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**Euroculture in India:
The Impact of the University of Pune's partnership with
the Erasmus Mundus Euroculture programme on
domestic students at the host department**

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Signature



MA Programme Euroculture Declaration

I, (first name and surname) hereby declare that this thesis, entitled "(title)", submitted as partial requirement for the MA Programme Euroculture, is my own original work and expressed in my own words. Any use made within it of works of other authors in any form (e.g. ideas, figures, texts, tables, etc.) are properly acknowledged in the text as well as in the List of References.

I hereby also acknowledge that I was informed about the regulations pertaining to the assessment of the MA thesis Euroculture and about the general completion rules for the Master of Arts Programme Euroculture.

Signed

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Preface

Studying at the University of Pune through the Euroculture programme was a life changing experience and one that I will never forget. Anyone who has spent time in India will understand. I formed what I hope will be long lasting friendships and connections which I plan to foster by going back there whenever I can. I was fascinated by the constant exchange of cultures, experiences and thoughts with my fellow students in the Department of Sociology, especially as we came from such different backgrounds. Not only did I learn a lot about Indian culture, it also moved me to reflect upon my own way of life. This made me question whether the Indian students in the department also found it interesting to learn about Europe and what they thought of the Euroculture programme – this was the inspiration for my Master's thesis research.

I would like to take this opportunity to express my gratitude to everyone who has supported me in any respect in the undertaking of this project. This research would not have been possible without my participants and friends in the Department of Sociology. In particular, my special thanks go to Satish Bhalerao for transforming my survey from English to Marathi and single-handedly translating the completed versions back again. I am also indebted to Professor Swati Shirwardka and Elizabeth Songate for their time and valuable information. Back in Europe, I am grateful for the advice from my supervisors, Dr. Antonín Kalous and Dr. Szymon Czarnik, and to my Euroculture friends for their solidarity in the process of writing this thesis.

To Jonas, I am happy and thankful that you have been by my side from the day I started this research in India till the end of the journey in Gottingen. For your kindness, thanks to Clea, Suzy, Nicola and in particular my mother, Sarah, also for your constant support.

Chapter One: Introduction

Internationalisation of Higher Education

To a certain degree, there has always been an international dimension to higher education. For a long time this was centred on the exchange of a relatively small number of students and faculty, for academic purposes, and was principally driven by Western universities. However, as Brandenburg and de Wit (2011) note, “up to the mid-1980s, activities that can be described as internationalisation were usually neither named that way nor carried high prestige and were rather isolated” (p, 15). In the late 1980s, significant changes began to occur: internationalisation was born, components were added, it augmented in importance and mass, and its nature transformed (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011; Knight, 2004). These developments are attributed to increasing globalisation and, although this is complex, mounting competition for students and the emerging economies of countries like China and India, are influential in this process (de Wit, 2011). As Knight (2008) has stated; “Internationalisation is changing the world of higher education, and globalization is changing the world of internationalisation” (Knight, 2008, p.1).

The changing dynamics of internationalisation are manifested in different ways and are reflected in the meaning of the concept, the rationales and approaches for its implementation, and the desired outcomes for various stakeholders, which therefore require clarification and constant updating (Knight, 2008). Jane Knight’s (2008) definition of internationalisation is most commonly used in the current literature: “a process of integrating an international, intercultural and/or global dimension into the purpose, functions (teaching, research and services), or delivery of post-secondary education” (p. 21). She also describes that two basic dimensions have evolved within this concept: ‘cross-border mobility’ and ‘internationalisation at home’ (IaH).

Cross-border mobility. In the last ten years, the number of mobile students has soared by almost forty percent (from 2.5 to 3.6 million) and the direction of mobility has shifted as more countries, especially in Asia and the Middle East, are increasing their efforts and enrolment of these students (UIS, 2012). For example, the top two sending countries, China and India, are now also key ‘emerging destination players’ (Choudaha, Chang & Kono, 2013). Furthermore, the mode of mobility itself has progressed from mainly people (students and faculty) to programmes (e.g. joint/double degrees) and providers (e.g. branch/offshore campuses) (Knight, 2012).

These transformations over the past twenty-five years are undoubtedly interconnected with a rise in the dominance of economic rationales and the competitive nature of internationalisation. However, more recently, there has been a call for more attention to be paid to social-cultural rationales, which focus on the role of internationalisation in developing the competences of students and faculty to become more internationally knowledgeable and interculturally skilled (de Wit, 2010). This is perceived as important to balance the force of competition, to prepare graduates for the present-day global demands of life and work environments, and to help combat increasing problems with social cohesion that are linked to culturally based clashes in society (de Wit, 2010). One of the responses to this call was the approach of IaH.

Internationalisation at Home. Alongside the developments in cross-border mobility, there has been a change in nature and practices of how an international education can be gained under the more recent dimension, which has evolved and become known as ‘internationalisation at home’. This movement was first coined by Nilsson (2003) and was born out of the realisation that, despite increasing numbers, only a relatively small proportion of students receive the opportunity to study abroad. The central idea behind IaH is that through internationalisation of the curriculum and other campus based activities, as well as exposure to domestic and international student diversity, all students are able to develop international awareness and intercultural skills (Knight, 2008; Leask, 2009). Thus, as de Wit (2010) explained, “international becomes more interconnected with intercultural where crossing borders is no longer an absolute must, but only a plus, to get an international educational experience and the benefits associated with such” (p. 11). The two dimensions of internationalisation, ‘at home’ and ‘cross-border’, are however not mutually exclusive: they are intertwined and influence each other. This means that the mobility of people and programmes is not only an objective for internationalisation, it also constitutes a means or instrument of such for IaH (de Wit, 2010). The picture of internationalisation emerging is one of complexity, interconnectedness and diversity, as illustrated in Figure 1.

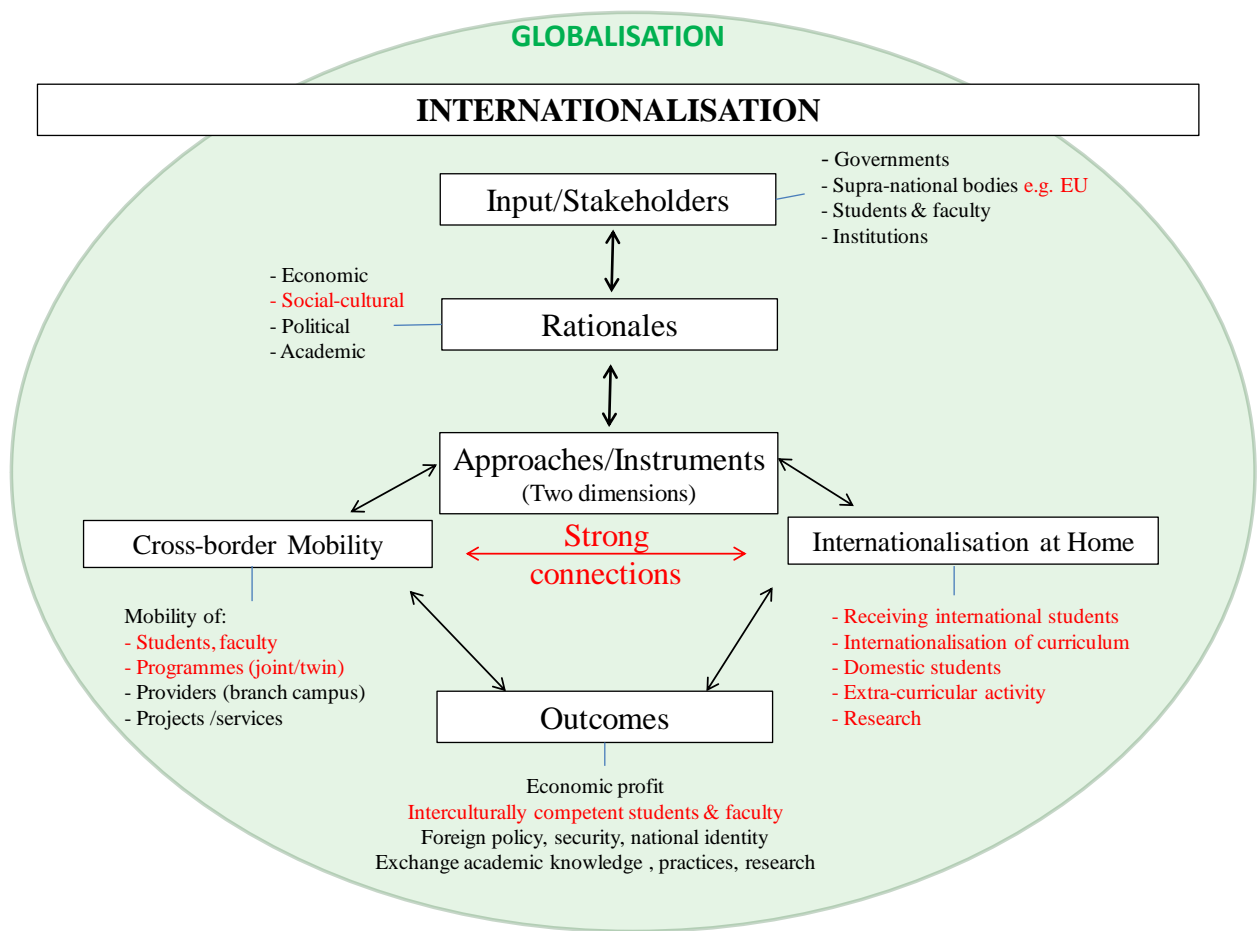


Figure 1: An illustration of the dynamic concept of internationalisation (Author, 2013)

Assessing outcomes. The increase in the importance of internationalisation, and the diversity of rationales and approaches, necessitates more focus on assessing the outcomes (de Wit, 2010). In general, less attention is paid to student outcomes in comparison to economic aspects, and attempts to this effect mostly assume the perspective of the mobile student (Dunne, 2009; Harrison & Peacock 2009; Jon, 2009). Several researchers have expressed concerns that too few studies and universities look at the impact of internationalisation on non-mobile students, although it is counterintuitive to neglect this group as they are greater in number (Bowry, 2002; Dunne, 2009; Hayle, 2008; Jon, 2009, 2013; Parson, 2010). For example, Bowry (2002) claimed that it is often a presumption in the literature that domestic students benefit from the presence of international students on campus and from other elements of IaH. Thus, as outlined and depicted in figure one, assessing the impact of internationalisation depends on the case, the context of the study and the stakeholders involved. The parts of figure 1 highlighted in red represent how the case of the present study fits into this dynamic landscape of internationalisation.

Introduction to Case Study

Stakeholder and Rationale: The European Union. Internationalisation of higher education within Europe's internal borders is already well established, largely due to the success of European Union (EU) programmes such as ERASMUS and the standardisation of European higher education through the Bologna process. However, more recently the EU has recognised the magnified importance of the 'global context' and has taken significant steps in its policies and programmes to promote cooperation and mobility in higher education beyond Europe, with so called 'third-countries' in the wider world (Teichler, 2004). Most notably, in 2004 the European Commission (EC) launched the Erasmus Mundus (EM) programme which specifically aims to:

...enhance the quality of European higher education and to promote dialogue and understanding between people and cultures through cooperation with Third-Countries. In addition, it contributes to the development of human resources and the international cooperation capacity of Higher education institutions in Third Countries by increasing mobility between the European Union and these countries. (European Commission, n.d., About EM).

One of the main areas of action supported by this programmes are Erasmus Mundus Master Courses (EMMC). At present there are 138 such courses, in diverse disciplines, each implemented by a consortium of higher education institutions in Europe and, where possible, also in third-countries. They include mandatory students and scholar mobility and award double or joint degrees (European Commission, n.d., Action 1).

Euroculture at the University of Pune. The EMMC "Euroculture – Europe in the wider world" (Euroculture) aims to develop graduates with competencies, knowledge and understanding of matters relating to European integration; its cultural dynamics and the consequences for its citizens and the wider world (Euroculture Course Outline, n.d.). Thus, even the content of the course itself reflects the broader aims of EM. The consortium consists of eight European universities (University of Groningen, Palacký University of Olomouc, Deusto University Bilbao, Georg-August University of Göttingen, Jagiellonian University Krakow, University of Strasbourg, University of Udine, Uppsala University) and in 2008 the University of Pune in India officially became a third-country partner. (Other non-EU partners are Indiana University Purdue University Indianapolis, Graduate School of Letters Osaka University, National Autonomous University of Mexico). In 2011 a further agreement was signed with the Department of Sociology at the University of Pune, who took over the responsibility and running of a much closer partnership.

As previously detailed and depicted in figure 1, cross-border mobility of people and programmes is intertwined with and influences IaH. In this case the Euroculture programme contributes to the internationalisation of the department in three main ways, by: facilitating intercultural contact through the presence of Euroculture students, providing domestic students with the opportunity to study in one of the European consortium universities, and contributing to the internationalisation of the curriculum.

Impact on domestic students. Erasmus Mundus promotes research and disseminates the programme's results and examples of good practice under EM Action 3 (European Commission, n.d., Action 3). Student evaluations are also conducted by the Erasmus Mundus Association (EMA Graduate Impact Survey, n.d.). However, as with other cases, these tend to focus on mobile student outcomes and at least two Euroculture theses have also taken this perspective (Altamira Vázquez, 2011; Xianlin, 2009). As a student of Euroculture I was fortunate enough to study at the University of Pune for the third semester of my degree. I believe I have benefited a great deal from this international educational experience, especially due to being immersed in such a different culture by going beyond Europe. I gained an understanding of Indian culture, it required me to adapt my behaviour in some ways that were entirely different to the norms across Europe, and I built what I hope will be long lasting connections and friendships. This made me question if there is a reciprocal nature to the benefits I gained? What impact is the partnership having on domestic students in the department? Do they also benefit?

Purpose Statement and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to explore how the University of Pune's partnership with the Euroculture programme impacts domestic students through its contribution to the internationalisation of the host department. The three primary research questions guiding the study were:

1. Is there a beneficial impact of the partnership on domestic students' intercultural competence?
2. What are domestic students' attitudes and experiences with, and what is the impact of, different aspects of the programme?
3. What background variables most influence the impact of the partnership on domestic students and how?

Rationales and Contribution to Research

In recent times, domestic students' experiences have been emerging as a research topic, and several notable studies have evidenced that activities associated with IaH have a positive effect on a wide range of intercultural competence outcomes (Barger, 2004; Hayle, 2008; Jon, 2009, 2013; Parson, 2007, 2010). However, these studies have almost exclusively been conducted in Western countries and to the best of the researchers' knowledge no studies have focused specifically on the impact of internationalisation from the perspective of domestic students in India.¹ By exploring whether there is a beneficial impact of the partnership on domestic students' intercultural competence, this will contribute to the present research by adding a case study in an Indian context and one that focuses specifically on EM and the impact of connections between cross-border mobility and IaH.

Different issues are associated with different elements of internationalisation in general and the Euroculture programme specifically. For example, studies have found that international and domestic students do not integrate well, that teaching staff do not utilise diversity in class, and that they treat the international dimension of the curriculum as an 'add on' (e.g. Bowry, 2002, Harrison & Peacock, 2010; Leask, 2009; Mestenhauser, 1998). Thus, it is important to look at domestic students' experiences with, and the impact of, different aspects of the programme. This may shed light on specific areas for improvement which is timely as the sociology department is working towards a closer partnership.

Previous studies show that student outcomes of internationalisation are influenced by a variety of background variables, in respect to the students themselves (e.g. their previous international exposure, foreign language skills, family background, etc.) and the country/culture (e.g. a nation's history, economic conditions, openness to foreigners, the university environment, etc.) (Parson, 2007; Stephenson, 1998). This study focuses on conditions specific to the Indian context and in particular the language medium used by the students. International programmes usually cooperate with universities in India that are entirely English monolingual (Yeravdekar & Tiwari, 2012). This is not the case in the Department of Sociology at the University of Pune where around half of the students mainly use the regional Marathi language as a medium of study and communication (their levels of English vary but they are not fluent) and half of the students use English. Additionally, although teaching is officially in English, Marathi is also sometimes used. This presents a fundamental variation among the domestic students, and importantly, as English is crucial for

¹ This was verified by two experts in the field of international higher education in India

the Euroculture partnership, it is likely to influence the impact of the partnership. It will be interesting to find out whether this is the case and if so, how.

Overview of Methodology

This study was carried out at the Department of Sociology, University of Pune, using a qualitative case study design. Two instruments were employed to generate the data to answer the research questions. An open-ended survey (see appendix 1) in Marathi and English was administered to 43 students in the department and 29 were returned. In-depth, semi-structured interviews based on survey questions, were conducted with nine of these student participants (all of English medium) to augment the data and address any interesting issues as they arose. Four faculty members in the department were also interviewed to gain information about the development of the partnership, and explore their view of its impact on domestic students, teaching and learning, and the internationalisation of the department in general. The data from both instruments were analysed qualitatively. Survey items were categorised and five themes emerged from the responses to which the interview data was supplementary. The main findings are discussed with respect to each research question.

Organisation of Thesis

This thesis is organised into six chapters. Chapter one has introduced the ideas and arguments that form the basis of this study, starting with the background to internationalisation, how it has changed, what the concept involves and assessing outcomes specifically on domestic students. It has introduced the case, the purpose of the study and the specific research questions. The rationales for the research questions have been explained, followed by an overview of the methodology employed to answer the questions. Chapter two outlines the state of related theoretical and empirical literature concerning the impact of internationalisation on domestic students, to gain an understanding of the topic and to help with the development of data collection instruments and the interpretation of findings. This includes the areas of intercultural competences and its assessment, internationalisation of the curriculum, and international and domestic student interaction. The last part looks at studies that have addressed this issue in a non-Western context and specifically in an Indian one. Chapter three presents the methodology employed. It begins with details of the research site and the Euroculture programme partnership, and goes on to describe the participants and the methods used to collect and analyse the data. The synthesis of this data is presented in chapter four including demographic information about the sample and the findings of the

survey and interviews in the five themes which emerged. Chapter five discusses how the findings answer each of the three research questions and how they relate to the previous empirical and theoretical literature in the field (as discussed in chapter two). Finally, the main conclusions are drawn and recommendations, contributions and implications for further research are presented in chapter six.

Chapter Two: State of Related Research

This chapter provides an overview of the relevant theoretical and empirical research concerning the impact of internationalisation on domestic students. This is important to gain an understanding of the topic and how it relates to the present study, to help with the development of data collection instruments, and for the interpretation and discussion of findings. The first section addresses what intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalisation involves and how it can be assessed. The following two sections outline the literature on the two main aspects of IaH: internationalisation of the curriculum and the presence of international students and their interaction with domestic students. The final section presents studies that have addressed the domestic student impact in a non-Western cultural context and research specifically related to the Indian context.

Intercultural Competence and its Assessment

Developing interculturally competent students is one of the main rationales and desired outcomes of internationalisation. However, less attention is given to this in comparison to the economic or political aspects, and few universities and researchers in the area specifically measure if this is achieved with a focus on domestic students (Deardoff, 2006; Jon, 2009; Schoorman 2000). According to Deardoff (2006), this is because of two main issues: a lack of understanding and specificity as to what the concept involves and with developing an appropriate instrument to measure whether students are achieving these outcomes. With this in mind, Deardoff (2006) interviewed intercultural scholars and higher education administrators and found that the definition rated highest was one from Byram (1997): Knowledge of others; knowledge of self; skills to interpret and relate; skills to discover and/or interact; valuing other's values beliefs and behaviours; relativising one's self; and linguistic competence plays a key role" (Deardoff, 2004, p. 130). The scholars also agreed upon twenty-two components of intercultural competence, which she organised into a pyramid model. The prerequisite attitudes of openness and curiosity form the base of the pyramid. As a person becomes more competent they move to the next level of knowledge and comprehension, which interacts with their developing skills (e.g. to listen, observe, interpret). At the third level internal attitude change is the desired outcome and finally the desired external behavioural change (Deardoff, 2006).

A widely accepted theoretical framework for understanding and measuring intercultural competence is Bennet's (1986) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity

(DMIS). The DMIS conceptualises how people understand and respond to cultural differences. It is organised into six stages: the first three (*denial*, *defence* and *minimisation*) are categorised as ethnocentric and the last three (*acceptance*, *adaption* and *integration*) are ethnorelative. Progression through the stages represents an increasing intercultural sensitivity and effectiveness in intercultural communication. An individual in the first stage, *denial*, experiences their own culture as the only 'real' one and has an undifferentiated attitude towards the 'other', e.g. just seeing them as a 'foreigner'. However, when confronted with a foreigner this can turn to aggression to avoid or eliminate the difference. The second stage is *defence*, characterised by a dualistic 'us/other' worldview, where a person feels threatened by another group and negative stereotyping is applied to all its members, or reversal can occur where one's own culture is devalued and the other romanticised. The last ethnocentric stage is *minimisation*, in which only superficial cultural differences are recognised (e.g. food), and similarities are overestimated, as well as one's tolerance. As an individual intercultural sensitivity increases they move into the first of the ethnorelative stages; *acceptance*. In this fourth stage, it is accepted that one's own culture is just one of many complex world views, although the others are not necessarily liked. People in this stage may be recognised by their eager questioning of others. The fifth stage is *adaption*, characterised by affective manifestation empathy and the ability to behave in a variety of culturally appropriate ways depending on the target group. The sixth and final stage of the DMIS is *integration*, in which an individual can move smoothly in and out of different cultural world views (as their experience of self has expanded and is no longer centred on any particular culture) and can evaluate things in a cultural context.

Based on this theoretical framework, Hammer and Bennett (1998, 2001) constructed the Intercultural Developmental Inventory (IDI), which has become one of the most well know and frequently used instruments for measuring intercultural competence. Although it is meant to be applicable for use in any culture and setting, Greenholtz (2005) for example, tested it on Japanese students and did not find support for this claim, which suggests that it might not be valid for non-Western cultures. Another reasonable interpretation is that this approach to intercultural competence, which focuses on a quantitative measurement of intercultural sensitivity, is too narrow for measuring the student outcomes of internationalisation.

The issue of a narrow understanding of the topic was addressed by Parson (2007, 2010) who conducted the most comprehensive research on the student outcomes of internationalisation and its assessment. She argued that:

...few universities look beyond increasing participation in typical activities of internationalisation (including study, the presence of international students, and internationalisation of the curriculum), to specifying desired outcomes. Furthermore, no complete instrument exists to measuring whether students and achieving these outcomes (2007, p. ii).

Thus, the aim of the study was to do exactly this. To ascertain a comprehensive list of possible student outcomes of internationalisation, Parson (2010) conducted a copious literature review of internationalisation and its measurement; including the areas of study abroad, intergroup contact theory, intercultural communication and sensitivity, 'worldmindedness', and internationalization of the curriculum. In summary, this revealed that students who have participated in international education are open-minded and accepting towards people of different cultures and countries, show curiosity and interest, a desire to learn further, use foreign language, have general international knowledge (history, culture, politics), have a world view, and show behaviour that exhibits these things (e.g. being involved politically, academically, charitably, personally ... with international issues). These outcomes were refined into two broad areas, each consisting of three elements: knowledge areas (foreign language, of a specific region/country and international knowledge) and affective areas (international attitudes and perceptions, cross-cultural skills, and international behaviours). For measurement purposes, previous instruments were adapted and entirely new questions added so that, after pilot testing, the final instrument consisted of six scales (and numerous sub-scales) representing the different areas of desired outcomes. Overall, the elements of internationalisation which were found to be the strongest predictors of internationalised students (significantly correlated with the most outcome scales) were: study abroad, friendship or romantic relationship with people from other countries, international course content, and attendance at international events. These reflect the primary components of internationalisation and suggest that there was a widespread positive benefit of an internationalised education on domestic students.

Particularly enlightening were the detailed findings of how different variables impacted outcomes, as this provides more precise information as to how and why the impact of internationalisation might vary, both between individuals as well as different settings. Exposure to international news, media and political interests, were associated with higher scores across all sub-scales. Foreign birth or ancestry, were primarily operative for the outcome of foreign language and knowledge of other countries, whereas speaking a second language at home had wider effects. Although age had an effect on outcomes, it was less than

that of years at university, suggesting that exposure to internationalisation with time was the significant impacting factor. For the variable ‘major of study’, it seemed to be the amount of exposure to curriculum internationalisation which was the imperative influencing factor. Academic variables (e.g. international course content, international lecturers, group projects with international students) were generally only correlated with higher scores on knowledge scales, not effective or behavioural ones.

Thus, Parson’s (2010) study provides detailed indicators of intercultural competence outcomes and shows how internationalisation variables and student variables can influence outcomes. In general, it highlights the importance of taking background and individual factors into account when conducting research in this area. However, findings need to be taken with precaution when considering their relevance for the present study, as the context and methods utilised are very different. Although the study was conducted in two universities, one in Australia the other in the USA, which would suggest that the instrument and findings are valid in different cultures and settings, both of these are Western nations. Parson (2010) acknowledged that they may not be applicable to non-Western cultures. The use of a quantitative methodology allowed Parson (2010) to look at the effect of numerous variables and to make generalisations, however, not to look specifically at individual experiences.

Internationalisation of the Curriculum

Internationalisation of the curriculum is one of the main components of IaH (especially in the US, it is sometimes used interchangeably to mean IaH). For the purpose of this study, it is distinguished from another important element of IaH; the presence of international students and their interaction with domestic students. Although these are addressed separately they, as all aspects of internationalisation, are interlinked (e.g. contact with students in class may impact learning and teaching dynamics) and the empirical literature therefore usually analyses them both together, as is the case in this study.

It is important to clarify how the concept of internationalisation of curriculum is understood in the literature and for the purpose of this study, and to look at other relevant studies that have explored its impact on domestic students’ intercultural competences. Various definitions have been posed as its implementation and how it is understood differs greatly, depending on the individual (e.g. teacher and administrator), the class, institution, country and discipline (Leask & Bridge, 2013). In many cases, curriculum is perceived and defined merely as the formal content of what is studied; however, broader definitions are

increasingly accepted as more appropriate, both in the literature and in practise. Challenging restricted views, Daniel (2001) proposes that a curriculum encompasses components such as: programme and content, teaching and learning strategies and objectives, organisation and administration, assessment methods, learning materials, learners' prior experience, language(s) and language use, the relationship between teacher and learner and participation of different sectors (e.g. community groups). In terms of internationalisation of curriculum, Leask (2009) defines it as:

...the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning arrangements and support services of a program of study. An internationalised curriculum will engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity. It will purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens (p. 209).

Leask and Bridge (2013) emphasise the importance of including all aspects of the learning and teaching situation and the student experience and grouped these into the following three categories: the formal curriculum (planned programme of teaching and learning), the informal curriculum (extra-curricular activities that take place on campus or in class) and the hidden curriculum (the processes by which academics select and order content, decide on and describe intended learning outcomes, organise learning activities and assess learner achievement, power and authority and whose knowledge is valued or not).

Some studies suggest that internationalisation of the curriculum mainly impacts students' international knowledge, while others suggest that it can have wider beneficial outcomes. In Parson's (2010) study, academic factors (which relate to internationalisation of curriculum) were only correlated with international knowledge, not the affective scales. This is supported by the findings of Hembroff, Knott and Keefe (1990), who conducted a longitudinal analysis of the internationalisation efforts at a Michigan State University in the US. From the years 1984 to 1989 the university enhanced the international emphasis of the curriculum and it was found that students' score on the *knowledge* portion of Barrows (1981) test for 'global understanding' had increased significantly during this time. Furthermore, higher scores were also positively correlated with the number of international courses taken by students. An explanation for why it was only the competence of international knowledge which increased in these studies, could be their relatively narrow understanding of curriculum/academic factors, which were based mainly on curriculum content (e.g. major of study and international courses) and were measured quantitatively. Looking at another aspect of curriculum internationalisation, Drake (1984) analysed the attitudes of students

who participated in classes taught by faculty members involved in a Third World Faculty Development Seminar. In one condition a group of professors were specifically asked to implement material from the seminar into their classes and in the other they were not asked to do so. Results demonstrated a significant increase in students' empathy and in their awareness of conditions in the Third World as a result of course participation, in both conditions. However, those students whose teachers had officially implemented the material had a more specific knowledge about the matter. This finding supports Leask's (2009) notion of the hidden curriculum as teachers also adapted the information they gave to students unconsciously and, as interviews with the teachers revealed, in some cases this was very much unintended. Regarding assessment methods, according to O'Leary (2001), students who had done an assignment on an international topic had significantly higher score on a measure of 'worldmindedness' than those who did not. The cultural and racial background of the teaching staff themselves was reported as influential in a qualitative study undertaken by Chen (2006) in a Canadian university. Students stated that having international faculty members added diversity and a broad spectrum of ideas and perspectives to their teaching. However, diversity was limited as the majority of students did not have any lecturers from non-Western educated backgrounds (Chen, 2006). In academic advising, another aspect of the curriculum, professors were found to have a strong influence on whether the student incorporates an international dimension into their studies, and also when it comes to choices about studying abroad (Carter, 1992).

Despite these positive findings, in general, arguments put forward regarding the beneficial impact and use of curriculum internationalisation as an instrument for internationalisation, are mixed. Mestenhauser (1998) noted that teaching staff tended to treat the international dimension as an 'add-on', which is subject to time constraints, discipline compatibility and the individuals' capabilities. Hayle's (2008) study at Queens University in Canada aimed to understand the ways in which students reported benefiting from a range of programmes and activities associated with IaH initiatives. The findings, from a survey (of 238 participants) and a group interview, regarding internationalisation of the curriculum, revealed that seventy-three percent of respondents had taken international courses. However, less than half noted that faculty members contributed to their international learning and a significant number claimed they did not utilise the mix of students in the classroom in the learning process. Other issues relating to faculty members' role in curriculum internationalisation that are commonly cited in the literature include a lack of international knowledge, experience and skills; their miss management of student diversity in classrooms

(either through ignoring diversity, making uninformed judgments because of it, or paying so much attention to it that it could be perceived as discrimination or favouritism); a lack of critical self-awareness of how their own culture influences what they do, including the way they select and structure what they teach, how and what they learn (Leask, 2009; Leask & Bridge, 2013; Schoorman, 2000). Dobbert (1998) goes as far as claiming that truly learning about other cultures, and the skills gained from such experiences, is so complex that it cannot be done without extensive time abroad.

The Presence of International Students and their Interactions with Domestic Students

In theory, the presence of international students on campus provides diversity and gives domestic students opportunities for intercultural contact, communication and relations; which should facilitate the development of their intercultural competences and the realisation of IaH (Bowry, 2002; Paige, 1983; Parson, 2010). However, numerous authors have warned that the mere presence of international students does not equal meaningful internationalisation, nor does it necessarily lead to interaction (e.g. Bowry, 2002; Harrison & Peacock, 2010; Leask, 2009). Bowry (2002) insisted that in many cases, both in the literature and in practice, presumptions are made about the enriching educational effects that accrue to domestic students from the presence of international students on campus. Furthermore, there are contradictions in the literature which suggest that domestic students are not deriving meaningful intercultural contact from international students and in some cases negative impacts occur (Bowry, 2002).

Natural segregation and institutional support. A common phenomenon that is widely reported in the literature, which contradicts the idea that the presence of international students provides a beneficial intercultural experience for domestic students, is that international students tend to cluster in national groups or, at best, in groups with other international students and that these are perceived as ‘closed communities’ (e.g., Bowry, 2002; Grayson, 2008; Sherry, Thomas, & Chui, 2010; Thomson & Thomson, 1996). Several authors claim that this lack of integration means that the students often do not share their ideas and perspectives and that this is an issue both within and outside of the classroom (Bowry, 2002, Chen, 2006). While Grayson (2008) concluded that intercultural friendships are limited due to the relatively small number of international students on campus, this contradicts the finding that international students also commonly describe their disappointment with their lack of local friends and suggests that integration issues relate to both groups (e.g. Campbell & Li, 2008; Sherry, Thomas & Hong Chui, W., 2010). Many of

the reasons are quite intuitive, such as; a language barrier, the finding that both groups of students can feel challenged and reluctant to interact due to actual and perceived cultural differences, and pressure for academic performance can have the implication that less effort is invested into integration and socialising (Harrison & Peacock, 2010; Klak & Martin, 2003; Leask, 2009; Spencer-Rodgers, 2001). Another explanation for a lack of positive effects is that international students hide certain aspects of their home culture to secure better acceptance in their host culture (Thomson & Thomson, 1996).

While studies from the international students perspective can help explain integration issues, a notable study undertaken by Dunne (2009) aimed to examine specifically how 'home' students in an Irish University perceive cultural differences within the student population, what factors impact their intercultural contact and how they experience it. She conducted in-depth interview with twenty-two second year undergraduates from business, nursing and chemical science disciplines. Results revealed that home students differentiated themselves from international students not only on national cultural differences such as language, but also on their attitudes and behaviour towards academic work and the university experience. In general it was easier for domestic students to form friendships with other domestic students as: they felt they had more in common, it was not as easy to meet internationals in social settings (e.g. they do not frequently attend university clubs and societies), and they had already made friends amongst themselves before the international students arrival date more than a week after theirs. A further significant finding was that institutional support, such as clubs and societies, cooperative group work and smaller class sizes, helped to foster interaction. Thus, a diversity of factors appear to influence intercultural contact; highlighting the complexity of the issue and the crucial position that institutions and teaching staff have in facilitating interaction, especially as it was found that domestic students often associated intercultural contact with anxiety. It was concluded that meaningful interaction did not occur naturally and that active institutional management of this is crucial if the benefits of diversity is to be realised. In this case, the main reasons for why domestic students found making friendships with internationals was more difficult, are matters which the university could easily help eliminate; for example, by having the same recommended arrival times, having mixed international and domestic accommodation, and by giving international students more support for joining clubs, societies and other social events. There are other findings which suggest that natural segregation is reinforced by institutional factors or their neglect to help integration. This is evidenced, for example, by the observation that foreign students and foreign student programmes are not well integrated into the fabric of the

university (Mestenhauser, 1998). Or, that staff have been found to hold a perception that international students do not want to mix or do not have adequate skills to do so, and thus do not utilise the diversity and encourage integration (Leask, 2009). These findings also demonstrate how international and domestic student interaction is strongly interlinked to aspects discussed under curriculum internationalisation.

Integration issues not only present a barrier to the internationalisation of domestic students, but there is also some evidence that they can contribute to a negative impact, a conclusion that Jon (2013) describes: "...internationalisation efforts with superficial contact among students risk inducting misunderstandings and negative feelings ... such consequences include racial discrimination, anxiety and unequal power relationships" (p. 12). This would advocate that it is not only beneficial that institutions help interaction, it is their responsibility to do so in order to minimise the possibility of negative outcomes. It is necessary for universities and researchers to understand the theory behind intercultural contact so that conditions can be taken into consideration to support integration and in order to assess its impact; as is the case for the present study.

Intercultural contact theory. Allport's (1954) *contact hypothesis* provides a theoretical framework which can be used to understand the relationship between domestic and international students' intercultural interaction and various outcomes. In his seminal work, Allport (1954) argued it is not the case that simply putting people together from different cultures would lead to positive contact. His theory can help explain previous findings in the literature, provides conditions for positive contact and can help guide the analysis and interpretation of data in the present study. The hypothesis posits that for contact to have positive effects, four essential conditions must be met. These are explained with regard to the questions they bring up for international and domestic student contact:

- *Equal status:* Do international and domestic students feel they are equal? Are they treated equally? If there are differences in backgrounds or characteristics (e.g. in academic backgrounds, socio-economic status, skills or experiences) are they minimised?
- *Common goals:* Do international and domestic students have the same assessments? Do they want to gain the same thing from their university experience? Do they have to work together to achieve goals?
- *Intergroup cooperation:* Do they have to work together without competition?

- *Authority support:* Do university administrators and the teaching staff encourage positive intercultural contact? Are there official programmes to foster integration?

The theory originally evolved out of research on prejudice reduction and intergroup relationships within a multicultural society. Over time the hypothesis has been applied to many different situations, subjects and fields of research, and a great deal of literature has examined, criticised and supplemented the theory. For example, Pettigrew and Tropp (2000) added “intergroup friendship” and “structured programmes for optimal contact” as significant conditions for creating favourable results from contact (p. 269). Pettigrew (1998) claimed that positive contact effects arise through four interrelated processes: learning about the out-group, changing behaviour, generating affective ties (positive emotions towards one another e.g. empathy), and in-group reappraisal (insight into own perspective and being able to adjust it). However, a meta-analysis of all contact literature from 1940-2000, contended that Allport’s four conditions are not crucial but serve more to increase the likelihood of the positive outcomes (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006).

Level of contact and development. An element of Parson’s (2010) study analysed more specifically the contact that domestic students had with international students and how this affected outcomes across the different scales. She found that the closer the contact with students from other cultures, the greater the potential effect. But, these effects were not revealed until students had a number of international friends, which suggests that a long term and deep process of development is needed. When contact was more superficial, such as academic contact in comparison to friendships, and travel abroad in comparison to study abroad, it proved to be effective only for enhancing general international knowledge (p. 159). From this, Parson (2010) postulated an order of learning and development where, first, through superficial contact, the student gains factual international knowledge. This leads to greater curiosity and intercultural communication skills, which are necessary for, and also help achieve, greater interaction. As contact deepens, attitudes begin to change and peoples’ behaviour becomes more flexible and internationally orientated. For the deepest contact (true friendship and romantic involvement), cultural beliefs and attitudes toward one’s own culture are altered, such that people become cultural pluralists, e.g. they may help people from other countries through charitable acts, Finally, most developed is when they can critically view their own culture and are open towards others becoming a part of it without giving up their cultural identity.

The aim of Bowry’s (2002) study was to critically assess the presumption in the literature about the enriching educational effects that accrue to domestic students due to the

presences of international students for the case of Queens University in Canada. He developed a survey and conducted in-depth interviews to look for characteristics that contribute not only to an enriching effect, but also when there was no effect or even a negative one, which he claims has been previously neglected in the literature. The strength of the reported enriching effect varied greatly but the largest group of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed about whether their education had been enriched by the presence of foreign students. A stronger beneficial impact was reported for non-classroom activities. Informal, social interaction was the factor most strongly associated with the enriching impact of international students, and a lack of it when no impact was reported. These outcomes augment the importance of developing meaningful relationships and not relying on the mere presence of international students in class. They lend support for Parson's (2010) theory of learning and development, as social situations are more suited to truly getting to know one another. Less ambiguous was the finding that only very few students reported negative impacts, which were linked to frustration with not being able to understand each other due to a language barrier.

According to Bowry (2002), a problem with much of the literature is that it appears to treat the impact of all foreign students the same. But, using the example he gave, it is wrong to assume that an electrical engineering student from China will have the same educational impact as an international relations student from Britain. Thus, a logical assumption is that impact will also differ depending on the domestic students. This is perceived as especially important for the present case study as there is great diversity amongst the domestic students in the department of sociology; most notably the differences between Marathi and English medium groups. For example, it would be wrong to assume that a Marathi student who does not use much English and has had little exposure to internationalisation in their Bachelor studies, and an English medium student who is used to studying and conversing fluently in English, will have the same perceptions, experiences and relationships with the Euroculture students, visiting faculty members and other aspect of the programme.

Non-Western context

In terms of applicability to the present case study, the main issue with the findings discussed so far is that the research sites have all been in universities in Western countries, primarily in Australia, the US and Canada. To date, Jon (2009, 2013) is the only notable researcher who has addressed this issue in an Asian culture; more specifically in South Korea.

In a qualitative case study, Jon (2009) explored domestic students' experiences at a six week international summer campus programme at their home University in Seoul. The main findings were that, through the presence of international students and experiences of international faculty in class, Korean participants learnt about cultural differences and the experience had contributed to personal intercultural development in their attitudes and behaviour. Interestingly, participants came to see the English language as a tool for intercultural exchange, rather than merely a means to an end (i.e. essential in today's globalised society). However, the level of domestic students' intercultural learning tended to be linked to the level of interaction with the other students and some cultural differences remained unresolved. Intervention to encourage interaction and training to help with the understanding of unresolved issues were suggested improvements.

In light of these findings, Jon (2013) conducted a further study to determine the effects of university intervention to facilitate interaction, in the form of buddy and language exchange programmes. The main findings from the quantitative method was that frequent and intensive interaction were positively associated with higher levels of intercultural competence and institutional intervention by means of participation in the programme was effective in promoting this outcome. The previous international experience of students mainly had indirect effects, whereby, these students were more likely to participate in the programme in the first place. The main findings from the interviews were categorised by Jon (2013) as follows:

- *More intercultural*: Korean students overcame their anxieties of meeting people from different cultures, their interests in other cultures increased, as did their intercultural learning (e.g. that the international students had different thoughts, and they valued the novelty of this).
- *Personal growth*: Korean students felt more responsible and tolerant, took leadership role in helping international students and were more active citizens (e.g. it helped broaden students' perspectives and they gained confidence).
- *Different future plans*: Korean students' thoughts about an international dimension of their own studies and future plans were influenced (e.g. one student changed her study abroad destination due to meeting Germans).
- *Language*: Korean students' communication skills and foreign language ability (particularly their English) improved (e.g. they were more confident in approaching and helping international students on campus).

Jon's (2009, 2013) findings show that IaH in a non-western country (i.e. South Korea) through an international study programme has positive outcomes on domestic students' intercultural competences and are similar to other studies in Western settings. As the theoretical framework guiding the research was Allport's (1954) *contact hypothesis*, they support that it can be applied in a non-Western student context, as intercultural interaction was positively related to higher levels of intercultural competence and that authority support programmes and intergroup friendships are important factors for positive contact (Jon, 2013). In contrast to studies in Western settings, overcoming anxieties and language barriers associated with intercultural contact was more pronounced. This is perhaps because South Korea does not have a long history of exposure to internationalisation, which is also the case in the Indian context of the present study.

However, even though Jon's (2009, 2013) research takes place in an Asian country, with a culture relatively distant from those in the US, Australia and Canada, where most other relevant studies are conducted, it is still very different from the present case in an Indian context. Some of the obvious differences are that Korea is a developed country, whereas India is considered 'developing'; many students who took part in the international programme had prior international exposure in terms of travelling abroad (linked to Korea being developed), which from the researchers experiences is not likely in this case; and, the international programme was shorter with a high proportion of international students (1176 international to 327 domestic) in comparison to the Euroculture programme. Nevertheless, they provide encouraging results and useful indicators for the use of a qualitative approach to measuring the outcomes of an international programme on domestic students, for the present study.

The Indian context. Internationalisation of higher education in India is still at a formative stage, but clearly on the increase: the number of international students was most recently estimated at 28,000, up fourfold in the last ten years, and more than 150 foreign institutions offer joint/twinning arrangements with Indian universities (Mitra, 2010; Choudaha, Chang & Kono, 2013). This growth is set to accelerate further, especially because of India's vast potential with its largely English speaking higher education system and due to favourable policy developments supporting this process (Karky, 2013). However, the impact of this increase in internationalisation on domestic students, due to the presence of international students and programmes, appears to be omitted from research, as well as the promotion of IaH for the benefit of students who do not get to study abroad.

An extensive literature review was conducted in order to find similar or relevant studies to the present case in an Indian context. This included contacting experts in the field of higher education in India to gain their expertise. To the best of the author's knowledge there are no studies that have looked at the impact of internationalisation on domestic students in India. However, very recently Karky (2013) enquired into the presence of international students in a south Indian public university from the viewpoint of faculty members who were appointed as students' councillors. This is relevant as the present study also considers faculty members' perceptions and because she makes reference to domestic students' experiences. For example, the finding that domestic students complained about preferential treatment if a faculty member made an exception for international students in terms of the dress code. Regarding faculty members' role in supporting intercultural learning (as discussed in the *internationalisation of curriculum* section), they felt that they did not need intercultural training for the counselling programme but, extended cultural emersion abroad would help them for their roles. Furthermore, councillors claimed that Indian universities are not yet ready for large scale internationalisation because of bureaucratic and infrastructure problems, but that the intake of international students is very important as "the education system would get a global tone, improving the education of not just the international students but also the entire student community" (Karky, 2013, p.52). This study highlights the perceived importance of faculty mobility for increasing their intercultural competences, needed for supporting the same cause in students, and that India, as a developing country, faces specific problems (e.g. with infrastructure) for supporting IaH. Nevertheless, it also suggests that despite a lack of research, the potential benefit of internationalisation for domestic students is recognised and under discussion in the academic community.

Overall, the review of the state of literature in the field has helped to identify specific gaps, has shown how theoretical frameworks can be useful for understanding domestic student outcomes, and has shown how the present study fits into, and can build upon, previous work by taking into consideration methods and specific findings.

Chapter Three: Methodology

In this chapter, the methodology used to conduct the research is presented in seven main sections. The first section describes the research site: Department of Sociology at the University of Pune, followed by the details of the research programme: Euroculture partnership at the University of Pune. Section three outlines the design of the research, followed by the sampling of participants, and the instruments and procedure employed for data collection. The final section describes the strategies for the analysis of data and sets the stage for the presentation of the findings in chapter five.

The Research Site: Department of Sociology at the University of Pune

University of Pune. The University of Pune was established in 1948 and is located in the Indian state of Maharashtra. It houses thirteen faculties and forty-six academic departments at post-graduate level and has over 600 affiliated colleges and recognised institutions, which offer qualifications at all levels to a total of more than 500,000 registered students. It is one of the leading centres for research and teaching in the country; awarded with the highest “A” rating by the National Assessment and Accreditation Council for its overall performance (About the University of Pune, n.d).

As a large state run university, a salient feature is the diversity of its students: ranging from those who come from Maharashtra, to students from all over the country and across the world. According to the International Office website, the University and its affiliated colleges, boast the largest international student population across India; there are around 14,000 from 102 countries (International Centre, n.d.).

Department of Sociology. The Department of Sociology at the University of Pune is one of the oldest in the country yet prides itself for keeping in tune with the evolution of the discipline of sociology in India. The University Grants Commission of India (the governing body for the Indian Universities) has recently awarded it a “Centre for Advanced Studies in Sociology” (Department of Sociology, n.d.). The MA Sociology degree is a two-year (four semester) programme, consisting of four courses each semester and compulsory guest lectures, which occur on average once a week. There are five full-time faculty teaching members, including the Head of Department; Professor Arati Joshi.² Although numbers fluctuate, in recent years, the department has enrolled an average of about twenty-five

² Pseudonym

students per year. This usually includes several international students who, in the last two years for example, have come from countries such as Japan, South Korea, Iran and Bhutan.

Language dynamics. It is important to explain the language dynamics in the department as it is a discernible matter which has widespread impacts on teaching, learning and social relations. English was almost exclusively used at university level through the colonial period in India. Since independence there has been a shift for greater acceptance of the use of regional languages in higher education institutions (Jayaram, 1993). This is the case in the Department of Sociology where, although the main language of instruction is English, around half of the students enrolled are, what is referred to as, 'Marathi medium students'. Marathi students usually have a passive understanding of English, but their spoken and written use is not fluent as their prior education has usually been conducted exclusively in Marathi. However, it is important to point out that actual abilities vary greatly, as some students for example go to great efforts to use English after some time. The department facilitates the education of Marathi speaking students by allowing them to conduct assessments, presentations and contributions to class discussions in Marathi. Furthermore, some things in class are explained in Marathi (the extent of which depends on the teacher and their capabilities) and there are extra recap classes taught entirely in Marathi. Another noteworthy feature of Marathi students is, in comparison to English medium students, many more come from a rural background and are therefore likely to have had less exposure to the various diversities (e.g. people from different cultures), which are inevitably more existent in big cities.

The other half of students enrolled is 'English medium students'. They conduct their assessments and presentations in English, which was usually the language used in their former education, and they have a fluent to native speaker standard (alongside other languages). Many of these students come from different states and do not speak any Marathi. Those who come from Maharashtra usually speak Marathi however, this is to varying standards. These students may make contributions to class discussions in Marathi and help communication between the two language groups.

Although Hindi (one of India's official national languages) is often a common language, used for communication outside of class, this fundamental variation between the Marathi and English students', does present a noticeable divide, especially when it comes to academic aspects within the department, but also regarding social interaction. One of the main reasons for highlighting language variables is because it is likely to influence the impact and perceptions of the partnership, for which English plays a crucial role. The most

obvious implication is that this presents a greater language barrier between Marathi students and Euroculture students and faculty; this and other repercussions are explored further.

The Research Programme: Euroculture at the University of Pune

Interviews with Professor Martin Tamcke (one of the founders of Euroculture and Director of Studies for Euroculture at University of Göttingen) and Professor Arati Joshi (Head of the Department of Sociology at the University of Pune and current Director of Euroculture in Pune) shed light on how the partnership was established, what it presently involves and how it is set to develop in the future.

Establishment and early developments. Prof. Tamcke explained that the consortium member, University of Göttingen, already had strong ties with the social science faculty at the University of Pune at the time when the Euroculture programme was looking for third-country partners.³ Through this relationship, and largely thanks to the efforts of Prof. Tamcke and Prof. Niteen Gupte (former Head of the Department of Foreign Languages at University of Pune), in 2008 the official partnership was established.

At the beginning, the cooperation was run through the International Office at the University of Pune and this was the root of a number of issues, which initially hindered the growth of the partnership. Part of the agreement was to support the mobility of social science students and faculty members from Pune primarily to Göttingen University but also to the other European consortium partners (Prof. Tamcke). However, as Prof. Tamcke described: “At the beginning no one applied because the person responsible in the International Office did not give the information about this opportunity to the students and faculty ... and the selection process was not impartial.” Another significant part of the agreement was that European Euroculture students could complete a semester of study and research in the social science faculty in Pune.⁴ However, this also proved to be problematic at the beginning, as Prof. Tamcke recalled: “No one took care of accommodation for the incoming Euroculture students so we resorted to relying upon Linda Olofsson from Uppsala, to help get students through the administration at the beginning.” According to Prof. Joshi, these problems arose because, “there were no official academics involved to take responsibility of the partnership in Pune.” With the future of the partnership in Pune looking questionable, a meeting was called for those concerned. The solution that was agreed upon was to appoint Prof. Joshi

³ The University of Göttingen has selected India as one of the key strategic regions for academic cooperation as part of their internationalisation strategy.

⁴ Only students from EU members states

Director of Euroculture in Pune. Therefore, after great struggle in gaining permission from the Chancellor of the University, in 2010 the Department of Sociology, under the direction of Prof. Joshi, took over the running of a much closer partnership.

Present elements of the partnership. To understand the programme's contribution to internationalisation of the Department of Sociology, the following section outlines what the partnership involves since the reorganisation in 2010, which can be divided into three main elements.

Hosting Euroculture students and faculty. The Department of Sociology is the leading host of up to five Euroculture students and a varying number of visiting faculty members (usually around three) from any one of the eight European universities in the consortium, during the winter semester of each year. Euroculture students are permitted to take modules from within the entire social science faculty, but all have opted for at least two from the hosting sociology department.

Facilitating study abroad in Europe. The Euroculture programme facilitates the short-term mobility of sociology and other social science students and faculty. Depending on funding, one to two students per academic year are permitted to study at one of the European universities for a period of one semester during their MA studies. Since the reorganisation of the partnership in 2010, three students from the sociology department have studied for a semester at the University of Göttingen. Although students have the possibility to go to any universities in the consortium, most go to Göttingen because of the long running ties and additional support and funding available. Students also receive help and encouragement from those responsible within the department and visiting European faculty members, for applying to the full Euroculture degree programme scholarship.⁵ The Euroculture programme allocates funding for the mobility of faculty members from third-country partners and helps facilitate those coming with other funding. Again, numbers vary but in the past few years it has been one to two per year.

Contribution to internationalisation of the curriculum. Another important part of the Euroculture partnership is its contribution to the internationalisation of the curriculum in the department. This is achieved through mobility, dialogue and exchange of best practice at the level of faculty members and through the presence of Euroculture students in classes. Visiting European consortium faculty members give lectures in the department about their

⁵ The EM Euroculture grants for studying in Europe are not exclusive to third-country partners. However, as a result of networking and institutional support, it is often the case that the recipients are associated with the partners. Note also that no EM scholarships for the Euroculture programme were available for students in 2011.

areas of research, Euroculture related topics, research methods and, in general, they support, promote and strengthen the Euroculture programme cooperation. These lectures are compulsory for both junior and senior MA Sociology students and Euroculture students but, space permitting, all students and members of staff from the University are allowed to attend. Inspired by the Euroculture programme, in 2012 the department began the optional Euroculture Certificate Course, in which students learn about Euro-Asian, and especially Euro-Indian, topics and relations over the period of one semester. Eighteen students (mainly from sociology but also other disciplines) applied for the course but, because of bureaucratic issues which delayed the start, only five participated. Once a year the department publishes a 'Euroculture Booklet' containing relevant articles written by Euroculture students.

Future of the partnership. For the period 2012-2017, the Euroculture programme was again selected for the EM status and funding. The University of Pune has become a full partner of the Euroculture consortium as they fulfil the requirement of providing twenty-five ECTS credits. Furthermore, the cooperation is set to deepen as an agreement has been made for the University of Pune to work towards offering the full Euroculture degree programme with the support of its European partners.

Research Design

Qualitative approach. A qualitative approach in the form of a case study is considered most suitable for this research. The term 'qualitative research' is surrounded by a vast complexity of definitions, there are many different forms (e.g. narrative, phenomenology, ethnography and the case study), and various methods of data collection and analysis are employed (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). A comprehensive discussion of qualitative research is not appropriate in order to demonstrate why it is a fitting approach for the purpose of this study. Therefore, a few of the essential characteristics according to the work of Merriam (2009) are discussed.

The first essential characteristic lies in the purpose of qualitative research, which is to gain an in-depth understanding of the meanings attributed to individuals' experiences and behaviour. Merriam (2009) explains that qualitative research therefore draws from the philosophies of constructivism (also referred to as interpretivism), which assumes that reality is socially constructed and that attribute meanings are negotiated through historical and cultural norms and through social interaction with others. Researchers therefore do not 'find' knowledge but construct it from the complexity of multiple realities or interpretations which people create (Creswell, 2007). In contrast, quantitative research focuses on identifying cause

and effect and on the generalisability of outcomes. Less emphasis lies on understanding the process of how the outcome occurs. A second characteristic lies in the role of the researcher, who in qualitative approach is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis (Merriam, 2009). As would be expected, this means that certain biases may occur as a result of the researcher's personal involvement. However, in qualitative research this is not necessarily seen as problematic, as long as these biases are monitored and accounted for in order to determine their impact on findings. Thirdly, it is an inductive process where the researcher first gathers the data, to then construct concepts, theories and hypotheses that previous research has neglected, rather than deductively testing hypotheses (Merriam, 2009). The final characteristic is concerned with the outcome; data that is richly descriptive in nature. This is mostly in the form of words (e.g. quotes) or even pictures, used to describe what the researcher has learnt, instead of numbers produced by quantitative research which are analysed statistically (Merriam, 2009).

This study does not aim to measure a specific outcome or to generalise findings, but to explore how domestic students experience and perceive the different aspects of internationalisation facilitated by the programme. It aims to consider individual experiences, as well as patterns amongst the students, and to explore variations in the impact of the programme (especially according to Marathi and English medium students) as well its influence as on the department in general. Furthermore, the researcher guided the participants through the survey, conducted the interviews, and formed her own interpretation of the results, whilst taking into consideration biases especially due to her personal involvement in the department. This clearly shows that a qualitative methodology is best suited.

Case study. There are many forms of qualitative approaches. The specific approach utilised for this research is the case study. A defining characteristic of a case study, which most definitions tend to include, is that it involves the exploration of a 'bounded system'. Creswell (2007), adds that within this bounded system the issue is explored through one or more cases (i.e., a setting, a context), and it is identifiably set within a particular time and under certain circumstances. A further key characteristic is that in the data collection process multiple sources of information are required in order to gain an in-depth picture of the phenomenon being studied (Creswell, 2007).

In this case, the bounded system is the partnership that the Department of Sociology at the University of Pune has with the Euroculture programme. It is set within a time frame of approximately one and a half years: beginning with the start of the academic year in August 2011, until the point of data collection in February 2013. In this time frame two intakes of

Euroculture students have been hosted during the winter semesters. The current domestic sociology students (juniors and seniors) and faculty members are the cases. The circumstances are anything the programme involves and influences, which are grouped into three main elements (as previously outlined). In this study multiple data sources are used in the form of an open-ended survey and in-depth interviews with students and faculty members. All things considered, it is evident that a qualitative case study approach is fitting for the purpose of this study.

Participants

As the sociology department formed the bounded system, students and faculty were the target population.

Students. At the time of data collection there were 56 students (29 juniors and 27 seniors)⁶ officially enrolled on the MA Sociology degree. However, as the Head of the Department pointed out, there are at least a few students at each level who rarely come to the department or attend class. These students were not targeted for the study as they would have had little or no exposure to elements of the Euroculture programme. The total number of survey participants was 29 and 9 of these participated in an in-depth interview. Opportunity sampling was used to gain participants for the in-depth interviews. These were limited to English medium students due to the language barrier between the researcher and Marathi speaking students. The researcher used the survey data in the process of recruitment for the interviews, in order to include: participants with a range of different involvements with the programme (e.g. some who had applied to study in Europe, some with good contact to Euroculture students and with less contact, etc.); a roughly equal number of juniors and seniors and; and those whom the researcher wanted to expand their survey answers.

Faculty. It was considered important to also gain faculty members' perspectives on how and if aspects of the partnership have impacted their teaching, learning and classroom dynamics, domestic students and the department in general. In-depth interviews were therefore conducted with four of the six faculty members, chosen on the basis that Euroculture students had attended their classes.

⁶ Of the 29 juniors, 16 are Marathi medium students and 13 are English medium. Of the 27 seniors, 12 are Marathi medium and 15 English medium.

Instruments

Two instruments were used to obtain in-depth qualitative data: an open-ended survey and in-depth interviews. Crucial issues that needed to be taken into consideration were; finding a method for gaining data from the Marathi medium students (due to the language barrier between them and the researcher) and ensuring that the instruments would produce data that would address the research questions.

Survey. An open-ended survey was developed (for student participants only). Where possible, questions were worded in a way that would encourage detailed answers and the construction of opinions, in order to gain rich data for qualitative analysis. This was considered to be a suitable method for this case for numerous reasons. Firstly, it is an efficient way of gathering qualitative data from a larger number of students in a relatively short period of time (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Secondly, this enabled the researcher to gain a more reliable understanding of the overall effect in the department, rather than only focusing on a few cases. Finally, it provided the most plausible way to solve the issue of how to best question Marathi medium students. Using a survey meant that it could be translated into Marathi and later the answers were translated back into English. This enabled all students to complete the survey in one of their fluent languages, which was considered crucial for encouraging in-depth responses.

The main elements guiding the design of the survey were the research questions and previous related studies, in particular those of Parson (2010) and Jon (2009, 2013). A draft version underwent several alterations in response to feedback gathered from faculty members and students outside of the sociology department. Finally, this version was tested on a bilingual English and Marathi speaking student who was asked to pay attention to whether the questions would make sense to both English and Marathi medium students (when translated). With the help of this student, the researcher then discussed the items that did not result in relevant answers and this test process resulted in altering the wording of some items.

The final working version, presented in appendix A, was three sides and twenty-two questions in length and the questions were divided into four sections. First, instructions were given which emphasised that participants should reflect on all semesters as an MA sociology student, the importance of giving their own, true opinion, and to answer all questions in as much detail as possible. Participants were informed that filling out the survey would signify their informed consent, but that they would remain anonymous and results would only be used for the purpose of the thesis.

Section one asked for demographic and background information. This study focuses on the variable of language medium (English or Marathi), as this is a fundamental difference amongst the students of the department. Questions regarding the most relevant previous international exposure of participants prior to studying in the Department of Sociology were included as a basic control, which is also common procedure in previous studies (Jon, 2010; Parson 2010). Taking indicators from these studies into consideration, this was operationalised by determining whether students had foreign friends (e.g. international students in BA studies) and whether they had travelled, studied or lived abroad. The ‘MA level’ of participants (i.e. junior or senior) was also an indicator of previous international exposure, as seniors had experienced one extra year in the department in comparison to the juniors.⁷ Section two questioned students’ opinions of the benefit of the Euroculture programme for themselves, others and the department in general. This aimed to reveal developments in intercultural competences and general attitudes towards the importance of internationalisation. Section three assessed participants’ attitudes towards studying in Europe and other international behaviour. Section four determined what kind of contact and experiences domestic students had with Euroculture students and guest lecturers. This included questions on differential treatment and negative experiences in order to encourage students to reflect on undesirable impacts, the importance of which Bowry (2002) in particular emphasised.

Interviews. Semi-structured, in-depth interviews were held with participants individually. The semi-structured interview type means that the format and wording of the predetermined questions are flexible, allowing the research to probe for clarification or new ideas. And, in comparison to unstructured interview types, it helps increase the consistency of the data (Merriam, 2009). Interview questions followed those in the survey, but the interviews provided the opportunity to gain more detailed responses, to probe certain matters as they came up, and to ask additional questions dependent on the participant’s involvement with the programme (e.g. if they had applied to study in Europe more questions were asked about this). A faculty interview protocol was developed (see appendix B), yet interviews took on an open and flexible format.

⁷ The junior students only experienced the intake of the most recent Euroculture students (and lectures) in 2012 and the senior students experienced both (the 2011 intake when they were juniors and the 2011 intake as seniors).

Procedure

Data collection took place in a two-week period in February 2013. This meant that the most recent intake (for winter semester 2012) of Euroculture students had completed their semester at the department just one month before. Approval was obtained from lecturers to administer the survey at the end of classes. This helped strengthen response rates, allowed the research to be present to provide clarification, lecturers provided support with translation if necessary, and there was a quiet setting so that participants could concentrate and work alone. However, students were informed that participation in the survey was voluntary and they were given the choice of completing the English version or the English with Marathi translation. The survey took between ten and thirty minutes for the participants to complete.

Interviews were scheduled at participants' convenience and were conducted in a private room in the sociology department, or in the office of the faculty members. The interviews lasted from between twenty and fifty minutes, depending on how much detail the participant gave. The researcher started the interview with by explaining the purpose of the study and the ethical procedures. Participants were then given the consent form (appendix C), were asked to read and sign if they agreed, and if it is acceptable to record the interview. All participants agreed. In order to create a comfortable atmosphere, participants were first asked a few conversational questions. Then, the usual procedure was to follow the format of the survey when asking the questions. At the end, participants were asked if they had any questions about the study. Interviews were transcribed and, if requested, a copy was emailed to each respective participant to give them the opportunity to edit it. No changes were required.

Data Analysis

A qualitative data analysis was conducted on responses from the survey and interviews. The use of a 'progressive focusing' approach meant that survey data was collated and interviews were transcribed throughout the collection phase, which allowed the researcher to question interesting topics as and when they arose (Parlett & Hamilton 1976).

Survey. Firstly, the responses from each participant were entered into a table item by item and then all responses for each item were read several times. Similar responses for each item were categorised according to the general idea they conveyed. Multiple category assignment was used, which means that one participant's response could be assigned to more than one category (Merriam, 2009). This was appropriate as participants often listed numerous and diverse points in response to one question. The frequency of responses in each

category was recorded, as well as the breakdown according to the language medium and MA level. This allowed for the responses within the categories and the category themselves to be compared to see if there was a noticeable difference between the Marathi and the English medium students and the juniors and seniors. Furthermore, this process of enumeration helps clarify precisely what is meant when references such as ‘a few’, ‘the majority’ and ‘almost all’ are used for describing the findings.

Interviews. The transcribed interviews were read through several times. If compatible, data was used to add detail or fill in missing survey responses for those students who had participated in both methods. Sometimes interview data confirmed survey data, and sometimes it was different. However, as the interviews loosely followed the survey questions, the data could be interrelated according to the topics questioned. Overall, five main themes were identified, which would assist in answering the research questions. Frequent survey responses and interview codes brought fourth prevalent attitudes and distinctive responses highlighted specific experiences.

Chapter Four: Findings

This chapter is divided into six main sections in which the findings of the survey and interviews are reported. In the first section the demographic profile of participants and their background information is presented. The following sections, the responses to the survey questions along with the inter-related interview data are presented in the five identified themes: (a) benefit of the partnership for domestic students, (b) study abroad and other international behaviour, (c) interactions with Euroculture students, (d) impact of internationalisation of the curriculum, (e) and improvements and future developments. For each survey question, other than those with simple yes/no answers, the response categories are presented in tables (number 4-16) along with the frequency of responses (Fr.) in the categories and examples of the responses that make up their content. Within each category, if there was a noticeable difference between the frequencies of Marathi and English medium responses, this was indicated in the tables (by a ‘*’) and the direction was described in the findings and discussion of results. As no apparent differences were found between juniors and seniors, this does not feature in the reported findings however, it is addressed in chapter five. It is important to clarify that frequencies in results table will not usually add up to the total number of participants (i.e. 29), as in many cases more than one response was given or items were left blank.

Demographic and Background Information

Survey. A total of 43 surveys were administered in the ten day period during which the research was conducted, which equates to eighty-three percent of the target population (the 52 regularly attending students in the department). Six students refused from the outset and not all were present during the period when the surveys were being administered. A total of 29 surveys were returned to the researcher: a response rate of sixty-seven percent of the total numbers of surveys administered and fifty-five percent of the target population. Students who had not completed the survey in class accounted for most of those that were unreturned.

Demographic information. The age of participants ranged from 21-24 years and the average was 22.6 years. All participants were of Indian nationality. There were 17 students who considered themselves as Marathi medium, all of whom were from the state of Maharashtra. The remaining 12 considered themselves as English medium students and the

breakdown of their state of origin is as follows: Maharashtra (4)⁸, West Bengal (3), Assam (2), Rajasthan (1), Delhi (1) and Karnataka (1). Table 1 shows that the total number of males and females, and juniors and seniors, is relatively equal in the sample of student participants.

Table 1: *The distribution of gender and MA level according to language medium for the student sample*

		Language Medium		
		Marathi	English	Total
MA level	Juniors	9	5	14
	Seniors	8	7	15
Gender	Male	12	1	13
	Female	5	11	16

Table 1 also reveals that the number of juniors and seniors are relatively equally distributed with the Marathi and English medium groups. However, the breakdown of gender according to language medium tells a different story: of the English students in the sample only 1 out of 12 was male, and of the Marathi medium students only 5 out of 17 were females. This reflects the reality of the target population as more of the English medium sociology students in the Department of Sociology are female and more of the Marathi medium students are male. However, this has the implication that whenever findings vary according to language medium, this variation may also be because of a gender difference between the groups of participants. It is not possible to ascertain which of these variables is having the effect. Nevertheless, there is little evidence in previous literature to suggest that international programmes and IaH activities, impact males differently to females. Furthermore, there were no obvious differences in responses between the genders within the language medium groups and, importantly, where the findings appear to vary according to gender/language medium, the responses suggest that it is because of a language barrier. Finally, from the researcher experience in the department and from discussion with faculty members and students, it is known that language medium is a fundamental variable amongst students of the department, which has an impact on teaching learning and social relations, and is therefore likely to influence experiences with the Euroculture partnership, for which English is integral. For these reasons, language medium/gender variations will be treated as language medium unless responses suggest otherwise; however, this remains a limitation of the results.

⁸ The four students from Maharashtra also spoke fluent Marathi however, most of their education had been conducted in English and English is the language they used in their MA. They therefore considered themselves to be English medium students.

Previous international exposure. The most relevant previous international exposure of participants prior to studying in the Department of Sociology was estimated by asking participants whether they had foreign friends (e.g., international student friends in the BA studies) (item 1.5) and whether they have travelled, worked, or studied abroad (item 1.6). Only four participants had previous international exposure according to these measures and these were all English medium students (see data for Hemant, Ravina, Sucheta and Vrushali in table 2 for further details).

Interviews. Of the 29 survey respondents, 9 English medium students also participated in in-depth interviews. Demographic information and the previous international exposure of each interview participant, is presented in table 2.

Table 2: *Student interview participants' demographic data and previous international exposure*

Participant name*	Gender	MA level	Item 1.5 Foreign friends	Item 1.6 Travelled/lived/ studied abroad
Anuja	F	Junior	No	No
Gauri	F	Junior	No	No
Hemant	M	Junior	Yes, two friends from Europe	No
Janhavi	F	Junior	No	No
Mughdha	F	Junior	No	No
Pradnya	F	Senior	No	No
Ravina	F	Senior	Yes	Studied in Canada for 1 semester
Sucheta	F	Senior	Yes	Travelled to the US
Vrushali	F	Senior	No	Travelled to Thailand

*Pseudonyms

In-depth interviews were conducted with four faculty members. Table 3 gives an overview of their positions in the Department of Sociology, and the classes each has taught in which Euroculture students have attended.

Table 3: *Faculty interview participants' gender, position in the department, and the class taught attended by Euroculture students*

Participant name*	Gender	Position in Department	Classes taught with Euroculture students
Prof. Arati Joshi	F	Head of Department	Sexuality and human rights
Pallavi Rokade	F	Lecturer	Sociology of India
Reema Salunkhe	F	Lecturer	Development
Sadhana Kemkar	F	Associate lecturer, PhD student and Euroculture assistant	Tribal cultures

*Pseudonyms

Benefit of the Partnership for Domestic Students

A distinctive theme which emerged from the surveys and interviews was findings relating to the benefit of the partnership according to domestic students. In order to gain an idea of students' general attitudes towards the Euroculture programme partnership and what benefit they think it has, survey item 2.1 asked participants why they think it is important/not important that the sociology department has the Euroculture exchange programme.⁹ Table 4 shows show the different categories as to why and why not. The response from 27 out of 29 participants' indicated that they think it is important, the remaining 2 say it is not. There was no obvious difference in the reasoning of Marathi and English medium students.

Table 4: *Why the partnership is important for the sociology department*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
For gaining intercultural knowledge	15	Knowledge of other countries, learnt about other cultures, to know about things we can't learn, important to know about others in a globalised world, for cultural exchange
Provides contact to people from different cultures and their perspectives	13	To meet people and make friends from different countries, for building a wider network, for understanding different perspectives, to compare and accept cultures differences, to foster relations
Important for sociology students	6	Helps understand European sociological thinkers, sociologists need different perspectives, holistic subject which requires understanding different perspectives
Platform to go abroad	2	On academic exchange, to visit friends made
Not important	2	Not important academically

Item response rate: 27/29, multiple category assignment.

As shown in table 4, the categories with the notably highest frequencies of responses resemble the ideas that it is important for gaining intercultural knowledge (i.e. knowledge of different countries and cultures) and for providing contact to people from different cultures and the perspectives they bring with them. Interestingly, six respondents included the opinion that the programme and what it involves, is particularly important for sociology students, as they need to understand different perspectives and because sociology is a holistic discipline which draws heavily on the theories of European thinkers. Only two respondents mentioned that it was a platform for going abroad, which fits with the results that not many people apply or even want to go (see theme *study abroad and other international behaviour*).

Such ideas were also reflected in more detail in the student interviews and are captured best by the following quotes: "It enables us to engage in a wider network and it helps us understand Europeans and their culture, values, lifestyle, etc" (Anuja). Gauri reasoned that: "Studying society and structures from different perspectives is what sociology

⁹ The word "exchange" is used when referring to the Euroculture students and the programme as this is commonly used in the department and differentiates them from other international students

is all about. It is therefore especially important to have exchange students, who bring with them different perspectives, in sociology.”

Two students claimed that it was not important academically. This distinction between a social-cultural and academic benefit is also touched upon by faculty member Sadhana: “Especially Marathi medium students may not benefit academically because of a language barrier. But, culturally there is a lot of interaction as, for example, the exchange students are curious about the truly local students.” However, the Head of Department described what changes have occurred on the academic side as a result of the partnership, which she believes demonstrates its academic importance:

First with Göttingen and then with the others [in the consortium], we started thinking of collaborative research; having workshops for students and bringing pedagogy and research methods from Europe over here. We needed international knowledge for building research skills; this very much improved because of the partnership.

Therefore, the programme appears to be important for a wide variety reasons, but from the students’ perspective this is mainly for gaining intercultural knowledge and exposure to people from different cultures.

To find out if domestic students felt that they have personally benefited from the programme partnership and whether there is a difference in who benefits because of the diversity amongst them, survey item 2.2 asked: “Apart from students who go abroad on exchange, do you think you and other students benefited from the programme?” An overview of responses revealed that 22 participants believe that they had benefited from the programme, 4 directly stated that they have not (2 English medium and 2 Marathi) and 3 did not respond. In order to gain an understanding of how students felt they/others did or did not benefit, the follow on item (2.2.1) asked, “If so, how? If no, why?” Many participants did not expand on their responses, including those who stated they have not benefited. Of those who did, the two main ideas conveyed were: by gaining knowledge of other cultures and through exposure to other cultures (as shown in table 5). Additionally, two Marathi students wrote that they benefited by improving their English.

Table 5: *How domestic students felt they benefited*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
Gained knowledge of cultures	9	Learnt about real European cultures, exchanged ideas, have appreciated European culture and attitudes
Through exposure to other cultures	9	We get to meet the students, changed my perceptions through direct contact, exposure to different perspectives, made new friends
Improved English skills	2*	

Item response rate: 20/29, multiple category assignment. * Frequency of responses differed apparently between Marathi and English participants.

Some complete examples of such survey responses from Marathi students are as follows: “Yes, personally my language improved and I came to know about many countries in reality.” Or, a slightly different but interesting response was, “Yes, I’ve experienced how European’s preserve their own culture in India and how they adjust themselves to Indian culture at the same time.”

Although some people generalised their answers, (e.g., “Yes, we learnt about the real European culture from the exchange programme even if we just listen”), the survey data did not reveal much about whether all students felt they all have the same opportunity to benefit or not. This was therefore addressed in the interviews. A few participants suggested that Marathi medium students can feel left out because they don’t speak English. Sucheta claimed that although this is always an issue within the department, it is therefore not something that Euroculture is responsible for, but it may enhance these differences:

Maybe Marathi students feel left out, in the same way they do with us English speaking students. I have never had such a diverse class back ground as here in the department; from students who come from rural, farming backgrounds, to Europeans at the other extreme. It makes exchange interesting but also creates a divide.

A few interview participants mentioned that involvement with the Euroculture programme may also depend on caste and class, not only the language barrier. However, others were more of the opinion that all students benefit, as Janhavi for example described:

It is a healthy experience for all students. I think that Marathi students enjoyed getting to know the Europeans. In some cases, in their villages, they had only heard about these places but have never spoken to or befriended a foreigner.

According to Prof. Joshi the fact there is so much diversity amongst domestic students makes that partnership challenging but all the more important, as she describes in the following quote:

Because Pune University is a state university the cliental here is very different to private universities: students come from different castes and social classes and you come under government rule. Although this has made it harder to establish the cooperation, it also makes it all the more important as it helps disseminate knowledge, diversity and intercultural skills to a wide variety of people.

Survey item 2.3 also addressed this theme, but specifically aimed to assess students’ intercultural learning, by asking: “What new cultural aspects have you learnt, from the European exchange students or visiting lecturers?” An overview of all survey responses revealed that 23 participants indicated that they had learnt something (in a positive sense), only 3 participants said they learnt nothing, and 3 did not answer. Participants often listed at

least two things and overall it appears that a wide variety of intercultural learning has taken place. The ideas conveyed by responses are shown in table 6.

Table 6: *Cultural aspects learnt*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
Knowledge of countries and systems	10	Learnt about France, economy, education, the EU, about different cities, about travel
Different ways of thinking	8	Values, saw Europeans are open minded, about the importance and role of the family
Behaviour and physical appearance	6	Saw they dress differently, different greetings, were more on time
Gender relations and sexuality	6	About homosexuality in Europe, gender relations, sexuality, flirting behaviour
Other	4	Food, language
Did not learn anything	3	
Changed stereotypes	2	Learnt that things I thought about Europeans are not true
About my culture/identity	2	Learnt about our culture, told students about Indian culture

Item response rate: 26/29, multiple category assignment.

In most cases the responses were not very specific. They did not for example describe what the values or greetings they learnt are. This could mean that participants were simply providing what they believe are appropriate responses or, that they do know the details but that this was just the most efficient way of responding. Several participants mentioned that they have learnt these things with time, from getting to know the exchange students and from the observations and experience they have made, which would suggest that they are not merely appropriate responses or general knowledge. Interview results were also analysed to find more in-depth and valid evidence of intercultural learning. Gauri described that she learnt about flirting behaviour in European countries and that it was a huge culture shock for her. The nature of the knowledge and her reaction suggest that true intercultural learning had taken place. Ravina learnt things from her friends that go beyond general knowledge: “I definitely learnt a lot from my two Euroculture friends last year; about university life and random things like the kind of food you get in a supermarket and how much it costs.” And, the following quote from Hemant captures attitude change, which suggests a deeper form of learning has occurred:

There is a stereotype here about what Europeans are like; for example, stuck-up, snobbish (no offence), disciplined, well dressed ... but studying with Europeans and really getting to know them has confirmed that this is not true. The exchange students are very open and easy to talk to... I’ve learnt about the family life in Europe, marriage, homosexuality ... It has made me question both my own and the Indian identity.

Janhavi also changed her attitudes about European’s after getting to know the Euroculture students: “Maybe because of our colonial past, we think Europeans might be racist or arrogant, but when we befriended the Euroculture students we did not feel like that.” Thus, there is evidence of true intercultural learning and in a few cases, attitude change. However, it is difficult to demonstrate this especially in the case of Marathi students, as it was not possible to interview them.

Studying in Europe and other International Behaviour

A second distinctive theme which emerged from the surveys and interviews were findings relating to how the partnership impacts attitudes towards studying in Europe and other international behaviours that may be expected of an internationally minded person (i.e. attending international events, travelling abroad).

Attitudes towards studying in Europe. A central part of this study was to investigate students’ attitudes and behaviour specifically towards studying in Europe, as an important part of the partnership is to provide such opportunities. The partnership facilitates short term mobility (usually to the University of Göttingen) within students’ MA studies, and students are encouraged and supported to apply for the scholarship for the full Euroculture degree programme after their current MA has finished. Firstly, in order to get an idea of general opinions regarding this topic, survey item 3.1 asked students what they believe is appealing or not appealing about studying in Europe in general. Most participants listed both things they found appealing and things they did not. Five simply stated it is unappealing with no reasons, or that they do not know, and the remaining explanations fell into the categories show in table 7.

Table 7: *Appealing and/or not appealing aspects about studying in Europe*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
Good higher education (academic factors)	8	Good research, prestigious universities, high quality education
Unappealing economic aspects	7	High cost of living, high tuition fees, financial crisis, lack of jobs for graduates
Unappealing social-cultural aspects	4*	Lack of information about culture, culture is unappealing, language barrier, radical nationalism
Appealing social-cultural aspects	4	Get to know the people, food, way of life, to see Western culture
Offers good destinations to travel to whilst studying	3*	
Because it is developed	3*	Good infrastructure, developed, big cities

Item response rate: 25/29, multiple category assignment. * Frequency of responses differed apparently between Marathi and English participants.

The most frequent responses highlighted appealing academic characteristics of higher education and unappealing economic aspects in Europe. Interestingly, responses included both appealing and the unappealing social-cultural aspects. There was a notable difference in the frequency of responses between Marathi and English medium participants for three of the response categories (indicated in table 7). Only Marathi participants stated reasons relating to Europe being developed as desirable, and only English participants wrote that the travel opportunities in Europe are a reason for why they would find studying there appealing. Marathi participants were more ambivalent in general; three simply wrote that they do not know and four did not respond at all. English participants gave more critical and diverse responses regarding unappealing social-cultural factors, such as; the financial crisis which is happening in Europe, the recent increase in radical nationalism, and a few of the English medium students referred to language as a barrier which, interestingly, was not mentioned by Marathi students for this item. Such opinions were also reflected in the interviews and are captured best in the following quote from Ravina, who had recently been awarded the scholarship for the full Euroculture degree course:

I am obsessed with France but also Europe itself, that's why I applied for the Euroculture MA ... I also mostly just want to travel. But, in general, I don't think there are very many opportunities for getting a job or research position in Europe right now and, as the course is quite Eurocentric, I don't know how relevant it will be elsewhere in the world. This makes me very apprehensive to take up the offer of a place on the course.

After exploring participants attitudes, the survey went on to question actual behaviour as, item 3.2 asked participants whether they had applied for a scholarship to study in Europe. The results revealed that 4 participants (all English medium) had applied to study in Europe and 25 had not. According to the head of the department, the total number of applicants was two for the academic year 2011/2012 (present seniors) and three for 2012/2013 (present juniors); therefore, one had not participated in the study. In the follow on item (3.2.1) students were asked "why or why not?" The reasons fell into seven main categories which are shown in table 8.

Table 8: Reason for applying/not applying to study in Europe

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
Insufficient funding	10	The scholarship is insufficient, my parents would have to support me, too expensive
Language barrier	7*	My English is not good enough, can't speak German
Undesirable length/timing	6*	Four months is too short, not during MA but after maybe, would rather go for a PhD, too short to learn much
Was a good opportunity	4*	Exceptional chance, can gain exposure
Prefer different destination	3*	Would to go to UK, America, not Germany
Not appealing	2*	Don't want to study there
Anxieties	2*	Might not like it, might not make friends, might not get accepted
Issues with application	2*	Too late to apply, was not informed

Item response rate: 22/29, multiple category assignment. * Frequency of responses differed apparently between Marathi and English participants.

Reasons for not applying. In terms of those students who did not apply, aside from the overarching reason of insufficient funding, a clear difference in the pattern of survey responses between Marathi and English medium participants was to be seen. Firstly, more than a third of Marathi students left this item blank, suggesting that they did not know how to answer, or that they did not think the question is relevant to them. Of those who responded, the reasons for not applying fell exclusively into two categories: “Language barrier” and “Insufficient funding”. These are both ‘external’ barriers, not linked to the openness or motivation of the students. However, faculty member Pallavi claimed that although language is a problem, it can possibly be overcome:

We find it very difficult that only students who are fluent in English can apply; because of this the Marathi students feel very left out. However, if they are really interested they could mould themselves from the first semester, learn English, and do something about it.

Another faculty member, Sadhana, mentioned such a case: “I remember one Marathi student put in extra effort to learn new English words every day because through the partnership he become aware of the scholarships to study in Europe.” However, in the interviews several English medium students claimed that even if a Marathi medium student learns English, studying in Europe is still not an option for all. One interviewee hinted towards this saying, “you have to be of a particular kind”, whilst Hemant said more directly:

Only a certain caste and class of people believe they can get involved with elite education abroad. From having conversations with my Marathi friends, they are of the opinion that they cannot fit in, even though they technically have the right to get involved.

Aside from insufficient funding and a language barrier, the remaining categories were formed only from the answers of English medium participants. The most frequent responses

referred to the undesirable length or timing of the study in Europe opportunity. This was explained in more detail in several of the interviews. For example, Pradnya argued:

Going for 4 months is just like a holiday and then you have so much to catch up on when you return. My friend who is there now will have to complete the whole of her semester here in Pune in just two months when she comes back from Germany ... I want to go there after my MA.

Rather surprisingly, this concern was even expressed by two of the junior students who had recently applied to study in Göttingen. Guri stated:

I've applied but I actually don't want to go (ha ha) ... It's not really worth it as you have to pay almost two lakhs yourself and it's not like you are getting a degree or anything, it's for one course ... It may be a nice experience but at what cost? I can go when I am earning and don't have to rely on my parents.

Hemant had a similar feeling:

I don't necessarily want to go there during my Master; it is expensive and I would prefer to spend the money on going abroad for my PhD. In four months you can only do a few courses, so you really can't learn much, and for sociology you need a strong knowledge basis.

Other reasons for not applying were due to issues with the application, such as, missing the deadline and a lack of sufficient information. When discussing this in an interview, Sucheta explained this further:

...there is a lack of information. I'm not sure what is on the website but it would be better if one of the professors told us about it because, let's face it, we are a bit lazy. A really detailed course outline would also have been good, but it was nowhere to be had.

Pradnya's opinion was that the information on websites is very confusing and does not provide unbiased information about all the options: "If you click on the University [of Pune's] website link for Erasmus Mundus it only shows a few courses, but the main website tells a whole different story. Also, Euroculture delegates only talk about the Euroculture option." Ravina applied for study abroad through both Euroculture and the Ontario Maharashtra Goa (OMG) student exchange programme, which the department is also associated with. The researcher asked her why she chose Canada and she replied:

Right at the beginning the Canada programme was very helpful and well organised, whereas, the German thing was quite wonky - in terms of the application and information. I had no idea what courses I would be taking, it seemed that half of them would be in German, and there was no system for me to choose. It was very confusing. Also, I spoke to one of my seniors who is doing the Euroculture programme at the moment, and he said it's a bit disorganised.

Two respondents admitted that they had several anxieties which may also have played a role in not applying. This was captured in detail in the following quote from the interview with Sucheta: "... there is a sense of nervousness: will I be able to sustain myself? What if I don't like it after a few days? Am I going to make friends? These are fears I have."

Reasons for applying. The four participants who had applied all did so for reasons relating to it being a good opportunity. For example, despite the junior student Hemant's hesitations, his explanation for applying in the end was as follows: "... on the other hand I thought, 'just apply'. It's a good opportunity to gain exposure and it's heavily subsidised. I want to see what it is really like in the West, if what my friends say is true."

Furthermore, the interviews exposed that the Euroculture partnership has influenced their attitudes' towards studying in Europe and that this occurs through several means. Influential was speaking to Pune students from the department who had studied in Europe or those who were there at that point in time, as captured in the following quote:

Manasi, who is in Germany at the moment, was my first point of call when I was thinking of applying. She sent me the link for the application but she did not have much time to help as she had only just arrived and was very busy.

Ravina explained that her Euroculture friends from last year and the support of the department influenced her decision to apply for the full Euroculture MA: "My Austrian and German friends helped me a lot as they spoke about their university life and education systems. Also, because this is a small department, teachers are involved and supportive of exchanges." A similar response was given by Anuja:

Although I have always wanted to study there [in Europe], being in this department means that I have had some exposure to Europeans and that I can go to my teachers for help with scholarships etc. – not all department have that.

Other international behaviour. The option of studying in Europe through the partnership is not the only form of international behaviour and one which findings show is associated with various issues or barriers. Other forms of international behaviour which would be associated with an internationally minded person, and the impact of the Euroculture partnership on them, were therefore also addressed.

Changes in future plans can be an indicator of the programmes impact on international attitudes and behaviour. Survey item 3.4 attempted to address this topic by asking, "After you graduate would you like to travel, work or study in Europe?" The large majority of participant (23 out of 29) stated "yes" to at least one or all of the options. Table 9 shows the overall breakdown of responses.

Table 9: *Intentions to travel, work or study in Europe after graduation*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
Travel	9	Travel to France and Germany, a year travelling throughout, for at least two months
All three (travel, work, study)	7	
Study	6*	Want to do a PhD preferably in England, want to apply for a different EMMC, study if I have the opportunity
None	5*	
Work	1	

Item response rate: 28/29, multiple category assignment. * Frequency of responses differed apparently between Marathi and English participants.

There was a noticeable difference according to language medium as the five respondents who stated that they are not interested in any of these options were Marathi students, and only one Marathi medium participant wanted to study in Europe after graduating. This suggests that English medium students intended behaviour is more internationally oriented and fits with the finding that they many would prefer to study abroad after their MA studies (see *reasons for not applying* sub-section). To explore what impact the Euroculture partnership has on such behaviours, the follow on item (3.4.1) asked participants whether their attitudes had been influenced by Euroculture students or visiting lecturers and if so how. The breakdown of responses is shown in table 10.

Table 10: *Influence of Euroculture programme on attitudes towards travel, work or study in Europe*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
Yes	18	Meeting people has fuelled my interest, I have friends to visit, know more about it now
No	5	

Item response rate: 23/29, multiple category assignment.

Although students were asked to explain their answer, the majority of respondents did not, simply stating “yes” (they had been positively influenced) and the minority simply stating “no”. Of those who did elaborate, the reasons given were that being exposed to foreigners or making European friends, means that they now know more about different people and the places and that this has fuelled their interest and given them contacts in Europe. This is evidenced in the following three extracts drawn from the survey and interviews: “Yes, I am all the more excited to go to Europe as I can visit, or at least contact, the exchange students”, “I have been positively influenced as now I know more about the people and the places” and “I always thought I wanted to go to Europe, maybe even do my PhD there, and now that I know I can make friends and that we have a lot in common, I am even more sure.”

However, going abroad for whatever reason is not the only form of international behaviour and, especially in the Indian context, it may be that some students do not see this

as a realistic option. Therefore, to address other ‘non-mobile’ forms of international behaviour, item 3.3 asked students whether they had attended any international events since studying in the department. For this item, the responses differed greatly according to the language medium of participants. Of the Marathi respondents 10 simply stated “no”, 3 said they had attended the food festival held at the university a few weeks before the surveys had been administered and 5 did not respond. In comparison, the exact opposite was the case for English medium students, 10 out of 12 of whom had attended an international event since studying in the department, but 5 had done so regularly beforehand (e.g. international film and music events). This would suggest that, despite internationalisation in the department through the Euroculture programme, the current international behaviour of students has not noticeably increased. But again, attending international events is just one behavioural indicator of an internationally minded person, so it is not possible to reliably say that this is the case.

Interactions with Euroculture Students

The third theme which emerged was findings relating to interaction between domestic and Euroculture students. Hosting Euroculture students is another main element of the partnership: in 2011 there were five and three in 2012. To assess the impact this has on domestic students this research addressed: the level and type of contact the students had and why this was the case, differential treatment, and whether there were negative sides to interaction.

Level and type of contact. Survey item 4.1 requested participants to describe how much and what type of contact they had with the European exchange students and some examples were given to clarify the question (see item in appendix A). The responses could be categorised into three levels of contact which are shown in table 11.

Table 11: *Level and type of contact with Euroculture students*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
Good contact in and outside of university	12*	Ate lunch together, went to restaurants together, went to festivals together, visited each other’s homes, were good friends
Some contact in class and in department	14*	Had class together and spoke in the department/on campus, did group work together
Contact only in class	3	Had class together but never spoke

Item response rate: 23/29, multiple category assignment. * Frequency of responses differed apparently between Marathi and English participants.

The results revealed that all participants at least had a class with the Euroculture students and all but three had some form of extra contact. But, in terms of how much and what type of

contact they had, there was again a marked difference between Marathi and English medium students. The large majority of English medium participants' responses (10 out of 12) indicated that they had good contact in class and outside of university, and the remaining two said that they had hardly any contact. Regarding the type of contact, of those participants who had good contact, nearly all described that they often ate lunch together, saw each other outside of university for social events such as dinners and festivals, visited each other's homes, and many said that they are good friends. On the other hand, only two Marathi students claimed they had good friendship with Euroculture students and that they met outside of the department. The majority (12 out of 17), cited that they had some contact but mainly only in class and in the department (therefore not outside of university) and three said they only had class together. Therefore, the results show that Marathi students had less meaningful contact than English medium students. In the follow on question (item 4.1.1), participants were asked to explain their previous answer and responses fell into four categories, which are shown in table 12.

Table 12: *Explanation for level of contact with Euroculture students*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
Language barrier	8*	My English is poor, but we tried to understand each other, I am shy because of the language barrier
Euroculture were likable	6*	Friendly, interested, liked their company, non-judgmental, open and easy to talk to, got along well
Curiosity for diversity	5	Spoke to get to know culture, curious to get to know them,
Did not make an effort	4	I/they were not interested, I/they did not make the effort, was not easy to make friends,

Item response rate: 24/29, multiple category assignment. * Frequency of responses differed apparently between Marathi and English participants.

The results confirmed that the language was perceived as the main barrier to interaction for Marathi students. However, there were slight variations within this category: while most saw this as a clear blockade, others described it more like an obstacle and tried to make an effort to communicate, for example, by making conversation after class. Four participants' reasons (two Marathi, two English) were because of a lack of motivation to make friends either on their part or their perceptions of the European students.

The majority of responses given by English medium students in the survey, who mainly had good contact with Euroculture students, were due to various likable traits which they saw in the Euroculture students (see table 12 for examples). Despite these positive responses from the survey data, the interviews mainly highlighted problems and why they occurred. In the interviews with seniors, the researcher questioned in more detail their relationships and experiences with the 2010 group of Euroculture students as, even though

they were given instructions to do so, the survey responses did not differentiate between the two intakes (2010 and 2011). This may be a reason for why different responses were given and/or because the interview setting encouraged more in-depth reflection. A general consensus seemed to be that the Euroculture students were not very open and proactive about building good friendships with the domestic students in the department. This was described and justified by the following quotes:

The exchange students are not very approachable, or maybe they felt that they couldn't approach us. But anyway, they didn't make the effort to make plans with us even though we tried. Maybe because of cultural differences, not all seemed to want to interact; I think they felt they might be intruding.

Likewise, Ravina remarked: "We became good friends with a few of them and are still in contact, but we had to make a lot of effort to get to know them, they were pretty reserved and insulated. Or, as Pradnya explained it: "We tried to make friends but there was no great gelling. There was a sense of 'othering' (you are not like me and I am not like you) and a language problem (we won't understand each other's English)." Two students mentioned that this lack of integration may be because exchange students often find it hard to adapt to India which, for example, meant that they didn't always come to classes. This was also highlighted by faculty member Reema:

It might be difficult for the foreigners to integrate because they have to find their feet at the beginning and then it's already time to leave. There is also the language burden and additional challenges with India being a developing country.

In general, these results suggest that interaction varies greatly according to the individual (both in terms of the Euroculture and the domestic students) and the situation (e.g. it might be harder to integrate due to the circumstances in India). This was captured best in the following quote, drawn from an interview with Vrushali:

With last year's Euroculture students, the classroom interaction was excellent but we didn't have good contact outside of the department; this was the complete opposite this year. They seemed cold but you guys made a point to mingle. After we sat with you in the canteen, Ben and David [Euroculture students] invited us to their place, which made a big difference. But, mainly it has a lot to do with the individual; we never did much with Lisa [non-Euroculture exchange student] for example and some of us [domestic students] don't take the initiative either. I think that is because we have formed groups and are in our comfort zones, exchange student or not.

According to faculty member Reema, this individual difference in interaction is also the case with the Marathi medium students. She explained in more detail what she believes might be occurring: "If you are Marathi and shy and everything is difficult to grasp, then being friends

with a Euroculture student is just an additional task. They have other issues to deal with first. This highlights that the personality of individuals (e.g. confidence and shyness) play an important role.

Differential treatment. To explore less obvious sides to interaction, survey item 4.2 asked whether Euroculture students are treated differently compared to the other students in the department. There was a relatively low response rate to this question (20/29), suggesting that it was not relevant, too hard, or not quite understandable. Table 13 shows the breakdown of responses and that the most frequent was simply “no”. This was closely followed by “yes” with a short explanation along the lines of Euroculture students being treated differently in a positive way because they are visitors/foreigners, which an interviewee pointed out “in India this means being treated like a god”.

Table 13: *Whether Euroculture students are treated differently and, if so, how*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
No	9	
Yes, positively	6	In a good way because they are visitors/foreigners
Yes, favouritism	4*	Teachers are more lenient with them, colour of their skin, have more options at University

Item response rate: 20/29, multiple category assignment. * Frequency of responses differed apparently between Marathi and English participants.

There was one main distinction between Marathi and English medium responses whereby, only English participants said they are treated differently with negative inferences. For example, they reported that teachers gave them privileges and were more lenient with them. Also, speaking more generally, Pradnya said; “Anyone who is white is treated like they are right in India.” A faculty member agreed that, “If Euroculture students don’t come to class then we think they have a genuine reason, as usually they come, and with assignments there is also a lot of flexibility.” The lecturer Pallavi explained her theory on how and why differentially treatment might occur, which is based on covert changes in power relations due to the presence European (and other) exchange students, as detailed in the following quote:

This is just my perceptions but, I believe that more power goes to the European exchange students because we have something like a colonial hangover. So, for example, if a European takes your class then this means your class and teaching is good. Consequently, this becomes a point of contention or power with faculty.

She further described that amongst students a similar thing can happen in the form of competition: “As the European exchange students have high standards, their presence gives rise to healthy competition among students and teachers. Thus, although some forms of interactions with Eurocultures students are perceived as favouritism, and their presence can

unconsciously increase competition, Pallavi sees all this as “a positive thing as it improves standards”, which was also the general attitude of most students.

Negative experiences. Negative experiences are not necessarily matters that students bring up themselves, but it is crucial they are addressed. Thus, survey item 4.3 asked participants directly whether they had any negative experiences with the European students, lectures and/or the programme itself. The breakdown of responses is shown in table 14.

Table 14: *Negative experiences with Euroculture student or programme*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
No	22	
Yes	3	Euroculture don't integrate, criticised local education, enhances inequalities

Item response rate: 25/29, multiple category assignment. * Frequency of responses differed apparently between Marathi and English participants.

As table 14 shows, the vast majority of participants (both Marathi and English) simply answered “no”, however, three responses which were categorised under “yes”. A Marathi participant took this opportunity to critique the lack of meaningful integration: “They are not establishing deeper relations with us. Communication is minimal and not enough.” Another said, “Yes, some European students criticised our local education system without understanding the background and reality.” Finally, Pradnya, who was very critical about the partnership in general, expressed in her interview that the programme enhances inequalities amongst students:

Having an exchange programme between a developed and developing country is challenging ... it enhances inequality and not everyone has access to the same things. Many students here live on 20 rupees a day and they can't even think about going to Europe.

A Marathi respondent took a very different and interesting take on this question, as he reflected on how the programme had made him see critical aspects in his culture. His precise response was: “No, with the Europeans all things were positive but I saw my culture is too difficult to accept.”

Internationalisation of the Curriculum

The fourth theme consists of findings regarding the impact of the partnership on internationalisation of the curriculum, in which two aspects were addressed: the impact in class on teaching and learning, and the impact of Euroculture lectures.

Teaching and learning. Domestic students experience with Euroculture students in class were explored through survey item 4.4, which asked how group work or classes

(learning and teaching) changed due to the presence of Euroculture exchange students. The breakdown of responses is shown in table 15.

Table 15: *How group work or classes have changed due to Euroculture students in class*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
Nothing changed	10	They didn't add much
Brought different perspectives and new knowledge	10	Made comparisons, gained new ideas, shared experiences, heard different opinions, contributed to good discussions
More disciplined	5	Makes class and group work was more disciplined, they were more on time
Language and communication changes	4	Teachers hard to explain things more, improved English, hard because of English

Item response rate: 25/29, multiple category assignment.

As table 15 shows, a third of respondents felt that nothing much changed. The answers from the remaining two thirds, who believe there was a change, conveyed three general ideas. Firstly, Euroculture students brought different ideas and/or new knowledge and perspectives, which meant more comparisons were made (one third). Secondly, things became more disciplined as, for example, Euroculture were seen as guests and are more disciplined themselves. And, finally, characteristic regarding communication were influenced, such as, the teacher had to explain more and Euroculture students' English was difficult to understand. These kinds of responses were also captured in the interviews and are demonstrated best by the following quote from Anuja:

The Euroculture students have less impact in the classroom. But, in gender class for example, there is a real mix of students (Canadians, Japanese, Indians, Europeans) and we spoke about how patriarchy is different in different parts of the world. I learnt that in Canada it still exists but that it is more hidden; before I had the perception that they had solved the problem there.

The issue of the impact of the Euroculture students in class was discussed in much detail in the interviews with faculty members, which exposed different perspectives on the matter and revealed how they personally felt their teaching had changed. This is very valuable as they have an overview from before the Euroculture partnership was established and between classes where Euroculture students do and do not attend. The head of the department felt that the dynamics of certain classes changed a lot when exchange students from Europe started coming, as she explained in the following section of her interview:

Especially in sexuality class, our students opened up because of the presence of European students and discussions became more interesting and diverse. This is very important because at college level, especially for Marathi students, they do not have these kinds of topics in class.

Faculty member Sadhana believes that since the deeper integration of the Euroculture programme the environment in the whole department, as well as her teaching, has changed:

The Euroculture students are very much part of the department, as they deal directly with us. I think the Indian students feel this too as there is better interaction with them than with other short term exchange students ... Personally my teaching has changed a lot; I ask exchange students about their expectations and have taken in European styles such as more interaction and discussion in class.

Reema's opinion was that changes vary according to classes and, in line with many of the students, she believes that there is more impact of interaction outside of the classroom setting, as she described in the following quote:

If it is a smaller class then interaction occurs more, but from what I have seen, outside of class is where it really happens ... In development class I have to be extra careful as it is a touchy subject here and Euroculture students know what it is like whereas many Indian students do not.

She also reflected on how she has adapted her teaching accordingly: "It requires me to balance things with another, different group of students; I have to speak more slowly and explain things we Indians take for granted." This supports the idea that communication changes, which was also suggested by several students in the survey.

European lectures. To find out about domestic students perceptions of guest lectures held by visiting European speakers and Euroculture consortium faculty members (another aspect of the partnership), item 4.5 asked; "What did you like/dislike about lectures given by European speakers and, if at all, what benefits do you think they have?" This question attempted to reveal affective aspects as opposed to purely the knowledge they gained. The breakdown of responses is shown in table 16.

Table 16: *Likes, dislikes and benefits of European guest lectures*

Categories	Fr.	Content examples
Gained skills and knowledge about European topics	10	Learnt about the EU, learnt about Irish families, gained knowledge about European culture, learnt about academic writing, research skills
Inappropriate content/intentions	9*	Too basic, not understandable, not interested in topic, they had their own agenda, seemed like they were here on business
Noticed different teaching styles/perspectives	3	They were very organized, had different ideologies

Item response rate: 22/29, multiple category assignment. * Frequency of responses differed apparently between Marathi and English participants.

About half of the responses suggested that students benefited from the programme by gaining new skills and knowledge of specific European topics which lecturers spoke about. The skills listed were related to academic research and writing. This is very likely a positive outcome of a series of lectures given by a visiting Euroculture faculty member, which specifically aim to

develop such competencies. Roughly the same amount of responses stated that they disliked lectures because they either found the content inappropriate or the intentions of the lecturers. For example, that they couldn't relate to the content, or they were too basic, not critical enough, and that it seemed like there lecturers had their own agenda. Interestingly, it was mainly English medium students who had these critical opinions, even though one might expect Marathi students to have more issues relating to content, due to the language barriers. This was captured in more detail in several quotes drawn from the interviews: "Lectures were basic and very Eurocentric ... For example, I found them to be focused on a narrow minded, western model of development. As with the students, there was a serious lack of critical thinking or comparative analysis." And, specifically regarding the idea of inappropriate intentions: "To be honest with you, I think it is a business, the whole thing. They are here to sell their colleges and impress us so that we go there... Education is a commodity and we are the consumers." Hamant even explained why he felt each of the lectures he could remember was either appropriate or inappropriate:

I could relate to the Irish families lecture, as it showed that domestic violence is not just our problem. It was the opposite case for the one about painting and art. We knew more than the lady who spoke about Hindu texts and the EU lecture was too much information, she should have come down to our level. The lady yesterday talking about slums in India spoke to us as if we were naïve ... I think they should be more careful about what they come here to talk about.

Such evaluations could mean that English medium students have higher standards or that they are generally more critical. As this issue surfaced in numerous interviews, it was brought up with one of the faculty members in order to get her view on it. Reema's opinion was that the guest lectures bring in different perspectives and are very important for enhancing the skills and knowledge of students. She explains that, "this is something that the students might not realise straight away, and they may have negative attitudes because the lectures have been made compulsory."

Improvements and Future Developments

The final theme consists of findings relating to improvements and future developments of the programme partnership and this emerged only from the interviews with the students and particularly faculty members.

An idea which came up in several interviews was that integration should be improved. The potential benefit of this for intercultural learning was, for example, emphasised by Ravina: "I think there should be something which facilitates interaction because, considering

how much we can learn from each other, there is honestly not much effort made.” Consequently, the research asked the participants’ opinions of how this could be done. Ravina suggested icebreaking activities that go beyond basic presentations in class: “There could be some sort of icebreaking thing at the beginning. There were presentations in one class but they were just so basic, like this is the language and the food we eat – I could google that!” Hemant made several concrete suggestions for how he believes integration could be facilitated through institutional support:

It would be better if the Euroculture students stayed on campus and got more involved with academics by attending more classes. Also, I saw that the first two months are taken away from the exchanges students sorting administrative things; there should be a coordinator to help with this.

Pradnya suggested that the curriculum needs to be adapted to suite both international and domestic students and that teaching staff should do more to facilitate interaction, as she describes:

I think more interaction in class should be encouraged; for example, exchange students could speak about things they know and we could help with other things. In a way it is unfair for the exchange students as they now very little about Indian topics. I think they should change the curriculum in a way that would be beneficial for all students.

The interviews with faculty members revealed how the Euroculture programme has provided inspiration for the future internationalisation and pedagogic development within the department and the active role it can play in supporting and collaborating with such efforts. The head of the department explained that they would like to strengthen research skills through: “...continuous workshops in which Euroculture faculty and students would participate with us so that there will be more interaction. This should cumulate in something like an intensive programme, which is again an idea I got through Euroculture.” All of the faculty members discussed that the Euroculture certificate course is a concrete outcome of the partnership but that it needs to be strengthened. Prof. Joshi described: “I got inspiration for the Euroculture certificate course from the MA ... 18 students enrolled (Marathi and English speaking) but because of technical mistakes only 5 participated.” Pallavi explained that she contributes to the certificate course on a voluntary basis but that it needs to be strengthened through funding from the University or Euroculture. These examples show that the partnership has already had a big impact on the internationalisation of the department and that it will continue and expand in the foreseeable future.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Findings

This chapter consists of three main sections in which the findings are further explored, interpreted and discussed in terms of how they answer each of the research questions and how they relate to the previous empirical and theoretical literature that was presented in chapter two.

Discussion of Research Question One

Research question one asked, “Is there a beneficial impact of the partnership on domestic students’ intercultural competence?” Findings from previous studies suggest that IaH can have beneficial effects on domestic students’ intercultural competence, which are commonly grouped into two broad areas: intercultural knowledge, and affective and behavioural development (Deardoff, 2006; Jon, 2009; Parson, 2010).

Intercultural knowledge and attitudes. An area of intercultural competence outcomes are those related to knowledge of other countries and cultures and the openness to learn and comprehend own and other cultural differences (Deardoff, 2006; Jon, 2009; Parson, 2010). According to Deardoff (2006), these form the basis for internal attitude change and external behavioural change as a person develops their competences. In the present study, more than two thirds of participants felt they have gained knowledge of other cultures from the Euroculture students and/or guest lecturers (item 2.3). This was also the most frequent response to the question of why students think the programme is important (item 2.1), how they benefited from it (item 2.2), what impact Euroculture students had in class (item 4.4) and what they learnt and liked about European lectures (item 4.5). Thus, gaining knowledge of other cultures was a prevailing category in the findings, and participants clearly value this learning, which supports numerous studies that have also identified it as a principal outcome (e.g. Bowry, 2002; Hayle, 2008; Jon 2009, 2013; Parson, 2010). This new knowledge applied to a wide variety of cultural aspects, including an understanding of different ways of thinking and behaving, gender relations, etc. This advocates that students have an awareness and understanding of different perspectives, rather than merely factual knowledge about Europe and its countries, which represents one of the key components of intercultural competence that most international administrators agreed upon according to Deardoff’s (2006) study. However, a limitation of the survey responses is that students tended to make broad statements about what they had learnt (e.g. “I learnt about different values and ways of life”), whereas few precise examples were given, bringing into question their validity. On the other hand, gaining exposure to different people and attitudes was also very frequently mentioned

as a beneficial impact alongside gaining knowledge, which suggests that learning takes place through cultural exchange (a phrase that was regularly used) and is not merely a manifestation of facts or a socially desirable response.

Affective and behavioural development. Another area of intercultural competence outcomes are those related to internal attitude change and external behavioural development including intercultural skills and international activities (Deardoff, 2006; Jon, 2009; Parson, 2010). Nearly all participants (24 out of 29) stated that they would like to travel, work and/or study abroad after they graduate and 18 of whom stated that their outlook towards this international behaviour had been positively influenced by the Euroculture programme. Although this question was intended to address behaviour, it more probably represents an attitudinal change (whereby the participants have become more open to such experiences) as, for example, very few students actually applied to study abroad. In a few cases participants gave specific examples of how getting to know Europeans had changed their negative stereotypes for the better and that it had made them reflect upon their own culture and identity, which according to the Bennet's (1986) DMIS is a sign of deeper internalisation of cultural awareness.

In terms of international behaviours, prior to studying in the department, only three students had travelled or studied abroad and one had international friends. As already discussed, most students have become more open to these experiences. Although nearly all participants had contact with the Euroculture students, building meaningful friendships with foreigners was largely limited to English medium students and it remains questionable whether these ties will be maintained when students leave. Half of participants stated that they have attended an international event since studying in the department, a commonly used measure of international behaviour (Hayle, 2007; Parson, 2010). However, this group almost exclusively consisted of English medium participants who had mainly only attended the recent international food festival held on campus. While this shows openness and curiosity, it also happened to be a welcome social activity to engage in at lunch time (with mainly Indian friends) and therefore lacks validity as a strong indicator of internationally oriented behavioural change.

A positive development worth noting was the finding that a few Marathi students claim to have improved their English language skills and their ability to approach, communicate with and comprehend foreigners – all indicators of intercultural skills. This was linked to gaining confidence and improving their listening skills, from interaction with

Euroculture students. It is likely that English medium students already possessed these skills, especially as they relate to English which they speak fluently.

This discussion of intercultural competence outcomes has revealed that most participants have gained intercultural knowledge and show openness towards other cultures. Although there is some evidence of internal attitude change, far less was available for external behaviour development. According to Parson's (2010) order of learning, gaining knowledge is one of the most basic forms of intercultural competence, which can occur through superficial contact with people from another country. Similarly, regarding Bennet's (1986) DMIS, it would not represent a high ethnorelative level of intercultural sensitivity, as this is associated with development in affective characteristics (e.g. empathy), attitudes and behaviour (e.g. behaving in a culturally appropriate way). Thus, participants appear to have developed aspects of their intercultural competence, depending on their respective starting points (which for intercultural communication skills are likely to be lower in Marathi students), but generally speaking most have not reached high levels according to commonly used measures. However, as discussed later, there are clear individual differences.

Discussion of Research Question Two

Research question two asked, "What are domestic students' attitudes and experiences with, and what is the impact of, different aspects of the programme?" Previous studies have reported that different issues are involved with different elements of internationalisation and that domestic student outcomes vary accordingly (Bowry, 2002; Dunne, 2009; Hayle, 2008; Parson 2010). While question one focused on what kind of intercultural competences students have developed and to what extent, this question discusses in more detail which aspects of the Euroculture partnership contribute to certain impacts (positive, negative, lack of impact), how students experienced the different aspects, and what their attitudes are towards them. The main activities in which the partnership plays a role, which correspond to the main elements of IaH, were identified as: (a) facilitating intercultural contact through the presence of Euroculture students, (b) contribution to internationalisation of the curriculum (c) facilitating study abroad in Europe.

Facilitating intercultural contact through the presence of Euroculture students.

Exposure to Euroculture students appears to be one of the main factors contributing to the attainment of intercultural competences. Participants repeatedly claimed they had observed or experienced the things they had learnt about Europeans and their culture (see results for item

2.1 and 2.2), which demonstrates that exposure played a crucial role. The majority of participants said that their attitudes towards travelling, working and/or studying in Europe had been positively influenced by the Euroculture programme and in many of these cases this was precisely due to their interaction with Euroculture students. Response examples include; “meeting people has fuelled my interest to go abroad”, “now I have friends to visit” and “now I know more about the people and what it’s like to study in Europe”. The perceived importance and benefit of this contact was expressed in a number of different ways, such as; “it is needed for a globalised world”, “to understand differences in people and perspectives”, “for making friends”, “for broadening networks”, “to change stereotypes” and “to find things out you can’t read about”. Accordingly, a clear finding is that participants highly valued intercultural contact with Euroculture students and it appeared to be conducive to beneficial effects, which supports previous studies (Barger, 2004; Hayle, 2007; Jon, 2009, 2013; Paige, 1983; Parson, 2010). The question is then, what kind of contact did domestic and Euroculture students have?

Actual contact varied. On first appearance the results show that about half of the respondents claimed they had ‘good friendship’ and half had ‘some contact’, while only three had little to no interaction. However, deeper exploration revealed more variation. Besides two Marathi students, it was only English medium students who were good friends with Euroculture students and when this matter was probed in more detail in the interviews, many barriers to contact were exposed. This demonstrates that the mere presence of international students on campus does not prove sufficient for the occurrence of meaningful contact. The language barrier was the most influential factor hindering friendship between Marathi and Euroculture students, which is not surprising given that it is fundamental for communication and several previous studies also identified it as a crucial issue (Bowry, 2002; Dunne, 2009; Jon, 2009, 2013). Despite its relevance, findings suggest that language alone is not necessarily the decisive barrier. Especially the interviews revealed that openness, effort and motivation to integrate, on the part of both domestic and Euroculture students, play an equally important role. In line with several previous studies, some interview participants reflected on the notion of ‘closed communities’, not only on the part of Euroculture students also the Indian students in the department, as well as a reluctance to integrate due to perceived differences (e.g. Bowry, 2002; Dunne, 2009; Grayson, 2008; Sherry, Thomas, & Chui, 2010; Spencer-Rodgers, 2001; Thomson & Thomson, 1996). For example, they mentioned “I think they felt they might be intruding”, “we have formed groups and are in our comfort zones” and “there was a sense of ‘othering’; you are not like me and I am not like

you”. Thus, although nearly all English medium students claimed to have good friendships with Eurocultures students, the interviews revealed that the true nature of this showed substantial variation. Therefore, the crucial finding relating to contact was that it depends considerably on the individuals involved (something which is discussed in more detail later in the section *individual differences*).

Barriers to contact and the contact hypothesis. The findings can also be explained in terms of Allport’s (1956) *contact hypothesis*, whereby it is likely that not all of the essential conditions for positive contact are being met, especially concerning interactions between Marathi and Euroculture students. Marathi students (but also other domestic students) may not feel that they are of *equal status* with Euroculture students as, for example, English is seen as the language of the elite and so is an international education (both of which are associated with the Euroculture students). Several other indications of a feeling of unequal status were observed. For instance, according to faculty member Pallavi, students may be experiencing what she refers to as a “colonial hangover”, which basically means that matters relating to Europe are perceived as superior, and a student commented that people with fair skin are treated as always being ‘right’ in India. A few participants felt that Euroculture students were favoured by teachers, which Karky (2013) also warned about in her study in a south Indian university. The condition of having *common goals* was supported by the finding that both groups of students were keen to engage in cultural exchange. However, in terms of what they aim to get out of their time at university and the assessments they were working towards, these are very different. Furthermore, numerous students claimed that they did not participate in group work with Euroculture students, which would be the most obvious form of *intergroup cooperation* and might therefore be another lacking condition. This links to the final condition of *authority support*, a matter that was also addressed in the interviews. While faculty members said that they encourage interaction in class and if they got more involved then it would seem forced, the general consensus from the English students was that more should be done by the faculty and institution to facilitate integration. Regarding the additional processes for positive contact identified by Pettigrew (1993), while participants had learnt about the Euroculture ‘out-group’, only English students had generated effective ties and the condition of changing behaviour and ‘in-group’ reappraisal were less abundant.

Contribution to internationalisation of the curriculum. Two aspects of curriculum internationalisation linked to the Euroculture partnership emerged from the results: the impact of Euroculture students in class and impact of international lectures. While Parson

(2010) for example, found growth in students' intercultural competence was present for both situations, the findings from the present study are more ambiguous.

Impact on teaching and learning. A third of survey respondents said that there was no change in classes due to the presence of Euroculture students and that they had not undertaken group work together. This claim was even stronger in the interviews and one participant stated directly that Euroculture students have less impact in class, which was one of the main findings of Bowry's (2002) study. However, an equal number claimed that Euroculture students brought new perspectives to class discussions, allowing comparisons to be drawn between India and other countries and cultures. It appears likely that there was an impact of the Euroculture students in the class 'gender, sexuality and human rights' as gaining knowledge about these topics in Europe was a frequent response in the survey, which provides support for the statement made by Prof. Joshi (the lecturer in this class) in which she claims that domestic students opened up due to the presence of Euroculture students and in-depth comparative discussions occurred. In comparison to other classes in the department, the one in question was most like a seminar, centred on discussion and a group project. Thus, a noteworthy finding of this study is that level of discussion (supported by the teacher) in class and the nature of the topic, are likely to be crucial factors for the generation of beneficial impacts based on the presence of Euroculture students.

The findings from faculty lecturers were less ambiguous. They unanimously claimed that teaching and class room dynamics have changed both due to the presence of Euroculture students in class and because they have been influenced by European teaching styles (e.g. more discussion in class and better use of visual media), and they pointed out that this is not something that students would necessarily notice. Pallavi for example argued that the presence of Euroculture students in class causes a change in power dynamics whereby more power goes to them. This upholds Leask's (2009) notion of the 'hidden curriculum' and that internationalisation of such processes (e.g. the way a teacher organises learning activities, selects content, power and authority, etc.) can have a positive impact on students' intercultural development; a conclusion that was also supported by Drake (1984).

Impact of European lectures. Overall, findings concerning the impact of, and attitudes towards, international lectures conveyed conflicting opinions. Roughly half of respondents indicated that they gained academic skills and intercultural knowledge. The other half, which consisted mainly of English medium students, claimed that the content of lectures and/or the intentions of lecturers were inappropriate in various ways (e.g. they were too basic, not understandable, lecturers had their own agenda and seemed like they were there on

business, etc.), an outcome Schoorman (2000) also corroborated. However, sociology faculty members claim that students might have a negative bias as, for example, classes have been made compulsory and are additional to their regular classes. Although this may well be the case, students in the interviews described quite specific reasons as to why they think they were inappropriate. One explanation for these contradictory opinions may be that the quality and relevance of the lectures themselves do in fact vary considerably and therefore students form different overall impressions. The finding that English medium students tended to have more critical perceptions, especially relating to the content of lectures, might reflect their higher academic standards and expectations, or that the topic of Euroculture is not appropriate for sociology students in India. Mestenhauser (1998) also claimed that topic incompatibility is a hindrance to internationalisation. Although it is understandably challenging to find an appropriate level and content, it seems that more attention needs to be paid to doing so and that visiting lecturers are likely to need more support in this respect in order to enhance their beneficial effects.

Facilitating study abroad in Europe. The main finding was that in spite of participants specifying both appealing and unappealing factors about studying in Europe, only four students had applied for the semester abroad (the total number amongst all students of the department in the past two years was five) and even these students explained that they were very hesitant about actually going. As previously mentioned, one interpretation could be that on the whole students' behaviour is not internationally oriented, even though many claim they want to study abroad. However, looking at the reasons for why they did not apply, many external issues were perceived. Students felt that there is a lack of information (especially about courses of study), insufficient funding, the timing is unsuitable, and not everyone has the opportunity to apply (e.g. there is not enough support for Marathi students who face a language barrier). This is in keeping with the general criticism of study abroad: that it does not involve all students and in many cases it is dependent on economic means (e.g. Nilsson, 2003). Thus, the barrier was not necessarily their internal willingness or openness to studying in Europe. In view of these deliberations as well as interview content in which students say that it is not worth the extra cost and that they would rather opt for a PhD for example, a reasonable interpretation is that students are ultimately focused on long term economic and academic benefits rather than cultural exchange (for further discussion, see *India specific influences* section below). Two students mentioned several anxieties associated with study abroad, which is congruent with a prevailing finding in Jon's (2013) study in South Korea

and may be linked to a lack of previous international experience. As study abroad provides the deepest form of international exposure, it should be more supported.

Discussion of Research Question Three

Research question three asked, “What background variables most influence the impact of the partnership on domestic students and how?” Previous studies have found that a variety of demographic and background variables can influence student outcomes of IaH activities. Parson (2010), who addressed this issue in most detail, found an effect of travel and study abroad, age, political interests, foreign ancestry, major of study, to name but a few. However, in a qualitative study such as this, it is not possible to determine the effects of so many specific variables and many are not relevant as they are the same across all participants (e.g. major of study, country, race, etc.). The following four types of variables, identified as most important for this case, are discussed: language medium (the main focus), MA level and other previous international exposure, individual differences and India specific influences.

Language medium. Language medium is a fundamental and distinctive variable amongst students of the department, especially with regard to academic aspects of the university experiences but also social ones. It was therefore believed that it would be likely to influence experiences with the Euroculture partnership, especially because English is crucial for communicating with the Euroculture students, for understanding the lectures and for studying in Europe. This made it all the more interesting to explore the difference between English and Marathi medium students’ perceptions of and experiences with the Euroculture programme, in order to find out what effect this has.

Many of the variations identified between the two groups have already been discussed as they were considered central to the findings concerning the previous two research questions. This part of the discussion will therefore focus on summarising overall patterns and observations. It is also important to point out again that Marathi and English medium groups also differed according to gender (more female English and more male Marathi), implying that it is impossible to entirely rule out that this variable is not also contributing to the effects. However, as will be further discussed, findings suggest that it is more likely to be language medium impacting results.

As international programmes usually cooperate with universities in India that are entirely English monolingual (Yeravdekar & Tiwari, 2012), the language dynamics at the Department of Sociology present an interesting variable. Students and faculty felt that this diversity means that internationalisation reaches out to students who may otherwise not be

prone to such exposure, and findings demonstrate that this has some beneficial effects. On the other hand, results also exposed the opinion that it increases the divide between Marathi and English students and that Marathi students generally feel less involved with these international aspects of their education. This lack of connection to the programme was also exposed by some general observation made by the researcher. Whilst administering the surveys, Marathi medium students frequently said that this (meaning the Euroculture programme) does not involve them, which was not the immediate response of the English medium students. Although the survey was translated into Marathi for clarity and to encourage in-depth answers, in general Marathi students' responses were much shorter and they left more items unanswered. Nevertheless, some interesting findings were revealed as the researcher explained that they should try to complete the survey anyway, and if they felt they were not involved then this is what they could say.

It was observed that responses of Marathi and English medium participants noticeably differ for certain themes in the findings much more than others.¹⁰ No obvious differences were found in the responses within the theme *benefit of the partnership for domestic students*, suggesting that Marathi student's also profit, mostly by gaining knowledge of other cultures through cultural exchange and direct exposure (as discussed for research question one). Regarding the theme *impact of internationalisation of the curriculum*, the only obvious difference was that English medium students were more critical.

Different patterns of responses were observed for the theme *attitudes towards studying in Europe and other international behaviour*. Notably less Marathi students had attended an international event and four did not want to study, travel, or work in Europe after they graduated, whereas all English participants claimed they would. No Marathi students applied to study in Europe and, although the number was low for English students also (only four applied), there was an obvious difference with regard to why they had not applied. English medium students gave more diverse responses, such as; various anxieties, a preference for different destinations and in particular due to the undesirable timing of the exchange. Marathi medium students' reasoning for not applying was exclusively because of insufficient funding and the language barrier. This might mean that Marathi students did not think about it as critically as the English students as it is not even a real possibility or, that they would be more open to studying abroad if it were possible. Importantly, it supports the assumption that language is the decisive factor between the groups that is causing the

¹⁰ Note that Marathi students did not make any suggestions contributing to the final theme, "Improvements and future development", as this arose from interview responses only.

variation, rather than gender. This also appears to be the case for the theme *interaction with Euroculture students*. The results were that Marathi students had less close contact with the Euroculture students than those of English medium, and the most common reasoning was because of a language barrier (further explanations have already been discussed with regard to the intergroup contact theory). Thus, while both groups of students have gained knowledge of other cultures, findings suggest that English medium participants' attitudes, behaviour and friendships are more internationally oriented.

MA level and other previous international exposure. Only four students (all of English medium) had previous international exposure, in terms of having meaningful contact with foreigners (i.e. foreign friends) and having travelled, worked and/or studied abroad prior to studying in the Department of Sociology. This is something that makes the conditions in this study different from the previous related studies, which were conducted in countries in which such exposure is more common. Of these four participants, only the data from Ravina, who had studied abroad, showed notably more evidence of intercultural competence and to a higher level. Her survey and interview revealed that she has great knowledge of Europe, from issues such as politics to small everyday matters such as “how much things cost in supermarkets and where tomatoes come from”, which she learned from the exchange students. She could evaluate things in a cultural context and showed a deep understanding of the Euroculture and Marathi students' perspectives and reflected upon India culture. This is demonstrated in the following snippets from her interview:

I think the Euroculture students wanted to interact but they are used to socialising in different ways ... going to Canada has made me realise that Indian society is very judgemental ... there is a fundamental difference in the understanding between Marathi, English and international students due to such different backgrounds.

Her behaviour was also very internationally oriented, most evident from the fact that she applied to study in Europe for a semester (although she ended up going to Canada) and was recently accepted onto the full Euroculture degree programme. According to Bennett's (1986) DMIS, these attitudes and behaviours are signs of an individual in the final *integration* stage of intercultural sensitivity. As Ravina was the only participant who had studied abroad, it is therefore likely that this is the main contributing factor to her apparent high level of intercultural competence. However, it is also evident that the Euroculture programme has given her connections to such opportunities, which she repeatedly acknowledges in her interview. This suggests that study abroad, in comparison to travel abroad and IaH,

contributes to greater intercultural competence; a finding that reflected Parson's (2010) and Hayle's (2008).

However, all seniors had more exposure than the juniors, as they have been in the department for one year longer and have therefore experienced an extra intake of Euroculture students and lecturers. Parson (2010) found that years at university are correlated with higher intercultural competences scores (across various measures) and that this was due to more exposure to various methods of internationalisation rather than age. Thus, in the analysis phase the responses of juniors and seniors were compared, however, no noticeable patterns of differences were observed. This may be because there is only a year's difference between the juniors and seniors whereas, Parson's (2010) study looked at students entering an undergraduate degree to those leaving, which in Canada and the USA is four years. Another reason may be because of the methodology employed in the present study, which did not allow for good comparison of change with exposure over time (for further discussion see "future research" section in the conclusion chapter).

Individual differences. A noteworthy finding of this study is that, although numerous patterns and themes were detected, the impact of the partnership varies greatly depending on the individual. This shows the complexity of the matter at hand and that there is not a uniform outcome as literature often suggests (Dunne, 2009). This was evident from both implicit variation in responses, and from the fact that student and faculty participants explicitly recognised that several issues or aspects of the partnership addressed in the study vary depending on the individual.

Explicit references were made in numerous interviews, especially regarding perceptions of the impact of the programme on Marathi medium students. For example, interviewees expressed how certain students were shy while others had made more effort to learn English and communicate with the Euroculture students. Or they described their opinion but acknowledged that other people's experiences may deviate from their own (e.g., Pradnya said, "I did not put much effort into making friends with Euroculture students but Ravina did a great job").

With regard to implicit individual differences, two English medium senior students had very negative attitudes towards the partnership, something that came across in their responses to most of the questions. For example, a brief overview of Pradnya's responses shows that she did not ask Euroculture students about their culture and therefore she did not learn much. She said the exchange (meaning the short term study abroad opportunity) was not good academically, that it was expensive and that six months was too short; that the

domestic and Euroculture students didn't understand each other, and that she did not make good friends. She also asserted that the partnership enhances inequalities. For example, European lecturers come to the department on business, since education is a commodity, and make biased generalisations about India. It is clear that this participant has a negative attitude towards the partnership and that it has had little impact on her intercultural competences. However, it is normal to find some extreme cases in any kind of research. The exact opposite is the case for other individuals, as previously outlined. Ravina in particular stood out in her very different reactions to the programme (see sub-section *MA level and other previous international exposure*).

India specific influences. To the best of the researchers' awareness, no other studies have looked at the impact of IaH activities and joint international programmes on domestic students in India. Although they cannot be generalised, this study revealed some interesting findings which appear to be linked to the Indian context, most notably: language, competition, class and caste. These are complex matters influencing all aspects of Indian society including higher education. Thus, it is not possible to analyse and discuss in detail the roles they are playing on the outcomes of internationalisation in the present research. The purpose of this section is to bring to light why these four aspects influencing findings may be specific to the Indian context so that they can be addressed in future research in the field.

How language has influenced the outcomes of the present study has already been discussed. The rise in English as the dominant 'world language' is central to the internationalisation of higher education and it is therefore an issue in all non-English speaking countries (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009). However, in India the role of language in education (and other structures in society) is particularly complex and very likely unique (Jayaram, 1993). This is due to the abundance of local, regional and national languages and, perhaps more influentially, the complex political and historical associations relating to these. For example, in India English is associated with British colonial power, a language spoken by the elite in society who had access to education and to some extent it has stayed this way, which the findings of this research also imply (Jayaram, 1993). Furthermore, language is also associated with the politic around regionalisms, which is very strong in India, and one of the students mentioned that this causes biases in the department.

A certain kind of competition, linked to a large population and a lack of resources, is a characteristic of Indian society and is evident also with regard to achieving high attainment in an educational context (Larson & Verma, 1999). Several findings in this study suggest that this affects attitude towards, and the impact of, the Euroculture programme. For example, in a

positive sense, the lecturer Pallavi said that Euroculture students bring new skills and raise standards amongst local students who are eager to keep up. On the other hand, Ravina explained that she has not spoken much about her international experience studying in Canada as other students may perceive this as boasting, which she also puts down to “...competition in society makes people more aggressive and judgmental”. Also linked to competition, research on Indian students’ perceptions of European higher education, supported by the European Commission, found that the economic and academic gain of international education is generally valued more, or exclusively so, in comparison to the social-cultural benefits (Academic Cooperation Association, 2005). This explains students’ adverse perceptions of the short term study in Europe opportunity, which they claim is of little benefit and in a few cases even the Euroculture partnership itself. For example, Ravina mentioned that the Euroculture subject matter is not very useful for securing employment in India. It can also offer an explanation as to why some students felt that the content of European lectures was inappropriate, as it is likely that they were not directly related to their academic development. On a more positive note, the reason some students felt that gaining a different perspective through the programme was particularly important for sociology students as it is central to their discipline.

International programmes or providers of education in India are in general perceived negatively due to the competition they cause for Indian institutions while bringing little economic benefit for the country (David, Sanyal, & Wildemeersch, 2007). International students could also be associated with competition for Indian university places. Although the EM Euroculture partnership is very much cooperative and not directly for economic benefit of the EU, students do not necessarily realise this, which can have a negative impact on their perceptions. This was evident from finding that some students felt European lecturers come to the department on business “to sell their colleges and impress us as education is a commodity” (Pradnya). Thus, it would be beneficial to explain in more detail the aims of the programme and that it is held in many different departments in the European partner institutions, so that students understand that the subject is applicable to many different disciplines.

The programme could also be implicated with a form of competition amongst faculty members. According to the lecturer Pallavi, when Euroculture students choose your courses this is perceived as an affirmation of quality and therefore a kind of competition arises amongst the teachers. She explained this in terms of the previously mentioned “colonial hangover” effect, where Europe and Europeans are still associated with a kind of superiority.

Further findings revealed that India's history under British colonial rule appears to impact the programme in other ways. For example, some students mentioned that negative stereotypes about Europe and its people exist because of colonialism, but that the programme has helped to diminish these due to largely positive experiences with the Euroculture students.

This study did not question students' caste or indicators of social class, as it is a particularly sensitive and complex issue that was out of the scope of the research, and it is therefore not possible to say whether this has influenced outcomes. However, some students claimed that these societal structures have an effect on attitudes towards, and involvement with, the programme. Most notably, that friendships with the Euroculture students and studying abroad is not only limited to those who can speak English, it also unofficially depends on the class and caste of students. Thus, while the caste system has been legally forbidden, this suggests that IaH in India may not be benefiting students of all castes and that this is an issue that needs to be addressed in practice and in future research.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

The final chapter presents the conclusions and is divided into five main sections. It begins with a summary of the study, focusing on the main findings. This is followed by a discussion of the limitations of the research and the implications and recommendations that have been exposed. In the final sections some ideas for future research are presented and final concluding comments.

Summary of Study

There have been significant changes in the landscape of internationalisation including the development of the ‘internationalisation at home’ movement. Under this impetus, it is not necessary to go abroad to benefit from an international educational experience as, through internationalisation of the curriculum and exposure to domestic and international student diversity, all students can develop international awareness and intercultural skills. And, the mobility of people and programmes is no longer only an objective for internationalisation; it is also a means for IaH. However, there is a general lack of research on the outcomes of internationalisation on domestic students and no such research has been conducted in an Indian context. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore how the case of the University of Pune’s partnership with the Euroculture programme impacts domestic students through its contribution to the internationalisation of the host department. The three primary research questions guiding the study were:

1. Is there a beneficial impact of the partnership on domestic students’ intercultural competence?
2. What are domestic students’ attitudes and experiences with, and what is the impact of, different aspects of the programme?
3. What background variables most influence the impact of the partnership on domestic students and how?

This study was carried out at the Department of Sociology, University of Pune, using a qualitative case study design. Two instruments were employed to generate the data to answer the research questions. An open-ended survey was completed by 29 students (either in Marathi or English), of which 9 English medium respondents also took part in an in-depth interview as well as 4 faculty members. The data from the survey in conjunction with the interviews were analysed qualitatively and presented according to five main themes. Findings

were discussed in relation to the research questions and previous theoretical and imperial literature.

Main findings. Most students felt that they had personally benefited from the Euroculture programme partnership and that it is important for the department in general; especially as the sociology discipline requires students to understand society from different perspectives. The main beneficial outcome on intercultural competence was gaining knowledge of other cultures and this was associated with direct exposure to people with different cultures and perspectives. There was some evidence of internal attitude change but substantially less regarding behavioural change. While most students had not increased their attendance of international events, the majority claimed they would like to travel, work or study in Europe after they graduate and that their attitudes to this have been positively impacted by exposure to Europeans.

Findings revealed how attitudes towards the programme and its impact on domestic students vary, relating to the three main ways in which the partnership contributes to the internationalisation of the department. Although one of the main elements of the programme is to facilitate studying in Europe, very few students applied. This is mainly attributed to external barriers (such as language, insufficient funding, inappropriate timing and a lack of information) rather than their internal attitudes or openness to this form of international behaviour. The programme facilitates intercultural contact through the presence of Euroculture students. English medium students had more meaningful interaction with the Euroculture students than Marathi medium, for whom language was a barrier. However, individual difference, on the part of Euroculture and domestic students, appear to be most influential. Students feel that more should be done by the faculty members and the institution to facilitate integration as situational factors play a role. Regarding internationalisation of the curriculum, Euroculture students' contribution to intercultural learning in class was limited by the level of discussion and group work that was facilitated by teaching staff and the nature of the topic itself. Quality and relevance of European guest lectures vary as well as students' expectations. While around half gained knowledge and skills, the other half (mainly English Medium participants) perceived their content or intentions of lecturers as inappropriate.

This study focused on examining the influence of the language medium of participants on the impact of the partnership. A general observation was that Marathi medium students were less inclined to participate in the research and that English medium students tended to be more critical. The main differences were regarding attitudes to study in Europe and level and nature of contact with Euroculture students, for both of which they felt they

were restricted due the language barrier. A notable finding was that impact, especially with regard to intercultural contact, varies greatly according to the individual. This is demonstrated for example, by a student who had an almost exclusively negative attitude towards the programme, in contrast to another who showed notable high levels of intercultural competence attributed mainly to her previous international exposure, having studied abroad. No difference however, was found for other students with previous international exposure or seniors who had experienced an extra year in the department. Finally, some influences on outcomes appear to be related specific to the Indian context and often its colonial past. Most notably, the complex role and status that language plays in India, the influences of a specific kind of competition in the society and references were made to variations depending on the caste and class of students.

Limitations

This study is subject to several limitations related to the methodology employed and the interpretation of findings. Although it was not intended, the findings cannot be generalised. They are bounded to the domestic students (although the reciprocal nature of intercultural contact is recognised) and the Euroculture programme partnership in the Department of Sociology in the one and a half year period focused on by this study.

The fact that the researcher was one of the Euroculture students who had studied in the department in the most recent intake (August-December 2012) gave crucial additional insight into the matter and helped with conducting the research. This is likely to increase participant biases, such as the urge to respond in a way they feel is socially desirable or that will please the researcher, and the concern that the information could more easily get passed on to faculty members (despite insurance from the researcher that results will remain anonymous). Furthermore, it is likely to intensify experimenter biases; with regard to the way the researcher behaves with participants, with the design of the research (e.g. bias in sampling) and, although the categorisation process is transparent, it is likely to influence the researchers' interpretation of findings.

The Euroculture programme is not the only contribution to internationalisation in the department and therefore other factors may influence the intercultural impact on students. Most notably, there were other international students and even a few other European exchange students. Especially with regard to intercultural contact, it is therefore difficult to isolate the impact of Euroculture specifically. However, other European students were less in

number and the programmes through which they come are not known to the domestic students in the way that Euroculture is.

Finally, the survey tended to yield relatively short answers, especially from Marathi medium students, despite phrasing questions in a way to encourage in-depth responses. This was not so problematic in terms of English medium students, as they were interviewed to gain more in-depth responses. However, as it was not possible to interview Marathi students due to the language barrier, for this group there was an all-round lack of in-depth data and they did not have the same opportunity to express themselves.

Implications and Recommendations

The findings of this research have implications for the running and improvement of the Euroculture programme partnership, for the aims of Erasmus Mundus and for internationalisation of higher education in India.

Implications for the Euroculture programme partnership. Alongside positive outcomes, findings have exposed which aspects of the programme partnership fail to have an impact on domestic students, or in a few circumstances even have a negative one, despite their potential benefit if one considers the outcomes of IaH according to previous studies. This has the implication of highlighting areas and means of improvement, which is particularly important as the aim is to strengthen cooperation and work towards the Department of Sociology at the University of Pune becoming a full partner in the years to come. There were problems with creating meaningful contact, especially between Marathi and Euroculture students, and a few students proposed that more institutional support to facilitate interaction should be provided. Several concrete ideas were suggested, such as, icebreaking events and that students should all live in the dorms together. Jon (2013) found that a ‘buddy’ and a ‘culture and language tandem’ programme were effective in enhancing integration and students who had participated in these programmes showed higher level of intercultural competences. In light of such evidence and bearing in mind personal experience in the department, the researcher makes the recommendation that such programmes should be implemented with institutional support. As well as facilitating integration, a buddy programme could help Euroculture and other exchange students with settling in to life in Pune. A language and cultural tandem programme would help Euroculture students learn the basics of the Marathi language and culture and give Marathi students more of a chance to practise their English; it would therefore very probably bring Marathi and Euroculture students together in a supportive environment.

Some participants felt the Euroculture students contributed very little to their intercultural education in class. As well as institution support, this research has highlighted the need for faculty members to do more to increase general levels of discussion in class and to encourage intercultural group work, which would also facilitate exchange of ideas between the students of different cultures. Furthermore, as around a third of students perceived the content of European guest lectures as inappropriate, visiting speakers may need more preparatory guidance. Focusing on developing competencies and academic skills (which is part of the Euroculture programme) may be more appropriate than other Euroculture related topics. A very important implication of this is that best practices in teaching and learning need to be supported, for example by developing a guide book, which the Euroculture programme partnership could collaborate with.

The researcher recommends increased support for the Euroculture certificate course (which is already in its first phases), as this is an official way of internationalising the curriculum, and of enhancing the presently limited integration and a sense of inclusion in the programme (two of the things that were pointed out as negative impacts). The researchers' interpretation is that it provides an affordable way for all students to get involved, to learn more about South Asian-European relations and about European culture. Smaller groups and closer cooperation with Euroculture students will help with integration and exchange of knowledge and cultures. Many Marathi students signed up for the pilot run of the course in the winter semester of 2011, which shows that they are interested; however, a lack of funding is holding back the strengthening of the course.

Findings show that there were a low number of applications and numerous issues with the opportunity to study in Europe which the programme facilitates; for example, not all students feel they have the same possibility to apply and there is a lack of information and funding. As studying in Europe is one of the most tangible elements of the partnership for the domestic students, improvements in this area would likely improve overall perceptions of the programme. The practical issues should at least be addressed in order to make it more appealing, despite students' not seeing great economic benefit. For example, both official and unofficial information portals need to be improved. The researcher recommends one well run Pune-Euroculture social networking group, with the help of alumni and current students, to provide student-to-student information and sustained intercultural dialogue.

This study found a low participation in extra-curricular international events. The author recommends that it could be improved by asking students to organise an event

together; for example, an international day in the department. Their personal involvement would automatically increase attendance and integration.

Implications for Erasmus Mundus. Through joint Masters programmes such as Euroculture, EM aims to enhance the quality of European higher education, to promote dialogue and understanding between people and cultures and to contribute to the development of human resources and the international cooperation capacity of Higher education institutions in third-countries by increasing mobility between them and European Union countries (European Commission, n.d., About EM). The findings provide evidence that the EM Euroculture programme is helping to achieve these aims. Importantly, they show that, also through cooperation also in the realm of teaching and learning, the programme can contribute to the development of intercultural competences even in non-mobile students in third-countries, which is an increasing crucial part of human resource development for today's globalised society. Furthermore, cross-cultural dialogue and understanding between people and cultures was one of the main beneficial outcomes identified in this case. As well as providing support for the programme's contribution to these aims, findings also have the implication that EM should focus more on curriculum cooperation, as this has the potential for wider beneficial impacts on non-mobile students also. Regarding this case study, if the programme truly aims to enhance the quality of European higher education, then it needs to ensure that the information and application procedures are more comprehensible. Finally, there is the implication that Erasmus Mundus should pay more attention to assessing the broader impact of their programmes, as currently their research and evaluation is almost exclusively conducted from the perspective of mobile students and staff (see for example, EMA Graduate Impact Survey, n.d.)

Implications for Internationalisation at Home in India. The positive impact of IaH for domestic students, in this case through the Euroculture programme, demonstrates that more efforts and resources should be devoted to this dimension of higher education in India, especially as the number of students who study abroad in comparison to the total student population, is relatively low (Mitra, 2010). Internationalisation of the curriculum is central to the idea of IaH. However, as the head of the department expressed, it is very difficult to make an official changes to the curriculum in public Indian universities, which is an obstacle for its internationalisation. Findings demonstrate the need and importance for development in national and university policies and practices, to allow for such developments to be implemented.

Future Research

This study has raised several ideas and issues that would be interesting to investigate in future research regarding both this case and others too. The qualitative methodology utilised in the present study yielded some interesting, in-depth and individualistic findings; however, there was an issue identifying valid evidence of development in students' intercultural competences. Therefore, in all suggestions for future research it would be beneficial to use a widely accepted quantitative measure of intercultural competence, alongside qualitative methods, to gain a more accurate assessment of development. However, when choosing this measure it is crucial to bear in mind its applicability to the Indian context. Although Parson's (2010) measure is arguably the most comprehensive and is designed specifically for assessing student's intercultural competence as an outcome of internationalisation of higher education, it was written from a Western perspective and as of yet does not claim cross-cultural validity. Hammer and Bennet's (1998, 2001) IDI is one of the most frequently used instruments and the authors' claim that it is valid for use in any culture. This is supported for example by Jon (2013), who used it in a similar setting with students in South Korea.

As one of the main recommendations for the improvement of the partnership is that faculty and the institution (in this case the Department of Sociology) should provide more support mechanisms for integrating Euroculture and domestic students, interesting future research would be to set up a 'buddy' or 'tandem' programme and test the impact on domestic students' intercultural competences. Using quantitative and qualitative methods to measure the difference between students who participate in them and those who do not, would give a more accurate assessment of their value and how they should be implemented, or if at all.

Parson (2010) found that 'years at university' was positively correlated with intercultural competence, due to increased exposure to various aspects of internationalisation. Although seniors in this case had an extra year of exposure with the partnership in comparison to juniors, this study did not find any obvious differences between the two groups regarding attitudes towards, and the impact of, the programme. However, it seems likely that this is due to the methodology employed in this study. More appropriate for future research would be to conduct a longitudinal study; using quantitative and qualitative methods to measure student outcomes starting from when they first enter the department, again after the first year and finally when they leave two years later.

Finally, regarding future research for this case, it would also be interesting to compare the student outcomes of internationalisation in the Department of Sociology with another similar department at the University of Pune, in order to explore whether the closer cooperation involved with hosting the joint Euroculture programme partnership has a different impact.

This research has also raised questions and ideas that would be interesting to investigate in other cases. This study only touched upon looking at how specifically the Indian context might influence variation in the domestic student outcomes of internationalisation. Nevertheless, this revealed some interesting observations, which form a basis for a more extensive investigation of how certain aspects of India's history (e.g. with colonialism) and society (e.g. caste, class, and socio-economic background) influence student outcomes of internationalisation. This could be useful to target its implementation so that it benefits as many students as possible. In general, as the internationalisation of higher education is increasing in magnitude in India, this research calls out for more attention to be paid to the social-cultural rationales, with a focus on developing the intercultural competences of domestic students, which until now has largely been neglected.

Concluding Comments

With regard to the original inspiration of this research, the outcome has shown that there is a reciprocal nature to the benefit I gained from my intercultural experience in the Department of Sociology at the University of Pune, made possible because of the Euroculture programme partnership. Findings demonstrate how cross boarder mobility of people and programmes interacts with IaH. They support the idea that IaH, which in this case is facilitated through the Euroculture programme partnership, can have a beneficial impact on domestic students' intercultural competences. This case confirms the complexity of the issue and has shown how the level and nature of this impact varies according to the element of the programme, particular student variables and matters specific to the Indian context. Most importantly, the findings from this study have: made a unique contribution to the research on internationalisation; highlighted areas of programme partnership where there is room for improving the impact it can have on the domestic students of the host department; enabled concrete recommendations for improvements to be made; and raised interesting questions for further research in the future.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Survey

Effects and Outcomes of the Euroculture Exchange Programme on the Students of the Host Department, University of Pune

Instructions:

- Reflect on **ALL OF YOUR SEMESTERS** as a student of the sociology department, University of Pune.
- The researcher is interested in **YOUR OPINION** – there are no right or wrong answers.
- The intention is to gain in-depth data. Please take your time and try to **ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS, EXPLAIN YOUR ANSWERS, GIVE EXAMPLES and AS MUCH DETAIL AS POSSIBLE.**
- If you need more space, write down the question number and continue your answer on the back.

Consent:

- **In completing this survey the participant gives consent for the results to be used in the researcher's thesis and for publication.**
- **All participants will remain anonymous. If you agree, please provide your name and email address, so that the researcher can contact you, in case follow-up or clarification is necessary.**

Name _____

Email _____

1. Background information

1.1. Male ___ Female ___

1.2. Junior ___ Senior ___

1.3. English medium ___ Marathi medium ___

1.4. From which state/country do you come from? _____

1.5. Did you have foreign friends before your MA Sociology studies? *If yes, please describe where they are from, how you became friends, how much contact you had*

1.6. Have you ever travelled, worked or studies abroad? *If yes, please describe which, where and how long for*

2. Benefit of the Euroculture exchange programme

2.1. Why do you think it is **important/not important** that the sociology department has the **Euroculture exchange programme**?

2.2. Apart from the students who go abroad on exchange, do you think **you and other students benefit** from the exchange programme? Yes___ No___

2.2.1. If yes, how? If no, why? _____

2.3. What new **cultural** aspects have you learnt from the European exchange students or visiting lecturers?

E.g. with regard to values, habits, time orientation, greetings, studies, knowledge of different countries/the European Union

3. Studying in Europe and other international behaviour

3.1. In your opinion, what is **appealing and/or not appealing** about **studying in Europe**?

3.2. Did you apply for one of the **scholarships to study in Europe**? Yes___ No___

3.2.1. Why or why not?

3.3. Since studying in the department, have you attended any **international events**?

E.g. International food festival

3.4. After you graduate, would you like to **travel, work, or study in Europe**?

Please explain (e.g. which, where exactly, for how long)

3.4.1. Has your **attitude** towards travelling, working or studying abroad **been influenced** (positively or negatively) by the **European exchange students** or **visiting lecturers**?

Please explain _____

4. Contact and experiences with Euroculture students and guest lecturers

4.1. **How much** and **what type of contact** have you had with the Euroculture exchange students?

*E.g. we only had classes together; we spoke a little outside of class; we had lunch together; we were good friends; we often saw each other outside of university; I will/have contact after they leave...
(Fourth semester students, please describe differences between the two intakes of Euroculture student)*

4.1.1. Please explain **why** this was this case

E.g. I would have liked more contact but there was a language barrier, I was shy, I tried to have contact but they were less willing, we had a lot of contact because we had a lot in common...

4.2. Are the Euroculture exchange students **treated differently** compared to the other students in the department? *If yes, please explain **how** and **why***

4.3 Have you had any **negative experiences** with the European **students**, lectures **and/or** or the **programme itself**?

If yes, please explain _____

4.4. How did **group work** or **classes** (teaching and learning) **change** because of the presence of European students?

4.5. What did you **like/dislike** about **lectures given by European speakers** and, if at all, what **benefits** do you think they have?

Appendix B: Faculty Interview Protocol

Changes in the department

- Have you noticed any changes in the department since you took over the hosting of the Euroculture programme partnership? Please explain?
- Do you think there are any negative aspects to the partnership?

Changes in classroom learning and teaching dynamics

- How are your classes different when Euroculture students attend?
- Does your teaching change due to the presence of Euroculture students in class?
- Why do you think it is important for the students/faculty to have the European guest lectures?
- Have you spent time at one/some of the European partner universities? How was this experience?

Impact on students from varying backgrounds (e.g. language medium, level)

- How do you think students benefit from the partnership (presence of Euroculture students and faculty), if at all?
- What competences do you think they gain, if any?
- Do you think that Marathi students benefit despite a language barrier? How? Why not?
- Do you see any issues with the interaction of Euroculture and domestic students?

Improvements and future developments

- In your opinion, how could the partnership be improved or developed in the future for the benefit of the sociology students, faculty and department in general?

Appendix C: Interview Consent Form

Consent to participant in the interview investigating the Euroculture programme

- I am aware of the purpose of this research and I have been informed that the interview will be recorded (unless I opted out).
- I understand that confidentiality will be protected through the use of pseudonyms, appropriate handling of the data, and that the findings will be published in the researcher's Master's thesis.
- I have been notified that I may withdraw at any point and that I can obtain the interview transcript to request changes and/or withdraw my data.
- I am aware that if I have any questions I can contact Larissa Wood at: woodlarissa@gmail.com

I have read and understood this consent form and I agree to participate in the interview.

Name (please print): _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Email address: _____