International Student Transitions

International Student Transitions:

$A\,Framework\,for\,Success$

Ву

Maureen Snow Andrade and K. James Hartshorn

Cambridge Scholars Publishing



International Student Transitions: A Framework for Success

By Maureen Snow Andrade and K. James Hartshorn

This book first published 2019

Cambridge Scholars Publishing

Lady Stephenson Library, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE6 2PA, UK

British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

Copyright © 2019 by Maureen Snow Andrade and K. James Hartshorn

All rights for this book reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without the prior permission of the copyright owner.

ISBN (10): 1-5275-3034-5 ISBN (13): 978-1-5275-3034-8

CONTENTS

List of Illustrationsvii
List of Tablesix
Chapter One
Chapter Two
Chapter Three
Chapter Four
Chapter Five
Chapter Six
Chapter Seven
Index

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Fig. 1-1. Framework for international student success	4
Fig. 2-1. Framework for international student success	
Fig. 3-1. Framework for international student success.	40
Fig. 3-2. Language models.	41
Fig. 3-3. Framework for international student success	58
Fig. 4-1. Interrelationship of learning components	67
Fig. 4-2. Cocurricular domains and their overlap	68
Fig. 4-3. Model for designing cocurricular training.	76
Fig. 4-4. Student response form.	80
Fig. 5-1. Framework for international student success	90
Fig. 5-2. The structure of an evaluation.	92
Fig. 5-3. Example of criteria in evaluation.	
Fig. 5-4. Relationship between assessment and evaluation.	98
Fig. 5-5. Assessments during the academic career.	99
Fig. 6-1. Framework for international student success	110
Fig. 6-2. Theory of constraints.	111
Fig. 6-3. A CRT example.	
Fig. 6-4. Framework for international student success	122
Fig. 6-5. Examining root causes through the four frames	127
Fig. 7-1. Framework for international student success	
Fig. 7-2. Lewin's (1951) change model	135
Fig. 7-3. Kotter and Cohen's (2002) eight-step process to change	
(p. 6)	
Fig. 7-4. Change curve model.	
Fig. 7-5. Change-visioning matrix	
Fig. 7-6. The POP tool	
Fig. 7-7. Collaboration	
Fig. 7-8. Course preparation	
Fig. 7-9. A traditional lecture	155

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2-1. Relationships among practices, views and beliefs,	
and strategies	30
Table 3-1. English Language Development through course redesign	47
Table 3-2. Pedagogical issues and strategies	50
Table 4-1. Student orientation	81
Table 4-2. Physical and mental domains	82
Table 4-3. Sociocultural domain	83
Table 4-4. Linguistic domain	84
Table 4-5. Academic domain	85
Table 4-6. Internships and work placement	86
Table 6-1. Components of the theory of constraints	113
Table 6-2. The four frames	126
Table 7-1. The change curve	148
Table 7-2 Project scope	152

CHAPTER ONE

A FRAMEWORK FOR INTERNATIONAL STUDENT SUCCESS: AN OVERVIEW

The United States hosts more than one million international students who speak English as a second language (ESL)—more than any other nation (IIE 2017). However, ESL students in the US are not equally distributed. Some US universities host large numbers of international students, and in some individual programs, the majority of the students are ESL learners. Nevertheless, the proportion of ESL learners in US universities overall has been relatively small (5.2%) compared with many other English-speaking countries such as Canada (12.9%), Australia (20%), and the United Kingdom (21%) (IIE 2017). Due to smaller proportions of ESL learners in many US universities, the unique needs of these students are not well understood or adequately addressed in many contexts, resulting in a wide variety of challenges that undermine the academic success of these students and the universities who admit them. However, this will need to change as the number of ESL students in the US continues to climb. For more than a decade, the number of ESL students in US universities has continued to increase each year, resulting in an 85% increase compared to a decade ago (IIE 2017). These numbers are predicted to continue to increase substantially in the coming years (Kanno 2015).

Therefore, the purpose of this book is to help universities in the US prepare to successfully meet the needs of this growing student demographic. The following pages in this book will share important insights from experts in the field and the experiences of universities in other nations where large numbers of ESL learners have already facilitated critical understanding that can benefit international students and the institutions of higher learning that host them. This chapter introduces a framework and its guiding principles designed to help institutions overcome common challenges and foster international student success. It also provides an overview of the subsequent chapters in this book.

Many international students hope to study in the US because they are eager to improve their English language skills. They also feel that the quality of their education would be better in the US than it could be in their home countries (e.g., Roy, Lu, and Loo 2016) and that they will have greater opportunities for a successful career following graduation (e.g., Obst and Forster 2005). Although basic English communications skills can be developed in as quickly as a few years, the kind of academic-English proficiency needed for university-level study takes about five to seven years (Cummins 2008). Despite the additional time required to develop academic language skill, many international students hoping to study in the US are eager to expedite their admissions and graduation so they can secure good employment as soon as possible.

However, an excessive preoccupation with efficiency at the expense of needed language development is not in the best interest of the students or their hosting institutions. Without adequate English language development, students are likely to struggle with more acculturative stress (e.g., Haber and Griffiths 2017; Sümer, Poyrazli, and Grahame 2008) and minimize their academic participation due to fears that they may not understand their interactions with professors or classmates (e.g., Wu, Garza, and Guzman 2015). Such challenges may make it difficult for students to form and maintain meaningful relationships, resulting in feelings of loneliness and social isolation (Newsome and Cooper 2016). Such challenges tend to have a detrimental impact on the students' academic success during their university study.

Nevertheless, problems for ESL students associated with inadequate language development can persist even beyond university study to the workplace. With nearly a fifth of their postsecondary enrollment coming from ESL students, many English-medium universities in Australia have experienced a number of difficulties first hand (see Choudaha, Chang, and Kono 2013). For example, observers noted that many international students were graduating from Australian universities with adequate content knowledge in their respective disciplines, but they lacked the English language skills needed to function at a professional level. The rampant frustration of employers due to the linguistic limitations of newly hired graduates threatened university reputations and fostered calls for higher standards and much stricter national regulations (Arkoudis, Baik, and Richardson 2012).

Although Australia has since taken pivotal steps in recent years to remedy many of their challenges with ESL students in higher education, these solutions have not come without difficult growing pains. Our hope is that, as universities in the US prepare to take on more international students,

they will apply sound principles and practices that will help them avoid similar difficulties, empowering them to effectively facilitate the success of their international students. Though most US universities have established various practices to help their ESL learners, in most cases these institutional approaches reflect a limited philosophy of English language *support*, in which short-term needs are the focus. However, rather than focusing on marginally effective approaches to support, most students and institutions will be best served by a philosophy of English language *development*, in which longer-term outcomes are emphasized (Arkoudis and Starfield 2007; Arkoudis, Baik, and Richardson 2012; Haugh 2016). Thus, this chapter introduces a framework to help guide institutions in developing a comprehensive, strategic, context-specific approach to international student success (i.e., Andrade, Evans, and Hartshorn 2014, 2015, 2016).

Fig. 1-1 provides an illustrative summary of the framework for international student success. The aim of this framework is to help institutions utilize effective processes that are needed to generate the most appropriate programming, resources, and practices to ensure successful international student experiences. The framework includes process elements such as analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation. It also includes vital content components such as understanding and applying the views and beliefs of stakeholders, or those who have responsibility for international student teaching and learning experiences (both curricular and cocurricular), along with designing, developing, and implementing curricular and cocurricular components of the international student experience. Integral to the framework are the notions of careful analysis and ongoing evaluation of programming, resources, and practices that are developed and implemented. An effective analysis of stakeholders' views and beliefs about language development and students' needs informs the design and development of the curricular and cocurricular components. Ongoing analysis and evaluation results in insights that continue to guide general views and beliefs about language development as well as the specific needs of the current students within a given program. This empowers key stakeholders to make informed decisions about adjustments in the design, development, and implementation of products or practices within the curricular and cocurricular components. Each of these parts of the framework will be discussed below, beginning with the process elements.

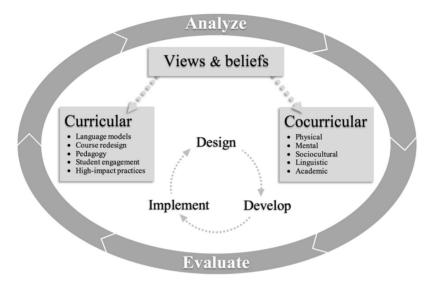


Fig. 1-1. Framework for international student success.

Process elements within the framework

There are five process elements within the framework: analyze, design, develop, implement, and evaluate. Though these elements can be applied sequentially, stakeholders can also benefit from moving in a nonsequential manner or limiting their use of the framework to those elements that are needed most within a specific context. In most cases, stakeholders will not be starting the process from scratch. Often, there will be at least some well-developed resources in place that are of benefit to international students. Nevertheless, many resources or processes may be inadequate to fully meet student needs, making it more difficult for students to achieve the academic success they seek. In other cases, no resources may be available to meet particular needs. In such cases, it may be useful to carefully consider how each element of the framework could be useful as stakeholders seek to meet those needs. Each of these process elements will be described briefly.

Analyze

Before needed curricular or cocurricular components of the international student experience can be designed, developed, or implemented, the process

must begin with thoughtful and thorough analysis. All relevant information that might impact the student experience should be included. This might involve analyses of factors such as academic outcomes, the students and their learning needs, the faculty and their qualifications and preparation, the needs and perceptions of prospective employers, facilities and resources needed to bring about the required learning, and so forth. Though many other factors should be considered and could be mentioned here, a principal target of analysis needs to be the views and beliefs of stakeholders. Effective analysis is vital because it will lay the foundation for all of the subsequent processes. Following the analysis, program administrators will begin to design, develop, and implement their curricular and cocurricular training. This developmental triad can be employed sequentially over the course of many months, or various elements can be conceived and refined simultaneously in a rapid prototyping approach. Generally, the process will be most effective when those working on designing, developing, and implementing remain flexible and see the process as dynamic and iterative.

Design

Drawing from insights gleaned from careful analysis, program administrators should identify what could be considered the specific sociolinguistic outcomes they hope to have students achieve through the training that will be provided. It is important to note that these outcomes will be related to—but be separate from—the academic outcomes tied to the curriculum within the respective disciplines. Rather, these sociolinguistic outcomes are related to student language development and represent mastery of the kinds of linguistic and cultural knowledge and skills students need in order to achieve academic success. The analysis process described above should help designers identify the most problematic gaps in linguistic or cultural knowledge or skills that are likely to undermine students' capacity to master the academic outcomes within the disciplines. Sociolinguistic outcomes will target programmatic efforts to fill these gaps, empowering students to master the disciplinary content within their fields of study. While some of these outcomes may be informational, in that the intent is for students to simply understand, remember, or know where to find vital information that they will need access to, in other cases, however, outcomes should be behavioral, in that they are tied to what students are expected to be able to do. This may have important implications not only for the content to be taught and learned but for how student mastery within the curricular and cocurricular components should be conducted and assessed. With a clear understanding of the why of the needed training that

grows out of the analysis, design elements should address questions such as *what* will be taught, *how* it will be taught, *when* it will be taught, and *who* will teach it.

Develop

After evaluating the appropriateness of design elements, developers should begin creating the material resources and processes needed to conduct curricular and cocurricular training and to provide the needed services and programming. The development of these resources should flow from the information gathered in the design phase. Development activities might result in resources such as texts, packets, handbooks, PowerPoint presentations, and interactive software programs. This may also include descriptions of how these resources will be used, including processes that will be employed to present the content to students or to follow up on student application of the training. These materials and processes should be piloted with students and presented to other stakeholders for their feedback. As appropriate, adjustments should be made to improve these resources.

Implement

After evaluating and piloting the materials and processes, program administrators can begin implementing the training, services, and programming. They should continue to evaluate throughout the implementation phase to identify any additional adjustments that should be made.

Evaluate

As depicted in fig. 1-1, the central components of the framework for international student success are embedded within a context of careful analysis and ongoing evaluation. While analysis is often perceived as looking forward and evaluation may be viewed as looking backward, we see these elements as much more closely connected to each other. Rather than seeing analysis and evaluation as separate bookends positioned at the beginning and end of the framework, it may be more effective to conceive of them as integral and complementary parts of an ongoing process. Though in some contexts it may be best to apply aspects of the framework in a sequential fashion, insights from analysis and evaluation may also justify nonlinear or asymmetrical applications of the framework depending on context and the needs of stakeholders. Thoughtful evaluation should occur

throughout the process of designing, developing, or implementing. This reduces costs and increases the effectiveness of the material by ensuring that needed adjustments are identified and made in a timely manner. Whenever possible, students and other stakeholders should be involved in the evaluation of early iterations of the resources and processes. Evaluation occurs throughout the process as institutions identify and assess practices and interventions. Evaluation informs the views and beliefs of stakeholders and assists them in the iterative process of improvement. Some aspects that institutions might identify as needing improvement include policies, practices, pedagogy, curricular models, support structures and systems, and programming.

Content elements within the framework

In addition to the five process elements of the framework (analyze, design, develop, implement, and evaluate), there are three important content elements of the framework. These include the need to identify and analyze stakeholder views and beliefs about student language development and also include important considerations for the curricular and cocurricular components of the international student experience. Each of these will also be described briefly.

Views and beliefs

The need to identify the views and beliefs of stakeholders is a central element of the framework for international student success. The analysis process will need to be applied to clarify the views and beliefs of different groups of stakeholders. These include the administrators who will oversee the design and development of the curricular and cocurricular strands of the student training, support staff in various capacities who will interface with international students, the faculty who will teach and implement these components, and finally the students themselves who will need to understand, synthesize, and apply this training. Perhaps the most important views to consider are of those stakeholders within the institution who wield the greatest influence on the international student learning experience. Effective analysis needs to identify their beliefs regarding second-language development and the different proficiency levels needed for basic English communication, academic English, and professional-level English. Analyses also need to clarify views regarding how second languages are learned, the amount of time it may take to learn a language, the importance of cultural adjustment, and how various sociocultural issues may impact emotional well-being and academic success. Insights from such analyses may help institutions, departments, and academic programs identify widely held myths that may need to be overcome. Chapter 2 delves into greater depth regarding this kind of analysis of views and beliefs and how it can provide institutions with insights needed to make appropriate changes designed to help international students be more successful within their academic study. In addition to identifying misinformation that may need to be corrected, effective analysis of stakeholder views and beliefs should provide useful guidance for the design, development, and implementation of curricular and cocurricular components of the student experience.

Curricular components

International students may have different academic, linguistic, and cultural transition needs as they enter the university, progress to their major coursework, prepare to graduate, go on to graduate school, and enter the workforce. Needs may also differ for those entering as undergraduate or graduate students. Chapter 3 establishes the need for institutions to review their curricular approaches to English language development and addresses important considerations as stakeholders work to ensure that the program curriculum meets the needs of their international students. A critical aspect of this discussion will be identifying ways that curricular elements can address the challenges identified in the analysis of stakeholder views and beliefs. Various curricular language models are presented along with the invitation for institutions to consider the degree to which English language development is embedded into the curriculum in ways that facilitate language acquisition (Arkoudis, Baik, and Richardson 2012; Harris and Ashton 2011; Jones, Bonanno, and Scouller 2001). Related considerations include the benefits of redesigning courses to enhance language development and cultural understanding (see National Center for Academic Transformation [NCAT], n.d., 2014), utilizing more effective pedagogical strategies (see Higher Education Academy 2014), ensuring successful student engagement (see AUQA, 2009), and utilizing high-impact practices (HIPs). Research on underserved students, specifically underrepresented minority, first-generation, and transfer students, indicates a significant relationship between participation in HIPs and self-reported learning gains (Finley and McNair 2013). These gains increase for those who participate in multiple HIPs (Finley and McNair 2013; Kuh and O'Donnell 2013). Stakeholders should understand that the engagement of international and domestic students may vary, so these insights should be leveraged to inform effective practices (Coates 2010; Foot 2009; Korobova 2012; Wang and

BrckaLorenz 2017; Wu and Oaks, n. d.). This chapter concludes with a discussion of approaches that reflect an overall vision for the institution, including the use of planning documents and effective data collection and analysis that will help ensure student success.

Cocurricular components

In addition to the important improvements that can be made in the curricular components of the international student experience, ESL students are also likely to greatly benefit from cocurricular components that are effectively designed, developed, and implemented. Despite the curricular components of the program, which could include all course-related elements tied directly to learning outcomes (e.g., syllabi, lectures, study materials, assessments, and feedback), many international students may lack critical linguistic, social, or cultural insight needed to successfully navigate their way through their educational experience. Thus, chapter 4 discusses cocurricular training and experiences that are designed to help students to develop and apply needed knowledge and skills to successfully prepare for and engage in course-related activities. Cocurricular components also may include experiential or culminating learning outside of coursework that provides students with needed opportunities to synthesize and apply learning in contexts that are meaningful and authentic. Such experiences can help learners to achieve academic outcomes that might otherwise be much more difficult to attain. In addition to fostering appropriate participation in extracurricular activities, chapter 4 discusses ways to help international students approach learning more effectively by providing cocurricular activities and training in the following domains: physical, mental, sociocultural, linguistic, and academic. Though the ultimate goal for most international students is their academic achievement and their subsequent ability to successfully apply their education in professional contexts, those ends are not likely to be achieved without success within each of these related domains.

The final chapters within this book address topics that further clarify important applications of the framework. For example, chapter 5 provides an in-depth discussion of evaluation and its vital role in the framework to develop or improve the programming, resources, and practices involved in the curricular and cocurricular components of the international student experience. The chapter describes evaluation as a process, including its purpose to inform decisions, and the need for specified standards. It also differentiates the notions of assessment and evaluation and clarifies the important contributions of each. One important thrust is the exploration of

measures for determining international student success, including those currently in general use as well as recommendations for additional measures. The chapter also examines other contexts in which assessment and evaluation will benefit institutions in their efforts to understand and meet the needs of various stakeholders, such as students, faculty, administrators, and prospective employers. Finally, the chapter demonstrates how collected data should be used to complete the evaluation loop so institutions can make appropriate adjustments in their resources, processes, and practices.

With an understanding of the framework in place, institutions need practical guidance for implementation and applications within their context. Chapter 6 provides insights about how institutions can do this by introducing an array of problem-solving tools and innovation techniques for considering the various aspects of the framework (e.g., views and beliefs, curriculum, and cocurriculum) as well as its processes (analyze, design, develop, implement, and evaluate). Although many of these tools originate from business contexts, we illustrate how they can be successfully adapted to higher education to facilitate implementation of the framework. These processes include an examination of the theory of constraints, current reality trees, asking questions, and lean six sigma. These processes help leaders and managers identify where limitations and bottlenecks occur so solutions can be found and implemented. Successful application of the framework depends on data, good decision-making, effective leadership strategies, and the utilization of successful structures such as teams. The chapter shows how stakeholders can engage in key discussions and utilize these tools to identify appropriate changes to current curricular and cocurricular approaches. It also illustrates how the framework can be adapted to allow for a variety of institution-specific responses, allowing stakeholders to determine what changes will be addressed based on feasibility and specific needs within their individual contexts.

Although stakeholders may see important benefits to utilizing this framework for international student success in their specific contexts, change is never easy. Even when it is considered imperative or urgent, positive improvement usually comes with a number of challenges. Chapter 7 presents models and tools that can help facilitate necessary change. It addresses critical questions dealing with how to innovate to improve educational outcomes while continuing to attract global learners, how to plan for catastrophic events, and how to collaborate with other global institutions. The chapter emphasizes the need for stakeholders to create and maintain a shared vision, discard ineffective practices, views, or beliefs that undermine progress, communicate openly and effectively with other stakeholders, and place the greater good over personal interests to achieve

the institution's vision. The chapter also presents insights about change in higher education, various models of change, change factors, change tools, and the benefits of utilizing a change matrix. It illustrates examples of various threats and opportunities programs may face as they host international students, how to deal with resistance to change, and practical tools that can help stakeholders successfully manage the process. It shows that effective leadership and the effective application of change models is essential to ensure success. These tools will benefit stakeholders in implementing the framework.

Summary

This chapter presented the framework for international student success designed to help institutions utilize effective processes that are needed to generate successful programming, resources, and practices to ensure the most appropriate international student experiences. It also addressed why the framework may be useful for institutions of higher learning in the US who currently host large numbers of international students or who will host larger percentages of international students in the near future. The chapter presented an illustrative summary of the framework in fig. 1-1 and discussed content components of the framework, understanding and applying the views and beliefs of stakeholders along with analyzing the curricular and cocurricular components of the international student experience. It also described the process elements of the framework: analyzing, designing, developing, implementing, and evaluating. The chapter also provided a brief overview of subsequent chapters and how they relate to the framework.

References

Andrade, Maureen S., Norman W. Evans, and K. James Hartshorn. 2014. "Linguistic Support for Non-native English Speakers: Higher Education Practices in the United States." *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, 51 (2): 207–21.

Andrade, Maureen S., Norman W. Evans, and K. James Hartshorn. 2015. "Perceptions and Realities of ESL Students in Higher Education: An Overview of Institutional Practices." In ESL Readers and Writers in Higher Education: Understanding Challenges, Providing Support, edited by Norman W. Evans, Neil J. Anderson, and William G. Eggington, 18–35. New York: Routledge.

Andrade, Maureen S., Norman W. Evans, and K. James Hartshorn. 2016. "Internationalizing Higher Education: English Language Policy and

- Practice." In Campus Support Services, Programs, and Policies for International Students, edited by Krishna Bista and Charlotte Foster, 188–208. Hershey, PA: IGI Global.
- Arkoudis, Sophie, Chi Baik, and Sarah Richardson. 2012. English Language Standards in Higher Education: From Entry to Exit. Camberwell, Australia: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Arkoudis, Sophie, and Sue Starfield. 2007. *In-course English Language Development and Support*. Canberra, AU: Australian Education International.
- Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA). 2009. Good Practice Principles for English Language Proficiency for International Students in Australian Universities.
 - http://www.aall.org.au/sites/default/files/Final_Report-Good_Practice_Principles2009.pdf.
- Choudaha, Rahul, Li Chang, and Yoko Kono. 2013. *International Student Mobility Trends 2013: Towards Responsive Recruitment Strategies*. http://www.wes.org/ewenr/13mar/feature.html.
- Coates, Hamish. 2010. International Students' Engagement with Effective Educational Practices: A Cross-national Comparison. http://research.acer.edu.au/ausse.
- Cummins, Jim. 2008. "BICS and CALP: Empirical and Theoretical Status of the Distinction." In *Literacy*, edited by B. Street and N. H. Hornberger, 71–83. Vol. 2 of *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*. 2nd ed. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Finley, Ashley, and Tia McNair. 2013. Assessing Underserved Students' Engagement in High Impact Practices. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- Foot, Jeffery. 2009. "Exploring International Student Academic Engagement using the NSSE Framework." PhD diss., University of Missouri-Columbia.
 - https://mospace.umsystem.edu/xmlui/bitstream/handle/10355/6186/research.pdf?sequence=3.
- Haber, Frank, and Stephanie Griffiths. 2017. "5 Unique Mental Health Stressors Faced by International Students." Presentation given at the EAIE Autumn Academy, Warsaw, Poland.
- Harris, Anne J., and Joanna L. Ashton. 2011. "Embedding and Integrating Language and Academic Skills: An Innovative Approach." *Journal of Academic Language and Learning* 5 (2): A73–A87.
- Haugh, Michael. 2016. "Complaints and Troubles Talk about the English Language Skills of International Students in Australian Universities." *Higher Education Research and Development* 35 (4): 727–40.

- Higher Education Academy. 2014. *Language*. Heslington, UK: The Higher Education Academy.
 - www.heacademy.ac.uk/system/files/resources/language.pdf.
- Institute of International Education (IIE). 2017. *Open Doors Fast Facts*. http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors/Data/Fast-Facts#.WC0CEHfMz-Y.
- Jones, Janet, Helen Bonanno, and Karen Scouller. 2001. "Staff and Student Roles in Central and Faculty-Based Learning Support: Changing Partnerships." Paper presented at the 2001 National Language and Academic Skills Conference, New South Wales, AU.
 - http://learning.uow.edu.au/LAS2001/selected/jones_1.pdf.
- Kanno, Yasuko. 2015. "English Language Learners, Identity, and Access to Postsecondary Education." Paper presented at the American Association for Applied Linguistics, Toronto, Canada.
- Korobova, Nadia. 2012. "A Comparative Study of Student Engagement, Satisfaction, and Academic Success among International and American Students." PhD diss.. Iowa State University.
- Kuh, George D., and Ken O'Donnell. 2013. *Ensuring Quality and Taking High Impact Practices to Scale*. Washington, D. C.: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- National Center for Academic Transformation. 2014. How to Redesign a College Course Using NCAT's Methodology.
 - http://www.thencat.org/Guides/AllDisciplines/How%20to%20Redesig n%20A%20College%20Course.pdf.
- Newsome, Linda K., and Paul Cooper. 2016. "International Students' Cultural and Social Experiences in a British University: 'Such a Hard Life [It] Is Here." *Journal of International Students* 6 (1): 195–215.
- Obst, Daniel, and Joanne Forster. 2005. *Perceptions of European Higher Education in Third Countries*. https://www.iie.org/Research-and-Insights/Publications/Perceptions-of-European-Higher-Education.
- Roy, Megha, Zhengrong Lu, and Bryce Loo. 2016. Improving the International Student Experience: Implications for Recruitment and Support. New York: World Education Services.
 - http://knowledge.wes.org/WES-Research-Report-Improving-Intl-Student-Experience.html.
- Sümer, Seda, Senel Poyrazli, and Kamini Grahame. 2008. "Predictors of Depression and Anxiety among International Students." *Journal of Counseling and Development* 86 (4): 429–37.
- Wang, Rong, and Allison BrckaLorenz. 2017. "A Comparison of International Students' Engagement and Faculty Perceptions of International Student

- Engagement." Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, San Antonio, TX.
- http://nsse.indiana.edu/pdf/presentations/2017/AERA_2017_Wang_BrckaLorenz paper.pdf.
- Wu, Hsiao-ping, Esther Garza, and Norma Guzman. 2015. "International Student's Challenge and Adjustment to College." *Education Research International* 2015: 1–9.
- Wu, Yi-Chin, and D'Arcy Oaks. n. d. A Comparison of First-year International Students and Domestic Students: Findings from NSSE and MSI.
 - https://fye.osu.edu/Presentations/Breakout_Session_I/Comparison_of_first year international students and domestic students.pdf.

CHAPTER TWO

VIEWS & BELIEFS

The first component of the framework for international student success (fig. 2-1) focuses on examining the views and beliefs of stakeholders in the institution who are responsible for and frequently interact with international students (see Andrade, Evans, and Hartshorn 2014, 2016 for earlier versions of the framework). The purpose of this step is to address possible misconceptions about the international student experience, establish a foundation for reviewing current practices, and identify new directions. Given that practices for admitting, testing, supporting, and tracking international students are often based on tradition (Andrade, Evans, and Hartshorn 2014), this component of the framework encourages institutions to analyze the rationale or beliefs behind these practices and the validity of those beliefs.

Providing students with support, most commonly in the form of a writing center or tutoring services, is an example of a traditional practice (Andrade, Evans, and Hartshorn 2014). We often use the term *support* to refer to services provided by the institution to help international students be academically successful. While tutoring services and workshops are useful, students can choose to avail themselves of these services or disregard them, which makes them a weak form of support. The same is true of stand-alone English as a Second Language (ESL) programs that focus on general academic English rather than discipline-specific English (Arkoudis and Starfield 2007; Arkoudis, Baik, and Richardson 2012; Harris and Ashton 2011).

The terms *language support* and *language development* have different implications. Traditional approaches represent a philosophy of support rather than development (Andrade, Evans, and Hartshorn 2014, 2016; Arkoudis and Starfield 2007; Arkoudis, Baik, and Richardson 2012). Support reflects a short-term approach in that the focus may be simply on helping students with a specific assignment (Andrade, Evans, and Hartshorn 2016) whereas development emphasizes a long-term commitment to improved proficiency. The latter might occur by embedding language development into the curriculum (Harris and Ashton 2011; see chapter 3 for

further discussion). Such an approach is based on the belief that English learners are admitted with baseline academic English proficiency, which must be further developed in order for them to fully engage in coursework and develop the professional English language skills needed for professional success. Practices seen through a development lens look different from those seen through a support lens.

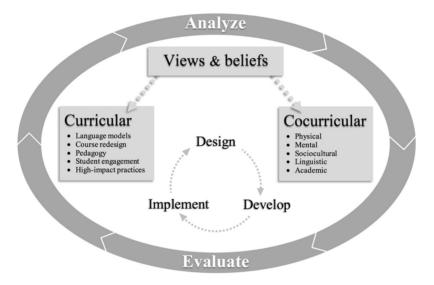


Fig. 2-1. Framework for international student success.

The purpose of the first component of the framework, then, is to examine practices and policies that may be assumed to be effective but which may also be largely unexamined. We do this by first addressing common language-learning myths that may be implicitly or explicitly evident within an institution or program. We demonstrate how these myths are connected to traditional practice. We then share an exemplar of views and beliefs which could serve as a charter to guide institutional directions. We also explore how various accrediting bodies and their standards might provide additional insights and guidance into the establishment of effective practices for hosting international students. Then we provide suggestions for processes. Finally, we share a case study that demonstrates how these tools can be implemented.

Myth busters

Examining views and beliefs entails uncovering one's assumptions about language learning and cultural adjustment (Andrade and Evans 2015). It might involve identifying possible myths about language acquisition, determining who is responsible for what (e.g., the admissions office, support services, faculty, students, etc.), and gaining a greater understanding of expected outcomes for the institution and for international students.

Such a discussion could include identifying reasons the institution or a particular program of study admits international students such as practicality (e.g., to supplement decreasing enrollments and provide needed tuition dollars), diversification of the student body (e.g., for purposes of multicultural learning by all students), or horizon scanning (e.g., to set future educational practices that prepare students for an interconnected, global world). Examining views and beliefs informs strategy.

We next examine several myths about language learning upon which institutional practices are based. These are examples of commonly held views and beliefs that need examination. Discussing such myths can result in new perspectives and, in turn, innovative practices.

Myth 1. Standardized test scores on English proficiency exams are a sufficient measure of students' academic English language proficiency.

All tests have limitations. None are an absolute measure of ability or, in this case, English language proficiency. A test is a snapshot of a student's knowledge or skill—a sample of what a student can do at a given time (Barrett-Lennard, Duworth, and Harris 2011; Wright 2015). Standardized English proficiency tests predominantly measure passive knowledge about the language rather than the ability to use the language in a range of contexts. They may demonstrate a student's skill in choosing a correct grammatical construction, for instance, rather than the ability to accurately use grammar in writing or speaking. Testing procedures that include writing and speaking samples provide a better representation of student ability; however, these, too, have limitations in that they capture a single, limited glimpse of proficiency under testing conditions (Andrade 2006).

Much research on international student adjustment, and specifically in programs that host large percentages of international students, indicate that faculty, in particular, feel that institutions need more rigorous screening procedures for English language proficiency. However, understanding on the part of faculty is needed—academic English takes an extensive amount of time to develop. While basic interpersonal English develops in one to two

years, academic language proficiency can take five years or longer (Cummins 2012). Institutional stakeholders, such as faculty members, must be aware that "even with high [test] scores and good language skills overall, non-English speaking background students are likely to struggle at first with language in lectures and tutorials, complex reading and writing tasks, and new academic and disciplinary concepts" (Higher Education Academy 2014, 3).

This particular issue—testing and assessment of English language skills—is indicative of the kind of discussion that should occur on university campuses: how are admission scores set? what tests are used and why? what additional measures might be needed? how accurately do scores measure student ability? and what needs to be done to assist students in continuing to develop not only academic English language but also professional level English?

Myth 2. Students who do not meet the admission cut-off scores for an English language proficiency test need to retake the test.

All tests have a standard error of measurement, which means that no test provides a true score that represents the test taker's actual knowledge or ability. Rigid cut-off score requirements for admission do not account for this. Admission personnel may reject a student for admission only to admit that same student when he or she submits a "higher" score when, in fact, the higher score may be within the test's confidence interval, meaning it is essentially the same score and represents the same level of proficiency. Standardized test scores represent a range within which a person's true score lies. Thus, when scores go up and down within the confidence interval, this fluctuation does not represent a higher or lower level of proficiency.

Similarly, when applicants are simply told to retake the test, institutions are inviting greater inaccuracy in test scores due to regression toward the mean. This occurs when natural variations in test scores appear to represent change when they actually reflect the phenomena that repeated test taking results in clustering toward the mean. In other words, lower-scoring students will tend to increase their scores on retakes and higher-scoring students will tend to get lower scores compared to the mean (Koizumi et al. 2015).

Multiple measures of a student's English language proficiency are a better approach to determining if students have the needed level of preparation. These measures may occur after admission. Surprisingly, this is not a common practice (Andrade, Evans, and Hartshorn 2014), possibly because it is labor and resource intensive and institutions may not have measures in place for addressing language-learning needs when they are

diagnosed. Once again, this is a conversation an institution or program must have, particularly those with large percentages of international students whose skills can significantly impact the teaching and learning experience.

Institutions must have the ability to address the linguistic needs identified by more accurate and extensive assessments of students' proficiency. Curricular measures need to be in place to help students continue their English language development after admission. Many institutions are exploring innovative approaches by replacing generic English language programs (Ashton-Hay, Wignell, and Evans 2016) with embedded English language support within the discipline (Ashton-Hay et al. 2016; Baik and Greig 2009; Evans et al. 2009; Frohman, 2012; Webb, 2012).

Myth 3. Students should be required to increase their English proficiency to the level needed for academic success prior to being admitted (e.g., raise their admission scores).

This is problematic on a number of fronts. While institutions can get a sense of ESL students' baseline ability and ascertain that they have potential to be successful based on a test score, language acquisition is impacted by a number of variables, and proficiency takes time to develop, particularly academic and professional levels of proficiency. "Individual learners develop language proficiency at variable rates influenced by factors such as educational background, first language, learning style, cognitive style, motivation, and personality, as well as sociocultural factors" (TESOL 2010, 2).

Many international ESL students come to English-medium universities having studied English, but perhaps not having had much opportunity to use it to communicate, particularly with native speakers. They may have extensive passive knowledge of the language, which is typically demonstrated through standardized proficiency tests, rather than ability to use the language. Learners need to be exposed to comprehensible input, have opportunities to interact with others, make mistakes, become aware of communication gaps, negotiate meaning, and gain confidence (Ellis 1994; Gass 1997; Krashen 1982; Long 1983, 1998; Swain 1995). They also need to become accustomed to the rapidity of talk, use of slang, and dialects of native speakers. These opportunities are not prevalent in non-English dominant countries. Thus, while international ESL students coming to an English-medium university may have studied English for a number of years (possibly from elementary school through high school), they may not have had the opportunity to use the language to much extent (Sawir 2005). Thus,

they have a strong foundation but need additional time and application to develop both communicative and academic skills.

Additionally, while elite schools can admit those with the highest test scores and levels of preparation, institutions vary in terms of who they serve and their purposes for admitting international students. Most institutions will likely admit students with a range of proficiency levels and educational backgrounds. These institutions need to decide how to address this variation and help students achieve their goals—in most cases English language proficiency, cultural understanding, and discipline-based skills and knowledge (Roy, Lu, and Loo 2016).

Myth 4. It is the student's responsibility to improve his or her English.

At face value, this statement makes sense. Ultimately, it is the student who must recognize his or her strengths and weaknesses, identify effective strategies, and make the effort to improve. Students do recognize their limitations with English. "Of all the social and academic issues and problems facing international students that are cited in recent studies—differences in learning style, culture shock, homesickness, social difficulties—the problem they themselves most often refer to is difficulties with English" (Sawir 2005, 569).

However, stakeholders must also realize that English language improvement is a shared responsibility. Institutions must be cognizant of their responsibility for the students they admit and consider not only students' backgrounds and levels of preparation but also how to enable language acquisition through curricular and cocurricular approaches that encourage students to improve, meet expectations, and achieve learning outcomes. The faculty play a key role in this but typically do not recognize their role.

Department chairs and faculty in higher education institutions share the belief that it is the students' responsibility to improve (Andrade and Evans 2006; Andrade, Evans, and Hartshorn 2014, 2018, 2019). Department heads in schools of business unequivocally agree that it is the students' responsibility first and then the institution's (Andrade, Evans, and Hartshorn 2018b, forthcoming). Faculty members indicate that they have neither the responsibility nor expertise to address English language development (Andrade 2010; Benzie 2010; Darlington 2008; Ingrams and Holzer 2016; Murray 2012; Ukpokodu 2010). They do not feel that they should adjust their pedagogical practices or course content to accommodate English language learners but instead cite the need for better admission screening