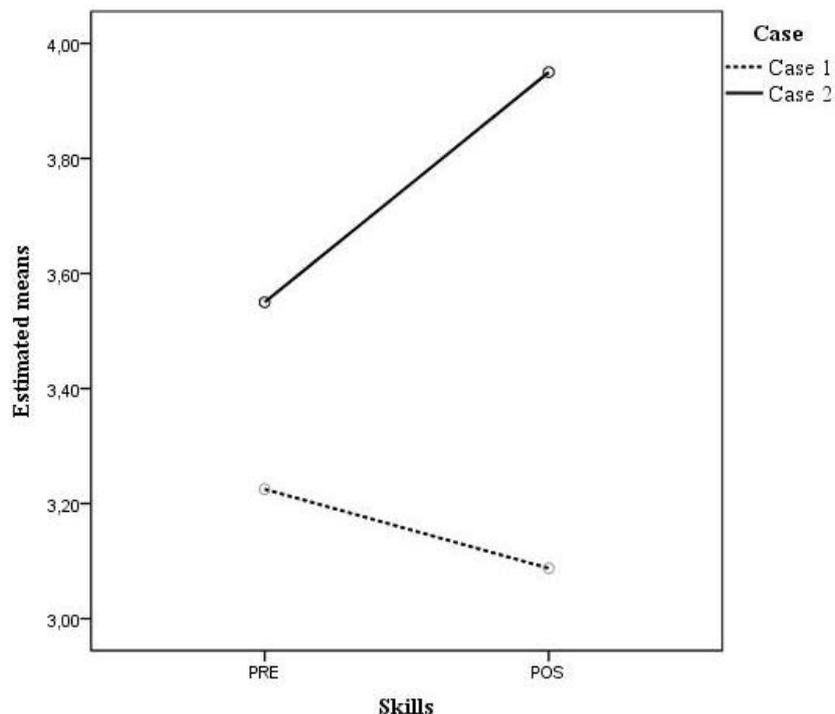


Figure 51 - Cross-case: Evolution of the skills mean.

The performative dimension of ICC shows quite distinct developmental levels for each cohort. Whereas case 2 started from a 3.56 average level and witnessed a developmental

increase, case 1 started from a lower level (3.23) and regressed. A possible explanation for these different developmental paths may be the interdependence between attitudinal and performative dimensions in the measured construct. As discussed in the within-case analysis, the attitudinal and performative components are inextricably linked to interaction with hosts and appropriate behavior. Given that case 1 interaction with hosts seems to have been limited, it is not completely unexpected that case 1 participants registered a decrease in attitudinal and performative dimensions. Moreover, if one considers participants' social networks, only the networks of immigrants were minimally extended to hosts. The question formulated earlier should, therefore, be recalled: *Which level of ICC development leads to changes in perception? And, did both groups alter their perceptions or change them in significant ways?*

To provide more sustained responses to these questions, the results yielded by the Wilcoxon signed-rank test are examined. Differences in the skills dimension from pre to posttest were not significant for case 1 given a p value of .695 ($z=-.392$). This increase was, nonetheless, significant for case 2 at .038 ($z=-2.679$) which makes it possible to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. This finding can be interpreted in two ways: (a) the result may be inconclusive or (b) it may contradict previous inferential results. If one opts for the second instance, the significant results may be understood as an indication of the distinct developmental paths ICC can take, both across individuals and ICC dimensions. Success in one dimension does not guarantee success in another dimension, even if all ICC components yield higher-order correlations.

Knowledge. This section compares the knowledge dimension of ICC development of case 1 and 2 participants. Table 61 shows the descriptive ratings for knowledge attributed by case 1 and case 2 participants by test instrument.

Table 61 - Cross-case: Knowledge descriptive statistics.

Knowledge	Case 1 (n=19)					Case 2 (n=11)				
	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Pretest	2.85	0.64	2.80	1.60	4.20	3.51	0.53	3.60	2.40	4.20
Posttest	3.06	0.79	3.00	1.40	4.20	3.80	0.81	4.00	2.40	5.00

Both cohorts witnessed an increase in knowledge development since the means augmented from pre to posttest (Table 61). This increase is more evident in case 2 given a mean increase of 0.32 (against a mean increase of 0.21, in case 1). Furthermore, the midrange of the distribution (i.e., the median) is higher in case 2 in both test instruments. Figure 52 illustrates the evolution of the means of the two cohorts by test instrument.

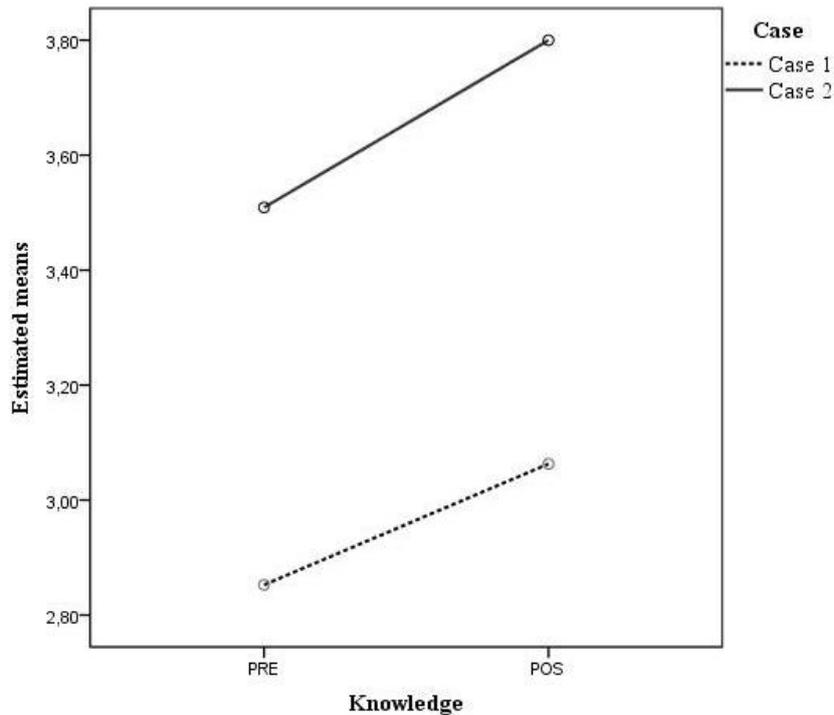


Figure 52 - Cross-case: Evolution of the knowledge mean.

Although Figure 52 shows an increase for both cohorts, the differences are not statistically significant. The test statistic yield p values of .265 ($z = -1.115$) in case 1, and of .172 ($z = 1.467$) in case 2.

In summary, results yielded by all four ICC dimensions show an increase in case 2, whereas in case 1 only awareness and knowledge dimensions increased. In all but one dimension this increase was not statistically significant at $<.050$. The dimension that yielded significant results was the skills dimension in case 2. Although inferential results are inconclusive, they may also indicate that ICC development is contextual, varying both across dimensions and individuals. In addition, such development does not follow a linear progression, and the same intervention can produce different results across individuals. This finding casts doubts on linear and unidirectional models such as Bennett's (1986, 1993b), as described in Chapter 2 (see section 2.4.3.1). In effect, ICC development of this study's

participants shows that progression encompasses moments of stagnation or even regression. If case 1 participants progressed in awareness and knowledge dimensions, they regressed in attitudinal and performative components. Case 2 participants, in turn, progressed in all components, though this increase was only statistically significant in the skills dimension.

Finally, the results yielded by the self-assessment scale need to be expanded by data about the effectiveness of the intervention and ICC correlations. This is the focus of the next two sections.

5.4.3.2 Correlations between ICC components

The cross-case comparison of correlations between ICC dimensions follow the same statistical procedures and guidelines used in the within-case analysis. Once again, correlation coefficients are based on ICC attainment yielded by the self-assessment scale of the posttest. As explained in Chapter 3, correlation coefficients can range from 0 to 1 (either positive or negative), with 0 indicating no relationship between paired variables and 1 a perfect relationship. Table 62 shows the correlation coefficients between ICC dimensions based on the strength of association (Cohen’s effect ranges) and significance values of .050 and .010.

Table 62 - Cross-case: ICC correlation matrix.

ICC dimensions		Awareness	Attitudes	Skills	Knowledge
Case 1	Awareness	---			
	Attitudes	.762** (n=17)	---		
	Skills	.759** (n=16)	.640** (n=16)	---	
	Knowledge	.704** (n=17)	.618** (n=18)	.852** (n=16)	---
Case 2	Awareness	---			
	Attitudes	.293 (n=11)	---		
	Skills	.539 (n=11)	.746** (n=12)	---	
	Knowledge	.705* (n=11)	.677* (n=12)	.860** (n=12)	---

Note. Largest coefficients are given in bold

*Correlation is significant at $p < .050$ or at ** $< .010$, 2-tailed

As Table 62 shows, there are both commonalities and dissimilarities in how ICC dimensions relate to each other in the two case studies. In both cases, knowledge and skills are strongly and significantly correlated at $< .010$, with a r_s of .852 in case 1, and of .860 in

case 2. Dissimilarities were mostly found in the correlation between awareness and attitudinal dimensions, to wit:

- In case 1, awareness and attitudes are strongly and significantly correlated at $<.010$ ($r_s=762$);
- In case 2, awareness is more strongly correlated ($r_s=.705$) to knowledge at $<.050$ than attitudes whereby the effect size is small ($r_s=.293$) and nonsignificant.

Despite dissimilarities between these associations, if one discounts significance indices and looks at correlation coefficients only, most paired variables yielded correlations of high magnitude (above $r_s=.539$). Correlation coefficients are particularly informative as it is the coefficient which quantifies the pattern (in type and strength) of relationships between paired variables, while significance indices measure the likelihood of these relationships. This likelihood is, in turn, highly dependent on sample size (Field, 2009; Howell, 2013) and may, therefore, be curbed by the small number of pairs in the data.

In summary, this section suggests that ICC is a broad competence whose dimensions are highly correlated, even though they may not all be at the same level. For instance, the different correlations between the awareness and attitudinal dimensions may suggest that there are contextual variables affecting how ICC unfolds across the two case studies. To explore this issue further, it is necessary to understand the impact of the intervention upon participant intercultural gains, examined next.

5.4.3.3 Impact of the intervention

Analysis of the impact of the intervention upon participant intercultural gains during their sojourn is based on questions 10 and 11 in the exchange students' and immigrants' posttest, respectively. This analysis is expanded by another closed question (question 11 in the exchange students' posttest, and question 12 in the immigrant posttest) which elicited the extent to which participants would recommend the intervention to prospective sojourners. The two sets of closed questions are followed by their open-ended counterparts⁶⁹ which sought justifications for the attributed ratings. Statistical procedures are the same as

⁶⁹ Questions 11.1 and 12.1 in exchange students' posttest; questions 10.1 and 11.1 in immigrants' posttest.

the within-case analysis, but the focus in this section is comparative and includes the thematic analysis of qualitative data to triangulate and clarify quantitative data strands.

Table 63 shows central tendency and dispersion measures of the extent to which the intervention maximized participant intercultural gains (row 1), and the extent to which participants would recommend the intervention to maximize the gains of others (row 2).

Table 63 - Cross-case: Intercultural impact of the intervention (Central tendency and dispersion measures).

Intercultural gains	Case 1					Case 2				
	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max	M	SD	Mdn	Min	Max
Participants (themselves)	2.16	0.69	2	0	3	2.83	1.27	3	0	4
Future sojourners	2.53	0.84	2	1	4	3.45	0.52	3	3	4

Note. Case 1: (n=19; 100.0%) in Q12 and Q13; case 2: Q12 (n=12; 100.0%); Q13 (n=11; 100.0%)

Results in Table 63 show that the intervention had a greater impact upon case 2, given that the mean (M=2.83) falls closer to Level 3 (“To a large extent”). In case 1, the mean is 2.16, falling closer to Level 2 (“To a moderate extent”). These results are reinforced by the median (Mdn=2 in case 1; Mdn=3 in case 2), which provides a more reliable value than the mean because extreme values do not affect the median as strongly as the mean. Table 64 shows the frequency distribution of the intercultural impact of the intervention.

Table 64 - Cross-case: Intercultural impact of the intervention (Frequency distribution).

Intercultural gains	Case 1		Case 2	
	N	%	N	%
(0) No extent	1	5.3	1	8.3
(1) To a small extent			1	8.3
(2) To a moderate extent	13	68.4	1	8.3
(3) To a large extent	5	26.3	5	41.7
(4) To a great extent			4	33.3
Total	19	100.0	12	99.9 [#]

Note. [#]Percentages may not total 100.0 due to rounding

According to results in Table 64, most case 1 participants consider the seminars to have had a moderate impact (68.4%), whereas case 2 consider the impact to be large (41.7%). Furthermore, three quarters of case 2 participants deem the extent to be large or great. By contrast, none of case 1 participants consider the extent to be great. With regard to lower

ratings, only two participants in the two cohorts rate the impact as nil, and one participant in case study 2 as small.

In general, results underscore the greater impact of the intervention on case 2. The reasons for this discrepancy are examined in this section through thematic analysis of participant responses to the open-ended question which elicited justifications for the attributed ratings. This analysis yielded 26 valid responses, since three responses were not applicable and two participants did not provide an answer.

Three type of perceptions emerged from valid responses, viz.: “Increased cultural knowledge” (Theme 10.1.a), “Increased cultural awareness” (Theme 10.1.b), and “Absence or paucity of intercultural gains” (Theme 10.1c). Figure 53 illustrates these themes according to frequency of recurrence (For a detailed analysis see Appendix U, Table U.4).

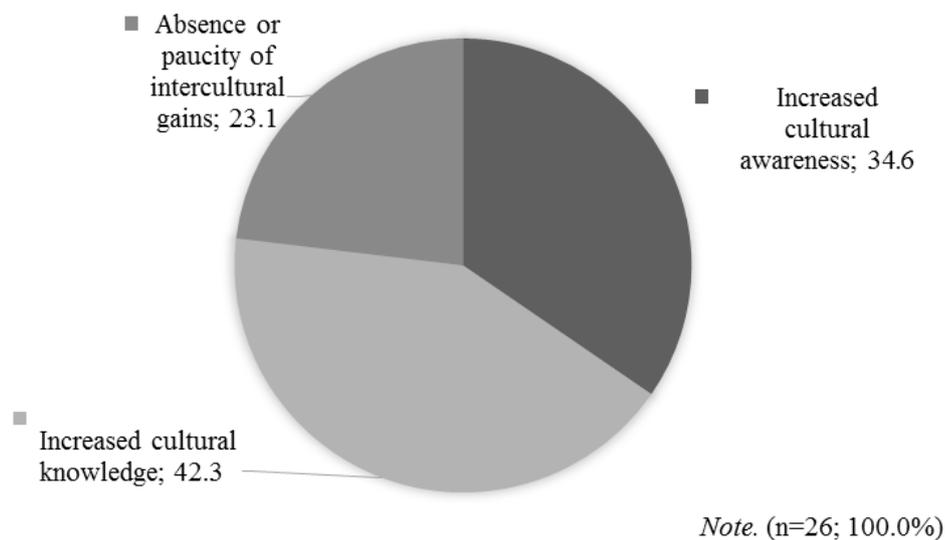


Figure 53 - Cross-case: Themes regarding the intercultural impact of the intervention.

Most participants reported an increase in the knowledge (42.3%) and awareness (34.6%) dimensions on account of the intervention. A 23.1% share of participants deemed the intervention to have had a minor role or to not have contributed to their intercultural gains during the sojourn.

Theme (10.1.a), “Increased cultural knowledge”, designates the acquisition of new cultural knowledge, either culture-general or specific. Culture-specific knowledge refers to the acquisition of information and aspects about Portuguese culture as a cultural and social entity. Culture-general knowledge, on the other hand, refers to knowledge related to cultures or social groups other than Portuguese culture (though the focus was on cultures represented

by participants). Both knowledges can be accompanied by theory-driven concepts related to culture and what is involved in intercultural encounters. Five excerpts which illustrate the range of this theme are given below.

- B7:** “It was really interesting to learn things about the Portuguese culture but also about international and European cultures. We really shared a lot of knowledges and I enjoyed it a lot.”
- B18:** “Because I learnt more aspects about the Portuguese culture.”
- A8:** “I learnt a lot about Portuguese culture and I missed it in the first semester. Without help of Portuguese friends I wouldn't know this much though.”
- A16:** “Very good idea to create these seminars, I learnt new things about culture. It was interesting.”
- A23:** “The intercultural interaction is still the most important thing, but the seminars can systematize our knowledge and extend, enrich it.”

As demonstrated by the excerpts, participants considered the intervention or “intercultural seminars” (as it was known to participants) to have led to an enrichment or systematization of explicit and implicit cultural knowledge. The acquisition of new knowledge happened either through direct exposition of contents (B18, A16) or the interactive sharing occurring inside the classroom (B7). Participants A8 and A23 also acknowledge the systematization of cultural knowledge provided by the intervention, but consider procedural knowledge, via social interactions with hosts and diverse “Others”, the most important thing. Participant A23 expresses a compound idea wherein the conjunction “but” signals the relative weight assigned to the seminars in view of the grandeur of the sojourn. Like participant A23, another five participants emphasized the richness of the sojourn life experiences and intercultural interactions. Two examples are provided.

- A3:** “I learnt new things about both the Portuguese culture, and the definition of culture in general. But I prefer to learn about culture and to get closer to culture by talking with people and traveling.”
- A2:** “It helped me to understand Portuguese culture but to my mind practice is better.”

As evident in A3 and A2 responses, the acquisition of cultural knowledge and awareness is considered secondary in view of life interactions. Interestingly, all six participants who highlighted this condition were exchange students (of case 1) and all deemed the seminars to have had a moderate impact, i.e., Level 2 on the measurement scale

in question 10 or 11 (see Table 64). This finding clarifies the interpretation of quantitative scores in that the midpoint on the measurement scale may reflect a dual condition. Thus, participant evaluations of the intervention's intercultural impact hinges also upon the relative importance students attribute to interculturality inside and outside the classroom. In other words, the formal learning provided by the intervention may be undervalued compared with face-to-face interactions (even if the intervention was a complement to the learning occurring *in situ*).

Increased cultural awareness Theme 10.1b) emerged as the second most frequent gain. This gain refers to the development of a renewed and more complex mindfulness about cultural difference (whether culture-specific or general) and intercultural situations, diverse "Others" and the self. Abilities to decentralize (from the self and others), suspend disbelief, reflective thinking, critical evaluation of knowledge and perspective-taking are the most common descriptors of this category (see Appendix U, Table U.4). Enough examples are provided to illustrate the range of perspectives in this category.

- B6:** "I'm familiarized with multiculturalism and I have always had good intercultural relations, but I could never analyze "why". Now, I can."
- B13:** "I acquired new knowledges and I learned about cultural relativism, to suspend judgment, to analyze every situation and learn from it."
- B14:** "In my daily life and when speaking with Portuguese people I already understand some things that before were very strange to me."
- A4:** "I understand few things that before I even didn't care about (connected to interculture)."
- A21:** "The seminars pointed me to several issues that in other cases would be unconscious or neglected."

The above excerpts can be interpreted in light of IC developmental models which purport that this type of development implies learning to be aware of the world, the self and diverse "Others". This process entails a multidimensional growth in cognitive, intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions as advanced by King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) model of intercultural maturity, described in Chapter 2 (section 2.4.3.1). Participant responses seem to reflect this developmental growth. Participants A4 and A21, for instance, stress a renewed understanding of the world and its diversity (cognitive dimension). The interpersonal realm is emphasized by participant B14 who notes a renewed understanding of relationships between the self and Portuguese others. Finally, participant B6 and B13 responses condense

all three domains in that awareness came through a new understanding of the world and intercultural situations (cognitive domain), of themselves (intrapersonal domain) and relationships with diverse “Others” (interpersonal domain). Not that the other three participants did not develop such domains, but from all five responses these two are the ones which seem to integrate all three developmental domains (at least, at the level of discourse).

In any case, awareness was the only ICC component where it was possible to infer a multidimensional developmental growth of evolving cognitive complexity. Increased awareness entails also critical appropriation of knowledge as shown by participant B13 who employs complex knowledge *in situ* to critically evaluate intercultural situations. It is precisely here where the difference between “Increased awareness” (Theme b) and “Increased knowledge” (Theme a) resides. In the former dimension participants highlighted abilities to evaluate arguments and knowledge claims critically, while in the latter there was evidence that information was processed effectively but it might not have evolved to critical appropriation (nor the ability to ground knowledge in context). Critical appropriation and reflection is thus the crux of “increased awareness” and the leverage for a leap in insight, i.e., for **critical cultural awareness**, as purported by Byram (1997). It is possibly at this level that high stages of psychosocial development (such as self-authorship) are attained and a threshold level of competence, which implies mobilization of knowledge, skills and attitudes, is reached. It is here where developmental and communicative models intersect, and the need for more integrated models emerges.

In terms of the pattern-matching analysis, whereas half of case 2 participants considered to have gained an increased cultural awareness through the intervention, half of case 1 participants situated these gains in the knowledge realm (see Appendix U, Table U.4). This finding supports the results drawn from the two previous sections, by demonstrating that ICC development varies across individuals, and the same intervention can produce different learning outcomes.

Besides participants who considered they reaped intercultural benefits from the intervention (Themes 10.1.a and 10.1.b), there were also those who accounted for no or slight gains. Hence a third analytical theme - “Absence or paucity of intercultural gains” (10.1.c). This theme encompasses five different factors which led six participants (23.1%) to deem the intervention to have little or no impact upon their intercultural gains (see Appendix U,

Table U.4). These factors are presented as subthemes in Table 65 along with participant excerpts and quantitative ratings attributed to the impact of the intervention.

Table 65 - Cross-case: Subthemes of “Absence of intercultural gains” (Theme c).

Subthemes	Particips.	Ratings	Excerpts
(c.i) Similarity between home and host culture	B16	0	In my case in particular, I can adapt and live outside my home country because I have done it before. Also, my culture is very similar to the Portuguese culture.
	B19	1	Despite being useful, it think it wasn't difficult for me, because Portugal is very similar to my home country.
(c.ii) Lack of interest for intercultural issues	A1	2	That's a matter that I don't spend too much time thinking about. I think in this matter I didn't have gains.
(c.iii) Previous cultural knowledge	A16	2	I've been studying topics and issues addressed in the seminars before. So, it was not an entirely new unknown subject. (...). Nevertheless, the seminars were interesting for me. I just don't think that they influenced me to a great extent in how I perceive the Portuguese culture.
(c.iv) Timing of the intervention	A19	0	I started integrating to <i>Erasmus</i> and Biology department communities before the seminars began. Otherwise, it could have helped me to a medium extent.
(c.v) Teaching approaches of the intervention	A13	2	I feel there was a little too much issues about the term culture (the term culture, what is, etc.). Little too much about the culture in general, not about particular cultures.

Note. Particips.=participants

All subthemes but one in Table 65 represent the opinion of one participant. This exception is the case of the first subtheme (c.i) which represents the opinion of two participants. These two participants attributed the paucity (B16) or absence (B19) of intercultural gains to similarities between their home culture and Portuguese culture. This understanding may have hindered what the intervention had to offer them interculturally due to the ways they *made meaning* (see Chapter 2, section 2.4.3.1) of cultural proximity. Both participants seem to manifest an absolute way of knowing, typical of more initial stages of intercultural development wherein one's knowledge(s) is seen as absolute and cultural differences are devalued (Baxter Magolda, 1992; King & Baxter Magolda, 2005). Interestingly, participant B19 had previously considered “not to spend much time living a Portuguese life” (see analysis of question 8.1, section 5.3.4). Given this perception, participant B19 views of the ‘intercultural seminars’ are not totally unexpected. In addition,

the ICC development of this participant casts doubts on the unidirectional intercultural development purported by Bennett's (1986, 1993b) model, by exemplifying the compound development described in the literature review (see Chapter 2, section 2.4.3.2). Like the imaginary **Student B** in Figure 7, participant B19 holds two contradictory worldviews. On one hand, the participant shows no apparent interest for actively engaging with hosts; on the other hand, he/she seeks otherness among other sojourners, i.e., among the multicultural community of practice the participant is part of.

Participant A1 reflects a situation somehow similar to the two previous participants in that his/her lack of interest for intercultural issues may have negatively influenced the intercultural gains derived from the intervention. Another participant, participant A16 shows a different viewpoint in that his/her previous knowledge of intercultural issues may have jeopardized the newness of the intervention. With regard to the other two participants, two limitations are pointed out to the intervention: its timing (A19) and its teaching approaches (A13). In the former case, the participant considered that the intervention could have brought added-value had it started in the first semester, a limitation also pointed out in the within- case analysis. Participant A13, in turn, considered that the intervention teaching methods should target more at specific cultures.

Comparison of quantitative ("Ratings") and qualitative ("Excerpts") data, in Table 65, shows that of the six students who reported absence or paucity of intercultural gains, only two (B16 and A19) rated this impact as nil ("To no extent") on the measurement scale. Their qualitative responses reveal, however, that only participant B16 considered the impact to be actually none, since participant A19 acknowledged the intercultural value of the intervention (had it started sooner).

Finally, it is important to examine the PFL teacher's viewpoints about the intervention and the discrepancy of the impact upon the two cohorts. Analysis of this interview yielded five subthemes regarding the intervention, as illustrated by Figure 54. For a more detailed analysis, the reader is referred to Appendix T, Table T.2.

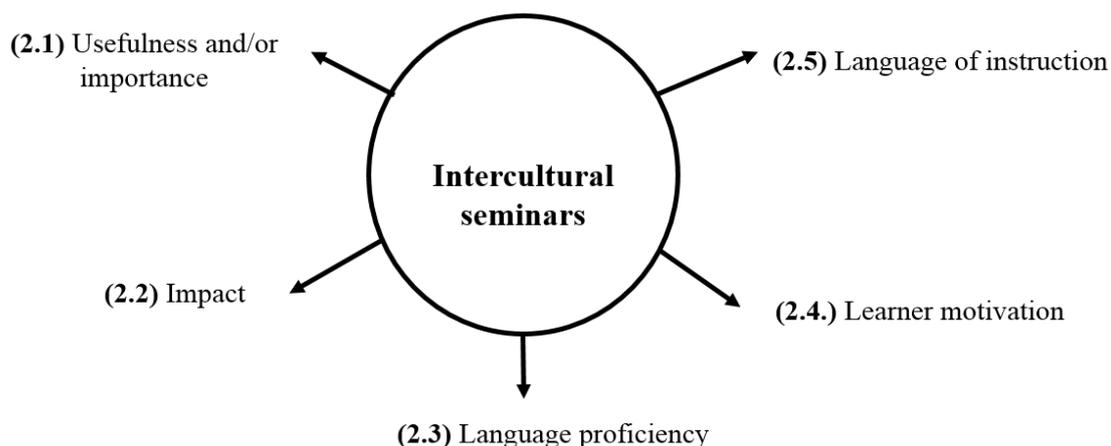


Figure 54 - PFL teacher interview: Subthemes of the intercultural impact of the intervention.

According to the PFL teacher, five variables characterize the value of intervention and its impact upon the intercultural gains of the two cohorts. To start with, it is essential to understand the PFL’s teacher perceptions about the usefulness and/or importance of the intervention in promoting intercultural learning (Theme 2.1). Illustrative verbatim examples are given below.

I: “What is your opinion about the seminars? Its usefulness? Do you think that the seminars contributed to promoting intercultural learning?”

PFL: “Yes, I think the seminars were very interesting and I think the students learned very interesting things which sometimes cannot be approached in regular classes given the lack of time. So, there was a break with regular classes and your presence...and different contents which are approached differently. I think the seminars were very creative, and there’s no doubt that the students had only to gain from the seminars.”

To explain his/her point of view further, the PFL teacher continued to emphasize the usefulness of the seminars, but also highlighted the different impact and underlying learning outcomes (Theme 2.2.), as demonstrated below.

PFL: “Well, first of all, I have to emphasize your effort and that your seminars were equally well succeeded and well taught in both classes. From that angle, there’s nothing else to say. They were great! Instruction of contents was great, but with regard to its apprehension it’s obvious that *Campus Europae* students had more difficulties...and it is just not difficulties in Portuguese, because those difficulties they do have...But it is exactly because of the motivational factor. First, because they already have difficulties to learn the Portuguese language, and then because they are not motivated to learn whether it’s learning a language or culture...or any other thematic. So, by not being motivated I think that whatever you would do, students with no motivation are very hard to manage (...).”

I: “*Humhum.*”

PFL: “Now...comparing with the other class (case study 2), they were completely looking forward to learn. They were extremely motivated people, and extremely committed to learn. (...) So, they took much more advantage from the seminars.”

(From left to right: interviewer or interviewees, and focus group excerpts)

According to the PFL teacher, the intervention produced different learning outcomes in the two cohorts. This discrepancy is attributable to the differing language proficiencies (Theme 2.3), but above all to the differing motivations to learn (Theme 2.4). The differing learning proficiency of the two cohorts was also visible in the continuous use of English as an auxiliary language of instruction in the case study 1. By contrast, in case study 2 both the PFL classes and the seminars were entirely taught in Portuguese, as illustrated below.

PFL: “The *Campus Europae* class was the class where I had to use English until the end of the second semester, something which in a class with a regular developmental process it’s not expected.”

I: “(...) *Right.* And in the intercultural seminars, how would you describe the use I have made of the English language?”

PFL: “Well, overall I think you have made a good use of the English language, this is, you used it whenever necessary. Certainly, there were situations where it was not necessary to use English...But...for a teacher it is always difficult to know when we should stop using the vehicular language given the students’ difficulties.”

Overall, the PFL teacher stresses the intercultural added-value of the intervention and attributes the different intercultural learning outcomes not only to the differing language proficiency of the two cohorts, but mostly to their distinct motivations.

To summarize, results derived from the posttest questions which elicited information about the impact of the intervention upon participant intercultural gains, and the interview with the PFL teacher, showed that positive intercultural outcomes occurred for both case studies. Yet, the impact was greater for case 2 participants, related possibly to: (a) learner characteristics (including age and intercultural maturity), (b) differences in the way students processed the class experience; (c) their *meaning making* of the sojourn, i.e., different ways in which participants made sense of and interpreted the sojourn and the role of intercultural development in it; (d) different stages of ICC development; (e) the relative weight students attributed to interculturality inside and outside the classroom, and (f) the timing of the

intervention. To these six factors, two other elements must be added: (g) the different linguistic motivations, and (h) the differing Portuguese proficiency of participants, as previously examined in sections 5.2.2 and 5.4.2, respectively.

Given the differing outcomes of the intervention for the two cohorts, it is natural that case 2 participants would recommend it to a greater extent than case study 1. Returning to Table 63 (row 2), case 1 participants endorsed the seminars to a moderate extent ($M=2.53$; $SD=0.84$), and case 2 participants to a large extent ($M=3.45$; $SD=0.52$). These differences become clearer when examining the frequency distribution of participant ratings. The majority of these ratings ranges between a large (50%) and a great (41.7%) extent for case study 2. Case 1 ratings, on the other hand, spread across four categories on the measurement scale, but the category “To moderate extent” registered the highest percentage at 52.6%. Qualitatively, case 2 participants emphasized the added-value of the seminars in facilitating integration in the host culture (in the case of immigrant participants) through an enhanced awareness and knowledge; *Erasmus* students highlighted the knowledge realm. Case 1 participants, like *Erasmus* students, stressed mostly the knowledge realm and occasionally awareness and coping strategies.

5.5 Summary

This chapter analyzed and compared data from the two case studies with regard to the same variable groupings of the within-case analysis.

By elaborating upon research subquestion 1.4, responses were offered about the impact of the intervention upon the ICC development of the two case studies’ participants. Results show that not only was this impact greater for case 2, but it was also accompanied by some progression in participant ICC development. Contrariwise, the primary case study witnessed a decline in the more performative dimensions (attitudes and skills) of ICC and a growth in awareness and knowledge dimensions. Despite decrease in two ICC dimensions, overall case 1 participants acknowledge the impact of the intervention on their intercultural gains, particularly regarding the knowledge realm (see section 5.4.3). As such, a distinction needs to be made between how participants assess the impact of the intervention and their levels of ICC attainment. In effect, the pattern-matching analysis shows that the same intervention can be assessed differently by individuals (and produce different outcomes).

At the methodological level, results demonstrate that impact assessment of participant ICC development and gains should not rely on single measures or significance indexes. Multiple measures and validities should be used instead. In this aspect, the mixed methods design allowed more robust and valid inferences to be drawn. Qualitative inferences, for instance, shed further insight into quantitative results particularly regarding statistical significance indexes which were inconclusive about variance in ICC development.

In the within-case analysis in the previous chapter, qualitative inferences indicated that the decline in the ICC development of case 1 participants could be partly caused by limited interaction with hosts (given participants' initial expectations). These results are clarified further in this chapter, offering this way fuller responses to research question 1.3, i.e., the variables affecting the ICC development of case 1 and 2 participants. In this regard, this chapter showed that case 1 participants were those participants whose contacts were less extended and rarely opened up to hosts (see section 5.3.2). Integration into the host culture and constant language practice in Portuguese did not emerge as primary social needs, possibly hindering the intercultural development of these participants (at least, with regard to the host culture). Case 2, in turn, had minimally extended networks and, although also relying on peer friendships, immigrant participants had to live a "Portuguese life" given their socioprofessional roles. This aspect of participant social lives may have had a cumulative effect on the intervention, since case 2 participants had a considerably higher motivation to learn Portuguese (see section 5.4.2). Language emerged as an essential component of ICC development and a differentiating variable between the two case studies. The lack of host language mastery may have hindered case 1 participants' ICC development, as well as their ability to reap the full benefits of the intervention, which was culture-specific.

Besides distinct *motivations to learn Portuguese* (along with differing proficiency levels) and the *socioprofessional roles* of participants, *intercultural maturity* emerged as another differentiating variable between cohorts and levels of ICC attainment. Throughout the cross-case analysis, more mature intercultural development appeared to be related to higher levels of critical cultural awareness wherein participant developmental growth (in cognitive, intra and interpersonal domains) is visible at the level of discourse. This was mostly the case of participants in case study 2. Participants in case study 1, on the other hand, manifested a growth mainly in knowledge but not necessary to the level of critical appropriation. This observation was only made evident by the cross-case qualitative findings

which showed some alignment between the development of critical cultural awareness and participant *meaning making* of the intervention's impact. The pivotal role of this dimension was, nonetheless, unclear in quantitative findings, as shown in Chapter 4 (see section 4.4.3), and requires further exploration with larger cohorts.

Findings above offer responses to subquestion 1.5 as well, by demonstrating the role purposeful intercultural pedagogy can play in equipping students with the knowledge and reflective skills needed to interpret intercultural situations. The meta-inferences drawn from quantitative and qualitative components corroborate not only the added-value of intercultural pedagogies in enhancing participants' intercultural gains, but also the demand for these pedagogies in credit student mobility and highly skilled immigrants. Although the eight intervention modules were always envisaged as a brief opportunity to positively influence students' intercultural gains, it was also understood as a window into the need for incorporating intercultural pedagogies as part of the design and delivery European credit-bearing exchange programs. In this aspect, results clearly account for such a need.

5.6 Limitations

Similar to the within-case analysis, limitations were recognized in the inferential analysis and statistical significance indexes due to the small sample size of the two cohorts. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test reported nonsignificant results in all but one dimension of ICC development. This was the case of the skills dimension in case study 2 which registered a significant increase of the mean ratings from pre to posttest. As mentioned earlier, this statistically significant result can be interpreted in two ways: (a) it can be inconclusive or (b) an indication of distinct ICC developmental paths taken by each cohort. Whatever the interpretation, statistically these results do not lead to rejection of the null hypothesis. The limitations bound to this type of statistical testing should, nonetheless, be acknowledged (Lee & Greene, 2007; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004). This research, in particular, shares some of these limitations, to wit: (a) the small sample size (which p values are function of), (b) the limited statistical power of the Wilcoxon-signed rank test which is a nonparametric test and (c) the limited duration of the intervention and its calendar. It would be a priori hard to imagine that the effect of a 20-hour intervention would attain enough magnitude to cause profound developmental changes.

Considered together, the three aforementioned limitations hindered the test statistical ability to capture the effect of the intervention and the nuances of ICC development. Hence the need for further testing in larger samples throughout a more extended period of time.

Limitations related to qualitative data analysis encompass the need to include etic perspectives other than the PFL teacher and the researcher herself. For instance, participant integration in the local community (see section 5.3.4) would have benefited from the viewpoints of hosts. These viewpoints would help to understand how participants behave in real life interactions, and obtain more compelling indication of intercultural development as it happens *in situ*. It should be noted, however, that obtaining such a variety of viewpoints implies resources which go far beyond this doctoral research. For this reason, internal validation strategies were actively sought in order counterbalance potential biases of data. These included cross-checking and triangulation strategies which allowed the continuous comparison of data strands across cases and various research participants. This approach was particularly useful to achieve higher reliability of data-driven themes (see section 5.3.4, for instance) as data-driven thematic analysis is highly sensitive to the context of raw data. Multiple readings (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003) were a constant practice throughout the pattern- matching analysis in order to develop more reliable explanatory accounts and to provide valid responses to research subquestions.

Finally, the pattern-matching analysis will also provide the leverage for Chapter 6 which relates and contrasts data drawn from stakeholder interviews conducted in Phase 4 of the research process. This body of data is examined next.

Chapter 6 Stakeholder Results: Data Analysis and Discussion

Stakeholder: «Any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives»

(Freeman, 1984, p. 46).

This chapter provides a contextualized understanding of the research results of case study 1 by examining the qualitative patterns drawn from semi-structured interviews conducted with five stakeholders. For ease of comparison, stakeholder viewpoints will be related and contrasted across the same themes.

6.1 Data Presentation

In contrast to the previous chapters, the research findings in this chapter are based on qualitative data only. These data are generated from semi-structured interviews conducted with five stakeholders between June and December 2013. The aim is threefold: (1) to better understand the influence of the macro and mezzo contexts on the ICC development of participants, (2) to identify the intercultural benchmarks and constraints of CE and, finally, (3) to explore and evaluate ways to incorporate purposeful intercultural pedagogy as part of the design and delivery of *Campus Europae* (CE). To fulfill these aims, data are analyzed within the framework of common themes addressed in the five interviews which respond to the following research subquestions:

- 1.6 What are the intercultural benchmarks and constraints of the *Campus Europae* program (facing also wider European credit schemes)?
- 1.7 How to address purposeful intercultural pedagogy in program design and delivery of European credit-bearing exchange programs and *Campus Europae* in particular?

The presentation of data is organized according to those patterns of verbatim data which provide relevant information to the two research subquestions under analysis, giving in this way greater efficacy to the sampling of themes. These themes include: (1) intercultural goals of CE (section 6.2), (2) intercultural constraints and benchmarks of CE (section 6.3),

(3) the role of CE in the wider European credit mobility scenario (section 6.4) and, finally, (4) the *worth* or *value* of the intervention and its incorporation within the design and delivery of CE (section 6.5). The procedures employed are qualitative and involve a thematic analysis (please recall Chapter 3, section 3.7.2.2) of the four aforementioned themes for all five interviews. The analytic strategy used follows a pattern-matching logic, somewhat similar to the previous chapter but in relation to qualitative data only. Such logic aids comparison of commonalities and differences across data patterns yielded by the interviews and allows capturing individual opinions of interviewees while also being able to contrast these same perceptions.

The interviewees include:

- Two stakeholders involved in internationalization processes at the University of Aveiro (UA) and in the CE project (Stakeholders 1 and 2);
- One stakeholder of the EUF-CE project (Stakeholder 3);
- Two stakeholders involved in internationalization processes at Vytautas Magnus University (VMU), in Lithuania, and in the CE project (Stakeholders 4 and 5).

For a detailed description of interviewees and specific objectives for each interview, the reader is referred to Chapter 3, section 3.7.1.2.

The understanding of these interviewees as *stakeholders* stems from the broader definition advanced by Freeman (1984 - see epigraph) in management theory and applied by Amaral and Magalhães (2002) to higher education governance. Similarly, Castro, Rosa, and Pinho (2015) employed the concept in higher education but with regard to its internationalization processes. In this sense, *stakeholders* are envisaged as those persons or entities with a legitimate interest or stake in higher education, internationalization, and its activities and/or strategies (Amaral & Magalhães, 2002; Castro et al., 2015). In this dissertation, it also includes persons with a legitimate interest or stake in internalization processes of two partner institutions in the EU-CE network and in the CE project.

6.2 Intercultural Goals of Campus Europae

This section and underlying theme addresses the goals of the CE project in general and CE exchanges in particular which are intercultural in nature. Therefore, it concerns the

intercultural ideals of the CE program and the kind of linguistic and cultural skills or competencies it aims to develop in CE sojourners to function as interculturally-minded European citizens. The aim is to offer an improved and contextualized understanding of the intercultural goals and mission of the primary exchange program under examination in this study from the perspective of agents involved in the EUF-CE network.

To ascertain and explore stakeholder views, questions were posed concerning the CE mission, its linguistic or intercultural goals, and the monitoring and evaluation systems to enact such goals. The viewpoints obtained were the following:

Stakeholder 1: “*Campus Europae* imagines a Europe of CE movers, a sort of elite of mobility students. This is, students who have done two years abroad in their studies and who learnt two other languages not just French and German, but they’ve actually learnt Serbian and Polish. And they’ve lived in these countries and that gives them or could give them a huge advantage as people and as professionals. I think *Campus Europae* imagines this sort of community of people who share this experience.”

Stakeholder 2: “So, we have *Erasmus* mobility going on within a university network which has an ideal and the ideal is to create a network of universities which are exchanging students for cultural exchange, for the improvement of social competences. A socially aware program which tries to attack issues, and they have all the merit for trying to attack the most difficult issues of portability of scholarships, the obstacles to mobility like recognition problems, and, very importantly, the obstacle to mobility of people who have a job, people who are working in a country typically with no mobility and there are more and more students dependent on labor to fund their studies.”

Stakeholder 3: “Well, *Campus Europae* believes that to build a real European citizenship it’s necessary to give university students reasonably long stays in another country. And preferably even two long stays in two different countries, that means one year stays and that goes a little bit against some recent trends in the European mobility programs where short stays are, in a way, given priority or some priority.”

(From left to right: interviewees and interview excerpts)

The three opinions above highlight the social and intercultural dimensions inherent in CE exchanges. Together these dimensions focus on the development of skills and competencies required to function in a multilingual Europe (Stakeholder 1), as well as a commitment to social inclusion issues in student mobility (Stakeholder 2). This entails not only fomenting the mastery of less widely taught and used European languages but also removing academic and financial obstacles like access for less privileged student groups, as

noted by Stakeholders 1 and 2, respectively. The development of this community of exchange students with a “real European citizenship” is made possible through extended stays in another country, as noted by Stakeholder 3. While explaining his/her viewpoint further, this interviewee clarifies the vision of CE about long stays and other pathways to develop intercultural competencies among its movers:

“And *Campus Europae* believes that short stays don't really build the kind of European vision and commitment in its young generation that we aim to build. So, longer stays. Second and very important point: to know the language of the host country. Of course, English is now the common language of communication in Europe but we strongly believe that to really know other cultures, cultures of different European countries, it is essential to have a reasonable knowledge of their home language.” (Stakeholder 3)

Stakeholder 3 considers as well that to develop intercultural competencies and citizenship ideals among CE students:

“It is necessary to widen the access of mobility experiences to a larger number of students. Specifically, to students that are experiencing economic difficulties, that have a job while they study. And so, *Campus Europae* introduced this LEP program⁷⁰ that permits those students to have a part time job in the host country while they are studying there.” (Stakeholder 3)

This perception resonates with the perspective of Stakeholder 2 about the importance of social inclusion for CE and reflects the affinities between this exchange program and the Bologna Process (BP) which brought renewed interest to ‘inclusiveness’ in European higher education (please recall Chapter 2, section 2.3).

Interestingly, all three interviewees concur on the significance of social competencies and language learning for the CE project. The opinion of Stakeholder 5 reinforces the pivotal role of language learning, a factor that led the VMU to join the network.

“It’s one more opportunity for students to have the chance of going abroad to study. This program is different from other programs, it is related with language courses, with language knowledge.” (Stakeholder 5)

⁷⁰ “Learning employability places”. Please recall Footnote 36.

Despite the importance CE has for language learning and intercultural competencies, there are no centralized monitoring and evaluation systems to certify the development of such competencies, as evidenced by the dialogue below.

Interviewer: “Regarding the European citizenship competencies, is there any form of educational support or assessment provided by Campus Europae to assess these competencies that are gained abroad?”

Stakeholder 3: “No. That is... all assessment is done by the home universities of the students. Of course, *Campus Europae* does hand a questionnaire to students and asks what they believe they have acquired in terms of intercultural experiences, knowledge of other cultures. But that’s only a questionnaire... well, it’s not a formal assessment.”

(From left to right: interviewee or interviewer and interview excerpts)

The absence of centralized monitoring and evaluation systems is a reflection of the paucity of pedagogical support to developing intercultural competencies during the CE sojourn. This is demonstrated by the conversation below.

Interviewer: “As mentioned in the tenth anniversary pamphlet of the EUF-CE network, “experiencing unity in diversity” means a closer understanding of the host culture and of the host language. But what do you think this closer understanding implies? What can it be done to promote this closer understanding? Is it enough for students just to experience the host culture and the host language?”

Stakeholder 3: “No, *Campus Europae* provides effective support to language learning. It established the *Hook Up!* program and all the participant universities organize intensive language courses when the students arrive and then during the year further language training. So, those are very concrete things that Campus Europae has done to really promote language learning and through language learning better intercultural knowledge.”

Interviewer: “And what if the teaching methodology, if the language methodology is not enough to promote intercultural learning? Because language itself should promote intercultural learning, but one does not imply the other.”

Stakeholder 3: “No, the basic learning of the language it’s a tool. It’s not just a tool but it’s also a tool, and it’s a tool that allows the mover, the student, to communicate with the citizens of the host country at large.”

Interviewer: “But do you think that those pedagogical approaches that support intercultural learning can contribute to make intercultural competence an effective learning outcome of student mobility and, in this case, of *Campus Europae* mobility?”

Stakeholder 3: “Well, in principle yes but we cannot think that, because I think it’s not realistic, that we will ask the professors, the teachers to change the way they teach for the *Campus Europae* students. *Campus Europae* students must follow the courses as they are. Of course, if those courses include for everybody the development of soft skills related to intercultural skills, that’s fine. But if they don’t, we cannot ask the teachers at the various universities to change the ways that they believe are the best ones to deliver.”

The opinion of Stakeholder 3 points yet again to the lack of effective intercultural pedagogies and monitoring and evaluation systems supporting and assessing the actual development of intercultural competencies among sojourners. An additional issue brought up is the professional readiness of language teachers to deliver an intercultural curriculum. This and other matters will be brought to the forefront when inquiring interviewees about the benchmarks and constraints of CE, examined next.

6.3 Intercultural Benchmarks and Constraints of Campus Europae

This theme addresses the achievements and hindrances regarding the intercultural dimension of CE exchanges and the EUF-CE network.

Specific questioning was conducted by the interviewer to ascertain and explore the overall benchmarks and constraints of CE program and the EUF-CE network in order to map out those which were interculturally-related. Two strategies were used interchangeably to accomplish this goal:

1. An inductive strategy wherein interviewees were questioned about the strengths and weaknesses of CE;
2. A deductive strategy wherein interviewees were queried about specific obstacles identified by prior data, viz.: (a) reduced student flows of the EUF- CE network given an examination of these numbers across all partner institutions, and (b) the B1 language goal of CE exchanges facing the language proficiency results of case study 1.

The inductive strategy was employed with Stakeholders 2 and 4. Generated data are organized into the aforementioned categories - *strengths* and *weaknesses* of CE.

Two types of strengths were identified in the former category, to wit: (1) *the ideal(s) behind CE*, and (2) *academic cooperation and/or interaction*. The first type of strength was conveyed solely by Stakeholder 2.

Stakeholder 2: “Definitely, the strength of *Campus Europae* is in the ideal and the ideal has come from a credible source. I’m talking about people who have been in the education field, with experience and a lot of responsibility, ministers, people at ministerial level, people who are in positions of great influence in their countries and a personal involvement of the Minister of the Education of Luxembourg. This gives the program great strength and it has a generous funding to develop its activities.”

The CE ideal consists of “creating a network of universities which are exchanging students for cultural exchange for the improvement of social competences”, as the interviewee has previously explained (see section 6.2). This ideal was set by a trustworthy source with educational expertise and financial means to run the project and its activities.

The second type of strength, *academic cooperation and/or interaction*, is pinpointed by the two interviewees. There is, nonetheless, individual variation in their viewpoints. Stakeholder 2 underscores academic cooperation in terms of quality assurance, while Stakeholder 4 stresses the personal realm of academic cooperation.

Stakeholder 2: “The other strength is in the crucial importance it places on academic interaction. So, where *Erasmus* is deeply lacking is in cooperation between academics and universities. So, so student mobility, for example, takes place basically through student interest and international offices are interacting. And the interaction between professors and the academia is lacking severely, in most cases, not in all cases, in most mobilities, whereas in *Campus Europae* this isn’t the case. The funding is channeled towards ensuring that there are subject-based networks that are working together to ensure the quality of mobility. And the results are interesting, I mean, we don’t have the problems of academic recognition in *Campus Europae* that we have in *Erasmus* and we do have academic cooperation which is leading to new initiatives.”

Stakeholder 4: It’s networking, relations, it’s constant cooperation, collaboration meeting with people that you can trust. You start to know those universities. You are familiar with their culture, with their environment, their style and you feel safe sending your students. It’s much easier to answer all questions from the students. Actually it’s good, this consortium is very good. You know the people, you know the system, you know what to expect, how it will work... there are no surprises and this is good.”

Taken together these excerpts show that what has nearly become a “catch-all word” or even “paradigm” in European tertiary education has several dimensions. In the CE project,

the personal and academic dimensions of *cooperation* require joint action from institutions and academics to ensure recognition of the period of studies abroad. And yet, cooperation demands also a familiar environment where academics and international education staff can ensure the wellness and safety of exchange students, an issue often forgotten in European credit student mobility. This is facilitated by a network where departmental coordinators actually know the universities their students will be attending.

There are, however, constraints to the smooth running of the CE program, to wit: (1) individual engagement of partner institutions and subject committees; (2) reduced student flows; (3) cost-effectiveness of the program; (4) language barriers and feasibility of the B1 language goal; and finally, (5) clustering among partner institutions.

With reference to Subtheme or Subcategory (1), Stakeholder 2 considers that not all EUF-CE partner institutions engage and promote the CE program:

Stakeholder 2: “The weaknesses are in the institutional support at the university level that the project gets. There are universities at *Campus Europae* where the rectorate of the universities has clearly stated that they do not want to promote *Campus Europae*!”

Similarly, there is variance in the level of commitment across subject committees, a constraint acknowledged by other interviewees as will be examined later on.

Stakeholder 2: “The actually subject committees themselves are not sustainable. With exceptions, of course! (...) There are subject committees which are starting to create groups of interested persons who are willing to give their time and their avid energy to work into *Campus Europae*. In the Economics area, they’ve a very good group. In the Education area they’ve a very good group, in the Engineering area, a very good group, but there are evidences in the Law group, in the Medicine group where really it’s incredible that they are still being funded! I just don’t understand how *Campus Europae* can put up with this!”

Reduced student flows is another limitation which may, among other variables, be related to the differing engagement of partner institutions and subject committees, but also to clusters of institutions with similar interests and/or areas of expertise.

Stakeholder 4: “The weaknesses it’s not only the small number ...yes the small number is a weakness and is a too expensive program, but this is not your research problem. Another weakness is these language problems and a kind of clustering, you know?! There are some links stronger than other links. For example, just one example, Saint Petersburg and Vienna, they have a very good cooperation in teacher training. Saint Petersburg is sending a lot of students to Vienna, and Vienna is sending a lot of

students to Saint Petersburg, because they are preparing Russian and German teachers. So, it's a good cooperation. And there are not too many links with Latvia, Poland, and Lithuania for example. This is another cluster but with a small number of students.”

Interviewer: “So, do you think that one of the weaknesses can be the fact that the partnerships are not equal? There are some subgroups...”

Stakeholder 4: “There are starting to be some groups and this is a danger for the future, because all partner universities should be equal.”

Upon explaining the set-up of institutional subgroups within the network, the interviewee identifies *language problems* and the *cost-effectiveness* of the CE program as two other constraints. These two matters were actually disclosed earlier in this interview when the interviewer employed the deductive strategy of inquiring about the reduced number of student flows in the EUF-CE network. Given that this strategy was employed with all five stakeholders, their perceptions are listed in Table 66 for ease of comparison. These viewpoints concern the number of CE student exchanges for the five academic years from 2007 to 2012 (please recall these figures in Figure 24, Chapter 3).

Table 66 - Stakeholder perceptions about EUF-CE student flows from 2007 to 2012.

Stakeholders	Excerpts
1	“The numbers are very small... There’re universities that don’t send anybody and don’t receive anybody! Vytautas Magnus University is one of them, because it has a policy not to send anybody on Campus Europae. Because if <i>Campus Europae</i> students go for a year they are using two grants, and when we go into our rankings we want to have two students, not one.”
2	“The numbers are low, because the universities in <i>Campus Europae</i> are not attractive, they are not in countries that are attractive for student mobility. If you look at the student mobility numbers across Europe, the countries which host the most students are not there, except for... Spain is there, France is there...But these are just one university in each of these countries. So, you cannot compare to <i>Erasmus</i> . You don’t compare <i>Campus Europae</i> and <i>Erasmus</i> .”
3	“Well, of course I would be very happy if the numbers were larger. However, the mobility numbers have generally always been much smaller than the objectives set forward by the European Union. So, there is a large difference between the goals that Europe sets for itself in terms of mobility numbers and the reality. And we can also see that in <i>Campus Europae</i> .”
4	“In addition to the small numbers, probably nobody got <i>Campus Europae</i> diploma. So, I think <i>Campus Europae</i> has to make the conditions concerning language easier, because we still have this common English language. And this...probably... I can’t tell, but it’s a waste of money. We are travelling teachers...It’s a lot of money and only such numbers! It’s a lot of money to travel from every country to the subject committees’ meetings.”
5	“I can’t say why the numbers are low. I don’t know why.”

As excerpts in Table 66 illustrate, the grounds for the consistently small number of CE movers are multiple. Not only do the countries where partner institutions are located lack attractiveness (at least, facing the geopolitics of major student mobility powerhouses in Europe), but once more engagement levels from participant universities come across as uneven, as voiced by Stakeholders 1 and 2, respectively. Stakeholder 3, on the other hand, sees the question in broader terms justifying the numerical underachievements with the customary high quantitative benchmarks that are set for temporary student mobility in Europe. Stakeholder 4, in turn, emphasizes again language and considers that the cost-effectiveness of the program lags behind when actual student flows are considered. In the case of Stakeholder 5, it was not possible to probe into his/her perceptions about the overall reduced student numbers.

Confrontation about student flows at the institutional level allows deepening one's understanding of the obstacles identified in the wider network. Interestingly, the two institutions under scrutiny in the interviews represent opposite trends facing CE student flows. The UA emerges as a net importer of students, while the VMU emerges as a net exporter, as previously examined in Chapter 3, section 3.5.2.2 (Table 12).

With regard to the UA, Interviewee 1 considers that the limited numbers of outgoing CE students may be attributable to the classical academic profile of some member institutions as well as to broader structural problems in the EUF-CE network:

“It's quite difficult, because there are things which have to do with structural problems in the network that influence the numbers. The University of Aveiro, for instance, is a very open and interdisciplinary university. So that makes it quite easy for students to come and study here. Because they can usually find the kinds of things that they need to study. Doesn't work the other way around. Most of the universities in the *Campus Europae* network are classical universities with very independent faculties. And it's hard to cross those boundaries. It's hard to find places where our students want to go within the *Campus Europae* network.” (Stakeholder 1).

Upon explaining his/her viewpoint further, Stakeholder 1 deems the lack of attractiveness of countries in the network as another push factor hindering Portuguese students from participating in CE (in addition to their own inertia to go abroad). The malfunctioning of some subject areas may as well interfere with student recruitment.

“It’s hard for our students. It’s easier for us to receive in the *Campus Europae* network not only for other reasons maybe not being so opened to going, but there are structural problems in the network which don’t make it particularly attractive. It’s not particularly attractive in the Humanities, for example. I don’t think it’s particularly attractive in teacher training either! Most of our students are looking for a more familiar reality where the culture and language is much closer to their own. Most of our mobility students, at least at the first time, want to go to Spain or Italy. They want to go somewhere close by, in other words, where the culture and language is much closer to their own. They don’t particularly want to go up the Baltic States... they never heard of the Baltic States, for the most part!” (Stakeholder 1)

The VMU, in Lithuania, represents the opposite case of the UA as a net exporter of students, a tendency of many universities in the consortium. If one recalls the figures in Table 12, the VMU sent 104 students and received only 15 students during eight academic years (2004-2012). The two interviewees from this institutional context are peremptory about the causes for such a limited number of incoming students, to wit:

“It’s very clear answer. It’s because *Campus Europae* rule is to study a foreign language, the language of the country you are going. And as Lithuania is a country with three million. So, students from Italy, Spain and France are not attracted. Why should they study the Lithuanian language? They do not relate their future to such a small country, you know?! They don’t see job possibilities here.” (Stakeholder 4)

Similarly, when Stakeholder 5 is questioned if *language learning* can act as a deterrent to attracting CE students, the interviewee discloses the following viewpoint:

“Definitely! We’re a really small country and language is what? Nothing. And I think that European students who want to come to Lithuania they can come as *Erasmus* students. They don’t need to learn Lithuanian language and the exchange process will be the same. And from other countries like Russia, like Novi Sad University (Serbia), they can come as *Campus Europae*. I think that *Campus Europae* in Lithuania is not so good because of language.”(Stakeholder 5)

According to this interviewee, *language learning* emerges as a generalized barrier for Lithuanian universities. This perception is consistent with the small number of CE

students sent by another Lithuanian partner institution, the *European Humanities University*, which received two students between 2004 and 2012, and sent 21 (see Table 12). Furthermore, in the competition with *Erasmus* in Lithuania, CE seems to recruit primarily students from non- EU Member States or from neighboring countries of Lithuania, as explained by Stakeholder 4:

“Usually incoming students are our neighbors from Latvia, because the language is not very different. It is possible to learn. And sometimes Lithuanians and Latvians have mixed families, relatives. Another neighbor is Poland. Sometimes we receive Polish students.” (Stakeholder 4)

The understanding of *host language learning* as a core feature of CE seems to function as a recognized but unalterable impediment for boosting student flows at VMU

“We have just discussed that problem with the International Office, with all the coordinators, with all the coordinators of *Campus Europae* and we decided that we still need to follow rules of *Campus Europae*. And it's better that we send less and receive less. We will follow rules. So, we can't change those things.”(Stakeholder 4)

The above stance calls into question the feasibility of *attaining a B1 level of competence* at the end of the CE sojourn. To explore interviewee perceptions about this language goal, the interviewer questioned them about its viability.

From the institutional perspective of the UA, Stakeholder 1 sees B1 attainment as possible, while recognizing the hard work involved to reach such a goal.

Interviewer: “And how do you feel about that specific goal of reaching de B1 level of competence?”

Stakeholder 1: “Well... I think it's is excellent, because in *Erasmus* they have also a commitment to the language but they don't inforce it. But many students who do *Campus Europae* don't choose... They choose not to do language because they say that it's too difficult, they don't want to spend time... and that's ok. They don't do it and they don't get the certificate.”

Interviewer: “And is it is it possible to reach the B1 level of competence just because they are abroad? If they never heard Portuguese before, for example?”

Stakeholder 1: “Well, I think the standards are not very high. I think it's possible. It's possible, but it requires a lot of hard work.”

From the institutional perspective of the VMU, Stakeholder 4 deems the B1 goal feasible, but reckons two levels of language competence as more suitable.

- Interviewer:** “What do you think about the goal of *Campus Europae* to encourage the students to learn a language but to reach three levels, because for example, our students they did not know a word of Portuguese before coming and I had two students from Vytautas Magnus University.”
- Stakeholder 4:** “But actually they have to come prepared. Not from zero. We offered students Portuguese language and encouraged them to take the course. Also *Hook up!* So, I don’t know if it’s possible to reach B1.”
- Interviewer:** “Maybe they can reach this stage if they start with lessons, with *Hook Up!* or taking the course?”
- Stakeholder 4:** “Only that way. Otherwise, it’s almost impossible to go through three levels in one year. Two levels would be nice, but you can’t propose that, because to propose that means to change the strategy of *Campus Europae* and they wouldn’t be happy, because they are very strict about that.”

To summarize, the data demonstrate that the major benchmarks of an exchange program can also function as constraints. Figure 55 reviews the subthemes generated from the interviews by categorizing them as a *benchmark*, a *constraint*, or both. Those variables which embody a benchmark or strength of CE are represented by grey arrows; constraints or weaknesses are, in turn, indicated by black arrows. Whenever variables are simultaneously a strength and weakness both arrows are given.

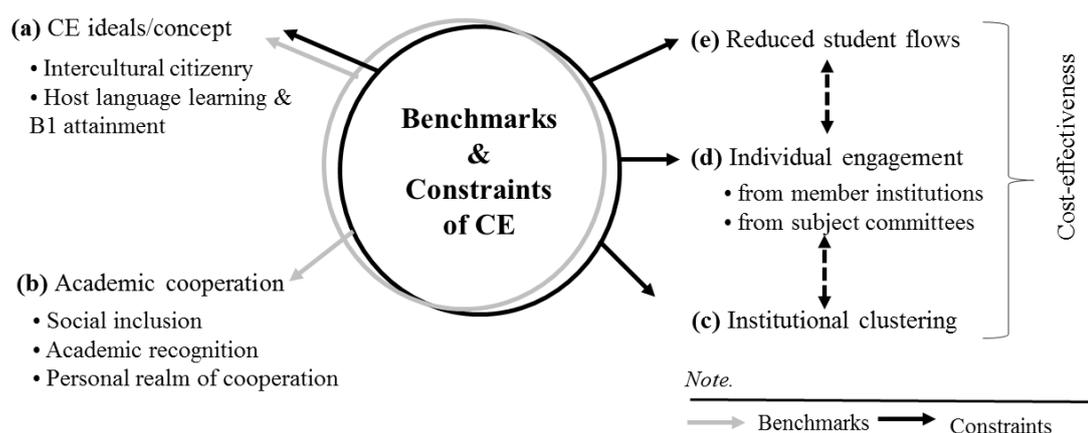


Figure 55 - Benchmarks and constraints of CE.

As Figure 55 illustrates, the programmatic features of CE (i.e., its ideals) at intercultural (*intercultural citizenry*) and language levels (*host language learning*)

exemplify how a benchmark can also be a constraint. At the intercultural level, not only is there a dearth of appropriate intercultural pedagogies and centralized monitoring and evaluation systems, but there may also be a lack of adequate professional training of language instructors to deliver an intercultural curriculum. Additionally, host language learning seems to function as a push factor hindering effective student recruitment and contributing to *reduced student flows* in the network. The limited number of student flows in the network may also be related to the *individual engagement* of partner institutions and subject committees, as well as to institutional clusters whose similar interests and/or subject areas allow a minimum number of exchanges among a given subgroup and leave out other institutions. This latter aspect shows that *academic cooperation* can easily turn into *academic competition*. In the words of Van der Wende (2001), it demonstrates how two emergent internationalization paradigms in higher education go hand in hand, as discussed earlier in Chapter 2 (section 2.3). Despite this constraint, academic cooperation is regarded, for the most part, by interviewees as a strength of the network. Not only are joint efforts between institutions and academics geared toward ensuring academic recognition and social inclusion in student mobility, but the familiar environment of the consortium can ease proper student advising and wellness, i.e., more effective support systems.

6.4 Role of Campus Europae in European Credit Student

Understanding the CE program and its aspirations should not be examined in isolation from the larger credit student mobility enterprise and the EU flagship (sub)program *Erasmus*. This is all the more important when constant comparisons between *Erasmus* and CE come to light in stakeholder interviewees and in the discourse of case 1 participants, as Chapters 4 and 5 have demonstrated.

The theme in this section then addresses how CE is envisaged against the wider European scenario of credit student mobility schemes and *Erasmus* in particular. The aim is to contextualize CE in relation to its counterpart and to clarify the relationship between this exchange program and *Erasmus*. For those purposes, the interviewer posed specific questions, including ones regarding interviewee perceptions about the designation “Erasmus+” attributed by European Commissioner Fígel (in 2007) to CE.⁷¹

⁷¹ Please see Frequently Asked Question (2) about CE at: <http://www.campuseuropae.org/en/campus/faq/>

Regarding the labelling of CE as “Erasmus+”, three of the interviewees were asked about their agreement or disagreement. Two of them disagreed and one agreed.

- Stakeholder 1:** “No. I think that...First of all, can I kill a myth before it develops! The people who are the benefactors of *Campus Europae*, the people who are closest to the central cord of the *Campus Europae* organization are telling people around them that the *Erasmus+* program of the European Commission is modelled on the *Campus Europae* experience. There’s no evidence to suggest that this is true, no hard evidence!”
- Stakeholder 3:** “Yes, of course. It’s just...I think it’s a very good name a very good designation for what *Campus Europae* has been really trying to do, and it’s very interesting to see that the new *Erasmus* program will be called *Erasmus+*.”
- Stakeholder 4:** “I don't know. For me, it’s not clear this is *Erasmus+*. Why should it be? It’s just, you know, a consortium of twelve, fifteen universities. Yes ... and there is, again...it’s bad this clustering. Sometimes, it’s not clear why universities are joining, what they are giving to this network. Sometimes there is no reason for why universities are in clusters.”

When probing further about the perspectives of Stakeholders 2 and 3, their viewpoints become strikingly divergent. Stakeholder 2 explains that:

“The expression used by Jan Fígel was never forgotten and was used, and rightly so! It was used by the people in the *Campus Europae* inner circles as a way of advertising *Campus Europae*. And well done to them, because they should take advantage of these situations, but now to go from there to say that the European Commission’s *Erasmus+* has been based on *Campus Europae* (...) *Campus Europae* as an organization doesn’t pack a punch in the sense that it doesn’t have results that are actually very convincing. So, we have *Erasmus* mobility going on within a university network which has an ideal.”

On other hand, Stakeholder 3 sees the ‘*Erasmus+* label’ as an indication from *Erasmus* to incorporate some of the lessons advocated by CE.

“So, as you now the European Parliament didn’t agree with the designation *Erasmus* for all that was proposed by the Commission, and finally they agreed the new name of the new program would be *Erasmus+*, and that is just the name that was given to *Campus Europae* a few years ago by Brussels. So, I think that it’s very significant in the sense that, of course with differences, there appears to be a movement from *Erasmus* to incorporate some of the experiences that *Campus Europae* has made about mobility.” (Stakeholder 3)

To probe further into the view of Stakeholder 3, the interviewer asked if CE brought any added-value to *Erasmus* and, if so, how this added-value could be measured.

“Yes, I believe so. Well, we can, at least theoretically, measure it by comparing the students’ experiences, *Campus Europae* students’ experience with the standard *Erasmus* mobility experiences. It’s mainly, those are mainly somewhat immaterial differences. So, it’s not easily quantified.” (Stakeholder 3)

The excerpt above brings again to light the shortage of monitoring and evaluations attesting to the potential added-value of student mobility. This lack not only hinders reliable and valid comparisons among exchange programs, but leaves their educational worth as an open-ended question. The next theme sheds some insight into this question by pointing to the urge to take into account both the intrinsic and extrinsic educational value of the mobility. This will be done in relation to the intervention and its role in the wider CE exchange experience.

6.5 Worth of the Intervention

This theme considers the extrinsic *value* or *worth* of the intervention and extends the analysis of its intrinsic value to participants in the two previous chapters. The aim is to examine the views of secondary users (in addition to the primary users - the students) who may later use the information produced (Patton, 2008). This objective reflects the evaluative component of the broader research inquiry and justifies the inclusion of stakeholders from the macro and mezzo contexts, as described in Chapters 2 and 3.

To explore stakeholder perceptions about the value of the intervention, all five interviewees were confronted with data regarding case study 1, viz.:

- The impact of the intervention upon the 19 CE students’ intercultural gains (see Chapter 4, section 4.4.3.3, Table 48);
- Student Portuguese proficiency at the end of the intervention (Chapter 4, section 4.4.2, Table 40, and student focus group excerpts);
- Student motivation to learn language and intercultural issues (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.2., Figure 36 and Table 41).

The presentation of the data sets to interviewees was accompanied by focus questions which aimed to elicit their views about the intercultural value of the intervention and its role for the CE program.

Of the four stakeholders who shared their opinions, all considered that the intervention and intentional intercultural pedagogies should be a feature of CE.

Stakeholder 1: “It could be a feature offered by *Campus Europae*, but who’s going to offer it? Who’s going to pay them?”

Stakeholder 2: “This is actually...I would love to... I almost lost my ambition in a sense that I would love to have a mobility program where intercultural studies, this is, structured intercultural studies, as you said, and intercultural seminars, structured seminars, are an integral part of the program which is advertised from the outside, which is sustainable.”

Stakeholder 3: “Yes, well...At a first look at the results I think that would be a strong argument for the language courses to incorporate more intercultural subjects.”

Stakeholder 4: “It is not only in *Campus Europae*, it's in general. It should be offered in general... Yes, I would support such idea very much.”

(From left to right: interviewees and interview excerpts)

To elaborate their viewpoints further, three of the stakeholders drew attention to prospective obstacles to incorporating purposeful intercultural pedagogy as part of the design and delivery of CE or of the curriculum of partner institutions.

Stakeholder 1, who raised potential drawbacks from the outset was probed further by the interviewer, as evidenced by the dialogue below.

Interviewer: “If this is part of the language class... the language teacher should be able to approach language and culture all together.

Stakeholder 1: “Shouldn’t we pay to the language teachers to get the training they need to be able to do this?”

Interviewer: “Well... I thought *Campus Europae* would be the right network to do this, because its goal is an intercultural goal...”

Stakeholder 1: “It would be. The question is a financial question, an economic question. If we had the resources we could do proper training...We could help the teachers to teach the language in a different way.”

(From left to right: interviewer or interviewee and interview excerpts)

Stakeholder 2 and 3 conveyed similar concerns, although Stakeholder 2 stressed more sustainability matters at the institutional level.

Stakeholder 2: “I’m not interested in promoting something that will happen for one semester while Joana Almeida is on the campus and then she goes off and gets a great job in a company in Japan and we are stuck with people who don’t understand intercultural studies. So, I would be very interested in a structured, but sustained intercultural seminars. So, I would go much more into lobbying, at the department directorate level to get intercultural introduced into the curriculum.”

Stakeholder 3: Yes, it would be very interesting to offer intercultural learning as a feature of *Campus Europae*. I think probably it will require convincing the language teachers to change the way they are teaching the students. But it’s very interesting and these are very interesting numbers which provide a good argument to try to do something about the way the host country language is taught.

Stakeholder 2 expands his/her perspective further, suggesting ways to make the intervention and intercultural pedagogies effective teaching-learning practices.

Stakeholder 2: “But still to introduce intercultural seminars... What is at stake here is changing the word seminars into studies and then to have a course unit called intercultural studies which is offered within the context of Portuguese or any other course. It could be a for-credit course, it could be an option, for example! It could be an optional course for many, many study programs at the university, including across the major courses at the university that are optional.”

On par with Stakeholder 2, Stakeholder 4 conveys the idea that: “the seminars could be optional, of course. But it’s a very good idea”. Interestingly, these two interviewees, albeit from different institutional perspectives, concur on the optional nature of intercultural learning in study abroad.

With regard to the UA, Stakeholder 2 explains that:

“Much of the problem is simply not understanding, not knowing the problem, not knowing the data, not having clear facts... Because we have discussions informal discussions that are very unstructured and don’t really lead to any specific conclusions which could vent the frustration of knowing that we should be doing this, but we really aren’t!” (Stakeholder 2)

The interviewee warns also about practical problems to integrating intercultural learning into the institutional curriculum, including teachers’ professional readiness.

“It’s take a lot of hard craft and work to do it and you need people who are sharing your mission, sharing your ideas. It won’t be enough for Joana alone, PhD student. It’s not enough for me. It’s not enough for the rector! The rector would agree with everything you said. He wouldn’t find anything wrong with everything you said, but he would have difficulties in implementing this at the university, you know?! Because the people who really make all the decisions regarding what goes into the courses are the teachers themselves. And you have one thousand...I don’t know how many teachers at the university. All of them with their programs and they are completely full up.” (Stakeholder 2)

When questioning interviewees from the UA about the underachievement of B1 level of Portuguese by case 1 participants, the following viewpoints were expressed:

Stakeholder 1: “Yeah, if you ask me whether it’s possible to reach B1, it’s possible. If you ask me whether they feel frustrated or not, I think they feel frustrated but I think it’s more the type of learning they’re doing than the levels. I mean ... well, why do I need to learn ten different tenses? Well, I don’t know why they have to learn ten different tenses⁷². I don’t think they do have to learn ten different tenses. (...) For me, that tells me more about how they’re learning Portuguese than it tells me about the *Campus Europae* language policy.”

Stakeholder 2: “I didn’t know about that. (...) Is this understood at the level of the course organization? It’s very important! That’s crucial! That’s crucial! We are not interested in investing into programs that don’t have impact...and we are going to have to invest big time into language preparation next year. We’re not interested in investing money in programs that don’t have impact.”

Stakeholder 1, who elaborates his/her viewpoint further, considers that CE language policy is not problematic unto itself, but it needs to be marketed to the students in a manner that is not imposed upon them.

“*Campus Europae* language policy has to be marketed to the students. They have to... you can’t learn a language if you don’t want to. You can’t say you have to learn a language. Of course, it’s going to be horrible if you don’t want to. But I mean, it has to be marketed to the students. They have to want to do it, they have to know it is important to them, they have to know it’s valuable for them. That it’s worth investing in.” (Stakeholder 1)

⁷² Stakeholder 1 reports to the comment of participant A13 (see p. 204, section 4.2.2, Chapter 4).

To this factor, the interviewee adds the inadequacy of the language teaching methodology which is delivered as a foreign language and not as second language.

It's not the problem of the language policy that we don't do it as well as we could. We could do a better language course. For years, the *Erasmus* students have been saying they don't learn Portuguese because the Portuguese as foreign languages classes were so awful. It is not that awful, but some of them are not good. It's just maybe... I don't know... we don't have a professional center of a group of people professionally in teaching Portuguese as a foreign language. It's not part of Portuguese culture like it is in English culture, for example.” (Stakeholder 1)

In summary, all four interviewees acknowledged the intercultural added-value of the intervention and purposeful intercultural pedagogy in the CE program. They also highlighted prospective difficulties to incorporating intercultural learning either as part of the actual design of this exchange program or of the curriculum of partner institutions. Despite some variation in the aforementioned hindrances, a common concern is the intercultural preparation of language instructors, in particular, to perform such a task. This apprehension is in line with research literature on the need for professional development to facilitate and assess an intercultural curriculum. This professional development concerns all those who work closely with exchange programs, including the teaching profession and language instructors, as examined earlier in Chapter 2, section 2.4.4.2.

Regarding the feasibility of B1 attainment, it may be a matter of an *imposed and unrealistic language policy*. It may as well be a question of an *individual teaching methodology*, as suggested by case 1 participants in Chapter 4. Or it may be related to the *institutional language teaching methodology* which is not adequate for a context of cultural immersion nor for the needs of sojourners. There is some variation in interviewee viewpoints, and these three variables may have contributed to the language problems which came to the fore in the intervention.

6.6 Summary

This chapter offered an improved and contextualized understanding of the EUF-CE network and the CE program by relating and contrasting how this exchange program is conceptualized and operationalized according to key agents from the macro and mezzo scenarios. The chapter also mapped out potential divergencies between discursive

representations of the CE program (i.e., how it is presented to those outside it) and practical understandings (i.e., how it is perceived by those inside it) so as to offer sustained responses to the two research subquestions under analysis.

By elaborating upon the themes represented by sections 6.2, 6.3 and 6.4, responses were offered to subquestion 1.6 regarding the intercultural benchmarks and strengths of CE. Results indicate that the linguistic and intercultural ideals of CE can function simultaneously as an asset and a limitation. This finding can be situated at the student level (and their learning outcomes), at the institutional and network level. *Host language learning*, for instance, is perceived by interviewees as a distinguishing feature of the CE program and a pull factor for tertiary institutions, like the VMU, joining the network. On the other hand, it is also envisioned as a push factor hindering effective student recruitment (in addition to the lack of attractiveness of countries). *Intercultural learning* and European citizenry are also regarded as quintessential features of CE, but none of the interviewees pointed to the presence of deliberate pedagogical support nor of centralized monitoring and evaluation systems. Overall, interviewee perceptions disclose that intercultural support seems to be mostly a matter of the willingness of individual teachers and language instructors in particular. Concurrently, some interviewees call into question the professional readiness and preparation of language instructors, in addition to the costs involved in preparing these professionals to perform such a task.

Academic cooperation is the feature which seems to be mostly regarded as a strength of CE. Institutional clusters can, however, easily turn cooperation into competition. Reduced student flows, differing levels of engagement of partner institutions and subject committees are among the identified constraints. The lack of empirical results is envisaged as another limitation. This may be particularly relevant for CE to clearly distinguish itself from *Erasmus* as an alternative program with potential added-value. Comparisons made between the two programs are, therefore, mostly conceptual.

Finally, the theme represented by section 6.5 offered responses to question 1.7 which concerns the incorporation of purposeful intercultural pedagogy into the design and delivery of CE and other credit bearing exchange programs. Results underscore the extrinsic value or worth of the intervention for this kind of exchange program and possible pathways to making intercultural learning part of the student exchange experience. This can be achieved, according to interviewees, in two ways: at the institutional or programmatic level.

In any case, intercultural learning should be optional. For this to happen in CE, it is important to revise its language policy and infer why the targeted language proficiency level (B1) is counterproductive. Stakeholder interviewees point to three variables: (a) the language policy itself (which can be envisaged as imposed and unrealistic); (b) inadequate language teaching methodologies on the part of individual instructors, or (c) institutions (or both).

6.7 Limitations

As discussed in the previous data-analysis chapters, there are always limitations to conclusions which can be drawn from data, whatever type it may be. In textual data, comparability across data patterns is difficult to achieve and individual opinions need to be safeguarded. In this sense, the conclusions offered in the previous section need to be read as the overall meta-inferences drawn from interviewee perceptions. There is obviously individual variation in the views conveyed. To acknowledge this, distinctions between the individual and collective level (all five interviewees) were made throughout the chapter. Additionally, each theme identified how many interviewees were questioned, along with their viewpoints.

In terms of representativeness, there was a concern to include stakeholders from more than one institutional context and with different functions and/or hierarchical positions in the CE project. Certainly, responses offered to the research subquestions would benefit from a wider pool of interviewees at the institutional and network levels. This may be especially relevant in understanding how CE language policy functions in its individual institutions and the kind of language teaching methodologies adopted. Doing so would, however, require material and human resources that go beyond this doctoral research. Despite this limitation, this chapter demonstrated that an exchange program is made up not only of its primary users, i.e., those students who participate in the exchange experience. It is also made up of those involved in designing and delivering the exchange program. Those who, ultimately, have the power to affect the achievement of an organization's objectives, as argued by Freeman (1984) in the epigraph.

Chapter 7 Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

«Our battered suitcases were piled on the sidewalk again; we had longer ways to go. But no matter, the road is life»

(Kerouac, [1955] 1991, p. 192).

To summarize this research effort, the most important findings are identified according to the major lessons which can be drawn from them. The organization of this chapter into key lessons expands those responses offered to the research subquestions in the data analysis chapters. These lessons are preceded by a summary of the dissertation (section 7.1) and followed by two sections devoted to the limitations and recommendations of the research inquiry, sections 7.3 and 7.4, respectively. The latter section is subdivided into recommendations for practice (7.4.1) and for future research (7.4.2). Recommendations for practice address hands-on suggestions about the functioning of credit student mobility and purposeful intercultural pedagogy in the macro (7.4.1.1), mezzo (7.4.1.2) and micro (7.4.1.3) contexts. Endorsements for future research suggest areas for further study.

7.1 Summary of the Dissertation

This dissertation had a threefold goal of understanding, enhancing and evaluating the development of ICCs of European credit-seeking exchange students and other sojourner populations while in-country through purposeful intercultural pedagogy. With this goal in mind, it sought to address the following central research question: *What is the key? And how to ensure successful intercultural outcomes that best apply to the case of European credit exchange programs, Campus Europae in particular, and other sojourner populations?*

To provide responses to the overarching research question, this dissertation has taken the following path: (1) introduction to the research outline, establishment of motivation and significance of the research inquiry (Chapter 1); (2) review and critique of relevant literature with regard to the international and intercultural dimensions of credit student mobility, and clarification of terminology used (Chapter 2); (3) description of the methodology in conceptual and operational realms, i.e., underlying research paradigm(s) and type of mixed

methods design adopted; (4) analysis and discussion of quantitative and qualitative data sets yielded by case study 1 which respond to research subquestions 1.1, 1.2, 1.3 and 1.4 (Chapter 4); (5) comparative analysis and discussion of quantitative and qualitative data sets yielded by case study 1 and 2 which respond to research subquestions 1.3, 1.4 and 1.5 (Chapter 5); (6) analysis and discussion of qualitative data sets generated by stakeholder interviews which respond to research subquestions 1.6 and 1.7 (Chapter 6).

Each chapter, especially those dealing with data analyses, raised issues relating to the dissertation which need further discussion. The current chapter picks up these issues and expands upon them as key lessons.

7.2 Conclusions

The main conclusions which can be drawn from this dissertation can be summarized as six lessons which elaborate on responses offered to research subquestions in the preceding data analysis chapters. Each lesson represents a theme identified by a section heading and explained in detail in the body of the text.

7.2.1 Lesson 1: Multi-modal Perspectives in Student Mobility

One of the first lessons learned in this undertaking is the importance to examine student mobility from a multi-modal perspective. This lesson stems from the literature review in Chapter 2, the methodological overview in Chapter 3 (section 3.2) and from research findings yielded by the three data analysis chapters.

The literature review disclosed the need to read student mobility from a wide angle that is supported by well-articulated theoretical perspectives grounded in a relevant base of literature. This baseline is not necessarily confined to a single disciplinary perspective. On the contrary, it benefits when different theoretical perspectives are integrated.

As Comp et al. (2007) demonstrated for North American study abroad, studies about student exchange focus on a plethora of domains and thematic areas (see Table 1, Chapter 2). These thematic areas are anchored in different disciplines. Language learning in student exchange, for instance, is usually informed by second language acquisition (SLA) theories which are rooted in applied linguistics. There is no shortage of research on SLA in study abroad contexts as shown in Chapters 4 and 5 wherein these theories aided the analysis of language outcomes of case study 1 and 2 participants. By way of example,

theoretically- driven subthemes regarding Portuguese language learning were inspired by SLA theories (see Figure 37 in Chapter 4).

Other theoretical perspectives thread through the dissertation. On the international front, internationalization matters and terminological clarification about types of student exchange and other internationalization activities are primarily bolstered by studies in the political sciences. Sociological and anthropological theories were also essential to examining data. These theories enabled a contextualized understanding of the social and cultural landscapes surrounding research participants and the social group(s) they pertain to. Of particular relevance is the work by Murphy-Lejeune (2002) and Montgomery (2010), both of whom underline the need to comprehend student exchange in holistic ways. From Murphy-Lejeune (2002), this dissertation borrowed the notions of *mobility capital* and *steps into mobility* to examine the pre-departure sociocultural characteristics of the two participant cohorts, as shown in the cross and within-case analyses. These two chapters also explored the concept of *communities of practice* after Montgomery (2010) as a way of viewing groups in higher education. This concept was applied in this research by analyzing participants' social networks, underlying group identity and lifestyles.

On the intercultural front, several theories were interspersed. Developmental psychology and human lifespan theories brought insight into ICC as a high-order developmental process. Educational precepts and language and culture teaching theories aided the process of *developing, delivering* and *assessing* an intercultural curriculum in a language classroom. In the latter aspect, evaluation theories were the basis for sustained assessment efforts of student exchange learning outcomes and ICC in particular.

From a methodological perspective, an all-encompassing approach was adopted to investigate student exchange systematically. Mixed methods research offered a way to disentangle some methodological fuzziness in the fields of international and intercultural education which tend to focus on quantitative and qualitative approaches alone, as discussed in Chapter 3 (section 3.2). The within and cross-case data analysis exemplified how the *integration* of quantitative and qualitative strands can contribute to an upward spiral of data clarification (see Chapter 5, Table 54 in particular). Stated another way, multiple validities and measures brought about by mixed methods can enhance the interpretation of findings and allow robust and valid inferences to be drawn. This is paramount to capturing the

intricacies of social realities behind student exchange and ICC development in this and other sojourner populations.

In essence, the confluence of multiple theories in this dissertation emanates from the breadth and depth of the disciplinary discourse of *international education*. The cross-fertilization of different perspectives undergirding international education allowed attending to the *international* and *intercultural* dimensions of student exchange. By bringing together these dimensions of student exchange, international education can capture complex facets of this polymorphous phenomenon in an integrated manner. Like a kaleidoscope that is rotated to produce a succession of different reflections of the same reality, the phenomenon of student mobility needs to be examined from multiple lenses. While the ideological contexts shaping disciplinary discourses and knowledge presentation are a prerequisite for reading a given phenomenon from a particular lens, they may as well restrict how wide that very lens is. Not that delimiting disciplinary lenses is not important, it is indeed. The one adopted here is international education, a transdisciplinary lens which has the merit of producing a changing set of images - the colorful set of images student mobility is made of.

7.2.2 Lesson 2: ICC as a Learning Outcome of Internationalization and Student Mobility

The second lesson attends to student mobility and its intercultural learning outcomes as a result of internationalization processes in higher education. This understanding arises from the attempt to interrelate the international and intercultural dimensions of student exchange, as stressed by the literature review and epitomized by the data analysis chapters. Considered together, the three data analysis chapters, voice the concerns of (some of) those involved in internationalization processes: students (Chapters 4 and 5), language instructor(s) (Chapters 4 and 5) and stakeholders (Chapter 6).

Taking into account the perspectives of those who partake in student exchange, as well as of those who mediate this experience, it is crucial to possess a broader grasp of internationalization efforts, its contexts and expected learning outcomes. An analysis which overlooks that internationalization is made up of many people will likely fail to tackle how it unfolds in practice. In this sense, this dissertation offers a cumulative understanding of how ICC development unfolds from the student perspective, how it is mediated by others (particularly language instructors) and, finally, how it fits into a wider scenario of

institutional (the University of Aveiro, UA) and programmatic (*Campus Europae*, CE, and *Erasmus*) internationalization efforts. The unfolding of data yielded by students, language instructor(s) and stakeholders is interwoven in a narrative wherein findings are subsumed into an increasingly complex picture of ICC as a learning outcome of student exchange and internationalization efforts. This incremental understanding is displayed in Figure 56.

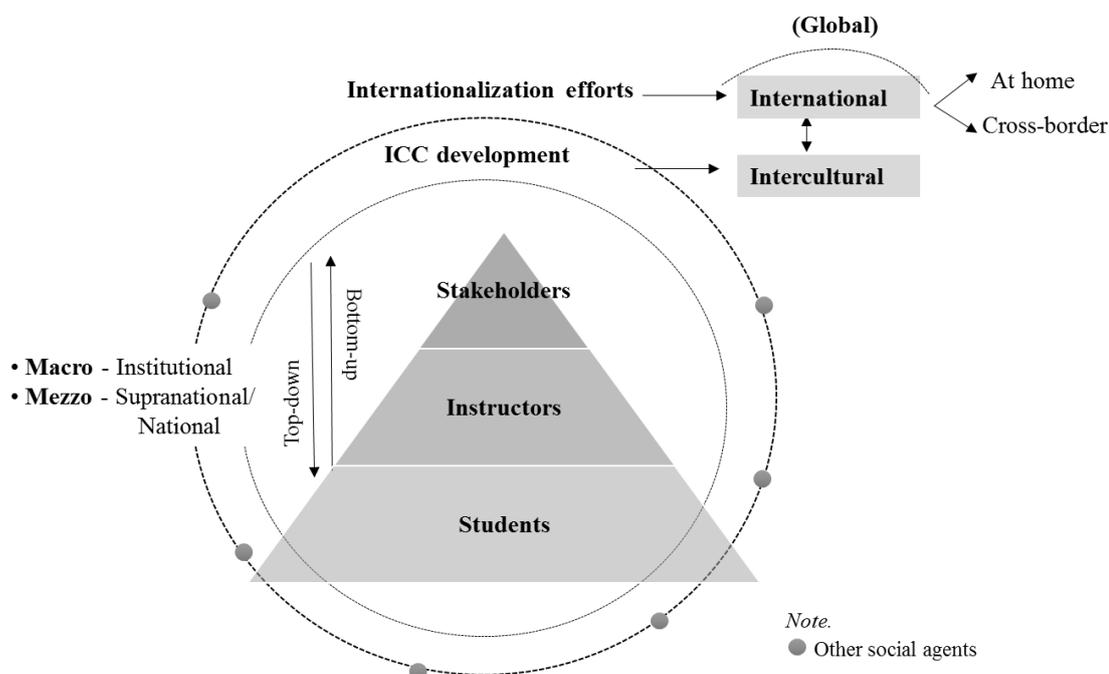


Figure 56 - ICC as a learning outcome of internationalization efforts.

Each successive account by the three types of social agents represented in Figure 56 refines or improves the preceding ‘narratives’. The approach adopted is bottom-up and top-down both in relation to its social contexts and agents. From a bottom-up perspective, institutional contexts and its agents were brought together in data analysis chapters to form an increasingly multifarious picture of internationalization efforts and ICC development. In the top-down approach, the broader picture regarding the influence of supranational and national regulatory frameworks was offered in the literature review and it was later contextualized against the specific macro, mezzo and micro scenarios of this research (see Chapter 3, section 3.5.2). The relationship between these two approaches is, therefore, a dyadic one as espoused by Knight (2004); hence the bi-directional arrows in Figure 56. Whatever the reading (top-down or bottom-up) the relationship between the supranational/national and institutional levels is dynamic. The emphasis in this dissertation

on the institutional level stems from the contextualized understanding offered; hence the categorization of the institutional context as a macro scenario.

Ultimately, the synergies between top-down and bottom-up concur with the adopted working definition of internationalization - that of incorporating global, international and intercultural dimensions into the policies and practices of tertiary internationalization processes and its activities and/or strategies (student mobility, in particular), as contended in the literature review after Knight (2004) (section 2.2). Providing sustained responses to the challenges involved in making ICC a learning outcome of postsecondary internationalization implies hearing the voices of those involved in these processes. After all, as argued by Brustein (2009), it takes an entire institution to internationalize, at least if the goal is to think holistically about internationalization. In the words of Hudzik (2011), a *comprehensive internationalization* that touches upon the ethos and mission of the tertiary enterprise.

Whatever the label to quality internationalization in higher education (*comprehensive, systematic, intelligent, sustainable...*), these processes should attend to its international and intercultural dimensions and be accompanied by the assessment of their actual success.

Despite the increasing demand for accountability and quality assurance in international higher education along with a focus on outcomes-based education (e.g., Aerden, 2014, 2015; Bolen, 2007; De Wit, 2009; Deardorff, 2009b, 2015; Deardorff & Van Gaalen, 2012; Green, 2012; Hudzik & Stohl, 2009; Van Gaalen, 2009, 2010), theory does not always equal practice. In the end, only when the disconnect between rhetoric and practice of internationalization is offset, can ICC development become an effective learning outcome of internationalization efforts and student mobility. For that to happen, a clear understanding of what this sort of competency and underlying development entails needs to put in place. This is discussed next.

7.2.3 Lesson 3: ICC as a Holistic Competence

The third lesson concerns the importance of treating ICC as a holistic competence that attends to its behavioral, affective, cognitive and developmental dimensions. This specific learning was brought about by examining case study 1 and 2 participants' intercultural development and the intercultural effectiveness of the intervention, as shown in Chapters 4 and 5, respectively.

Based on findings in Chapters 4 and 5, the following assumptions can be made to form a framework for a holistic view of ICC:

1. ICC is a complex and multidimensional competence whose core dimensions are *cultural awareness, attitudes, knowledge and skills*;
2. ICC is a cultural-linguistic construct which can be culture-specific or culture-general;
 - 2.1. As a culture-specific construct, ICC requires host language mastery for effective and appropriate interaction with different “Others” (i.e., hosts);
 - 2.2. As a culture-general construct, ICC does not necessarily involve host language mastery for effective and appropriate interaction with similar “Others” (i.e., other sojourners);
3. ICC is a high-order developmental process of multidimensional growth in cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal domains;
4. ICC is a competence of qualitative growth whereby mature levels of performance may be related to abilities to decenter from oneself and reflect critically.

All four assumptions need to be explained in detail with regard to their empirical and theoretical foundations. In the latter case, further exploration of the four IC models (see Chapter 2, section 2.4.3) which guided this research will be made.

7.2.3.1 Assumption 1

Assumption one confirms Fantini’s (2006a, 2009) operationalization of ICC as a multidimensional construct with interrelated components whereby the four dimensions - *cultural awareness, attitudes, knowledge and skills* - are essential for *effective and appropriate* interaction with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself (ibid.). The interdependence of these dimensions is upheld by the overall *strong and positive* correlation coefficients between the dimensions of participant ICC attainment, as demonstrated in Chapter 5, section 5.4.3.2 (see Table 62).

The magnitude of the inter-correlation matrix seems to indicate an underlying broader construct based on the common dependence on a single latent factor - ICC. It should be noted, nevertheless, that the correlation between the awareness and attitudinal dimensions

behaved differently across the two case studies. This pattern suggests that ICC may be also a contextual competence whose component variables are not necessarily at the same level. Two major patterns were found:

- In case 1, all four dimensions were strongly (above $r_s=.617$) and significantly related to each other at $<.010$;
- In case 2, all but one pair of dimensions were strongly correlated, though not always significantly (at $<.050$ or $<.010$). This was the case of the awareness and attitudinal dimensions whose magnitude had a small effect.

According to results, ICC dimensions are inextricably linked. From all possible six associations between ICC dimensions, knowledge and skills were the ICC components which behaved most similarly in the two case studies - both were strongly (above $r_s=.581$) and significantly ($<.010$) related to one another.

Although all four component variables are interrelated, quantitative findings do not give awareness a superordinate role over the development of knowledge, positive attitudes and skills, as suggested by Fantini (2006a, 2009). Not only was the strongest association between knowledge and skills for the two cohorts, but cultural awareness in case study 2 had a small ($r_s=.293$) and strong ($r_s=.539$) correlation to attitudes and skills, respectively. Further quantitative testing in larger samples is needed to better understand how contextual these correlations are.

Qualitative results shed, however, new insight into quantitative data which may support Fantini's (2006a, 2009) assertion. Participant justifications to the intercultural impact of the intervention clarify the potential centrality of cultural awareness, as shown in Chapter 5, section 5.4.3.3. If the reader recalls the dimensions where the intervention had greater intercultural impact, "Increased cultural knowledge" and "Cultural awareness" came across as the most frequent ICC dimensions at 42.3% and 34.6%, respectively (see Figure 53). Despite this result, frequency of gains alone does not add much on the supremacy of cultural awareness, probably because its richness cannot be apprehended by numbers alone. Only by examining participant explanations does the prominence of this ICC dimension and concomitant abilities come to the fore.

The nine (34.6%) participants who considered that the intervention fostered a renewed and critical mindfulness about cultural difference seem to have progressed in their journey toward ICC development. This finding is in line with the pivotal role attributed to

cultural awareness by Fantini (2006a, 2009). Notwithstanding, this ICC dimension may need to be broken down into *cultural awareness* and *critical cultural awareness*, as elaborated further in the third and fourth assumptions.

7.2.3.2 Assumption 2

The second statement conveys the language-culture nexus which lies beneath intercultural development and ICC development in particular. This postulation arises from the language and cultural learning abilities inherent in this type of growth, as demonstrated by research findings and highlighted by the two communicative models which guided this research - Fantini's (2006a, 2009) and Byram's (1997).

While language and culture learning are a proxy for intercultural development, the two may unfold differently. This may mirror the type of ICC development at hand, which can be (a) *culture-specific* or (b) *culture-general*. The former concerns the acquisition of language and cultural learning abilities needed for effective and appropriate adaptation to the host culture. The latter addresses the same abilities but in regard to cultures other than the host culture.

As a culture-specific construct, ICC development warrants host language mastery, at least if the sojourner is targeting at successful (i.e., effective and appropriate) interaction with hosts. As a general construct, ICC development does necessarily demand host language abilities as interaction will likely occur in a lingua franca, possibly with undifferentiated "Others". Stated another way, one can be a fluent fool, as purported by Bennett (1993a), but one can also certainly be a cultural fool. Fruitful intercultural development occurs when one is neither a fluent or cultural fool, not least because many rich cultural subtleties are only unveiled when one has some host language command.

Evidence of Assumption 2 threads through the within and cross-data analyses, but it is most visible in the following variable groupings:

1. Adaption to Portuguese culture: (a) friendships and social network (section 5.3.2), (b) integration in the local culture (section 5.3.4);
2. Outcomes and transformations: (a) language outcomes (section 5.4.2), (b) intercultural outcomes (section 5.3.3).

The most relevant findings are summarized in Table 67.

Table 67 - Evidence of Assumption 2.

No.	Variables	Evidence
1.a	Social networks	Participants with minimally extended social contacts were also those with a higher level of Portuguese mastery - highly skilled immigrants, who considered co-workers the most common (44.4%) social contact (Table 50)
1.a	Integration in the local community	The two cohorts assigned on average a moderate level difficulty to the friendship making process with hosts (Table 52) and had a reduced number of Portuguese friends (Table 51) - between 0 and 4 for case study 1; and 1 and 10 for case study 2
2.a	Language outcomes	Only in case study 2 did the majority (75.0%) of sojourners considered their Portuguese proficiency to be B1 at the end of the academic year. In case study 1, most participants(47.3%) rated their mastery as A2 (Table 56)
2.b	Intercultural outcomes	Only in case study 2 did participants witnessed an increase in all ICC dimensions in the posttest. In case study 2, there was a decrease in the attitudes and skills dimensions (section 5.4.3.1)

As in Table 67 shows, not only are language and (inter)culture learning closely related, but this nexus cannot be disassociated from the social scenarios where the sojourn takes place. This statement is confirmed by research participants, especially by case study 1 sojourners whose shortage of language gains is on par with the decrease in the attitudinal and performative dimensions of ICC attainment. Interestingly, these two dimensions are inextricably linked to interaction with hosts and appropriate behavior, as discussed earlier in Chapter 4 (section 4.4.3.1). This outcome undergirds the first part of our assumption which asserts that ICC is a cultural-linguistic construct - the *linguaculture* paradigm in Fantini (1995, 2012a) and the language-and-culture fusion in Byram, Morgan et al. (1994). The intertwinement between language-and-culture can convey both unification and separation, i.e., they can be dealt separately or together. The nature of this relationship can, in turn, be culture-specific or general, as alluded to in the second part of our assumption.

The dearth of interaction with hosts and the tight social networks sojourners tend to form with their peers may reproduce the type of intercultural development at hand - *specific* or *general*. Exchange students' intercultural development is insightful in this regard, since it is in closed communities of practice where they seem to reap the greatest intercultural gains (at least regarding intercultural-general development). This is applicable to CE and *Erasmus* students, even if the latter reaped more intercultural-specific gains than the former. It is in this sense that a *compound development* can occur, as discussed in the literature review (section 2.4.3.1, Figure 7), and exemplified in the cross-case analysis (section 5.4.3).

The culture-specific and general directions of ICC development cast doubts on the unidirectional intercultural development purported by Bennett's (1986, 1993b) model. Exchange students can easily hold two contradictory worldviews, simply because ICC development can unfold differently when diverse "Others" are one's peers or hosts. It thus seems that worldviews cannot always be reduced to fixed cognitive structures indicative of certain attitudes and behaviors. The evolving cognitive complexity intrinsic to this development would instead be better represented by a multidimensional development in cognitive, intrapersonal and interpersonal domains, as suggested by King and Baxter Magolda (2005) and discussed next.

7.2.3.3 Assumption 3

The third assumption derives from the multidimensional growth of evolving cognitive complexity which ICC development entails. This postulation is built upon research findings and intercultural developmental models, particularly King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) model which espouses that intercultural development encompasses a growth in three developmental domains and levels. Facilitating and assessing ICC requires, therefore, a good understanding of high-order developmental processes and its fundamental precepts. Acknowledging so is crucial as to not simply treat ICC as socially desirable product.

The growth (with its periods of progression and stagnation) which ICC purports can be essentially inferred in qualitative research results, manifesting itself at latent levels. Two strands of results illustrate well this statement:

1. Case study 1 participants' perceptions about their self-assessment of ICC attainment in the posttest (Chapter 4, section 4.4.3.1);
2. Case study 1 and 2 participants' justifications for the impact of the intervention upon their intercultural gains (Chapter 5, section 5.4.3.1).

In the former case, data were generated by an open-ended question in the posttest and, in the latter, by the posttest follow-up focus group. In both circumstances, open-ended questions were a trigger for accessing participant *meaning making* abilities. That is, their abilities to "reflect upon one's beliefs, organize one's thoughts and feelings in the context of, but separate from, the thoughts and feelings of others and literally make up one's mind" (Baxter Magolda, 1999, p. 6).

In the first instance, the eight CE students who were interviewed in the posttest focus-group revealed their *meaning making* abilities when queried about their own assessment of ICC attainment (section 4.4.3.1, pp. 215-216). Students' realization of the association between the paucity of interaction with hosts and the decrease in attitudinal and performative dimensions of ICC, showed their capacity to interpret their own behaviors in interculturally mature ways. Specifically, how complex knowledge construction may be also related to the interpersonal developmental domain. It was, nonetheless, ambiguous whether students recognized the external influence of their own group life on how they internally made meaning of the exchange experience (intrapersonal domain).

The second instance is very elucidative as those participants who considered the intervention contributed to their *cultural awareness* abilities seemed to be the ones who *made meaning* of the intervention in more complex and mature ways. Interestingly, the majority of these participants were case 2 participants (see Appendix U, Table U.4). In any case, only in this ICC dimension was it possible to ascertain a multidimensional growth in one or all three developmental domains. In other words, participant increased cultural awareness came through a new understanding of the world and intercultural situations (cognitive domain), of themselves (intrapersonal domain) and relationships with diverse "Others" (interpersonal domain). It is the activation of all three developmental domains which leads to high stages of psychosocial development (such as self-authorship) and to a threshold level of competence which implies mobilization of all ICC dimensions. It is precisely here where the leverage for qualitative growth resides. This is discussed next.

7.2.3.4 Assumption 4

The fourth and last assumption is bound to the preceding postulation in that qualitative growth in performance may be associated with meaning-making structures which are mostly visible in one's abilities to decenter from oneself and reflect critically.

Critical appropriation and reflection is the crux of increased cultural awareness. On that account, a line needs to be drawn between *cultural awareness* and *critical cultural awareness*, as demonstrated by qualitative results (particularly section 5.4.3.3). It is only in the latter where the trigger for a leap in insight resides. It is worth noting that this distinction only became evident in data analysis stages. For this reason, critical cultural awareness is encompassed in "increased cultural awareness" (see Figure 53 and underlying qualitative themes).

Critical cultural awareness is a chief dimension in Byram's (1997) ICC model. This component variable (the fifth *savoir* in Byram's model) entails a reflective and analytical stance from which one is able to decenter from oneself and value diverse others' meanings and belief systems (ibid.). It may function both as a pre-condition for successful intercultural learning and as a result of this process (Byram & Zarate, 1996). From a developmental perspective, a multidimensional growth of integrated development in cognitive, intra and interpersonal domains is mostly perceivable in this ICC dimension. Thus, it may be via the evolutionary motion of critical cultural awareness abilities that one can witness the move toward *intercultural maturity*. The same *intercultural maturity* King and Baxter Magolda (2005) employ to designate high-order stages of psychosocial development.

Qualitative evolution of ICC is not easily measured on a competence-rating ladder. Stated differently, quantitative results shed light on the evolutionary motion of ICC development but it remains unclear where participants' stages of ICC development exactly stand on a continuum. In this sense, findings corroborate Byram's (1997) contention that it is difficult to go beyond a notional threshold. It is, nonetheless, possible to situate learners in *initial*, *intermediate* and *mature* levels of ICC performance which may mirror individual learner developmental journeys, as suggested by King and Baxter Magolda (2005). For instance, findings point to sojourner progress toward mature levels of ICC performance but do not lead to defining participants' individual stages (which was also beyond the scope of the intervention). The results were, nevertheless, clear about the intervention's role in enhancing the ICC development of research participants. In both case studies, ICC abilities were enriched but there were differences in the gains attained which may reflect the differing performances of learners:

- In case study 1, the impact of the intervention was moderate (M=2.16) and gains were mostly (42.3%) attributed to increased cultural knowledge;
- In case study 2, not only was the impact of the intervention greater (M=2.83; "To a large extent"), but most participants (50.0%) related their gains to an increased cultural awareness (see Appendix U, Table U.4).

The fact that participants who considered the intervention effectiveness greater were also those who more frequently experienced increased cultural awareness may be symptomatic of the more mature intercultural levels of case study 2. By contrast, case study 1

seemed to be generally situated at more initial stages of ICC development, a finding which is consistent with the types of gains these participants demonstrated (i.e., knowledge).

In the end, intercultural competence is never complete or perfect, as suggested by Byram et al. (2002), possibly because it is part of a developmental journey that needs to be recognized and understood against the macro scenarios of which it is part. And yet, this contention does not invalidate a holistic assessment of qualitative growth. This sort of assessment requires integrated conceptions of developmental and communicative models of ICC. It is at this interface where the holistic view of ICC ultimately resides. Figure 57 illustrates this interface, while summarizing all four assumptions for a holistic view of ICC.

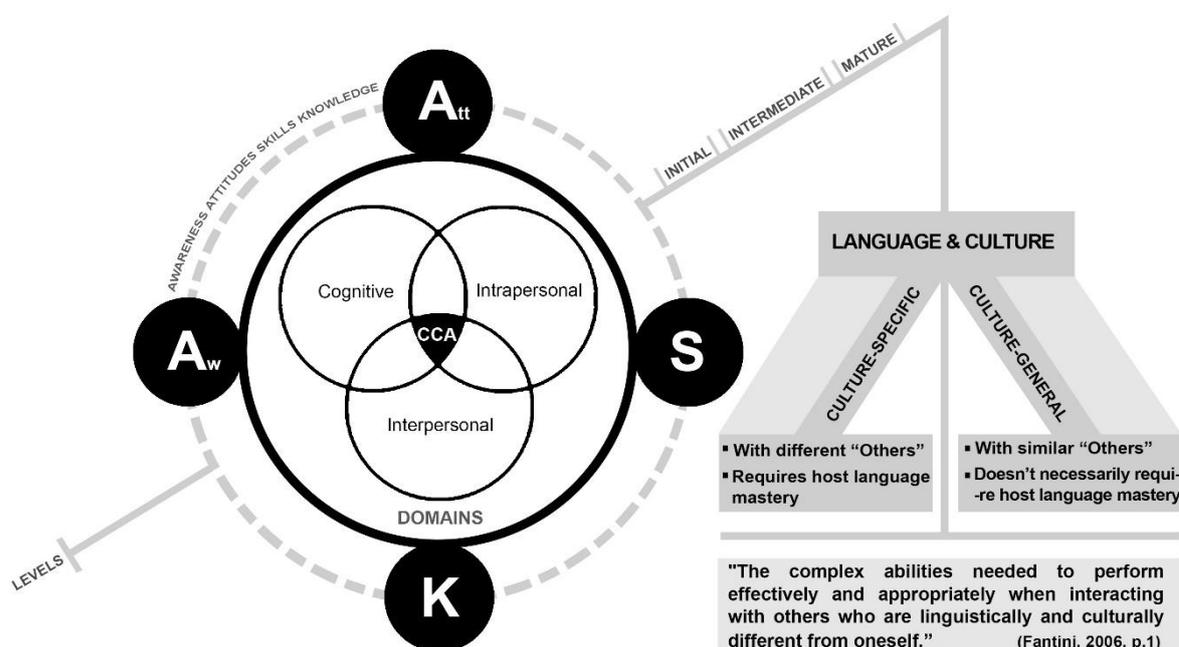


Figure 57 - Integrated model of ICC.

The next lesson concerns one important aspect of student mobility and ICC development - language learning.

7.2.4 Lesson 4: Language Learning in Student Mobility and Other Sojourners

From the perspective of language learning in student mobility, another major lesson was learned - that a clear understanding of how the language learning process functions inside and outside the language classroom is crucial for developing reasoned pedagogies and approaches to exchange program design. This is all the more important because

(a) programmatic language features of CE, (b) individual language teaching methodologies, (c) institutional language teaching methodologies, and (d) learner-related variables seem to have hampered the language development of case 1 participants. Learner-related variables can encompass a bewildering array of factors before and during the sojourn, as examined in Chapters 4 (sections 4.2-4.3) and 5 (sections 5.2-5.3). These variables comprise: background sociocultural characteristics, individual motivations (which may differ before and during the sojourn), learner anxiety, individual language learning difficulties and learning styles, but also the communities of practice of which exchange students form part. Not all explanatory variables behaved in the same way. Some of them negatively influenced language attainment; others influenced positively or had, at the very least, the potential to do so.

Among variables with a positive bearing are background sociocultural characteristics like previous language learning and personal motivations. Results produced by case study 1 show that these variables, while having the potential to positively influence language learning, can be easily offset. For instance, although this cohort had a richer language learning biography than case study 2 (sections 4.2.1 and 5.2.1), it attained lower levels of language development. Pre-departure motivations of CE students also contrast strikingly with the resulting motivation from learning Portuguese, to wit: while “learning another language” and “language preparation” ranked as the top pre-departure motivations⁷³ to participate in an exchange program and CE in particular, the resulting motivations regarding the learning of Portuguese were quite low ($M=2.63$). Case study 2, contrariwise, had a higher resulting motivation ($M=4.18$), as section 5.4.2 made evident.

Those explanatory variables which had a negative impact on language acquisition were essentially fourfold: (a) programmatic language features of CE, (b) individual language teaching methodologies, (c) institutional language teaching methodologies, and (d) learner-related variables. Among learner-related variables are language motivation and associated learner anxiety, just discussed. The role that closed communities of practice play in exchange students’ lives is also an influencing factor. Despite providing supportive learning environments, as advocated by Montgomery (2010), these tight communities can also preclude students from actively engaging with hosts and communicating in the host language. This may have had a cumulative effect on the Portuguese language learning

⁷³ See section 4.2.2 wherein the “possibility of learning a new language” represented 76.5% of student choices, and the linguistic preparation” 94.1%.

process. This was mostly the case of CE and *Erasmus* students. The subgroup of highly skilled immigrants had minimally extended social networks, not least because of their socioprofessional roles.

In summary, language learning in student mobility (and other sojourner populations) needs to be envisioned not just as a practical skill or tool but as social practice as well. And yet, this implies examining the practices of all those involved in the process, from the students themselves, to language teachers and stakeholders. Only in this manner can dispassionate evaluations of language learning in study abroad contexts become an effective and sustained practice. Until then, the question of whether exchange students and other sojourners make remarkable gains in second language (L2) proficiency through sojourning remains an open question.

7.2.5 Lesson 5: Purposeful Intercultural Pedagogy in Student Mobility and Other Sojourners

The fifth lesson relates to the development, delivery and assessment of purposeful intercultural pedagogy in student mobility and other sojourner contexts. This learning is the thread that runs through the dissertation and can be regarded as its main outcome.

Given that the impact of the intercultural intervention which embodies the intentional intercultural pedagogies advocated by this research has been thoroughly discussed, this lesson will focus on the processes undergirding these pedagogies. These processes encompass the design, implementation and assessment of learning outcomes of this sort of educational support.

To build purposeful intercultural support, careful attention needs to be paid to procedural phases. These phases are illustrated by Figure 58 as the necessary steps to elaborate deliberate and effective intercultural pedagogies which support and enhance intercultural competencies of credit student mobility and other sojourner populations. In this sense, Figure 58 offers a guide to stakeholders, higher education administrators, researchers, international educators, language and intercultural instructors or trainers to develop this sort of pedagogies for all types of sojourner experiences.

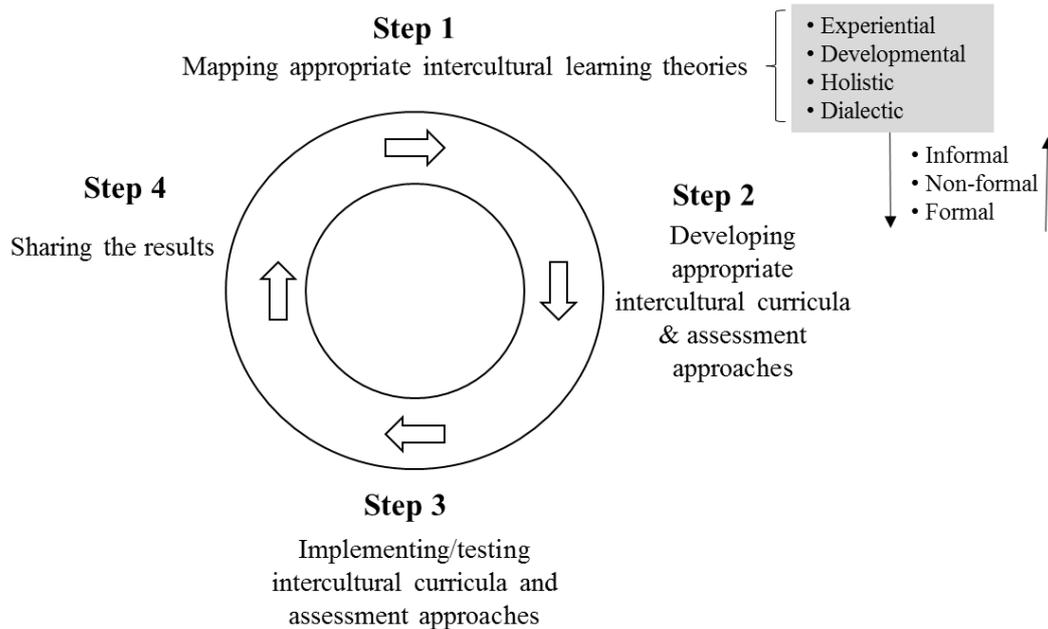


Figure 58 - Curricular development of purposeful intercultural pedagogy.

As Figure 58 illustrates, the elaboration of purposeful intercultural pedagogy is an ongoing process of continuous refinement. Not only does each step build upon the previous one, but the sharing of results (Step 4) should trigger new refinements. That is, new attempts should have the potential to advance future efforts. While bearing in mind prior efforts, an important lesson cannot be forgotten - that every time a new cycle begins, learner needs, the type of sojourn and the cultural context where it takes place need to be taken into account. Stated differently, these pedagogies should be appropriate to learners and context. In the fourth step, the sharing of results (stemming from assessment efforts) can add to or revise the stock of knowledge available; or simply, to internally revise the approaches inherent in the first three steps. In the end, the four steps in Figure 58 do not represent a one-time process that is over and done, but a continuous cycle.

Another crucial aspect of this cycle are the conceptions of teaching and learning abroad which will ultimately affect how intercultural curricula are developed (Step 2) and implemented (Step 3). The teaching-learning approaches in this research are experientially-based on the assumption that: (1) sojourners learn best when educational approaches are purposefully designed and students are not simply left to their own devices; (2) deep learning abroad needs to be experiential, developmental, holistic and dialectic (Passareli & Kolb, 2012). The experiential, developmental and holistic base should be woven into the intercultural construct under scrutiny; in the case of this dissertation - ICC. The

dialectic nature of learning theories derive from the dyadic synergies between informal, non-formal and formal aspects of the sojourn experience. It is the informal and non-formal facets of the sojourn that provide the basis for the formal instruction in the language classroom, as explained in Chapter 3 (section 3.6) and reinforced in data analysis chapters.

Finally, it is worth noting that while Figure 58 stems from research findings, it is also inspired by previous research efforts. Specifically, those interventionist approaches in Chapter 2 (section 2.4.1) which represent a counter-narrative to the view that exchange students (as well as other sojourners) learn by simply being exposed to cultural difference.

In the US, this counter-narrative has grown to a point wherein Vande Berg, Paige, et al. (2012) espouse a paradigm shift in study abroad facing the evolving accounts on the nature of knowing and learning abroad. This progression unfolded into three paradigms - from positivism to relativism, to the current experiential/constructivist narrative. In the positivist paradigm, learning abroad occurs by exposure to difference, while in the relativist narrative cultural immersion strategies (e.g., extend stays, homestays) are employed to maximize contact with the host environment (ibid.). The experiential/constructivist paradigm assumes that learning abroad should ensure immersion and cultural mentoring, i.e., the kind of educational support that is also advocated by this research.

In Europe, the headway purported by Paige and Vande Berg (2012) seems to be only taking its first steps (at least, in terms of a paradigm shift). During the five-year period of this research effort, this researcher witnessed increased calls to rethink policies and practices in student mobility and view intercultural learning as foundational. In fact, in recent months, Beaven and Borgetti (2015) edited a themed issue, *Intercultural Education for Student Mobility*, with papers devoted to intercultural learning in study abroad, mostly from an European perspective. As this dissertation is being prepared for submission, another special issue, *Perspectives and Discourses on Student Mobility and Interculturality*, is being readied for a European-based journal. Also noteworthy is a recently-published book by Carroll (2015) which examines the classroom experience of educationally mobile students and appropriate pedagogical approaches. Despite these important efforts, such initiatives are still relatively rare and under-researched in terms of their practical applications and implications.

Whether in Europe or in the US, only when the search for answers is more empirical can intercultural pedagogies become an appropriate practice. For that to happen, exchange programs need to be programmatically discussed. This is examined next.

7.2.6 Lesson 6: ICC as Part of Exchange Program Design and Delivery

This last lesson builds upon the previous one in that the transformative power of intercultural pedagogies can be maximized when they are an integral part of exchange program design and delivery.

As the literature review demonstrated, scant scholarly attention has been devoted to curriculum design as a central piece of study abroad and the field of international education. European literature in particular revealed clear gaps in knowledge on education abroad programmatic standards of good practice and assessment. This is paramount if sound approaches to program design are to be developed by trained international education professionals and to go beyond stakeholder decision-making. Only a proper understanding of design concepts and evaluation permits an appropriate curricular design process and the shaping of realistic approaches to student exchange. Fundamental precepts of evaluation like *needs assessment* and *program evaluation* need to be effectively applied to study abroad. Chapter 2 (section 2.4.4.2) described how these precepts can be employed in mixed methods evaluations which framed the design of purposeful intercultural pedagogy employed in this research. This evaluation framework is replicated in Figure 59 as a guide to incorporating purposeful intercultural learning in credit-bearing exchange programs like CE and *Erasmus*.

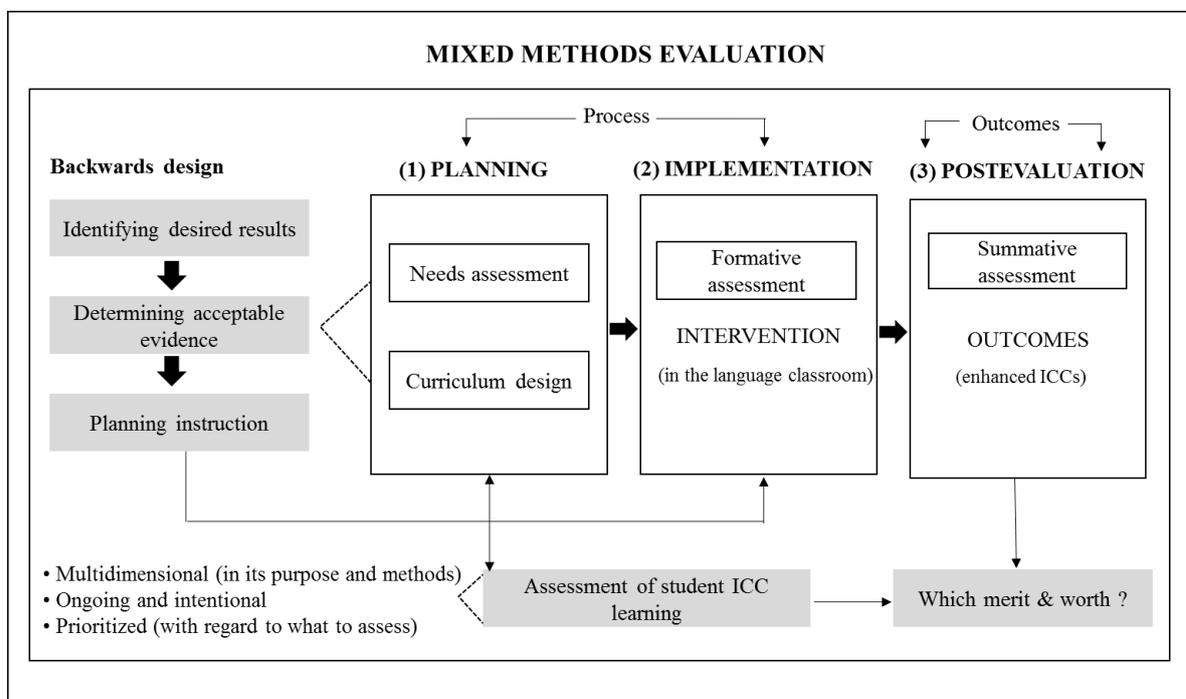


Figure 59 - Curricular design of purposeful intercultural pedagogy.

As Figure 59 illustrates, three basic stages or phases exist in the curricular design process: *planning*, *implementing* and *evaluating*. These phases are in tune with the general steps required to elaborate purposeful intercultural pedagogy defined in the preceding lesson (Figure 58). Thus, the planning phase in Figure 59 corresponds to Steps 1 and 2 in Figure 58; i.e., the development of intercultural curriculum in its pedagogical and assessment structures. The second phase corresponds to Step 3, the actual implementation of the curriculum. The last phase represents the curriculum evaluation (Step 4) so that its *merit* and *worth* can be determined and a cycle (hopefully more refined) starts anew.

Considered together, the phases in Figure 59 demonstrate how the curricular design process can be enacted in all three phases of study abroad. Naturally, pre-departure and reentry phases represent aspects that go beyond this doctoral research, but curricula procedures will be essentially the same as those used for the in-country intervention. In any case, attention should be paid to the *planning*, *implementation* and final *evaluation* stages. Additionally, the development of new curricula should be adapted to sojourner needs, the construct under scrutiny and the host culture, as described in Chapter 3 (section 3.6) and shown in Chapters 4 and 5.

Finally, determining the effectiveness of purposeful intercultural pedagogy should attend to its intrinsic and extrinsic value. With this in mind, Chapters 4 and 5 examined the intrinsic value (i.e., merit) of the intervention for its participants, while Chapter 6 shed insight into its extrinsic value (i.e., worth) to those who, while outside the intervention, had legitimate interest in it. In the latter chapter, stakeholders were queried about the integration of these pedagogies in the design and delivery of exchange programs. Some of the perceptions pointed to the alternative of developing an independent, elective course for credit. This is certainly valid but leaves these initiatives as a matter of institutional choice.

If intercultural pedagogies are directly integrated into the program design of CE and *Erasmus*, not only are they made accessible to all their participants, but these exchange programs can actually make them a consistent programmatic feature. After all, if the degree to which exchange program design facilitates interaction with the host culture is what most distinguishes one exchange program from another (Engle & Engle, 2004), this feature should be represented through the type of educational support offered. The language classroom can be one doorway to such implementation by promoting integrated language and culture learning. And yet, until international education professionals (including language

instructors) are equipped with the necessary skills to foster intercultural competencies among exchange students, one cannot expect to see significant change.

7.3 Limitations to the Research Inquiry

Although this research represents a snapshot of two groups of sojourners at a particular time and place, the intercultural development of these 31 students may resonate with intercultural experiences of other sojourners engaged in the same type of sojourn in other European higher education contexts. There is no claim that these 31 students are numerically representative of the international student community in Europe nor of the new type of migrant that the subgroup of highly skilled immigrants may reflect. Nevertheless, in similar sojourns (credit student exchange or migration of skilled workers), issues and aspects of the ICC development of these participants may have implications for other sojourners. Naturally, many variables are situational. While some of these variables have been identified throughout this study, researchers dealing with similar sojourner groups will be able to identify still others.

The eight intervention modules of this research were envisaged as a brief opportunity to positively impact students' intercultural gains. Research findings demonstrated that this impact was positive indeed, even if developmental changes remained somewhat nuanced as might be expected in a 20-hour intervention. Despite these time constraints (with regard to duration and calendar) and the small sample size of the two case studies, it is hoped that this intervention will serve as a springboard for the demand of intercultural pedagogies in European credit-bearing exchange programs and among highly skilled immigrants. More research which is theoretically and empirically sustained is therefore needed. Specifically, more scholarly analysis replicating similar research efforts in larger and more varied sojourner populations can reinforce the role of intentional intercultural pedagogies in enhancing the intercultural development of credit-seeking exchange students and highly skilled immigrants beyond the ones within the scope of this research.

7.4 Recommendations of the Research Inquiry

This section offers two types of recommendations - for practice (section 7.4.1) and for further research (section 7.4.2). Recommendations for practice are offered first and encompass hands-on suggestions applicable to the macro, mezzo and micro scenarios which

framed the sojourn experience of participants in this research. Endorsements for research represent areas suggested for further study.

7.4.1 For Practice

The practical suggestions derived from conclusions previously drawn aim to stimulate positive actions at three different contextual levels examined in this research: (1) institutional (macro), (2) programmatic (mezzo), and (3) classroom (micro) levels. Although each level represents a layer of a particular real-life context, these contexts may provide insights into the wider corresponding scenarios:

1. *Macro*: European higher education institutions;
2. *Mezzo*: European credit-bearing exchange programs;
3. *Micro*: Language teaching in study abroad or other sojourning contexts.

7.4.1.1 Macro level

At the institutional level, findings point to the need for the University of Aveiro (UA) to enact sustainable language and intercultural policies which support the linguistic and intercultural learning of exchange students and other sojourners. This entails:

1. Enacting intercultural policies that address formal and non-formal aspects of study abroad as part of an internationalized institutional curriculum. In other words, intercultural policies at the UA should be a vehicle for a strategic internationalization at home that addresses the institutional curricula, as voiced by many scholars (e.g., Beelen, 2007; Brewer & Leask, 2012; Knight, 2012; Leask, 2009; Leask & Bridge, 2013; Ryan, 2013);

This dissertation offered a way to incorporate intercultural learning in the formal (Portuguese) language curriculum delivered to exchange students and other sojourners at the UA. The non-formal intercultural curriculum was enacted through the development of extracurricular activities on and off the academic campus. This was possible because the UA, like many other European tertiary institutions, has a valuable resource to rely on - international student associations like the *Erasmus Student Network* (ESN). These associations can enrich the intercultural experience of exchange students as shown by the participants' appreciation of the non-formal activities (see section 4.3.3) and corroborated by research literature (e.g., Kelo, 2006; Kelo, Rogers, & Rumbley, 2010). To maximize the

potential of these associations, it is important to embed their sociocultural activities into institutional non-formal curricula and not simply treat them as individual initiatives. An immediate consequence is the discontinuation of activities, depending on the personal interests of these associations' team members. The *Tandem project*, which this researcher put forward in 2011-12 and 2012-13, was one such activity. Fortunately, other initiatives like *Christmas and Easter with Portuguese families* were not only continued but strengthened and even publicized in the Portuguese press.

In the area of language policy, a sustained policy should be incorporated into UA's mission as highlighted by Pinto (2012) and, in addition, Portuguese language teaching practices for speakers of other languages must be reconfigured. This entails:

1. Enacting a specific language policy with explicit reference to the role of the Portuguese language for incoming students at the UA;
2. Embedding this language policy in an internationalized curriculum (as mentioned earlier to intercultural policies);
3. Changing the institution's understanding of how Portuguese should be taught to exchange students and other sojourners;
4. Developing teacher training appropriate to learner needs and their contexts.

Research findings underscored the institutionalization of teaching Portuguese as a Foreign Language (PFL) when students are speakers of other languages with immediate immersion needs. This is of special relevance given the underachievement of B1 level of Portuguese by case 1 participants which may be related to individual (Chapter 4) and institutional (Chapter 6) teaching methodologies. This shortcoming may reflect the broader Portuguese reality where teaching Portuguese as a L2 is not part of standard training for language teachers and is usually offered at postgraduate levels. This particular issue is of paramount importance if purposeful intercultural pedagogy is to become institutionally sustained, as will be discussed in more detail at the micro level.

In summary, a commitment to international and intercultural dimensions of internationalization efforts must encompass quality language and intercultural educational experiences of sojourners the UA hosts. Both formal and non-formal language and intercultural learning areas must be embedded into institutionally-internationalized curricula, as illustrated by Figure 60.

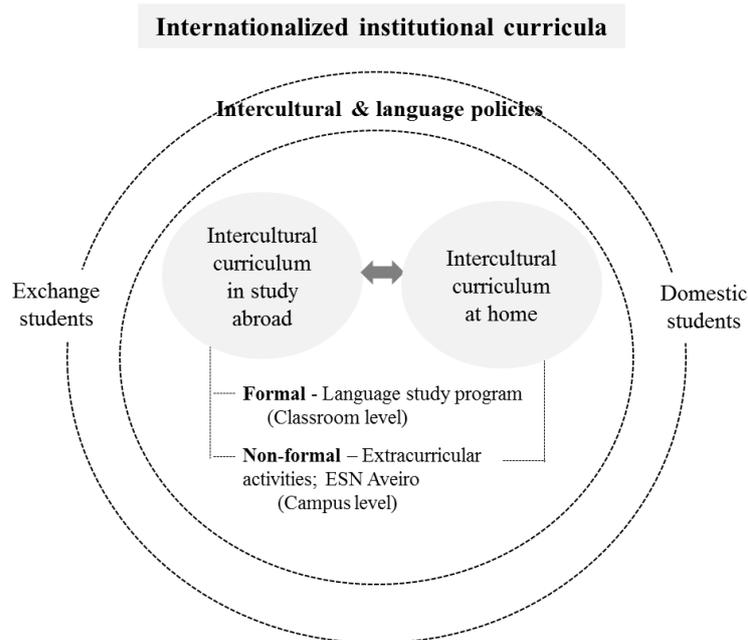


Figure 60 - Internationalized institutional curricula.

For intentional intercultural pedagogy to be infused into an internationalized curriculum, attention should be paid to its formal and non-formal dimensions. That is, the formal instruction should be complemented and expanded by non-formal extracurricular activities that manage and stimulate diversity on higher education institutions' campuses. And yet, until formal and non-formal intercultural provision is institutionalized, it will be mostly ad-hoc based instead of an integral part of a transversal internationalization strategy.

Time is ripe for a change, especially given UA's participation in the e-workshop "Implementing internationalization at home" promoted by the Columbus network.⁷⁴ This involvement may be a great opportunity to develop international and intercultural learning outcomes at institutional level (particularly in the Education pillar). Hopefully, some of the guidelines offered in this dissertation can also contribute to reach such a goal.

7.4.1.2 Mezzo level

Recommendations offered at the programmatic level concern the CE program which is represented by the primary case study. Five suggestions are made within the constraints identified in data analysis chapters, to wit: (1) marketing and student recruitment policies,

⁷⁴ Columbus is an association of European and Latin American universities which aims to foster international cooperation and institutional development across its member universities (COLUMBUS, www.columbus-web.org). The e-workshop "Implementing internationalization at home" occurred between April 15 and August 12 2015. The UA participated in this workshop, joining 71 institutions of higher education.

(2) language and intercultural policies, (3) monitoring and evaluation systems, (4) project's identity and, finally, (5) teacher education. These suggestions include the following:

1. *Marketing and student recruitment*: Transversal student recruitment and marketing strategies should be enacted to boost and balance student flows across partner institutions. To maximize recruitment potential, contextualized marketing strategies, which fit the economic and sociocultural realities of individual institutions, need to be implemented along with specific recruitment targets. This is of special importance for institutions in countries with less widely used and taught languages which will likely function as a push factor;
2. *Language and intercultural policies*: Language and intercultural policies should be driven by realistic goals and learning objectives which must be clearly stated and acted upon. This includes defining desired levels of linguistic and intercultural competencies and to determine these levels according to prior empirical assessment of student attainment. Otherwise, language policies may be counterproductive and contribute to the underachievement of a proficiency level which is both unrealistic and imposed upon participants, as Chapters 4 and 6 demonstrated. Furthermore, these policies should be supported by deliberate and intentional pedagogies which are built into the program's design;
3. *Monitoring and evaluation systems*: Implementation of educational policies and underlying pedagogies should be accompanied by monitoring and evaluation systems which monitor and assess the ongoing development of targeted competencies. Only in this way can the potential added-value of CE exchanges be attested and certified with concrete empirical results;
4. *Project's identity*: CE needs to distinguish itself from *Erasmus* as an alternative program, as explicitly or implicitly revealed in the discourses of students and stakeholders. The ideals and concept behind the CE program remain valid but they need to be readjusted and implemented properly. These ideals should be properly marketed to students so that CE emerges as a category of self-identification among its students who often identify themselves as *Erasmus* students;

5. *Teacher education:* To enact the overarching goals of CE, it is imperative to provide educators with proper education and training in the field of international and intercultural education. This becomes all the more important given that the lack of proper training and/or language instructors' readiness were considered obstacles to the implementation of purposeful intercultural pedagogy, as Chapter 6 made clear.

In summary, the constraints of CE identified in data analysis chapters originated the grouping of five key areas for further improvement suggested in this section. Work in all five areas needs to be undertaken to ensure successful incorporation of purposeful intercultural pedagogy as part of the design and delivery of CE.

7.4.1.3 Micro level

As mentioned in previous sections, the appropriateness of language teaching methodology is a *sine qua non* for addressing student needs. As such, a clear theorization and implementation of appropriate language pedagogy for sojourners must be enacted in Portuguese language classrooms in tertiary education. Findings in Chapter 4 revealed that the instrumental purposes of PFL were unsuitable for the sociocultural needs of those who were immersed. The underlying reason is straightforward - students' language learning needs do not pertain to learning Portuguese as foreign language, but as a L2. This claim will perhaps sound as a truism to the reader due to the plethora of SLA studies in study abroad contexts (e.g., Dufon & Churchill, 2006; Freed, 1995; Kinginger, 2009 just to mention a few foundational works). Not that SLA is not an area of academic inquiry in Portugal; it is indeed. Vieira, Moreira, and Peralta (2014), for instance, listed Portuguese as a non-native language (PNNL)⁷⁵ as one of four major themes in a 6-years textual corpus in foreign language pedagogy and teacher education research. Nonetheless, this theme is deemed emergent given the increase of immigrant children in the national school system. Another reason may be related to the development of language education in the 1980s as a teaching methodology (*language didactics*) closely associated to pre-service teacher training rather than applied linguistics (ibid.). This is especially true for the university where this research took place. Yet, theory does not always equal practice, not least of all because education and training

⁷⁵As the authors explain, PLNL is an all-encompassing term used to designate learning Portuguese as a foreign (FL), second (L2), and heritage language.

levels have not been addressed. The recommendations offered in this section are therefore twofold and concern both teacher education and teaching methodology arenas, to wit:

1. *Teacher education*: Need to offer SLA teacher training for both pre-service and in-service teachers:
 - 1.1. Pre-service teachers: Need for appropriate training at undergraduate level in language education courses;
 - 1.2. In-service teachers: Appropriate training should be accompanied by formative and summative evaluation of teaching practices. Formative evaluation is crucial as it holds the potential to improve teaching practices in situ. In this matter, action research studies would be of special interest;
2. *Teaching methodology*: Development of a language teaching methodology which is appropriate for sojourners and their immersion needs. This entails curriculum development and appropriate textbooks, as well as the adoption of teaching methods suitable to an immersion context.

In summary, a curriculum for L2 learning must be put into place if sojourner needs are to be a priority. Whether the inadequacy of language teaching methodologies mirrors national, institutional or individual language teaching constraints (or all three), sojourner needs must always be at the top of the agenda of those who make and implement language policies. Only in this manner, can one hope to deliver a language curriculum which takes into account the cultural dimension of language; or, to put it another way, a curriculum where language and culture are two equally weighted strands.

Finally, it is hoped that the recommendations for practice across the three layers of context can stimulate positive actions in the immediate settings where this research took place, as well as in the wider social scenarios they represent. For this notion to be put into practice, it will require institutional, national and supranational identities of macro, mezzo and micro scenarios to reconceptualize exchange programs and sojourner teaching language and intercultural practices.

7.4.2 For Future Research

New questions and research areas have been raised by this study. Those which are recommended for further study include the following:

1. *What are meaningful educational experiences in student exchange?* Scholarly analysis, specifically examining the educational value of student mobility from an evaluation perspective, needs to be conducted;
2. *What are exchange students actually learning abroad at intercultural levels?* More empirical studies are needed to determine what exchange students are learning interculturally and the impact of purposeful intercultural pedagogy upon their intercultural development (this extends to other sojourners). These pedagogies need to be tested throughout the entire study abroad cycle;
3. *How closely does classroom practice reflect the curricula and how relevant and effective are current curricula and methods?*⁷⁶ Further work is needed on classroom language teaching practices among sojourner populations, with particular attention to curriculum development and implementation of SLA theories in Portuguese higher education;
4. *What results do communicative and developmental models of intercultural competence produce when they are integrated?* Need for more joint interdisciplinary research conducted by cross-cultural and developmental psychologists, language instructors and international educators on the development of intercultural competencies. The model in Figure 57 was elaborated through the integrated analysis of two communicative and two developmental models; yet, this model needs to be empirically tested;
5. *To what extent are mixed methods and data integration approaches being effectively implemented in the fields of international and intercultural education?* Studies are needed on the type of methodologies and methods which best provide sustained responses to research questions examined in the international and intercultural fields. This is of special interest for the intercultural field where research (e.g., Deardorff, 2004) and assessment methods (e.g., Byram, 2014) are supposed to be mixed;
 - 5.1. And yet, *to what extent are quantitative and qualitative data actually integrated in an upward spiral of data clarification?*

⁷⁶ This question was retrieved from the (2007) final report of the research project Languages and Cultures in Europe (LACE, p. 5 www.lac2007.eu). The goal was to identify and assess the nature, scope and extent to which IC was developed in foreign language education at compulsory education in 12 EU Member States.

6. *To what extent can international education research seek to transform current student exchange practices when the field is not yet established in a given country? And:*

6.1. *What education, training, coursework, and resources are made available to interested researcher(s)?*

6.2. *What sort of training is offered to those who work at universities' international offices? Are they meant to be service providers only?*

Further research needs to be conducted in Portugal to recognize international education as a scientific field of professional practice and research inquiry. It is in this endeavor where rethinking policies and practices in student mobility at a national level ultimately resides.

The current state of the art on European credit student mobility has shown that it is time for change. While acknowledging that change is most difficult to achieve in research and in life, it was the main force behind this dissertation. In the end, this researcher hopes that this 5-year effort will somehow contribute to bring about change in intercultural policies and practices in European credit student mobility. Findings revealed that emphasis continues to be placed on student mobility metrics and that leaving is still more important than arriving. The question arises: *Should not the battered suitcases alluded to by Kerouac ([1955] 1991), in the epigraph, be filled with an experience which is actively reflected upon?*

Much of the personal and academic meaning of the stay abroad will remain with 'student travelers' themselves, but there is also much that can and must be investigated. Only in this way can an increase in numbers stop being an end in itself, and leaving can become as important as arriving. Only in this manner, can study abroad stop being considered as a time-off and its educational value become clear and rewarding.

A final few words are needed to say that it is this researcher's personal hope that this dissertation will draw attention to the urge to advance international education as a scientific field in Portugal. Providing appropriate training for international educators to perform international and intercultural tasks is crucial for Portuguese tertiary institutions to ensure successful study abroad experiences of students they welcome on their campuses. And yet...

Whether these hopes have sufficient merit, it is up to the reader to tell...

Whether these hopes become a reality, only time will tell...

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