

Running head: AN ANALYSIS OF THE READINESS TO INTERNATIONALISE

An analysis of the readiness to achieve internationalisation in higher education: The case of the
teacher's training college in Guyana

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INTERNATIONALISING THE TEACHER'S COLLEGE IN GUYANA

An analysis of the readiness to achieve internationalisation in higher education: The case of the teacher's training college in Guyana. **Viola Rowe**

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to analyse the readiness of the teacher's college in Guyana (henceforth "the College") in terms of achieving internationalisation. The researcher employed a mixed methodology and used the Parallel Phases mixed methods approach adapted from Ponce and Pagán- Maldonado (2015) to address the multidimensional nature of the topic and to provide data for the six research questions. The participants involved were policymakers, academic staff and students whom the researcher selected on a first-come, first-served basis. The participants responded to questions as posed in questionnaires, a focus group, and interview protocols. The questionnaire and the focus group protocol were the same for the policymakers and academic staff but different for the students.

The findings revealed that the concept of internationalisation was new to the context, but there was evidence of aspects of internationalisation on the ground, which could form the base for internationalising the College. These aspects included a curriculum upgrade, exposure of staff to online or exchange higher education programmes, and technology integration. The findings indicated conflicting views on internationalisation and exposed the challenges to the process, including inadequate technology, the absence of or limits to connectivity, poor physical infrastructure, and constrained financial resources. Findings also revealed that the College was not ready to internationalise, and reasons for this were identified such as inadequate physical and financial resources, a lack of knowledge about internationalisation and small-mindedness.

The discussion suggests that the College can internationalise at any point, depending on its objectives and the availability of resources. Furthermore, internationalising the College requires policy direction from the College's two governing bodies, the Ministry of Education and the Board of Governors, as well as collaboration from state and non-state actors. A governance model (Stoker, 1998; Enders, 2004; Altrichter, 2005) and Chand and Dimmock's (2008) translocalist model suggest a way for discussing the parameters of the College's internationalisation within a broader context as the institution does not operate in isolation from the education system.

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Definition of Terms

CARICOM: Caribbean Community is an integration movement of democratic states located in the Caribbean Sea. Its members are Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Montserrat, Saint Lucia, St Kitts and Nevis, Suriname, St Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago. Associated members are Anguilla, Bermuda, British Virgin Island, Cayman Islands, Turks and Caicos Islands.

Distance Education in this context: A print-based and face-to-face modality of teacher education delivery to students of satellite centres.

In-Service: Distance education programme for untrained teachers who are serving in schools.

Pre-Service: Full-time programme for potential teachers.

GITEP: Guyana Improving Teacher Education Project, a World Bank-funded project, implemented at the teacher’s college to address issues of teacher paucity created by migration. GITEP aimed to build capacity in teacher educators, reform the curriculum, improve science and technology, create partnerships and improve the quality of student intake (World Bank, 2010).

List of Acronyms

ADE – Associate Degree in Education

BoG – Board of Governors

CARICOM – Caribbean Community

CSME – Caribbean Single Market and Economy

ESC – Education Systems Committee

GITEP – Guyana Improving Teacher Education Project

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ICT – Information and Communication Technology

IMPI – Indicators for Mapping and Profiling Internationalisation Toolkit (IMPI, 2007)

MoE – Guyana Ministry of Education

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation

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Chapter 1.

Introduction

This chapter outlines the research background, states the research purpose, and offers a brief rationale underpinning the topic's selection in order for readers to understand what the research sets out to achieve and the researcher's motivation to select the topic. Brief definitions of the main concepts are provided to allow readers to comprehend the research's main ideas. Also, the research questions that guided the inquiry, participants and research sites are stated to indicate what the researcher is seeking to explore and who will be involved. The national and local contexts within which the research was conducted are presented in this chapter as they are the lens through which an understanding of the research findings, arguments, recommendations and conclusions can emerge.

The research purpose and rationale

The purpose of the research was to gain insight into the Guyana teacher training College's readiness to internationalise. The researcher wanted to study whether the College in any way responded, even unknowingly, to global influence – namely globalisation (Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009) – and if there was evidence of internationalisation elements (Zupanc & Zupanc, 2009; Yan Yan, 2010; Lugovtsova, Krasnova, & Torhova, 2012) in its practices and/or procedures.

The researcher aligned the purpose of the study against the need: (i) globally, to explore higher education in light of internationalisation (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbly, 2009); (ii) regionally, to align the research with the regional focus of the internationalisation of higher education in the Caribbean (Caribbean Conference on Higher Education, 2010); and (iii) locally, for internationalisation work to focus on *local level* realities in order to understand, for example, the interests and concerns of academic staff, policymakers, and students (Willis & Taylor, 2014).

Several experiences, including studying and working at the College, have influenced the researcher's choice of topic. Specifically, the knowledge garnered from working in collaboration with regional and international education partners and consultants on the Guyana Improving Teacher Education Project (GITEP) provided new meaning to teacher education and pointed to an upward trajectory to teacher education in Guyana. Additionally, the researcher's

online engagement in the doctoral programme at the University of Liverpool facilitated her awareness of higher education's internationalisation.

Brief definitions of main concepts

Globalisation is an influence triggered by powerful, economically viable nations to build global economies. Willis and Taylor (2014), Knight (2012a), and UNESCO (2004) have explained globalisation as the movement of people, knowledge, ideas, values, technology and trade across countries. This movement, when directed inward, influences the macro spheres of a country's socio, economic, technological, political and educational operations (Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009). The response to this influence by higher education is internationalisation.

Internationalisation has different interpretations (Knight, 2004). For example, van der Wende (1997) has defined internationalisation as any systematic change in higher education in response to globalisation's challenges, while Knight (1994) and Leask (2013) have characterised internationalisation as a process of incorporating international dimensions into teaching and learning, research and support services. Higher education's response to globalisation differs depending on contextual conditions (Willis & Taylor, 2014).

Research questions

The research questions that provided the parameters for a guided inquiry were:

The main research question:

How ready is the College to internationalise?

The subsidiary questions:

1. How have international, regional, or national policies influenced the College's changes?
2. According to participants, to what extent is the College ready to internationalise?
3. What does the term 'internationalisation' mean in the context of the College?
4. What would (a) enable and (b) challenge the internationalisation of the College?
5. Which institutional activities at the College, if any, are internationalisation opportunities?
6. What should the College internationalise and how?

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Research sites

Participant selection drew from four research sites within the national context, Guyana, namely the teacher's College, the Ministry of Education (MoE), policymakers, the College Board of Governors, and primary and secondary schools. All data sites were in Region No. 4, which includes the capital city, Georgetown.

The national context

The national context of the research is Guyana, which is one of the twenty-one countries that comprise the Caribbean Community (CARICOM). These countries operate based on certain pillars of integration, including economics, foreign policy, human resource development, and security. Guyana's geographic location is in the region of the Americas, sub-region South America, and is the fourth-smallest country in this region. This landmass occupies 214,970 km² (83,000 sq. miles), with a division of ten administrative areas and approximately 784,616 people from six major ethnic groups. People live on the coastlands and in riverain and hinterland communities. While the coastlands are accessible by land transportation, access to the riverain and hinterland communities is primarily via water or air-based transport or by foot.

This developing country with a colonial history gained independence from Britain on May 26, 1966. Independence was achieved after a struggle against British administrative control. Lavia (2012) has argued that countries with a colonial history as sovereign nations struggle in relation to their post-colonial cultures, and this has been the case in the context of the Guyanese way of life, including its multi-ethnic society and its languages, religions, dress, and foods. Nonetheless, British ways of thinking and doing have influenced post-colonial languages, education systems, social organisations, and even habits (Levia, 2012).

At the time of the study, a disparity existed between the coastal and hinterland and riverain areas; persons living on the coastlands had access to more resources than those in the hinterland and riverain areas. For example, social and educational services, infrastructure and public utilities such as housing, electricity and potable water were more accessible on the coastlands (World Bank, 2010).

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Guyana's education system has four levels: nursery, primary, secondary, tertiary or post-secondary (higher education). Higher education in Guyana comprises three distinct types of educational institutions, namely: (i) universities, including private (as well as offshore) and public universities; (ii) the teacher's college; and (iii) technical and vocational institutes including adult education institutions. The Chief Education Officer (CEO) has overall responsibility for education in Guyana from nursery through to secondary levels as well as the teacher's college and the technical and vocational institutions. The Deputy and Assistant CEOs and Planning Officer support the CEO in planning, monitoring, and evaluating the education system. There are no tuition costs at these institutions. The state university is autonomous, the Guyana National Accreditation Council accredits higher education institutions, and the teachers' bargaining power is based on their union.

There is a linkage between the levels in the education system. The College trains teachers for the schools and technical vocational institutions. Teachers in training take up placements in schools to complete their practicum (teaching practice or practical teaching). Regional Education Officers provide oversight for student teachers attached to schools for teaching practice (practicum). College graduates transition to the state university to complete their Bachelor's in Education Degree (B.Ed.), and some continue to higher education studies (at the same university or another) as lecturers at the College and the state university.

Out of the population of teachers in the education system, 72% of them have been trained in the education system (Ministry of Education, 2008) at the time of this study (see Table 1).

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Table 1. Education institutions and levels, including the number of students and percentage of trained teachers

Education institution level	Number of Institutions	Number of students	Percentage of *teachers trained
		(2018-2019)	
Nursery	335	26,712	70%
Primary	449	86,963	78%
Secondary	114	54,197	68%
Tertiary (technical)	10	5,850	7%
Tertiary (College & University)	2	4,548	83%
Total	910	178,270	72%

(Source: Ministry of Education, Guyana, September 2019)

* Teachers, teacher educators, instructors, lecturers with a minimum of one of the following qualifications: trained teacher’s certificate; associate degree in education; postgraduate diploma in education.

The 72% of trained teachers was linked to the “recruitment of teachers by wealthier countries” (World Bank, 2010, p. 4), leaving a void in the education system. Further, teacher migration was high, reaching “a rate of eight per cent annually” (p. 4).

The government's response to teachers' migration included the increase in teachers' benefits and the implementation of the Guyana Improving Teacher Education Project (GITEP). GITEP, also referred to as “the Project” in this study, was the response to the void in the education system created by migration to increase the “number of trained teachers for quality improvement in education” (World Bank, 2010, p. 5).

The migration of teachers and, more so, the “recruitment of teachers by wealthier countries” (World Bank, 2010, p. 4) seemed to suggest to the researcher an effect of globalisation (UNESCO, 2004; Knight, 2012a) where people moved because of socioeconomic issues. The response, GITEP, to the void created by migration resembled internationalisation (Cantwell &

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Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009; Willis & Taylor, 2014). Additionally, changes at the regional level were guided by the GITEP parameters (Ibarra & Demas, 2009) in that:

They [the World Bank] conducted a comparative study of recent reforms in teacher education delivery in the Caribbean. The findings were presented to the Government counterparts for discussion and helped shape the Project design (World Bank, 2010, p. 5).

For example, in the CARICOM region, teacher training institutions moved away from offering certificates to associate degree and teacher's diplomas in education (Ibarra & Demas, 2009). In other words, the regional context influenced the local context.

Higher education is financed by government funds, fees, and other sources of funding. The education sector competes with other public sectors for budgetary allocations, determined following parliamentary debates and approval. Apart from the state university, tuition in all other state-owned educational institutions is free.

The local context: The teacher's college

The College prepares teachers for appointments at the nursery, primary, secondary and post-secondary levels, including technical-vocational institutions (College, 2014). It has offered a two-year Associate Degree in Education (ADE) programme, a one-year ADE programme, and a three-year Trained Teacher's Certificate (TTC). It has one main centre located on the coastland in Region 4, Turkeyen, Greater Georgetown (the capital of Guyana) and eighteen (18) active satellite centres, at least one in every administrative region in the country, including eight (8) on the coastland and ten (10) in the hinterland and riverain areas. The main centre has a campus, and the other locations are in school buildings, offices in Regional Education Departments, under benabs (huts made of leaves and branches) and under trees (College, 2019).

The student population was approximately one thousand, three hundred, fifty (1,350) students across centres (774 coastal centres and 576 hinterland centres) and sixty-two (62) full-time teaching staff, including the Principal, Vice-Principals and senior staff (College, 2016). The satellite centres attract part-time staff because of their 'mushroom arrangement' (they exist

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when there is a cohort of students in a specific location). These part-time staffs do not work under a contractual arrangement and could leave at any time without penalty.

The course offering modality was Pre-Service (face-to-face) for full-time students and In-Service distance education (a combination of face-to-face and print-based learning) for students who attended part-time. Full-time students transition to the College from secondary schools, while their part-time counterparts are untrained classroom teachers.

At the top of the governance structure of the College is the Ministry of Education (MoE), followed by the College Board of Governors (BoG) and the Education Systems Committee (ESC), the two policy-making bodies. The former body makes decisions specific to the College and the latter the Education System. The Chief Education Officer (CEO) is the Chair of the ESC, and other members of the ESC are the Deputies CEO and Assistant CEOs (for the Nursery, Primary, Secondary and, Technical Vocational schools) – a total of twelve (12) members. Additionally, the teacher's College and other officers from within MoE are also ESC members. The BoG comprises the Principal, the three Vice Principals (ex-officio members), student representative, and members external to the College and MoE. The Principal, who responds to instructions from, and reports to the BoG and ESC, supervises the Vice-Principals who in turn have responsibilities for specific divisions within the College – curriculum and instructions, development and administration matters.

The effects of changes at the national level and the government's response, GITEP, to address the paucity of trained teachers in the Education System influenced changes at the local level, the only institution with the mandate for initial teacher training, the teacher's College, also referred to as the College in this study.

GITEP's primary objectives were developing a new curriculum, restructuring student and staff requirements, building human resource capacity, and improving science and technology resources. The Project facilitated a partnership between the College and the state university for a seamless transition from the ADE to the B.Ed. Programme (World Bank, 2010). The merger also resulted in an upgraded curriculum (new courses and two additional components – induction and mentorship – to the practical teaching syllabus). Applicants to teacher training with the new level entry requirements pursue a four-year training programme (two years to

obtain an ADE at the College and an additional two years at the state university for their B.Ed., an improvement over the traditional seven-year programme, three years at the College to obtain the TTC and four years at the university to achieve a B.Ed.). Further, under GITEP, all academic staff (teaching staff, including lecturers, heads and coordinators of departments and centres, Vice-Principals, and Principal) benefitted from capacity-building opportunities. Some pursued graduate programmes and other short attachments, while others worked with regional and international coaches on campus at-home and online.

The researcher, the Principal at the time of the study, believed that exploring internationalisation in the College context was an opportunity to create a foundation for future internationalisation research. Further, the researcher thought that bringing internationalisation to the College was essential for improving educational experiences and institutional strengthening (Willis & Taylor, 2014) through curriculum adjustment and reputation building (Engwall, 2016) as well as to supplement state financing (Knight, 2004; Willis & Taylor, 2014; Engwall, 2016).

The organisation of the study

In Chapter 2, the researcher presents a review of the relevant literature and the theoretical framework that guides the study to determine how the current study fits in the context of research in internationalising higher education. Chapter 3 evaluates and justifies the methodology and methods followed and ethical considerations that provide credibility to the study. Chapter 4 offers the presentation and analysis of the findings. Chapter 5 discusses the findings based on the theoretical framework, the study results and conclusions, as well as recommendations relating to the study's limitations and possibilities.

Chapter 2.

Literature review: Globalisation and internationalisation in the context of higher education

The literature review examines the fundamental concepts of globalisation and internationalisation, and also it sets the theoretical framework for internationalisation at the institution level. Highlighted is a micro view of internationalisation trends in higher education considering areas such as motives, policy, curriculum reform and technology in internationalising higher education at the premier teacher's college in a developing country, Guyana. This chapter also discusses the possible approaches to internationalisation and the enablers and challenges of internationalisation at the local level. It culminates with a discussion on institutional preparedness for internationalisation and leaders' role in this regard.

Conceptualisation

The concepts of globalisation and internationalisation are different, but they overlap in some regard; they both focus on reducing international hurdles (de Wit, 2011; Rensburg, Motala & David, 2015). Hence, both have implications for trade within and across borders (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Dzvimbo & Moloi, 2013). As has been observed, 'trade' means the free movement of educational services defined in the General Agreement for Trade in Services negotiated by the World Trade Organisation (Collins, 2007). Further, "globalisation and internationalisation are intimately intertwined" (Willis & Taylor, 2014, p. 155) and are mutual agents of change (Ota, 2018); nonetheless, they have their distinctions.

Globalisation relates to the movement (UNESCO, 2004; Willis & Taylor, 2014) across borders (Knight, 2012a). It is said to be a global 'push' or influence by economically powerful nations to build global economies. This external influence, which inevitably penetrates a country's socio, economic, technological and political spheres, affects all sectors, including higher education (Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009). The response to the 'push' through implementing policies/programmes to realise this 'globalness' is internationalisation (Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009).

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Globalisation has its positive and negatives; for example, “globalisation opens access across borders for students and professionals to study and work” (Altbach, 2004, p. 7). This open-access has the propensity to encourage 'brain drain' (the migration of professionals) as wealthier societies are likely to attract trained professionals and students with international experience in a competing global market space (Stier, 2006). Altbach (2004) also argued that “globalisation is affecting higher education in developing countries” (p. 3), and the movement of persons is often from the South to the North, as seen in the GITEP's example. Further, Altbach (2004) found that higher education institutions in developing countries do not have the resources to engage in research and do not offer graduate studies programmes. The College (2014) can identify with this experience; it does not engage in research for publication, and it offers undergraduate studies.

The dependency on developed nations by developing ones to, for example, provide higher-level qualifications to its citizens is a reflection of colonial domination of powerful nations over weaker ones, which makes globalisation appears to the researcher as an agent of colonialism, and Altbach (2004) has cautioned that “globalisation must not turn into the neo-colonialism of the 21st century” (p. 24). Nonetheless, the effects of globalisation will inevitably cause the countries affected to respond in the best way they can, and that response in context is internationalisation.

The concept of internationalisation is multifaceted (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) and is experienced differently by countries (or institutions) depending on, for example, their own economic, political and cultural realities (Willis & Taylor, 2014). Furthermore, internationalisation has different definitions and interpretations (Knight, 2004). For example, van der Wende (1997) defined internationalisation as any systematic change in higher education in response to globalisation's challenges. This definition shows the link between globalisation and internationalisation. As Cantwell and Maldonado-Maldonado (2009) have argued, globalisation is not automatic since changes at the higher education level depend on the context (aims and resources, for example) of the institution. Soderqvist (cited in Knight, 2004) argues that internationalisation is a process that changes a national higher education system to an international one by including international elements in its management practices to improve

teaching and learning. This perspective on changes to higher education systems suggests to the researcher that, in bringing internationalisation to higher education, individual institutions should consider the national higher education system and opportunities for collaboration and partnerships between institutions in the education system.

This study has focused on internationalisation at the local level. Therefore, the researcher has found Knight (1994) and Leask's (2013) definition of internationalisation applicable, namely as a process of incorporating international dimensions into teaching and learning, research and support services at an institutional level. Considering the post-colonial history of the study's context and the desire of sovereign nations in relation to post-colonial cultures (Lavia, 2012), incorporating foreign influence into local education – such as the internationalisation of higher education – resembles the colonial era (Altbach, 2006). Lavia (2012) has argued that colonialism's effects remain in post-colonial contexts because colonial thinking has shaped, for example, the education structures, social organisation, and habits of post-colonial cultures.

Further, internationalisation is criticised for its implicit arrogance and perpetuation of elitism, where it has been perceived “as an efficient instrument to educate the uncivilised and reflects Western cultural imperialism and claims of global hegemony” (Stier, 2006, p. 4).

Internationalisation is not necessarily about where the influence is from, but that students are exposed to global education, including cultural learning, to prepare them to live and work in a global space with respect and tolerance. Therefore, the internationalising of higher education must be cognizant of students' ‘truth’ (for example, knowledge and culture) (Cardoza, 2015); while adopting the best approach for incorporating the international (or external) influence into their systems to provide global learning. As de Wit (2011) has argued, internationalisation is a means to enhance students' contributions to society.

Trends in internationalisation

Generally, international education trends show a growing emphasis on student mobility (Knight, 2012b), offshore staff programmes, and research (Ota, 2018). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO, 2006) has projected that global education's demand will increase significantly by 2025. Higher education has been experiencing an increase

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in student mobility in some universities at the regional level and creating partnerships with international universities (University of the West Indies, 2016-2017). The Caribbean Conference on Higher Education (2010) and the Third Caribbean, African and the Pacific States and European Union (EU) Business Forum (2015) identified the internationalisation of higher education in the Caribbean as a regional focus. The Caribbean Conference on higher education (2010) stated:

We support efforts that promote academic cooperation, collaboration, and internationalisation between and among Caribbean higher education institutions to benefit students, teachers, researchers and the institutions themselves (p. 2).

The Caribbean Community (CARICOM), Common Single Market and Economy (CSME), which “is considered the best vehicle for economic development and integration” (CARICOM, 2017, n.p.), supports this focus. CSME alludes to common standards in reform programmes across the Caribbean (Caribbean Conference on Higher Education, 2010; Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institution, 2014). There is a call for the standards to reflect the realities at different levels, including national (local country), regional (Caribbean countries) and international levels (countries apart from the local and regional governments) (Caribbean Conference on Higher Education, 2010; Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institution, 2014).

Internationalisation motives

Generally, higher education institutions internationalise for financial benefit through the recruitment of international students. Knight (2004) has argued that higher education is increasingly seeking to internationalise to supplement income received from public financing. The economic benefit through internationalisation in terms of income generation (Engwall, 2016) has merit for the College in that income from international students will supplement state financing as the College has no other sources of funds.

The internationalisation of higher education also has educational and social motives linked to economic value. Higher education prepares students to function in socially diverse groups across borders. This education focus is essential to this study because the College prepares

students to work in schools where they, in turn, are in a position to influence their students to live and work in a global space. Willis and Taylor's (2014) study has found that higher education institutions also internationalise for educational benefits, though, for example, curriculum, administrative procedures, and processes and social practices among diverse populations, thereby encouraging the sharing of multicultural experiences (Leask, 2013). Leask (2013) has explained that the curriculum – which includes planned and unplanned activities – is one way to internationalise higher education by adjusting curriculum content (Black, 2004; Leask, 2013), thus allowing the incorporation of global or international features into 'why', 'what' and 'how' (Knight, 2004), or the goals, functions, and delivery of the curriculum (Knight, 2013). Knight (2004) has also argued that, generally speaking, the curriculum is nationally based, meaning its content and activities are specific to a given national context; therefore, "foreign influence is felt in the methodology and approaches" in teaching (p. 16). For example, the integration of technology (Zupanc & Zupanc, 2009; Yan Yan, 2010; Lugovtsova, Krasnova, & Torhova, 2012), such as the use of screens, projectors, smart boards, and virtual learning. Foreign influence is also evident in the inclusion of foreign languages (Zupanc & Zupanc, 2009; Yan Yan, 2010; Lugovtsova, Krasnova, & Torhova, 2012) and international content such as specific courses on multicultural, global and international education as well as comparative studies (Knight, 2012b). Technology is becoming a universal mode of communication with the increasing use of social media (Billingham, Cragg, & Bentley, 2003) and the English language, the latter being one of the widely used languages; therefore, exposure to the use of technology in the curriculum as described by Leask (2013) will support internationalisation's educational and social motives.

Internationalisation does not only refer to curriculum and curriculum delivery (Knight, 2004); it also concerns administrative processes and activities such as students and staff's exposure to international education online learning, whether at-home or abroad (Knight, 2002; Zupanc & Zupanc, 2009; Yan Yan, 2010; Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009; Yemini, 2014). In addition, Yemini (2014) has argued that courses that emphasise an international focus on teaching and learning help students to acquire "a sense of global citizenship" (p. 21), including understanding, respecting, and functioning effectively among diverse cultures. Higher education staff or students going to an international institution abroad may not necessarily experience this

'global understanding'. For example, if Guyanese higher education students or graduates were to migrate to an environment with a high population of Guyanese, there would be no global understanding in relation to English language use (Rhoads & Selényi, 2011) because English is Guyana's official language. The College reflects the multicultural nature of Guyanese society; hence there is an opportunity for shared cultural experiences with international students. This, Sawir (2013) has argued, "is the purpose of internationalising education" (p. 366). However, there are several issues surrounding cultural learning. For example, patterns of euro-centric knowledge continued to exist in societies that experienced colonial dominance Walsh (cited in Cardozo, 2015). Cardozo (2015) argued about the prevalence of colonial domination influencing epistemologies and identities in sovereign states. Levia (2012) has referred to this prevalence as the afflictions of colonialism on post-colonial cultures; for instance, colonial ideologies shaped the Guyanese education system, social ideologies and habits of the people, even as the nation struggles for a post-colonial culture. Thus, international influence from the developed world (North) may easily influence local students' habits and cause loss of identity (Abdi, Shultz, & Pillay, 2015), including who they are as individuals and as Guyanese.

The presence of a diverse student population does not necessarily mean students will automatically share and learn from each other; they must be willing to participate in cultural learning (Sawir, 2013) to be effective. Hence, the acquisition of this cultural experience should not be left to chance but structured to feel comfortable when connecting and interacting with others who are culturally different (Olson, Evans, & Shoenberg, 2007). Leask's (2013) all-embracing curriculum (formal, non-formal and hidden) is a means by which students can acquire international education, including cultural learning on campus or online.

The influence of internationalisation seems inescapable. It may be derived from institutions that position themselves as more powerful or better-equipped learning institutions (Altbach, 2004). An example of this influence is education reform through partnerships (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Veiga do Santos & Guimarares-losif, 2013). Partnerships strengthen the institution's profile and build a reputation (Willis & Taylor, 2014). In regard to the College, education reform was achieved by a merger with the state university as well as by collaboration and partnerships with regional and international institutions. However, these arrangements did not

mean bringing internationalisation to higher education; as Black (2004), Eddy (2010), and Yesufu (2018) have argued, the response to internationalisation's influence is not automatic when there are "push-pull" factors (Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009, p. 219).

In other words, higher education has a choice whether to react to external influence as it is guided by, for example, the realities of the prevailing context, resources and strategic priorities (Willis & Taylor, 2014). Further, notwithstanding its motive, internationalisation is a process that can occur at any point in the higher education system and is not necessarily a goal in itself; instead, it is a way for higher education institutions to enhance education quality (de Wit & Hans, 2011). Additionally, though internationalisation may exist unintentionally (Luxon & Peelo, 2009; Hoey, 2016), it must be deliberate, meaning it must be approved by the ESC and MoE and planned and budgeted for in its local context, hence the importance of policy for internationalisation in context.

Internationalisation policies and higher education

Policies are essential to internationalising higher education (Altbach & Knight, 2007) while implementing a clearly defined internationalisation policy encourages internationalisation (Capt, 2013; Ota, 2018). A policy decision is critical to this study as policy must guide initiatives at the College. Willis and Taylor (2014) have discussed internationalisation as "specific policies" (p. 154) that governments and higher education institutions undertake to internationalise. The sanction of an internationalisation policy depends on, for instance, the political, economic and social forces working to influence policy decisions (Capt, 2013) and are likely to have a noticeable effect on all levels of the education system. In other words, through MoE and the ESC and BoG, the government must decide whether internationalisation is an initiative that is worthy of investment.

The absence of such a policy does not necessarily mean that policymakers are oblivious to the implications of globalisation and internationalisation for higher education. There might be different interpretations, and manifestations as existing policies may differ across contexts (Soilemetzidis, 2010). A deliberate internationalisation policy in context would require collaboration and consensus between the ESC and the BoG policymaking bodies to obviate any

disconnects as this could hinder internationalisation progress and may result in a situation whereby policymaking bodies have conflicting views (Lang, 2016).

Internationalisation policy aside, activities suggestive of internationalisation, though unintended or unplanned, often start from the bottom-up or at the micro or classroom level (Luxon & Peelo, 2009; Hoey, 2016). However, school administrators in context may not value and/or support unplanned activities at the classroom level for reasons of accountability and perhaps out of fear that the supervising education officers may deem the activities counter to the Ministry's thrust of "reducing the disparity in the system" (College, 2019b, p. 2). Nonetheless, classroom activities should not be overlooked but supported as "the conduit and the focus for policy implementation strategies" (Luxon & Peelo, 2009, p. 58). Further, based on the work of Hoey (2016), there is an indication that "good internationalisation is often bottom-up, accidental and largely unpredictable" (p. 39), for example, international students who register at higher education institutions or lecturers who spent sabbaticals abroad.

1. Theoretical framework

Historical, social, cultural, political and educational contextual factors have traditionally influenced teacher training institutions. These institutions may share a similar overarching goal to prepare teachers for the education systems. Still, the expectation for them to reproduce "national education systems" (Leutwyler, Popov, & Wolhuter, 2017, p. 66) could mean that they would have little if any scope to cater for their differences and experiences. Nonetheless, they are challenged to develop their ways of "an appropriate internationalisation for teacher education" (Leutwyler, Popov, & Wolhuter, 2017, p. 67) as one internationalisation model is not applicable across different contexts.

The researcher adopted two models for this research, a governance model from Stoker (1998), Enders (2004) and Altrichter (2015) to address the aspect of governance in the internationalisation process and an internationalisation model from Chan and Dimmock (2008).

Internationalisation models

1.1.1 The governance model

The change process in bringing internationalisation to the College may be complicated, for instance, because the different policymaking bodies from which the internationalisation agenda might develop may not share the same expectations. Also, issues over who – either the BoG or ESC – has the ultimate say in the change process (Sundaramurthy & Lewis, 2003) could hamper the internationalisation agenda. Further, persons respond differently to different situations, and everyone may not be inclined to buy into change, or at least not at the same time. Bleiklie and Kogan's (2006) study has argued that change occurs at varying times depending on a given institution's element that needs to change; this apparent uncertainty regarding when change is likely to occur may further hinder the process (Bleiklie & Kogan, 2006). In context, stakeholders may have different perspectives concerning whether the College should internationalise. The change process needs a collaborative effort in order to identify what to develop, fund, implement, and monitor. Therefore, the researcher adopted the governance model because it encompasses the College's operations and bears on where power and authority lie in terms of whether the College internationalises or not. This model also recognises the importance of a clearly defined role for tiers within a governance structure.

Generally, governance is about who has power, what relationships exist between actors within the structure, and who is accountable (Asaduzzaman & Virtanen, 2016). This model has been significant because the college researched here is state-owned, while one argument for its applicability is that the state alone could not ensure that institutional change would be realised (Altrichter, 2015). The discussion was based on the premise that the state-owned institution relied on the functions of the Education Systems Committee, the College Board of Governors, and the College Administration and staff. An internationalisation plan, therefore, would require actions from the state's policymakers, the College Board, the College Administration, and staff in order to achieve the desired change. In context, this model has the potential for actors to cooperate to reach institutional goals.

The governance model is not one of hierarchical control and top-down decisions but one with the potential to support collaboration and partnerships. These partnerships are not self-organising and have a structure that provides all stakeholders with joint participation at different levels regarding organisational planning, policy development, and implementation decisions (Enders, 2004). Further, the model provides the framework for the interaction of processes, structures and traditions, which “determine how power and responsibilities are exercised, how decisions are taken, and how citizens and stakeholders have their say” (Asaduzzaman & Virtanen, 2016, p. 3).

Another benefit of the governance model is that it provides for shared responsibilities between nonstate and state actors (Enders, 2004) to direct, implement, regulate and sustain initiatives (Stoker, 1998; Eddy, 2010; Altrichter, 2015; Yesufu, 2018). This shared responsibility implies that the governance model is likely to, as outlined by Deloitte (2013), allow for:

- (i) Improved clarity by regularly reviewing the roles and responsibilities of actors, information flow and accountability;
- (ii) The institution seeking to increase visibility through guidelines concerning decision-making among different levels of actors;
- (iii) Greater harmonisation among actors; and
- (iv) Increased effectiveness regarding the ease of information flow, such as who should distribute the information, how often, and the circumstances for communicating and reviewing the information.

Notwithstanding the governance model's merits, one concern discussed by Asaduzzaman and Virtanen (2016) is that governance may fail if there is no aggregated interest. For instance, in context, the disconnect between policymakers and administrators, between the ESC and the BoG, or the teachers' union and the state about whether or not to internationalise would not support the governance model.

1.1.2 The internationalisation model: The translocalist model

The researcher scrutinised the advantages and disadvantages of three models for internationalising higher education, namely the globalist, internationalist and translocalist models, respectively (Chan & Dimmock, 2008). Strategies for internationalising through the globalist model include teaching developed countries' curricula in schools established by those countries or individuals/organisations in less developed countries. Such education provision is primarily for expatriates and families to prepare to work on returning to their home country. Also, because of this model's emphasis on accreditation and aligning qualifications globally, students can continue their education seamlessly in a similar school in another country. Local families who have the financial means can also access this foreign curriculum. As a model for internationalisation, it is inconsiderate of the local curriculum content. It does not deliberately encourage cultural sharing but rather constitutes an elitist system (Stier, 2006) where the affluent and privileged benefit.

The internationalist model is applicable to internationalising higher education in those developed countries with a multicultural population, where higher education institutions are research-driven, and the majority of faculty have international experience. World rankings are essential to higher education institutions in this grouping as they aim to position themselves among the world's top universities. The strategies for internationalising higher education in these contexts are international alliances, global delivery through offshore campuses, and distance education online programmes. The internationalist model's characteristics do not reflect the College's context.

Chan and Dimmock's (2008) translocalist model for internationalisation is aimed at developing countries with a colonial past, a homogeneous culture, and an emphasis on nation-building. The higher education institutions in this group are undergraduate teaching institutions with various forms of governance and management, the majority of staff are trained overseas online, and the institutions aim to provide quality (namely, current and relevant) education. The internationalisation strategy is communicated through the curriculum by incorporating international elements and global education content, supplemented by partnerships. This model relates to the context of this study.

Approaches to internationalising higher education institutions

There are several approaches to internationalising higher education. Lugovtsova, Krasnova and Torhova (2012) and the Internal Associations of Universities (2012) have discussed inward-looking and outward-looking responses or approaches to internationalisation, including internationalisation at-home and abroad.

The inward response

This inward response refers to higher education identifying practices and procedures from within to improve operations across a given institution (Lugovtsova, Krasnova, & Torhova, 2012; Internal Associations of Universities, 2012). It involves, for example, the promotion of staff within the institution and the sharing of 'good' classroom practices while also allowing for synergy across departments/centres. Higher education institutions having synergy across departments is an indication that the academic practices are in line with established institutional standards.

In context, there are universal standards across departments and satellite centres. For example, all students admitted to their respective programmes have the exact entry requirements. Also, teaching staff have similar teaching requirements for appointments to the College. The inward-looking response has implications for teaching staff with similar skills, knowledge and experience in all centres. Holders of master's level qualifications coming into higher education in Guyana seem to prefer to work at the state university, where the remuneration package is probably the pull factor. The inability of the College to attract employees with second-degree qualifications (World Bank, 2010) is also suggestive of the institution's failure to attract staff with international experience to contribute to its internationalisation efforts.

Also, all the College's centres share identical curricula and course content related to the programmes offered at the centre. There is a commonality between course outlines, modules and assessment strategies across centres. However, the use of technology in the learning and teaching process, for example, differs depending on factors such as the availability of the technology and supporting infrastructure, teaching staff knowledge about technology and

technology integration, as well as their inclination to use technology in classrooms (Lu, Tie, & Chua, 2013).

Further, students are likely to expect equality of learning and teaching opportunities (Hénard, Diamond, & Roseveare, 2012) regardless of the College centre they have chosen. Notwithstanding the value of standardisation and commonality that an inward-looking response to internationalisation can bring, this response as a standalone strategy cannot drive, for example, new international content and teaching methodologies in an institution's curriculum. Hence, it has the potential to encourage inbreeding, which could stifle an institution's ability to incorporate new ideas in the teaching and learning experiences of students, thus making them less prepared to live and work in a globalised world. The inward approach to internationalisation at-home in context requires a broader concept than Lugovtsova, Krasnova and Torhova's (2012) identification of practice from within. What is required is a strategy that will expose students to, for example, international education and new methodologies (Altbach, 2004) as characterised by Chan and Dimmock (2008).

The outward response

The outward response involves movement or mobility (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003) of, for example, people and ideas between higher education institutions across countries. This activity is similar to Engwall's (2016) concepts of outsourcing and insourcing of people and ideas, Knight's (2012b) 'student mobility, and de Wit and Jones' (2017) credit mobility and degree mobility. Mobility exposes students and staff to international educational experiences and a curriculum that reflects "international content", according to Harari (cited in Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 15). It involves higher education institutions looking abroad for students, staff and ideas. People 'move' to fill vacant positions as lecturers/professors (perhaps on sabbatical), pursue graduate and postgraduate degree programmes, participate in study tours, conferences, seminars and attachments to acquire international experience (World Bank, 2010; Engwall, 2016).

In addition to the recruitment of people, higher education institutions recruit ideas through education consultants. In this study's context, under the Guyana Improvement Teacher

Education Project (World Bank, 2010), consultants hired from regional and international sources have incorporated new ideas in the Associate Degree curriculum, with the assistance of local consultants to ensure it was current and relevant to the College. Furthermore, the mobility through recruitment of students “is frequently mentioned as the key to internationalisation” (Engwall, 2016, p. 226). Its motives include income generation, reputation building and dissemination of culture and ideas (Engwall, 2016). The higher the number of students recruited, the higher the institution's capacity to earn more revenue, hence the greater the probability of a diverse group of students. However, Sawir (2013) has argued that local students are immobile; that is, they cannot travel abroad because of financial and other constraints. Therefore, they will not benefit from international experiences such as cultural exposure, diversity, and international education. Contrary to this argument, students can acquire internationalisation experience at-home (Chan & Dimmock 2008; Knight, 2012b).

Internationalisation of the curriculum

A vast body of literature supports curriculum changes as significant in terms of internationalising higher education. For example, Knight (2002), Deardoff (2006), Crosling, Edwards and Schroder (2008), Knight (2012a, b), Billingham, Gragg and Bentley (2013), Leask (2013), Sawir (2013), Leutwyler, Popov and Wolhuter (2017), and de Wit and Jones (2017) have recognised the value of inclusion and diversity in the curriculum and in its function in relation to preparing students for the global environment. Deardoff (2006) has posited that internationalising the curriculum can encourage the understanding and appreciation of various cultures. Leask (2013) has gone beyond the intercultural and international benefits of internationalising the curriculum and has contended that student support, services and campus culture are essential considerations in curriculum internationalisation. Rensburg, Motala and David (2015) have found that curriculum internationalisation creates more significant social linkages and provides a better opportunity for knowledge sharing and a more prosperous nation.

Internationalising curriculum activities or the learning-teaching process (Trowler, 2004) is an essential medium through which internationalisation can be inculcated in higher education by ideas imported/insourced from other contexts (Engwall, 2016). Luxon and Peelo (2009) have explained that curriculum adjustment is “a lever of change” (p. 58) and is at the centre of the

internationalisation process, while Leask (2013) argued that the curriculum is “a critical component of any university’s internationalisation strategy” (p. 103). Leask (2013) has also defined the curriculum as the syllabus, planned learning outcomes and student activities, explaining that curriculum referred to the following: (i) formal (planned activities from the course outline); (ii) informal (events outside of the regular instruction time, for example, sports and games, social clubs); and (iii) hidden curricula (students learning values, beliefs and cultures in everyday interactions).

A common theme of internationalisation appears to be the need for commonality in the curriculum across contexts to ensure comparable curriculum offerings among higher education institutions of a similar nature, such as regional teachers’ colleges (Caribbean Conference on Higher Education, 2010). In terms of internationalising the curriculum, this commonality, as Sawir (2013) has argued, is “inappropriate” as it would restrict the scope of teaching and thereby damage “the integrity of the subject” (p. 362).

Generally speaking, there is broad support for an adjusted curriculum that prepares students to work ‘at-home’ and abroad (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbly, 2009; Luxon & Peelo, 2009; Hénard, Diamond, & Roseveare, 2012; Knight, 2012a). Luxon and Peelo (2009) further explained that an adjusted curriculum would allow students to acquire internationally recognised qualifications, joint degrees, and a foreign language. These are likely to enhance the institution’s credibility, especially if the joint degree offerings are with higher education institutions with a good reputation within their home country. A curriculum that prepares students for jobs abroad would also cater to international students and local students’ needs. However, in context, such a curriculum is likely to provide the impetus that encourages teacher migration and thus exacerbates the scarcity of professional teachers in Guyana (World Bank, 2010).

The curriculum adjustments that could be considered regarding bringing internationalisation to higher education are summarised by Crosling, Edwards and Schroder’s (2008) proposed typology. These include the following: (i) awareness, where students learn international content, perhaps, through courses on global education; (ii) competence involving interactions with

students who are culturally different; and (iii) expertise acquired through foreign language courses or through exchange programmes. As the College seeks to internationalise, it would be necessary to decide on the most appropriate curriculum activity according to its purpose, mission and vision. In doing so, it should ensure that the curriculum is not “diverging from more modern regional, Caribbean and international standards” (Ministry of Education, 2020, p. 75).

However, the curriculum should allow for commonality but be designed “to meet the challenges posed by globalisation” (Ministry of Education, 2008, p. 7). Hence, the College should devote more attention to the curriculum to accentuate technology in the teaching-learning process (World Bank, 2010) while ensuring the curriculum caters for international experiences, such as global knowledge, diversity, and technology integration in ‘at-home activities’ (Knight, 2012b). The curriculum must maintain content and methodologies specific to the local context while infusing international experience.

Technology integration and internationalisation

Over the decades, technology has become a significant focus of higher education (Prensky, 2004; Stenensson & Wihlborg, 2010). For example, distance learning and e-learning, or online learning, are modalities of the internationalisation of higher education (Middlemas & Peat, 2015; Zakaria, Saquib, & Bashir, 2016) and which are enhanced by distance learning supported by connectivity (Siemens, 2008). With the increasing use of social media and virtual platforms for collaborative and online learning, technology integration is “a very effective internationalising practice” (Billingham, Cragg, & Bentley, 2003, p. 25).

In context, it would be ambitious for the College to, from the onset, seek to have staff and students travel abroad as this activity is not catered for in the government’s budgetary allocation to the institution. The option of online learning as an internationalisation technology strategy is a relatively more helpful strategy because, regarding the teaching staff, it would reduce the burdens associated with having to travel abroad to study for lengthy periods (twelve months or more) as the absence of staff leaves a void in the institution. Teaching staff would remain at-home and access classes online. It follows that policymaker would not experience the challenge

to fill vacant positions in an environment where human resources are scarce (World Bank, 2010; College, 2015, 2016).

In considering new technology and online learning for bringing internationalisation to the College, the challenge is for it to have the systems and supporting infrastructure to integrate the online platform as a modality for programme offering. Altbach (2004) has argued that technology integrated into teaching and learning would expose students to new methodologies, so they would experience foreign influence through new ways of learning, in other words, the borrowed idea (Engwall, 2016). Additionally, new technology could bring with it barriers such as “access to the technology, training and support during technology integration” (Lu, Tie, & Chua, 2013, p. 12).

Choosing what to internationalise

Knight and de Wit (1995) and Qiang (2003) have discussed four areas to consider in internationalising higher education. Firstly, there is the “activity approach” (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 16; Qiang, 2003, p. 250) where the College can implement only academic activities, for example, curriculum restructuring, research collaboration, student and staff exchanges, and technical support (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003). Academic activities alone may not be enough for curriculum effectiveness, which has implications for an internationalised curriculum's efficacy and sustainability. Consequently, the internationalisation of the curriculum would also depend on the “competency approach” (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 16; Qiang, 2003, p. 250) for it to work well.

Competency (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003) refers to, for example, capacity building so that teaching staff, including the College's administrators, could manage the internationalised curriculum or be able to use the knowledge acquired by teaching staff and/or students in relation to insourcing or outsourcing (Engwall, 2016). In context, staff and management should acquire relevant new knowledge and skills about internationalisation and the management of internationalised programmes. In addition, exposure to training in the preparation, delivery and assessment of online learning is likely to build staff competence.

'Activity' and 'competency' (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003) apart, the third consideration is the 'ethos approach' (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 16; Qiang, 2003, p. 251), which requires the College to develop a supportive culture, for example, the new competency acquired and the international curriculum activities implemented. This approach suggests that staff and students should learn and/or align values, if necessary, to appreciate the need for technology integration as opposed to the use of traditional 'chalk and talk' in terms of the delivery of the internationalised curriculum (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Smollan & Sayers, 2009).

Fourthly, the 'process approach' (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 16; Qiang, 2003, p. 251) emphasises the need for institutional policies to support, in this instance, the College's overall internationalisation plan. It follows that the overarching internationalisation policy should identify what the curriculum should cater to (whether foreign language education, global education, or technology integration). It should also identify the institutional practices (for example, student attachment/exchange programmes) and capacity building for staff (study abroad programmes, study tours) in the internationalising strategy.

The activity, competence, ethos and process approaches (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003) are separate approaches to internationalisation, but one may require the others to work well. For instance, the lack of a supportive culture for internationalisation may result in new curriculum activities being short-lived or in a weak infusion of the process required because, like with any new initiative, supportive culture is crucial for buy-in by staff and students, thereby leading to change and the sustainability of change (Boyce, 2003). Additionally, the competency approach may require some policy decisions to facilitate staff attachment and study tours. It may also involve memoranda of understanding between institutions, either within or across borders, to aid exchange programmes.

Institutional preparedness for internationalisation

An institution's readiness to internationalise is critical, as emphasised in the work of Rumbley, Altbach and Reisberg (2012). Higher education leaders must recognise globalisation trends and the need for internationalisation to respond to their institutions' needs and peculiarities. It follows that while this preparedness emanates from the top management level, the argument of

distributed leadership (Knight & Trowler, 2001; Morrill, 2007; Marshall, 2007) becomes fundamental. The given institution's administration must be ready to respond to push-back (Strohl, 2006) and other challenges, such as the teaching staff's struggles to relate their practice to internationalisation (Daniels, 2013). Distributive leadership is critical for all stakeholders to acquire the culture, attitude and willingness necessary to drive change.

Summary

Globalisation and internationalisation are concepts of mutual agents of change in higher education (Ota, 2018), though they have their distinctions. Globalisation is an influence that powerful, economically viable nations usually trigger to build global economies. States respond to globalisation differently, depending on their priorities. The response to globalisation that is not automatic is internationalisation (Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009).

Internationalisation in higher education is a deliberate act of bringing foreign or international elements into, for example, its curriculum, administrative processes, and social practices while encouraging cultural diversity in the student population.

Trends in internationalisation emphasise students and staff's mobility and collaboration in research (Knight, 2012b; Ota, 2018) alongside the growing demands for global education (UNESCO, 2006). Regionally, the Caribbean Conference on Higher Education (2010) and the Third Caribbean, African and the Pacific States and European Union (EU) Business Forum (2015) Have identified the internationalisation of higher education in the Caribbean as requiring a regional focus. At the local level, there seems to be no internationalisation policy in the Guyana education system. That said, the activities of GITEP are indicative of internationalisation.

Two models identified as important in this research are, first, the governance model or theory (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) because of its tendency to support policy decisions and collaboration which can be adapted as an appropriate model to bring internationalisation to the College, and, second, the translocalist internationalisation model adapted from Chan and Dimmock (2008). The governance model addresses internationalisation's objective, particularly in terms of efforts to achieve sustainability through policy and governance practices. The translocalist internationalisation model addresses the internationalisation processes within an

institution. Indeed, higher education can look inward or outward in order to internationalise (Lugovtsova, Krasnova & Torhova, 2012; Internal Associations of Universities, 2012), whether that be at-home (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) or abroad (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbly, 2009; Hénard, Diamond, & Roseveare, 2012; Knight, 2012a), depending on their internationalisation aim.

Internationalisation has several benefits, such as collaborative partnerships in research areas, setting standards regarding programme structure and course credits (Eddy, 2010), and shared values and common standards in a given social space. It also has financial, educational and social benefits. One downside to internationalisation is its ability to encourage the feeling of superiority as some contexts may regard others as inferior (Stier, 2006); hence, the values of tolerance and respect are paramount in the internationalisation process. Internationalisation may also result in brain drain (migration of professionals) as professionals with international experience may be attracted to profitable institutions. Another is that internationalising higher education resembles the colonial era (Altbach, 2006), with ideas from superior cultures accepted as necessary globally and can therefore be mistaken as colonisation through Western education's imposition on local contexts (Stier, 2006). The next chapter discusses the methodology and research method used in this study.

Chapter 3.

Methodology

This chapter provides an overview of the mixed research methodology used in this study. It outlines the research purpose, data sources and instrument, and rationale for its mixed methods approach. Also discussed is the study design considering the research method, research site, and participant selection. The chapter expounds on the data collection process and analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data gathered and discusses parameters established for validity and reliability, including triangulation, participatory research, members check, catering for research bias, and ethical considerations. The chapter presents the researcher's positionality and concludes with a summary of its main aspects.

Research purpose

The research purpose was to gain insights into the readiness of the teacher's college in Guyana to internationalise as proffered by, for example, Altbach and Knight (2007) and Veiga do Santos and Guimaraes-losif (2013), whether the College in any way responded, even unknowingly, to global influences (Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009), or whether there are evidence of internationalisation elements in its practices and/or procedures (Zupanc & Zupanc, 2009; Yan Yan, 2010; Lugovtsova, Krasnova, & Torhova, 2012).

The College did not seem to have a deliberate policy on internationalisation. However, one of its strategic goals was to create and/or strengthen partnerships with similar institutions nationally and regionally (MoE, 2014) – perhaps unintentionally – recalling how Black (2004), World Bank (2010), Eddy (2010), and Yesufu (2018) have treated internationalisation practices. Additionally, the researcher aligned the purpose of the research against the backdrop of: (i) the global level, to explore higher education in light of internationalisation (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbly, 2009); (ii) the regional level, to align the research with the focus of the internationalisation of higher education in the Caribbean (Caribbean Conference on Higher Education, 2010); and (iii) the local level, focussing on internationalisation work in relation to realities at the *local level* to understand, for example, the interests and concerns of academic staff (Willis & Taylor, 2014), policymakers, and students.

The main research question

How ready is the College to internationalise?

The subsidiary questions:

1. How have international, regional, or national policies influenced the College's changes?
2. According to participants, to what extent is the College ready to internationalise?
3. What does the term 'internationalisation' mean in the context of the College?
4. What would (a) enable and (b) challenge the internationalisation of the College?
5. Which institutional activities, if any, at the College are internationalisation opportunities?
6. What should the College internationalise and how?

Mixed methodology and rationale

Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) have identified themes that define mixed research methodologies and the mixed research paradigm, which has helped to develop this study's mixed research methods. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner's work has been cited because it draws from several writers' results in mixed methods research.

Mixed methods research in this study encompasses a single case study where the researcher used a combination of two or more research approaches to yield quantitative and qualitative data (Green, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The researcher chose the mixed research approach to offset any weaknesses in the qualitative and quantitative methods (Bryman, 2006, 2009; Creswell, 2006, 2009; Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2015) so that the methods complemented each other (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) in relation to, for example, triangulation, and complementarity. Although the researcher employed mixed research methods (questionnaires, focus group and interviews), the qualitative techniques of the research had more weight because of the study's exploratory nature. Schoonenboom and Johnson (2017) have explained that such an approach can be characterised as being 'qualitatively driven'. Further, the topic under study is multidimensional and seemed to be a ground-breaking one because there was no evidence of research work in the area studied at the time of the research. Its potential complexities justified the subjective nature of the research questions and the heavier weighting on the qualitative techniques of the mixed approach used to explore and understand the social (internationalisation) phenomenon in context.

Ability to accommodate various research techniques

The research questions and objectives supported a mixed research method (Creswell, 2006) in data collection and analysis as well as supporting the research conclusions (Yin, 2009; Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2015). In the researcher's literature search about research on internationalising higher education, the authors used a qualitative method and document analysis, including, for example, Black (2004), Chan and Dimmock (2008), Tham (2013), Leask (2013), and Willis and Taylor (2014). Further, the researcher could not draw on specific examples of research that employed the case study strategy and used qualitative and quantitative methods to internationalise at the institution's level. Therefore, the researcher designed the

objectives and questions of the research to favour a mixed approach for capturing the questionnaire survey for a general understanding of the case study; using a method that required dialogue as a social constructivist way of knowing, hence the focus group discussion; facilitating an in-depth analysis of the phenomenon, thereby necessitating the use of semi-structured interviews; and ascertaining what existed in context through a document review.

Research paradigm of the study

Underpinning the mixed research methodology (Moses & Knutsen, 2007; Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2015), like any other research approach, is the associated paradigm. Further, because mixed research has multiple paradigms, the researcher in this study provides an explanation to support which paradigm informed the definition used. The definition used in this study offers an understanding of the conceptual framework that has influenced the research.

A paradigm is a general view of a set of assumptions that guide a researcher's actions concerning the approach used (Hall, 2013). Generally, three assumptions shape a paradigm, namely, the researchers' ontological assumptions or opinions about the knowledge to be discovered, their epistemological assumptions or beliefs about their relationship with the research, and their methodological assumptions, the latter concerning their beliefs about how knowledge is found (Hall 2013).

The pragmatist's concern is more with finding answers to research questions than ontology, reality and epistemology or one's theory of knowledge (Parvaiz, Mufti, & Wahab, 2016). Considering the types of research questions, philosophically speaking, the research appeared to be leading towards subjectivism and interpretivism. Shanks (2002) has explained that researchers can adopt a positivist approach to conducting case studies associated with pragmatism and realism. Case study research is located between positivism and realism on one side of the philosophical continuum and idealism and interpretivism on the other (Sexton, 2007), the latter making it adaptable to the researcher's philosophical beliefs. The case study strategy was compatible with the researcher's philosophical perspective – namely pragmatism – and thus supported it as an appropriate strategy to use in this study. In this research, the use of

mixed methods guided a paradigmatic approach (Green, 2007), one that allows for several ways of finding knowledge in a single case.

Qualitative and quantitative methods and their related paradigm features such as social constructivism are based on the belief that ideas and perspectives are not standard and are partial in terms of understanding a given phenomenon. Thus, the researcher found the dialogue in an environment of mutual respect critical for the qualitative blend required by a mixed methodology. The researcher blended the methods and related paradigm features interactively throughout the research within the methodological framework and addressed the research questions. In the study context, the researcher believed that engaging people in discussions about decisions that were likely to affect them is one way of demonstrating appreciation for their feelings and opinions. Hence, the choice of methodology was based on one that would allow the College stakeholders to have their 'voice' (Silverman, 2010; Hannan, 2007) or ideas considered in the exploration of the institution's readiness to internationalise. Weaving the stakeholders' voices into the research was also an opportunity for them to contribute to the insiders' perspective (McNiff & Whitehead, 2005; Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2006; Drake, 2011). In this research, the design used for all the data instruments (including for the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the methodology) facilitated the inclusion of participants voices (Silverman, 2010; Hannan, 2007), particularly given the use of questions requiring open-ended responses. Open-ended questions have the advantage of revealing free-form and in-depth responses.

The exploration was intended to inform the development of an internationalisation readiness framework to encourage and sustain internationalisation efforts at the College in the face of a dynamic educational landscape influenced by global trends while not generating any statistical generalisations. Hence, the findings are not universal (Burbules & Torres, 2000) but might be a helpful reference point for determining the College and other similar higher education institutions' respective levels of internationalisation readiness.

A single case study: The study's research strategy

The research strategy suggested the research direction, including the process used to conduct the research. A researcher can select from among several research strategies and, in so doing, must ensure that the strategy used is most applicable for the research undertaken (Yin, 2003). Among the research strategies used in educational research are action research, experiments, grounded theory, surveys, longitudinal studies, and case studies. The researcher adopted the case study strategy instead of other strategies as the most appropriate approach to this research. The case study is a methodology that allows one to explore a single phenomenon in a setting by using several methods to identify knowledge (Collis & Hussey, 2009). Additionally, case study research allows for rich data (Smithson, 2000; Patton, 2002; Schulze, 2003; Yin, 2003) through the accommodation of qualitative and quantitative methods. In this study, the use of the case study strategy allowed the researcher to, respectively, use a multiplicity of sources to collect and analyse data, answer the research questions satisfactorily, and support the use of qualitative and quantitative methods via a case study strategy (Yin, 2003; Gerring, 2007).

Exploration of a single phenomenon and selecting the case study strategy

Although the case study research strategy has its advantages – such as allowing an in-depth exploration of a situation through mixed research methods – it also has criticisms. For example, Yin (2003) has argued that a case study strategy does not have rigour, cannot be easily generalised, is biased, and time-consuming. This researcher, however, tested and piloted self-made data collection instruments to improve validity and reliability as well as the quality of the case study strategy. These tests are described later in this chapter.

Against such limitations, the researcher selected the case study based on Yin's (2003) conditions for its use as a strategy regarding the type of research questions that guided the study, the control of the events in the study, and the level to which the research focused on contemporary trends in higher education. The research questions in this study asked 'what', 'how', and 'why' questions regarding participants' perceptions, thereby satisfying Yin's (2003) first condition of research question type, namely, the justification for the use of the case study strategy in mixed methods. Regarding Yin's (2003) condition about the researcher's degree of control of behavioural events in the study, as an insider-researcher (Drake, 2011), the researcher

was in a position of authority and could control the behavioural events that arose. Hence, it was critical to separate the researcher from the researched (Drake, 2011) by strict adherence to the ethical principles and guidelines governing research derived from obtaining authorisation to access participants and their information, their contact and selection, securing their data, members check and ensuring the study's validity and reliability. The researcher expands on these points later in this chapter. Additionally, internationalising higher education is a contemporary issue in educational research, and more so at the institutional level (Willis & Taylor, 2014), which satisfied Yin's (2003) third condition for the use of a case study as a strategy focussing on a given situation or a case.

Suitability of the case study strategy

The research, based as it is on interpretivism, made the survey strategy alone less inapplicable. Adopting the experiment strategy requires manipulating independent variables in observing dependent variables' behaviours and providing treatment to controlled groups (Wellington, 2000). This research could not accommodate experimentation based on the research objectives and types of research questions. The researcher rejected the grounded theory as the research strategy though relatable to this present study as it "can be put to work, pragmatically, from the perspective, whether staunchly, positivists, radically constructivists, hypercritical, or anything in between" (Timonen, Foley, & Conlon, 2018, n.p.). The researcher rejected grounded theory because it is characterised by deriving a theory through the research process (Charmaz, 2003; Timonen, Foley, & Conlon, 2018), while this current study intended to *explore* a given context. Ethnographic research necessitates the researcher to be in the social space and interact, observe, and learn agents' behaviours (Willington, 2000). This strategy could be identified as the next alternative strategy for this current research as the researcher was an insider researcher (Drake, 2003). However, because the researcher wanted to investigate and describe the College from three data sets and not rely on participant observer data, the ethnographic approach (also due to time issues) was less suitable than the case study strategy.

Design of the study

One of the challenges of this research methodology was deciding what to mix and how the mixing should be done (Hall, 2013). The research design was ‘qualitatively driven’ (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017) in that the researcher relied heavily on the qualitative constructionist approach but also recognised the value of quantitative data derived from questionnaires for complementarity and to develop a better understanding of the College or given the single case under research (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017).

Hence, the research design was a single case study that involved a mixed-methods approach using the “parallel phases mixed design” (Ponce & Pagán- Maldonado, 2015, p. 117) to explore the case. The key components of the latter include the use of qualitative and quantitative methods simultaneously, a questionnaire instrument with open and closed-ended questions, and focus group and interview protocols to collect data, all of which were linked to the research questions as well as the unit of analysis (the teacher’s college in Guyana) and ultimately the criteria used to interpret the findings and to arrive at a conclusion (Yin, 2009; Ponce & Pagán- Maldonado, 2015) (see Figure 1).

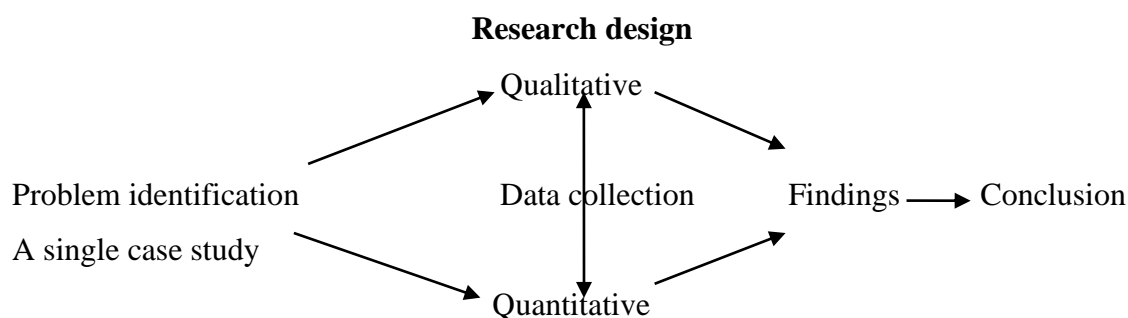


Figure 1. Research Design - A Single Case Study Involving Parallel Phases Mixed Methods (adapted from Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2015)

Selection of the case: The College

One of the reasons for selecting and researching the College is that this would facilitate a “detailed examination of one setting” (Wellington, 2000, p. 90). The researcher used the teacher’s college in Guyana to maximise knowledge about the institution and its readiness to internationalise. The researcher wanted to explore contextual conditions, situations and

perceptions about the 'readiness' of the College to internationalise. The study supports, for instance, Willis and Taylor's (2014) call for further research "at the local level to articulate an increasingly nuanced view of internationalisation that can bring together economic and 'Great Good' rationales" (p. 164). Hence, the participants and research sites were purposefully selected for their potential to provide a holistic understanding of the topic under research at the College (Creswell, 2006). Further, the selection relied on, for instance, participants' knowledge and experience, and their ability to share their experience, as well as their willingness and availability to participate in the research (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016).

At the time of this research, the College was the only teachers' college in Guyana that provided initial teacher training; hence, it was challenging to protect the institution's privacy with aliases in the final report as readers familiar with the local context were likely to recognise it. Further, the inclusion criteria for the students and academic staff to participate in the study can refer to any of the higher education institutions in Guyana. However, the inclusion criteria, coupled with the participation criteria for policymakers in this study, made it more difficult to conceal the institution's identity. Therefore, the researcher sought and obtained permission from the relevant authority for the institution's name to be revealed in the final study (see Appendix A).

Selection of participants

The researcher explored participants' perspectives to make inferences about the readiness of the teacher's college to internationalise. The researcher considered the works of Cassell (2009) and Oliver (2003) on access issues relating to proximity and availability in terms of the selecting participants. Following authorisation to access people and information (see Appendix B), a total of twenty-five (25) research participants were selected based on Onwuegbuzie and Collins' (2007) purposeful sampling scheme as it was apt to the research purpose, which was not to generalise but to draw insights about the college researched. Hence, the participants selected were poised to provide credible and rich data (Patton, 2002) in line with the mixed methods approach used.

The inclusion criteria for participants required that they were stakeholders of the College and from one of three major stakeholder groups, namely, policymakers (PM1-7), academic staff

(AS1-10), and students (S1-8) able “to give the researcher information-rich data about internationalisation” in context (Chan & Dimmock, 2008, p. 188). Further, the researcher needed to know how policymakers understood internationalisation as they are the ones who take action to move the internationalisation agenda (Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009; Capt, 2013). Leask (2013) has argued that any attempt to internationalise higher education must internationalise faculty as they are at the core of higher education change, hence the involvement of academic staff in this research. Sawir (2013) has supported the selection of students in internationalisation research, arguing that students facilitate internationalisation through their contribution of diverse cultures, and therefore are “of importance in the development of internationalisation” (p. 360).

Participants from each group were selected on a first-come, first-served basis and were likely to comprise persons with exposure to education in a foreign institution. For instance, at the time of this research, all academic staff under GITEP had the opportunity to pursue higher education in terms of full degrees (scholarship awardees) or take short courses in international higher education institutions. However, all academic staff did not make use of this opportunity (College, 2013). Policymakers from the ESC group are public servants with access to scholarship opportunities offered by the government's public sector scholarship division. However, it does not follow that every ESC member would have applied for and benefitted from such opportunities. Nonetheless, their contexts were based on the understanding that the policymakers selected could have included a person with international education exposure.

Students who come to the College are primarily students from secondary/high schools in Guyana. In some instances, students of Guyanese re-migrants, students who accessed high school abroad, and students from regional territories also enrol at the College. Therefore, there was a probability of a given student participant with exposure to international education. Policymakers came from ESC and BoG, the College's policy-making bodies. The number of years of professional experience at the MoE for policymakers ranged from sixteen (16) to more than thirty-six (36) years. Four (4) policymakers had more than thirty-six (36) years of experience, one (1) had more than twenty-five (25) but less than thirty-six (36) years, while two (2) had less than twenty-five (25) but more than sixteen (16) years.

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One (1) policymaker was from the College BoG and six (6) from the ESC. Six policymakers held administrative positions at different levels, including Chief Education Officer, Deputy Chief Education Officer, Assistant Chief Education Officer, Head of Education Department and Administrator. Policymakers' job responsibilities were specific to their office, but, as policymakers and collectively, as ESC members, they were responsible for the formulation of and overseeing policy implementation and its monitoring across departments within the Ministry of Education.

The participating academic staff were comprised of senior staff, heads of departments, and lecturers with various specialisations. The academic staff brought to this study their professional experiences either as vice-principal, department head, head of a satellite centre, or lecturer. Their years of experience working at the College ranged from ten (10) to twenty-five (25) years. Four (4) of the academic staff had less than fifteen (15) years' work experience at the College, while six (6) had between sixteen (16) years and twenty-five (25) years. Eighty per cent (80%) of the participants in this group also brought their higher education experiences from international institutions online or on campus.

Student participants were either graduates of the College, current part-time (In-Service Distance Education students), or full-time students (Pre-Service students). Six (6) of the student participants were female, one (1) was male, and one's (1) gender was unstated. One (1) student was less than 20 years old, four (4) were between the age range of 21-25, and three (3) were between the ages of 26-35. One (1) of the four (4) student participants (those in the age range of 21-25) had study abroad experience but not at the higher education level.

The researcher contacted participants through emails and SMS/WhatsApp text messaging. The emails and text messages sought participants' permission to be involved in the research while indicating the research purpose, procedures, and confidentiality issues. The researcher recruited participants on a first-come, first-served basis to ensure objectivity in the selection process and to reduce the psychological pressure of feeling compelled to participate. Seven (7) policymakers, ten (10) academic staff, and eight (8) students participated in the research.

Data collection and analysis

The association between participants' perceptions and their lived experiences is fundamental to decision making, as participants' notions come from their practical knowledge and interpretations of their environment (Berkes, 2004). In this research, participants shared information based on their experiences through the primary data collection instruments (questionnaires, focus groups, and semi-structured interviews) (see Appendix C) to determine the readiness of the teacher's college to internationalise. In addition, the researcher administered the observation checklist adapted from the Indicators for Mapping and Profiling Internationalisation (IMPI) Toolkit (IMPI, 2007) to determine what exists at the College in terms of internationalisation. Secondary data, for example, from organisational documents, were necessary to complement the mixed research.

Data collection process

Data instruments and their selection rationale

The researcher decided on a questionnaire, focus group discussions, and semi-structured interviews to gather, in the same order, general survey, small group, and individual participant data, respectively. The study was new in context and based on its potential for implementation; the researcher used every instrument available to explore the research questions in order to generate a better understanding of the topic in context.

Firstly, the questionnaire gave participants time to interact with its contents in their 'quiet space', meaning the absence of a semi-structured interviewer and group participants. The researcher thought that the first opportunity for participants to become familiar with the questions could make them more comfortable responding to similar items at other stages of the data collection process. The questionnaire served as the pre-determined questions for the next steps in the data collection process. Its responses provided the researcher with data regarding the general perspective/survey about the topic researched.

Secondly, the researcher conducted focus group discussions. At this stage, participants knew the questions and the information they were likely to share. There was a possibility of participants'

changing or reinforcing views shared in the first stage. The responses from focus group sessions or group semi-structured interviews provided data concerning their collective opinions.

Thirdly, participants responded to individual semi-structured interviews. Participants came to this last stage in the data collection process with new or reinforced ideas. They had the time between the first and last stages to reflect on their previous responses and decide what they wanted to share. Semi-structured interviews provided data on individual responses that were either consistent with the answers provided at the first and/or second stages of the data collection process. Throughout the data collection and analysis exercises, the researcher maintained a journal and engaged in data debriefing and confirmation when necessary.

Deciding on the items included in the questionnaire

Data collection instruments or concepts developed previously by researchers in the same area can be accepted verbatim or customised for another research in the same or similar area studied. Such questions are easier to work with once they satisfy the research study's objectives because their validity and reliability have been tested previously. Alternatively, a researcher can use ideas garnered from the literature reviewed to design questions for a current study.

The latter option applied to this research because the researcher did not find questions specific to the research objective. This approach required more time, as the questions were new and needed testing in terms of validity and reliability. Consequently, the researcher pre-tested and piloted the questions. The literature reviewed provided the following ideas or themes relating to the internationalisation of higher education which guided the questions' design:

- (i) The conceptualisation of internationalisation (Altbach & Knight, 2007; de Wit, 2011; Dzvimbo & Moloi, 2013; Willis & Taylor, 2014; Rensburg, Motala, & David, 2015);
- (ii) Constraints, motivations, and programmes supporting the internationalisation effort (Chan & Dimmock, 2008);
- (iii) Internationalising the Curriculum (Leask, 2013);
- (iv) Technology integration and online learning (Knight, 2012b; Prensky, 2004; Zupanc & Zupanc, 2009; Yan Yan, 2010; Stenensson & Wihlborg, 2010; Lugovtsova, Krasnova, &

- Torhova, 2012; Lu, Tie & Chua, 2013; Middlemas & Peat, 2015; Zakarias, Saquib & Bashir, 2016);
- (v) Student mobility, institutions' climate (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003; Sawir, 2013; de Wit & Jones, 2017);
- (vi) Administrative processes, international education, online learning (Knight, 2002; Zupanc & Zupanc, 2009; Yan Yan, 2010; Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009; Yemini, 2014);
- (vii) Change agents in internationalisation (Ota, 2018);
- (viii) Internationalisation approaches (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003; Lugovtsova, Krasnova & Torhova, 2012; Internal Associations of Universities, 2012; Engwall, 2016);
- (ix) Policy decisions in internationalisation (Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009); and
- (x) Roles of individuals and government in internationalisation (Qiang, 2003; Willis & Taylor, 2014).

Collectively, these ideas offered a general outlook of what constitutes internationalisation in higher education. In building on these ideas when designing the research questions, the researcher ensured that the question type satisfied Yin's (2003) condition for use in a case study strategy by structuring the questions in terms of asking 'what', 'how', and 'why'.

Description of the primary data collection instrument

The questionnaires for the policymakers and the academic staff were identical in their content; the difference was in their heading, which indicated 'policymakers' and 'academic staff' respectively. Based on the literature's internationalisation ideas, the researcher identified the following pre-determined themes from which the questions were structured: *conceptualisation, benefits, challenges, enablers, knowledge of policy, approaches, readiness, roles and responsibilities, and drivers*. The questionnaire comprised open-ended responses to allow for impartial answers (Quad, 2016).

The questionnaire instrument comprised of twenty (20) items, 15 of which were about internationalisation and were structured based on the research purpose and objectives. Items 1-3 were under the subhead 'Demographics', items 4 and 5, 'Professional Profile', items 6-8,

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'Internationalisation Concept', items 9-11, 'Policies and Practices', items 12-16, 'Internationalisation Approaches', items 17-19, 'Roles and Responsibilities', and the final, 20, 'Any other comments'.

The questionnaire for the students comprised twenty (20) items, 11 of which focused directly on internationalisation. Questions 1-9 were on 'Demographics', while questions 10-14 required responses on 'Internationalisation Concept', items 15-19, 'Internationalisation Approaches', and item 20, 'Any other comments'.

One question in each of the questionnaires resembled a Likert-scale type question and comprised seven options. The researcher designed this question initially with four options from the themes identified in the literature reviewed in this study: curriculum, administration, student intake, and technology, which were among the critical considerations in bringing internationalisation to higher education. The justifications for their selection were:

- (i) The Curriculum: "Internationalisation of the curriculum is a crucial component of any university's internationalisation strategy" (Leask (2013, p. 103) and, at the teacher's college, the focus is on curriculum delivery, not research and service;
- (ii) Administration: Stakeholders such as faculty, including senior staff, policymakers and all other government functionaries reflected 'administration' in this question. Administrative issues referred to policy and governance (Qiang, 2003; Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009; Willis & Taylor, 2014; Stoker, 1998; Enders, 2004; Altrichter, 2015), as well as roles and responsibilities in the institutionalisation process (Qiang, 2003; Knight, 2006);
- (iii) Technology: namely, the modality of internationalising higher education (Middlemas & Peat, 2015; Zakaria, Saquib, & Bashir, 2016), curriculum integration, and solely supporting online learning (Billingham, Cragg, & Bentley, 2003, p. 25; Lu, Tie, & Chua, 2013; Bleiklie & Kogan, 2006).
- (iv) Student intake: referring to students' mobility (Knight, 2012b; Ota, 2018). Mobility exposes students to international education (Harari, cited in Knight & de Wit, 1995) and culture (Sawir, 2013; Levia, 2012).

Pre-testing and pilot study

The pre-testing or trying-out (Baker, 1994) of a newly designed instrument was not an option in this research. The researcher was unsure of the items' soundness, clarity and reliability; pre-testing was necessary because the items were self-made and lacked validity. Additionally, the survey administration does not interact between the researcher and participant to provide interpretation, as is the case with individual interviews or a focus group, where the participant can inquire about and receive clarifications to ambiguous questions. Generally speaking, pre-/pilot-testing gives a timely warning about where, respectively, the research could fail, the protocols might have issues, and whether the proposed instrument is complicated or appropriate (Creswell, 2009).

In this study, the researcher pre-tested the questionnaire items to remove any confusion, ambiguity, insensitive questions (Wellington, 2000) and in order to avoid missing responses before administering the instrument. In addition, pre-/pilot-testing "allowed the researcher to bracket personal biases and thereby maintaining the centrality of the epoch" (Williams-McBeam, 2019, p. 1056) and to ensure validity and reliability of the instrument so that it measures what the researcher designed it to measure (Wellington 2000). Alternatively, the failure to pre-test was likely to result in multiple interpretations of questions, thereby rendering the instrument invalid and unreliable while making the findings questionable.

The researcher identified five individuals based on convenience and not necessarily on their experience and expertise to pre-test the instrument. The test was in a single group, which comprised one policymaker, three academic staff, and one student from the state university, so they were independent of the research target population. The researcher sat with these individuals for approximately one hour, where each individual perused the questions individually and sought clarifications where necessary. During the test, individuals focused on whether the items were confusing, ambiguous, insensitive, or required too much time to answer. The researcher asked the pilot group to indicate what was missing and how to improve the questions.

Comparing notes and making adjustments

At the end of the test, the researcher compared notes from the individuals and found that representatives from each group said that options they had thought about were not among the Likert-type options. The policymaker and two academic staff identified 'human resource' as missing from the list of options while one academic staff member mentioned 'institution climate', with the student indicating 'physical infrastructure'. As those areas seemed to have value in the College's context, the researcher made the inclusions in preparation for the pilot study where there was an opportunity to validate the instrument further.

Question 13 was not clear to all individuals, as no one attempted to provide an answer. The question was: "What other approach would you recommend to bring internationalisation to the teacher's College?" This question was a follow up to Question 12. However, the word 'approach' was not used in the structure of Question 12, hence the confusion. Policymakers and academic staff identified the word 'approach' in Question 13 as ambiguous and explained that the term could be mistaken for a 'methodology' and 'how to do', while Question 12 was not about methodology. They recommended its replacement with the word 'area' or 'feature' for clarity. The student concurred with the suggestions for improvement and mentioned that the term 'approach' was misleading.

Another area requiring adjustment was the amount of personal time needed to complete the questionnaire. Policymakers and academic staff were asked to take 20-25 minutes of their time to complete the questionnaires. However, during the test, the researcher observed that all needed additional time. The discussion on time concluded with a recommended 25-30 minutes suggested personal times for policymakers and academic staff and 30-35 minutes for students. Subsequently, the researcher made adjustments to Questions 12 and 13 as well as to recommended personal times required to complete the questionnaires.

A pilot study is a mini version of a research study. It is a crucial element in the study design (Creswell, 2009; van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). A pilot study allowed the researcher to obtain feedback regarding the instrument's ability to test what it was designed to test (Creswell, 2009; van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). In addition to the pre-test, the researcher wanted to

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ensure the instrument's adequacy to assess the entire study's feasibility and to determine whether the tool was realistic (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). In addition, the researcher used another group of five participants (one head of department, two faculty members/lecturers, and two students) from the state university. The research did not find experts in globalisation and internationalisation, while the selection was based on convenience and persons willing to participate.

From the pilot study, there was no indication that any question was unclear. All individuals responded to all items in the instrument, and no response was outside of the ideas concerning the internationalisation of higher education. All respondents felt that bringing internationalisation to the teacher's college was a good initiative, one which required policy decisions and policymakers and administrators to lead the process. The students and one faculty/lecturer thought that the institution should prioritise technology and integration, while the other participants believed that the curriculum should be a priority. No one felt that the College was ready to internationalise.

Focus group and interview protocols

Once the researcher pre-tested and piloted the instrument, the researcher used it as a valid and reliable instrument of choice for the questionnaire. The researcher did not prepare separate items for the focus group and interviews because that required time to validate and, therefore, accepted the ones validated for the questionnaire and for further focus group and interview discussions.

The researcher prepared two focus group protocols (see Appendix C), one for the student participants and the other for academic staff and policymakers. Nyumba, Wilson, Derrick and Mukherjee's (2017) single type focus group was adapted as it was the most applicable of the seven types they have discussed; this type of focus group requires all participants to interact with a team of facilitators. However, for this research, participants interacted according to data sets, while the researcher was the lone facilitator as set out in the Ethics Response document. Confirmation letters were dispatched to all consenting participants to remind them of, for example, the date, venue and time for the focus group discussion.

Semi-structured interviews

The researcher developed one interview protocol for the student participants and another for the academic staff and policymakers to obtain data from individual participants within each data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Administration of instruments

The researcher administered the questionnaire followed by focus groups and interviews to investigate further and allow participants to elaborate on responses provided in the questionnaire (Quad, 2016). During focus group discussions, participants expounded on the questionnaire's responses and shared new insights collectively. By the time the data collection progressed to the individual interview stage, the researcher believed participants would have "built rapport with the project or with the interviewer" (Phellas, Bloch, & Seale, 2011, p. 193) thereby helping to further deepen dialogues.

Questionnaires

The researcher administered three sets of questionnaires (Harlacher, 2016). The researcher distributed the questionnaires via email to all 29 policymakers. These participants had secretaries and office staff who managed their emails; hence, it was highly probable for them to receive their copies. The first seven policymakers to return questionnaires were selected. Six of the seven policymakers returned questionnaires in envelopes and one via email.

Hard copies of questionnaires were accessible to the 88 academic (part-time and full-time) and 774 students from the coastal centres in Region 4. The first ten academic staff and eight students to return their questionnaires in marked drop-off boxes in identified locations were selected. The distribution of questionnaires was from two help desks. The first eight (8) students to drop off the instrument in marked collection boxes in identified locations were selected to participate in the study.

The policymakers and academic staff's questionnaire items took about thirty (30) minutes of a participant's time to complete. The student questionnaires took approximately thirty to thirty-five (30-35) minutes of a student's time to complete.

Focus Group

The researcher conducted a total of three (3) focus group discussions as follows: (i) Student participants – there were two sessions with four (4) student participants each. The student participants were from the Distance In-Service and Pre-Service programmes and included current students and College graduates. Both student focus groups lasted for approximately sixty minutes; (ii) Academic staff – there was one focus group session with ten (10) academic staff. This group included vice-principals, heads of satellite centres, heads of departments and teaching staff, and they indicated their availability to meet at the same time. This session lasted for approximately 152 minutes. However, serious discussions last for nearly 120 minutes. There were no focus group discussions with policymakers. The challenge was for members to find an agreed meeting time. Also, some policymakers changed jobs or were no longer in the country. Therefore, the researcher selected participants purposefully for their experience and knowledge of the phenomenon (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). 'New policymakers', i.e., those who were new on the job and did not participate in the questionnaire survey, were not considered.

Before each focus group session, the researcher reminded participants of the importance of confidentiality during and after conversations and emphasised the use of pseudonyms during the discussions. The researcher also informed participants of their right to withdraw from the process at any time. Further, the researcher asked participants to identify themselves by the pseudonyms displayed on their name tags and were referred to by these pseudonyms throughout the discussions and in this research to guard their confidentiality. In addition, the researcher digitally recorded the focus group discussions for each data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006), transcribed the recordings, and shared verbatim transcripts with respective groups for their feedback regarding transcript accuracy.

Semi-structured interviews

The researcher conducted twenty-five (25) one-on-one semi-structured interviews. Interview times ranged from about twenty (20) to forty-five (45) minutes. The conversations were

digitally recorded with participants' permission and under pseudonyms to protect participants' privacy and confidentiality, transcribed, then interview transcripts were shared with participants for feedback in terms of their accuracy. At the onset of each interview session, the researcher reminded participants of the interview purpose (Flick, 2006) and briefed them regarding their rights as set out in the Participant Information Sheet. Participants had the opportunity to seek clarification about the Participant Information Sheet and to ask questions during the interview process. During the focus groups and individual sessions, participants shared their views while the researcher encouraged rapport and remained non-judgemental and respectful (Merriam, 1998; Johnson & Turner, 2003).

Description of the secondary data collection instrument

Observation checklist

The researcher used an observation checklist to identify organisational values (Ferrari & Cowman, 2004), including their absence or presence concerning internationalisation at the College. The researcher adapted the Indicators for Mapping and Profiling Internationalisation Toolkit (IMPI, 2007) as a reference point as it was readily available and provided a wide range of internationalisation indicators. The instrument applied to the context as internationalisation involves importing ideas (Engwall, 2016) and determining whether they fit the context's realities. The researcher employed the checklist to observe and match IMPI indicators to institutional practice.

In other words, the use of the instrument was necessary for the researcher to determine which activities from the IMPI did or did not complement the data obtained from the other instruments used (Ferrari & Cowman, 2004), thus supporting triangulation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Wellington, 2000; Zohrabi, 2013). Further, the researcher incorporated data from this instrument to support this current study's mixed methodology design. The IMPI Toolkit comprises twenty-two (22) broad indicators and a total of four hundred eighty-nine (489) sub-indicators. The researcher selected five (5) general indicators related to operations of the College and modified the sub-indicators for this research. Those five indicators concerned academic staff members (indicators 02-029 through 02-097), administration (indicators 03-001

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through 03-037), curricula and academic services (indicators 05-001 through 05-098), general student data (indicators 01-024 through 01-114), and institutional profile (06-021 through 06-065).

The researcher did not select indicators concerning:

- (i) Full degrees, including postgraduate master's and doctoral degrees because the College did not offer full degrees up to the time of this research;
- (ii) Financing and marketing because the College received financing from the Ministry, did not generate revenue, and did no deliberate marketing and promotion;
- (iii) Research and research-related activities because the College was a teaching-intensive institution;
- (iv) Study abroad and international students, visiting faculty and students, because these programmes were not a part of the College processes; and
- (v) Non-academic staff since this category of staff was an exclusion criterion in this study.

Document analysis

A document is defined here as “a piece of written, printed, or electronic matter that provides a record of evidence of events, an agreement, ownership, identification” (Pearsall & Trumble, 2002, p. 415). In this research, the documents consulted helped to reveal what existed (or not), either implicitly or explicitly (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2006), about internationalisation and the College. The analysis further contributed to the data pool, complemented the primary data, and increased the data triangulation's validity and trustworthiness (Wellington, 2000). Also, data from the document sources were necessary for the researcher to ascribe meaning to what exists on internationalisation in context (Bowen, 2009) and to support a more robust research database (Atkinson & Coffey, 2004). Table 2 outlines the organisational and related documents interrogated in this study.

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Table 2. Document Type, Description and Source

Document Level	Document Description	Document Source
Local (Institution)	Curriculum Student handbook Presentation of Strategic Plan Vision and Mission Statements	The Teachers’ College in Guyana
Local (Board of Governors)	Minutes of meetings Principal’s Reports	College Board of Governors
National (Board of Governors)	President’s College Act Manual for Governance of Schools by Boards	MoE Guyana College Board of Governors
National (Central Ministry)	Education Sector Plan Draft Education Bill Project Appraisal document	MoE Guyana
National (Education Systems Committee)	Minutes of Meeting	MoE
Regional	Human Resource Development 2030 Strategy	Caribbean Common Market and Economy (CARICOM)
International	Education for Sustainable Development Policy, Guyana	UNESCO

Data type, source, instrumentation and related questions

Table 3. Matrix matching questions to data type, source and instrument

Research Questions	Data type	Data source	Instrument	Purpose
How have international, regional and, or national policies influenced the College's changes?	Primary Data	Participants: (i) Policymakers (ii) Academic staff	Questionnaires Focus Groups semi-structured interviews	To gather from policymakers' and academic staff knowledge, experience and opinions of the global context in which the College operates.
	Secondary Data	Organisational Document	Document analysis	To ascertain what existed in context.
According to participants, to what extent is the College ready to internationalising?	Primary Data	Participants: (i) Policymakers; (ii) Academic staff; and (ii) Students	Questionnaires Focus Groups Semi-structured interviews	To determine participants' feelings of readiness to 'internationalise' the College.
What does the term 'internationalisation' mean in the context of the College?	Primary Data	Participants: (i) Policymakers; (ii) Academic staff; and (ii) Students	Questionnaires Focus Groups Semi-structured interviews	
	Secondary Data	Organisational Documents IMPI Toolkit	Document analysis	To obtain documentary evidence.
What would (a) enable and (b) challenge the internationalisation	Primary Data	Participants: (i) Policymakers; (ii) Academic staff; and	Questionnaires Focus Groups Semi-	

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of the College?		(ii) Students	structured interviews	
	Secondary Data	Organisational Documents IMPI Toolkit	Document analysis	To obtain document evidence
Which institutional activities, if any, at the College are internationalisation opportunities?	Primary Data	Participants: (i) Policymakers; (ii) Academic staff; and (ii) Students	Questionnaires Focus Groups Semi-structured interviews	
What should the College internationalise and how?	Primary Data	Participants: (i) Policymakers; (ii) Academic staff; and (ii) Students	Questionnaires Focus Groups Semi-structured interviews	

Analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data

The complementarity value of a mixed approach (Salomon, 1991; Greene, 2007) was facilitated in this research by the researcher’s interaction with the data collected from the instruments and sources. The researcher interrogated the data in a backward and forward manner (Greene, 2007) as well as “reading and re-reading the data” (Braun & Clark, 2006, p. 87) for greater clarity and understanding to the College (Raderbauer, 2011; Ponce & Pagán- Maldonado, 2015).

Complementarity also supported ‘rich’ value by allowing for more depth and breadth in the research (Schulze, 2003).

Questionnaire

Data gathered from the surveys were arranged in the nine (9) pre-determined themes and quantified (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2006). The researcher documented manually the responses corresponding to each questionnaire item on separate sheets of paper. Consequently, this documentation aided the manipulation of the data across data sets and facilitated the horizontal

and vertical reading of the responses specific to the data sets and questions. The researcher applied Braun and Clarke’s (2006) thematic analysis to discriminate easily among and between similar and different themes and patterns that emerged from the open-ended sections of the questionnaires. The responses related to themes and sub-themes were then quantified.

The researcher used the formula $f \div n \times 100 = \% f$, or:

$$\frac{\text{frequency of responses}}{\text{number of responses}} \times = \text{percentage frequency}$$

In this legend, ‘f’ represents the frequency of responses to sub-themes that emerged from individual questions, while ‘n’ is the total number of answers for a given item.

Focus group and semi-structured interviews

In analysing the data from the focus group and interviews, the researcher referred to Braun and Clark’s (2006) thematic analysis. This analysis is flexible and helped the researcher to discover rich data through the identification of patterns regarding stakeholders’ perceptions of the College’s internationalisation readiness (Sanver, Saricaoğlu, & Borovali, 2011).

The researcher applied Braun and Clark’s (2006) thematic analysis phases as follows:

1. Data familiarisation

The researcher felt that listening to the recordings from focus groups and interviews and transcribing these verbatims would take a relatively long amount of time; therefore, the researcher employed the use of NVivo software to assist in the timely transcription of the audio files. The researcher uploaded the audio files to the software for transcription to texts. The audio file with the most content – the staff focus group – had a transcription duration of two hours, thirty-two minutes, forty-one seconds. In using this software, transcription quality depends on the quality of the audio recordings themselves. While reading the corresponding NVivo transcription, the researcher found in several instances that there were lines or words in the transcriptions that did not relate to what was recorded. To ensure that there were no lost data due to poor sound quality, the researcher listened to each set of audio recordings while reading

the corresponding NVivo transcription and made adjustments where necessary. These were sent to participants in order to verify their accuracy.

2. Generating initial codes

The researcher scrutinised the transcripts for their general sense or messages that could be derived from the discussions and then coded those features on the transcripts or wrote them on plain paper. In both cases, the researcher used coloured wavy underlines to identify such features. The researcher also scrutinised the transcripts for features supporting the discussion's general sense, which were then coded with different colours.

3. Searching for themes

The codes identifying the general sense of the discussion were collated as the potential main themes and their related codes or subthemes grouped accordingly and in a way to separate each potential main theme and their associated subthemes.

4. Reviewing themes

The colour coding system made it easier for the researcher to review the themes and subthemes. Themes were reviewed to ensure they were based on what the data revealed. In this process, the researcher collapsed or separated ideas and scrutinised them for coherence before developing a "thematic map" (Braun & Clark, 2006, p. 89) to give an overall story of what the data revealed about internationalisation in context.

5. Defining and naming themes

The researcher further reviewed the themes and generated definitions for each. Three (3) main themes and eleven (11) subthemes emerged from the focus group discussions, as well as one (1) main theme and six (6) subthemes from the interviews to give an overall picture of participants' perceptions of the topic.

6. Producing the report

The researcher selected extracts from the themes and subthemes related to the research questions and the literature reviewed and presented them as the research findings.

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The researcher analysed the questionnaire responses for all groups, the themes and subthemes from focus group data from the two data sets, student participants and the academic staff participants, and interviews for all three data sets simultaneously to make comparisons across data sets and to strengthen the data's validity.

Observation checklist

Additionally, the researcher used the observation checklist adapted from the IMPI (2009-2012) to map activities at the College against the IMPI indicators. This mapping was for the researcher to gain insights into the percentage of IMPI indicators related to operations at the College. Observation of indicators confirmed unintentional internationalisation (Luxon & Peelo, 2009; Hoey, 2016) and internationalisation opportunities at the College.

The researcher employed the following formula to determine the percentage of positive observations for each indicator:

$$\text{Percentage of positive activities observed} = NP/N \times 100$$

'N' represents the number of related indicators found in context and was either the 'number of positive'(NP) or the 'number of negative' (NN) indicators. 'Related activities' referred to activities that were part of the College's operations at the time of this study. A 'positive response' refers to College activities that occurred and were observed at the time of research. A 'negative response' refers to actions that seemed a part of the College's routine but not observed.

Document analysis

The researcher employed document analysis to examine raw data from organisational documents to gain insights and obtain empirical knowledge of what existed in the context regarding internationalisation (Marriam, 1988). Bowen (2009) has argued that document analysis is advantageous because documents are unobtrusive and unaffected by the research purpose. However, one of its weaknesses is data insufficiency, as documents may lack concepts and ideas related to the research (Bowen, 2009).

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Bowen (2009) discussed a three-step document analysis process of skimming, reading for codes, and interpreting findings. The researcher in this study employed the first two stages of the process and replaced 'interpretation' with 'identifying' followed by 'matching' since the document analysis was a simple 'search' and 'find' undertaking.

The codes were obtained from the thematic analysis conducted for the focus groups and interviews, while internationalisation themes from the literature guided the search. Additionally, because documents are prepared independently of the research purpose (Bowen, 2009), the researcher thought it reasonable to identify from the documents any ideas related to the codes. Those were *access, cultural diversity, distance education, foreign language, global, globalisation, international, international education, internationalisation, internet WiFi, electronic, online learning, partnership/collaboration, staff and student exchange, technology, and ICT*.

The researcher scrutinised thirteen documents associated with the College at local, national, regional and international levels. For the electronically stored records, the researcher used the 'find' feature on the computer as the search tool and read through and documented findings from the two documents that were available in hard copies, namely the College curriculum and the Student Handbook.

The number of specified words mentioned and the frequency with which each occurred formed the basis of the document analysis. Document analysis exposed organisational values (Ferrari & Cowman, 2004), including what was mentioned and how often. The researcher scrutinised thirteen documents associated with the College from local, national, regional and international levels. For electronically stored records, the researcher used the 'find' feature on the computer as the search tool and read through and documented findings from the College curriculum and the Student Handbook. Overall, the observations of organisational materials revealed the frequency of the use of the words 'globalisation' and 'internationalisation', namely, 1 and 0, respectively. The single-use of the former stated the need to "meet the challenges posed by globalisation" (Guyana, MoE, 2008, p. 7). The national-level documents revealed the highest number of events, 298, followed by international-, regional-, and local-level documents (137,

172, and 68 mentions respectively). The breakdown, according to the document category, was as follows: *Global* was the most frequent word with 36 appearances among the 137 results derived from the international document. *International*, *technology/IC*, *access*, *internet/WiFi/electronic*, *partnership/collaboration*, and *cultural/diversity* followed in the same order with 29, 22, 12, 10 and 1 occurrences, respectively.

The documents at the regional level scored 172 occurrences. *Access* had the highest frequency of occurrence, 65, with *international* and *global* scoring 29 each, *technology/ICT/electronic* with 14 scores, *partnership and collaboration* with 11, *culture and diversity* with 10, *distance education* at 8, *online* at 5, and *globalisation* scoring 1.

The six (6) documents grouped under the national level yielded a total of 298 occurrences. Ninety-eight (98) of those occurrences were for *international*, and in descending order, the frequencies of events for *technology*, *access*, *partnership and collaboration*, *distance learning*, *internet/wifi*, *electronic*, *global*, *cultural/diversity*, *online* and *foreign language* were 79, 70, 16, 13, 12, 4, 3, 2 and 1, respectively. The national level board documents revealed two elements: *partnership/collaboration* and *technology*, with the frequency of *partnership* being 3, and *technology* 1.

Of the 68 results in the local documents, *distance education* accounted for 22 appearances, *foreign language* 12, *cultural/diversity* 11, *technology and partnership* 8, each, *internet/wifi* 3, *international* 2, and *staff and student exchange* 1, each and *international education* 1.

Observing the occurrences across all documents revealed that *international technology* and *access* occurred 127, 129 and 157 times, respectively.

Establishing validity and reliability

The validity of research depends on how trustworthy and dependable the research is in the judgement of readers including evaluators, and stakeholders (Zohrabi, 2013); hence, researchers need to build validity, thereby establishing research trustworthiness (Wellington, 2000).

Building validity considers the congruence of the research questions with the methods of data

collection, data analysis and data interpretation (Jones, Torres, & Arminio, 2006; Zohrabi, 2013). There are several ways to establish validity in research. In this current research, the researcher tested and piloted the questionnaire instrument, made adjustments based on comments from the pilot test and the pilot study and accepted the instrument as valid for use. Hence, the researcher adopted the items from the valid questionnaire for the focus group and semi-structured interviews. This strategy was one way to ensure that the instruments were fit for purpose – measured what they intended to measure (Wellington, 2000). Additionally, triangulation, participatory research, member checks and research bias were employed to build research validity (Marriam, 1998).

Triangulation

Triangulation is the collection and use of data from several data gathering techniques (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Zohrabi, 2013). Triangulation helps to increase the validity of the data through the use of multiple data instruments and sources. This observation of the value of triangulation does not mean that data from a single tool and source are less valid. For this current research, the researcher employed triangulation to “explain more fully the richness and complexity” (Wellington, 2000, p. 24) of the topic studied. In addition to the primary and secondary sources and the IMPI toolkit (2007), the researcher involved students (current and graduate), academic staff including administrators and policymakers in responding to questionnaires, focus groups, individual semi-structured interviews to supplement observations as multiple sources to triangulate data and build validity and analysed the data across data sets and data instruments

Members check

Members refer to research participants who help to build validity in research, for example, by checking the transcripts of their information shared and the interpretations and conclusions drawn from their data to ensure that their experiences, perceptions and intended meanings were accurately represented (Lincoln & Guba, 1989; Zohrabi, 2013). The researcher provided participants with copies of the semi-structured interviews and focus groups transcripts, the researcher's interpretation of these transcripts, and a summary of the findings and conclusions to ensure accuracy of the data and data interpretation. Twenty-two (22) participants (seven policymakers, eight students and seven academic staff) confirmed the transcripts' accuracy,

while three academic staff said they did not remember the details of what they discussed but accepted that the transcripts reflected the general sense of their thoughts.

Research bias

The qualitative aspect of this current research indicates that the researcher is also the instrument of the analysis. Hence the researcher's values, experiences and interests could impact data collection and interpretation (Jones, Torres & Armino, 2006). Researchers must be impartial in the conduct of their research, that is, in its collection, analysis, and interpretation of the research data. To ensure impartiality in this research, the researcher followed the ethical guidelines set out in the Ethics Response Form, University of Liverpool.

That said, researchers must be able to suppress their assumptions and feelings and be open to the 'revelations' of the research (Jones, Torres, & Armino, 2006). In the researcher's opinion, the College was ready to internationalise because of the symptomatic internationalisation activities that existed in context and which only needed an internationalisation policy. The research findings – as well as the pilot study – reveal views contrary to the researcher's perception; therefore, the researcher had to overlook her personal beliefs and accept those of the participants.

Ethical considerations

Clearance from the Doctorate in Education Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC) of the University of Liverpool (see Appendix D) paved the way for data collection and the conduct of this research. As part of the data collection exercise process, the researcher sent notices to students, academic staff and policymakers about the current study and open invitations for persons to participate via emails, WhatsApp and posted on Notice Boards on the College campus. Before administering the first data collection instrument, the researcher encouraged potential participants through a posted notice to read the Participant Information Sheets and Consent Form (see Appendix E).

Participants signalled their interest in participating in the study with the signed Consent Form's return, which also acknowledged their understanding of withdrawal, confidentiality, data

collection methods, and usage. The researcher informed potential participants at the onset of the research about their participation in the questionnaire survey, focus group discussions, and individual semi-structured interviews, as explained in the Participant Information Sheet.

Rights, risk, confidentiality and anonymity

Participants' rights include their freedom to consent voluntarily and to decline or withdraw from the research at any point, without consequence. Rights also refer to the researcher, ensuring that participants have prior knowledge of the data collection and storage methods employed in the research in keeping with the Data Protection Act detailed in the Ethics Response Form.

Participants' rights were communicated to them and reinforced during the introduction of the focus group and individual semi-structured interview sessions.

The researcher employed measures to reduce the psychological risks of, for example, the feeling of being coerced or pressured to participate. For instance, participants could return the Consent Form to the researcher by email or drop it off in identified collection boxes in designated locations or deliver it to the researcher in person (optional). Also, focus group and individual semi-structured interview locations were selected in consultation with participants to ensure their comfort and security during discussions. In order to reduce the potential psychological risk of fear of victimisation and/or perception of favouritism during the recruitment of participants, the researcher did not interact with the participants and broadcasted notice about the research and invitation to participate using email, Short Message Text (SMS) and WhatsApp messaging, as well as posting the same to notice boards at research sites.

Confidentiality and anonymity in research reflect that neither participants' identity nor their responses shared will be directly or indirectly identifiable to readers at any stage of the study analysis or final report (Poon & Ainuddin, 2011). In this research, identifiers such as participants' names, job title, student status and addresses were substituted by pseudonyms during the semi-structured interviews (individual and focus groups), while data was recorded using assumed names. For example, (1) lecturers, vice-principals, senior staff and heads of centres were in the academic staff group and represented by 'AS', (2) policymakers from ESC and BoG were represented as 'PM', while (3) students including graduates and those who were

either full-time or part-time, were represented as 'S'. As mentioned, pseudonyms were used for all participants.

The researcher stored audio recordings from focus group discussions and interviews on their laptop in coded folders with password-protected access. The audio files were uploaded to NVivo and the transcriptions produced were password protected with end-to-end encrypted privacy. The audio recordings had pseudonyms for participants, and the name of the institution was not mentioned, thus ensuring privacy if a third party were to have access to the information.

An electronic copy of the one questionnaire returned via email was under a password known only to the researcher. Field notes from primary and secondary data sources documented electronically were also password-protected. The alternative storage site for the electronic data was an external hard drive. Hard data from secondary data sources and transcriptions from focus groups and interviews were stored under lock and key away from the research site. The researcher used all data exclusively for the purpose of completing this research.

Positionality

The researcher conducted the case study as an insider researcher, namely, an individual who shares the same research setting with the participants and often has a relationship (professional and social) with them (Drake, 2011). As an insider-researcher (Drake, 2011), the researcher conducted the study while functioning as the Principal of the College. At the time of the research, the Principal had worked at the institution for over twenty years. During these years, the Principal worked collaboratively to improve access and expand programmes. Specifically, the researcher worked with colleagues and education partners nationally, regionally, and internationally to prepare and implement the Two-Year Associate Degree in Education programme under GITEP. In addition, the Principal had authority over the College's operations but supervised, directly, one sub-group of the academic staff participants, the vice-principals, while the policymakers monitored the Principal.

The researcher, who worked in the setting and collected data as a participant-observer (a member of the group and researcher), had two roles in this research: as researcher and

researcher/Principal. The participant observer's role, among others, was to collect, analyse, interpret, and draw inferences from the data. Compared to the researcher's role, there were several advantages and disadvantages to the researcher/principal role. For example, one advantage was that the researcher/Principal had privileged access to sources within the setting (Floyd & Arthur, 2012). The researcher/Principal was already known, respected, and on friendly terms with all participants within the College, which is an advantage of an insider-researcher (Mercer, 2007). Another advantage was the researcher/Principal's knowledge of the case studied (Yin, 2003).

However, because of the power difference (Anyan, 2013) (who has power and authority over whom) between the insider-researcher, and academic staff and students, there was the likelihood of participants sharing information out of intimidation, which could have affected the data collected (Oliver, 2003; Smyth & Holian, 2008; Cassell, 2009; Floyd & Arthur, 2012). In this research, participants were not coerced to participate, for participation was voluntary and depended on who consented. Further, as Drake (2011) has cautioned, "it may be impossible to sustain a distinction between 'researcher' and 'researched' when one is so deeply involved in the practices investigated. Losing anchors takes the participants in the study into slippery territory" (p. 37).

In the conduct of this research, the researcher did not focus only on completing the study but considered the rights of the participants by, for example, the reduction or elimination of potential harm to them (Magolda & Weems, 2002; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007), and by protecting participants' identity and the information shared. The researcher ensured this protection by adherence to the ethical research principles (Marshall & Rossman, 1995) underlying the Declaration of Helsinki and the University of Liverpool and their helpful guidelines on the proper conduct of research explained in the Ethics Response and Ethics Application Forms. More specifically, in keeping with the research principles of ethics regarding, for instance, potential risks to participants in this research, the researcher first informed potential participants of these potential risks via the contents of the invitation notice and subsequently by details in the Consent Form and Participant Information Sheet.

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Based on experiences and familiarity with the College as an insider-researcher (Drake, 2011), the researcher did not impose her personal views during the interview and focus group sessions when participants shared perspectives that were, at times, contrary to the researcher's view. For example, Iris AS7 felt that there was no activity at the College indicative of internationalisation. In those instances, the researcher commended the participants for their responses and encouraged further explanations when necessary. In other words, the researcher did not exhibit behaviours to suggest that views were conflicting. A researcher showing disagreement with participants' perspectives (either by a frown or by shaking the head in a disapproving manner) is unethical and can make participants reluctant to speak freely and honestly. After the research, the insider-researcher (Drake, 2011) maintained a respectful relationship by extending the usual greetings to which participants were accustomed and open discourses during formal and informal meetings without mentioning the research's conduct.

The Principal is chiefly responsible for financial management, policy implementation, and representation on areas requiring policy decisions to improve the College's operations. Hence, the researcher/Principal will use this research's findings to advocate for an internationalisation policy for the College. This advocacy aligns with the Principal's professional responsibility to encourage change within the institution and demonstrates the researcher's value for participants' contributions to change.

Summary

The research purpose was to explore the readiness of the teacher's college in Guyana to internationalise. The main research question was 'How ready is the College to internationalise'? The subsidiary questions were:

1. How have international, regional, or national policies influenced the College's changes?
2. According to participants, to what extent is the College ready to internationalise?
3. What does the term 'internationalisation' mean in the context of the College?
4. What would (a) enable and (b) challenge the internationalisation of the College?
5. Which institutional activities, if any, at the College are internationalisation opportunities?
6. What should the College internationalise and how?

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A mixed-methods approach (Bryman, 2006; 2009; Creswell, 2006; 2009; Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2015) guided the study's approach to thinking (Green, 2007), a paradigmatic approach that allows for several ways of identifying knowledge in a single case study. The researcher adopted a case study strategy (Collis & Hussey, 2009), which allows a researcher to use a multiplicity of sources – including, in this case, a questionnaire, focus group and interviews – to collect data and answer the research questions satisfactorily. The “parallel phases mixed design” adapted from Ponce and Pagán- Maldonado (2015) facilitated the use of qualitative and quantitative methods simultaneously in terms of collecting and analysing the data linked to the six research questions. Although the researcher employed a mixed research method case study (including the use of questionnaires) the qualitative techniques of the research had more weight because of the study's exploratory nature. Schoonenboom and Johnson (2017) have explained such an approach as being ‘qualitatively driven’.

The focus group and interview conversations were digitally recorded, and participant privacy and confidentiality were protected. The NVivo software assisted with the timely transcription of audio files, which was challenging because of poor quality recordings in some cases. The researcher applied the IMPI indicators checklist to ascertain what existed in the context and analysed thirteen documents to contribute to the data pool and to increase trustworthiness (Wellington, 2000). In addition, the researcher employed Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phased thematic analysis to identify and analyse themes and patterns for the open-ended items, the qualitative items in the questionnaire, and the focus group and interview themes. A simple formula to obtain percentages and frequencies was used for the closed questions in the questionnaire.

The researcher selected three groups of participants on a first-come, first-served basis: policymakers, academic staff, and students. She conducted the study as an insider-researcher (Drake, 2011), where the power difference (Anya, 2013) could have been a disadvantage, but the researcher created and encouraged environments characterised by friendliness and mutual respect while observing all ethical protocols. A pilot test, pilot study, triangulation, participatory research, member checks and research bias were employed to build the study's research validity (Marriam, 1998; Wellington, 2000).

Clearance from the Doctorate in Education Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC) of the University of Liverpool (see Appendix D) paved the way for data collection and the conduct of this research. The participants were not coerced to participate, and all participation was voluntary. All research participants consented and received a copy of the Participant's Information Sheet.

Chapter 4.

Findings

This chapter discusses the research findings to gain insights from stakeholders about the College's readiness to internationalise. The researcher sought to understand the perspectives of policymakers, academic staff and students regarding their conceptualisation of internationalisation, the enablers, challenges, and opportunities of internationalising in context, as well as how international, regional or national policies influenced internationalisation efforts at the College. The researcher presents the findings from questionnaires, focus group discussions, individual interviews, an observation checklist, and document analysis in analysing a case – namely the teacher's training college in Guyana – using a mixed research approach (Green, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Where questionnaire responses were identical, the findings were presented across data sets. The interactive sessions' responses (focus groups and interviews) were not as straightforward as the questionnaire due to the free-flowing discussions. Hence, the researcher presented these findings under themes across data sets. The approach to the presentation of findings aligned with the Parallel Phases Mixed Methods Research Design adapted from Poce and Pagán-Maldonado (2015). All findings were triangulated (Wellington, 2000).

Findings from questionnaires

Question 1. What is your understanding of the concept of 'internationalisation' in context?

In the context of the teacher's college, policymakers, academic staff, and students conceptualised internationalisation as *new educational opportunities; international borders; diverse, multicultural student population; curriculum with standard on par with other*

countries; foreign – element in curriculum, students and practice; and partnership and collaboration. Additionally, academic staff and students defined internationalisation as *accreditation and online learning*. Twenty-three per cent (23%) of academic staff, 13% of policymakers, and 25% of students conceptualised internationalisation as follows: diverse, multicultural student population; partnership and collaboration and recognition. Twenty-three (23%) of academic staff and 25% of students said “foreign students”, while 38% of policymakers, 15% of academic staff and 25% of students identified an international element in the curriculum and student practice. Student practice (Practicum) refers to the College’s school placement of teachers so they can gain practical teaching experience. Seven per cent (7%) of academic staff and 25% of the students said “online learning”, while 7% of academic staff and 12% of students said “accreditation”, and 12% of students and 13% of academic staff said “international borders”. In addition, policymakers also identified “new educational programmes and curriculum with standards on a par with other countries” (13% each).

Curriculum with standards on a par with other countries suggested accreditation (assurances that educational programmes are of a particular standard) recognised by foreign accreditation institutions. From the data, David PM3, Lucy AS6 and Sly S3 believed that a curriculum that seeks to provide global education must have international accreditation status. ‘*International borders*’ is the movement of persons across countries, including the mobility of, for example, students, as discussed by writers such as Knight and de Wit (1995), Qiang (2003), Knight (2012b), and Ota (2018).

Question 2. What would you say are the benefits of internationalising the teacher’s college?

Thirty-three per cent (33%) of policymakers identified collaboration and partnership as benefits of internationalisation, modernised curriculum and improved human resources (17% each), then: improvement in the quality of technology (campus-wide internet access and stronger internet signals) and online offering; diversity; income generation; and articulation and alignment of programmes (all 8% each). The academic staff believed the benefits were: collaboration and research partnerships (28%); accreditation, recognition and improved College profile (17% each); culturally diverse environment; income and revenue generation; modernised

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curriculum; and international students (11% each); and quality assurance and diplomatic links (6% each). Twenty per cent (20%) of the students identified the benefits of a modern curriculum as a foreign language and global (international) education, accreditation, recognition and improved College profile. Other benefits indicated by 13% of the students for each of the following included: culturally diverse staff and students; income and revenue generation; and international students. Meanwhile, 7% each felt the College would benefit from improved technology for online offering, visiting faculty, and research development.

A modernised curriculum is current, responds to contemporary trends and, borrowing from Knight's (2013) discussion, reflects international elements such as foreign language education; hence it will expose students to international education. The latter include cultural experiences in a culturally diverse environment. Improved human resources as a concept of internationalisation relate to the new knowledge and experience faculty and managers might acquire in building competency regarding, for example, teaching and managing an internationalised curriculum (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003). Further, the researcher interpreted diplomatic links as the College's relationship with the diaspora regarding its internationalisation agenda. The CARICOM Secretariat (2014) has explained that the diaspora is a means of resource mobilisation among member states. In this instance, educational institutions can receive financial, technical, and material support to improve their inadequate resources.

Question 3. What factors do you see, if any, as impeding internationalisation efforts at the teacher's college?

Policymakers identified three impeding factors: inadequate resources such as technology, online facilities and connectivity; the lack of an internationalisation policy; and reluctance to buy-in, with 36% indicating the first two factors and 28% the latter. From the perspective of the academic staff, 25% believed reluctance to buy-in would hinder internationalisation at the teacher's College, while 21% the lack of policy, 17% the lack of knowledge about internationalisation, and 13% each said: inadequate resources – technology, online facilities, connectivity; lack of autonomy; and the current mandate structure, vision and mission of the College; and 8% insufficient financial resources. The student participants, 25%, also included

unappealing physical resources and infrastructure, and 12% each, the lack of international Programme, insufficient financial resources, and the lack of knowledge about internationalisation, in addition to 38% who cited inadequate technology/online facilities and connectivity as impeding factors.

Unappealing on-campus physical resources would impact negatively (Paynett S1; Riya S2) on, for instance, any accreditation process (Guyana National Accreditation Council, 2016), and this was likely to discourage international students and staff (Paynett S1; Riya S2).

Kay S5, Torrin S8 and Riya S2 identified inadequate technology in relation to online and virtual learning as the most deterring factor because “the lack of online learning facilities could make international education inaccessible” (Kay S5). Kay S5’s views are specific to the online environment. Another thought about technological inadequacy meant that “it cannot support online and virtual teaching because we are still in face-to-face delivery or have to use modules and internet access, is absent, slow or unreliable” (Riya S2). Online and virtual teaching is not in the College’s mission (College 2014); hence budgeting for such technologies is not considered: “The technology barrier will hinder online and virtual learning” (Kay S5).

In addition, Torrin S8 stated: “For example, if persons were to travel abroad to on-campus universities, time, cost, work, health issues, and family commitment, could restrict movement”. Internationalisation is also about bringing ideas (international education) to local contexts (Engwall, 2016), whereby local students can access a global education in person on campus. In addition, inadequate technology and online facilities should not be a deterrent as there are other ways of internationalising higher education, for example, ‘insourcing’ staff (Engwall, 2016) and exposing local students to an internationalised curriculum (Leask, 2013). Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbly (2009), Luxon and Peelo (2009), and Knight (2012a) have explained that an internationalised curriculum also prepares local students to work at-home. Technological adjustments should be accompanied by staff training in technology for online curriculum delivery to obviate the barriers discussed by Lin Lu, Tie and Chua (2013). Meanwhile, the lack of knowledge about internationalisation as an inhibiting factor recalls Knight and de Wit (1995) and Qiang’s (2003) ‘competency approach’, which emphasises the importance of the

competence required to, for example, implement, monitor and sustain internationalisation activities.

Question 4. What do you know about the Ministry's policy/regulation on the internationalisation of education?

The question was only for policymakers and academic staff. Policymakers and academic staff's combined years of experience working at the MoE, College Board, and the College amounted to over four hundred (400) years. That most participants – 57% of the policymakers and 70% of the academic staff – indicated knowing 'nothing' about an internationalisation policy in context suggests to the researcher that such a policy is absent. The policymakers and academic staff who said they knew 'much' about this (14% of policymakers) and 'something' (29% policymakers and 20% academic staff) might have mistaken the presence of what resembles internationalisation activities as a result of GITEP (World Bank, 2010) being enshrined in an internationalisation policy in context. Policy decisions are necessary to move the internationalisation agenda at the College, and "if our top, the people who make the decisions, policymakers, do not change, then we at the bottom cannot do anything. [...]. They have to make the policy" (Iris AS7).

Question 5. What aspects of the teacher's college, if any, would you say are indicative of internationalisation?

Out of the policymakers, they perceived curriculum upgrade (57%), ICT (33%), and physical space (11%) as areas that are indicative of internationalisation. Academic staff also identified curriculum upgrade (13%), ICT resource upgrade (25%), and faculty exposure to higher education online and abroad (19%), collaboration (19%), foreign language (6%), flatter organisational structure (6%), and practicum (6%) as indicating internationalisation. One academic staff did not perceive any College activity as indicative of internationalisation. Fifty per cent (50%) of the students believed that ICT integration, ICT resources such as computers and introducing the Moodle platform, and 17% each perceived cultural diversity, the involvement of faculty in seminars and meetings abroad, and use of foreign languages as evidence of internationalisation in context.

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All participant groups identified the upgrades under GITEP – improved curriculum offering, introducing the two-year associate degree in education, technology integration where students and faculty received laptop/netbooks at subsidised costs (World Bank, 2010) as indicative of internationalisation. For example, “we upgraded the curriculum under GITEP, and so, I do not think we will have to do much more with the curriculum to bring it to, international standards level for internationalisation” (Lucy AS6).

The researcher interpreted physical space as indicative of internationalisation to accommodate international students and the general student population for classroom and related College activities. Rebecca PM1, who identified physical space, perhaps offered that response based on aesthetics and students' need to interact in comfortable and appropriate areas. Rebecca PM1's thinking may relate to Stier's (2006) argument regarding superior and inferior feelings about one's context while there are hints of the colonial prevalence of ideas of what is better in a post-colonial context (Cardozo, 2015).

The researcher believed that the argument for physical space in internationalisation is implicit in student mobility because institutions must have physical accommodation for students to interact during planned classroom activities and appropriate 'space' for social activities, for example, physical contact sports and games (such as dancing, track and field). Such activities catered for in Leask's (2013) curriculum. With online learning and virtual platforms being effective modalities to internationalise higher education (Middlemas & Peat, 2015; Zakaria, Saquib, & Bashir, 2016; Billingham, Cragg, & Bentley, 2003), international students access complete degree programmes virtually, thereby physical space on campus is irrelevant to them. For an institution's managers, however, physical space could be the space required to accommodate technology such as servers and computers to deliver online programmes and integrate technology into the teaching-learning process and internationalisation activity (Leask, 2013).

Regarding a flatter organisational structure being indicative of internationalisation, in the researcher's experience during the conduct of this research, the hierarchical physical 'structure' (levels within the organisational chart) did not change. Dolly AS4's perception might be due to experience of the decision-making process, where all staff levels within the structure contribute

to the process. This collaborative decision-making exemplifies a flatter organisational structure that allows a faster communication and decision-making flow at the institution (Rishipal, 2014) because more persons at various levels are involved simultaneously. This accelerates having to wait for answers and clarifications. Dolly AS4's argument for a flatter organisational structure does not mean that institutions with hierarchical organisational structures will have challenges achieving their goals and objectives.

Lucy AS6 identified practicum as indicative of internationalisation because of the new components (mentorship and induction) included in the practicum curriculum under GITEP (World Bank, 2010). Practicum (school attachment for practical teaching) concerning internationalisation would expose international and local students to new cultural experiences during field attachments, both locally and abroad (Simm & Marvell, 2017).

Question 6. At what levels were these internationalisation aspects influenced?

Policymakers and academic staff perceived the influence to be from local, national, regional and international levels, while the students indicated local, national and regional levels. The majority of policymakers (40%) and academic staff (36%) believed that the national level had the most influence. Twenty-seven per cent (27%) of the policymakers said the regional level, 20% the international level, and 13% the local level, while for the academic staff, 21% each thought the influence was from local, regional and international levels. The College's role in preparing teachers for the Education System was apparent to forty per cent (40%) of students who felt the influence was from the local level. However, they appeared to be less aware of the impact of national, regional and international levels on activities at the College. Nonetheless, thirty per cent (30%) each felt the influence was from the national and the regional levels. Participants who believed that the influence was from the national level perhaps based their perceptions on their involvement with and knowledge of the MoE's objectives for implementing GITEP (World Bank, 2010).

Question 7. Which current practices/procedures at the teacher's college do you believe would enable its internationalisation efforts?

In the opinion of the researcher, activities that resemble internationalisation are activities that are likely to enable internationalisation. From the policymakers' viewpoints, the College's technology focus (33%), and partnership with international institutions and consultants (22%), curriculum upgrade (22%), and practicum (11%), will enable internationalisation. Roy PM2 was unsure about enablers and also did not respond to the question about areas indicative of internationalisation, but during the interview said: "technology would support online teaching for international and regional students who are not resident in Guyana as well as local students from satellite centres".

The academic staff identified five enablers, namely: technology focus (31%); quality assurance (15%); and distance education course delivery (15%); and foreign language offering, diverse population, and results-based management (all 8% each). Eight per cent (8%) of the academic staff said there was no enabler, while another 8% was unsure. Students identified technology focus (29%) and a diverse population (14%) as enablers of internationalisation. Additionally, 28% of the students believed in a supportive environment, 14% in a medium for public awareness, and 14% in more international lectures. Shadeen S7's perception about the medium required for public awareness was using the Guyana Learning Channel. This television station is available to educational institutions as a potential medium for disseminating information about the College's intention to internationalise as well as for public awareness and buy-in.

Question 8(a). How would you prioritise the following as internationalisation approaches at the teacher's college?

Administration, curriculum, human resources, institutional climate, physical infrastructure, student intake, and technology

One (1) represents the most prioritised and seven (7) the least prioritised.

The most prioritised approaches are perceived to be more critical to bringing internationalisation to the College, while the least prioritised signals the strategies that are less significant at the onset of the process.

Forty-three per cent (43%) of the policymakers identified curriculum as the number one priority, while 29% stated technology and 29% human resources. Fifty-seven per cent (57%) of the respondents ranked institutional climate as the least prioritised, and 14% each felt it should be administration, human resources, and physical infrastructure.

Thirty per cent (30%) of the academic staff believed that the curriculum and 30% of the administration were top priorities for approaches to internationalising the College. Ten per cent (10% each) ranked human resources, physical infrastructure, technology and student intake the most prioritised. Thirty per cent (30%) of the academic staff believed that institutional climate and 30% student intake were the least ranked areas, while 20% said it was physical infrastructure, and 10% each indicated curriculum and human resources.

The students identified four priorities: curriculum (38%); administration (25%); institutional climate (13%); and physical infrastructures (25%). Their least prioritised areas were administration, institutional 'climate', physical infrastructure, and student intake (25%, 38%, 16%, and 25%, respectively). The data revealed conflicting responses regarding priority areas. For example, three of the most prioritised approaches were also the least prioritised areas, namely administration, institutional climate, and physical infrastructure. The administration had the same percentages, and more students prioritised physical infrastructure and less institutional climate. All groups believed that the curriculum was the most important focus concerning bringing internationalisation to the College.

Question 8(b). Explain your choice for 1, the most prioritised, and 7, the least prioritised.

Rebecca PM1, Roy PM2, and Pamela PM5 believed the curriculum was the priority area for internationalisation at the College. Sly S3 remarked that "International students will come for the curriculum", while Bai S6 stated that "It [the curriculum] would attract international students." Sly S3 added:

The curriculum is the most important aspect of any institution and should be the first to address [...]. It is the vital area in any educational institution that what we (the College)

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teach, that is what students come for; like me, I am at the College to access the curriculum offered to become a trained teacher.

Shelly AS1, Keke A2, Lucy AS6 and Paw AS10 believed the curriculum should be the first order of priority because it is the nucleus of the College, “especially because research for publication is not our key focus” (Shelly AS1). Further, “Our business is teaching and learning. We upgraded the curriculum under GITEP, and so, I do not think we will have to do much more with the curriculum to bring it to, international standards level for internationalisation” (Lucy AS6). Others remarked that the curriculum “is the core of all activities and should be the priority” (Shadeen S7) and “can change to include foreign language and international education, which would appeal to international students even before they come on campus” (Paw AS10).

The least prioritised areas for policymakers were institutional climate because “the institutional climate is adaptable” (Rebecca PM1) and “it would improve over time” (David PM3). Further, the “institutional climate would be fostered and improved through building the human resource, good administration, and better facilities” (Pamela PM5). The least prioritised areas for the academic staff saw Sharon AS8 stating that “Once the relevant people are in place, we [the College] will have the experiences – skills set – to motivate and create transformation.”

Yochanan AS3 and Sharon AS8 indicated that student intake would improve once all other conditions improved. Jaah AS9 believed that “Students have to satisfy criteria for matriculation, and this would change over time depending on the developments in other areas”. Dolly AS4’s reason cited was that “Upgrading classrooms, physical structure, and technology, for example, takes time”. Lucy AS6 remarked that “Internationalisation does not necessarily require physical structure such as building because the virtual classroom is an alternative.” Iris AS7 thought that the current curriculum was least important because “It was already a base for internationalisation with its foreign language content, though it would only work for internationalisation when it is further developed with international content apart from the Spanish and Portuguese languages, and when technology, human resource and other areas developed”.

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In prioritising the administration, John S4 stated: “The administration working with other stakeholders would help” the internationalisation initiative, while Torrin S8 believed the administration’s “knowledge of the mandate and operations of the College would help” the process. Regarding the least prioritised approaches, Paynett S1 said: “The administration is capable and effective in handling affairs, and the College should use the resources for other improvements.” Other views expressed included that “Student intake would improve when everything else is in place” (Kay S5) while “Physical infrastructure is not urgent, like some other areas like the curriculum to bring internationalisation” (Shadeen S7).

Question 9. What other approaches would you recommend to bring internationalisation to teacher’s college?

Twenty per cent (20%) each of the policymakers indicated the following as ‘other approaches’: public awareness and consultations; modernisation; and exchange visits. Forty per cent (40%) felt partnership building and affiliation. Ten per cent (10%) each of the academic staff believed in the usefulness of technology, exchange visits, an international student programme, partnership, policy, marketing, and 40% public awareness. Thirty-three per cent (33%) of the students identified capacity building as helping to bring internationalisation to the College. Sixteen per cent (16%) each indicated policy, financial resources, bringing professionals from abroad to teach, and cultural and religious programmes as having utility.

Findings regarding other approaches to internationalisation included partnership building (Pamela PM5; Byron PM7), public awareness (Lucy AS6; Iris AS7; Sharon AS8; Paw AS10), and capacity building (Sly S3; Torrin S8). A partnership is an internationalisation activity whereby higher education institutions collaborate on, for example, research, programme delivery, and exchange programmes (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Chan & Dimmock, 2008; Eddy, 2010; Qiang, 2003). Public awareness and capacity building, however, are activities that will support internationalisation as public awareness is necessary for buy-in (Shadeen S7), which is essential for a policy decision on internationalisation at the College. Capacity building is important for the implementors of internationalisation to acquire the knowledge necessary to put in place the internationalisation agenda as a lack of knowledge about internationalisation is an inhibiting factor (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003). Keke AS2 stated: “For the

internationalisation agenda, staff must come to the College with skills in internationalisation or be trained to acquire the knowledge.”

Question 10(a). What are your views on the readiness of the teacher’s college to internationalise? Why?

A total of 57% of policymakers believed that the College was ready, while 29% thought the institution was ‘somewhat ready’, and 14% felt it was ‘not ready’. Seventy per cent (70%) of the academic staff said the College was not ready, 20% said ‘somewhat ready’, and 10% was unsure, while 63% of the students felt the institution was ‘not ready’, and 38% said it was ready. Policymakers’ reasons cited for readiness were based on their experience of GITEP (World Bank, 2010), which resulted in “improvements in, for example, technology infrastructure, academic staff profile, curriculum, and student intake” (David PM3).

Emma AS5 and Sharon AS8’s views of ‘somewhat’ ready were based on their knowledge of the coaching and training staff members received from abroad and the technology upgrade. Emma AS5 had exposure to an on-campus university abroad, and she had also compared the two contexts, and the College had the basis as well as staff with sufficient internationalisation exposure to start the process. However, Paynett S1 stated: “the physical infrastructure is not ready”. Another reason was the “lack of multicultural teachings in the curriculum” (Bai S6). In the opinion of another student, “some policymakers are still small-minded and would not want to think big” (John S4). John S4’s view is contrary to policymakers’ response, which shows that 57% of the respondents indicated the College’s readiness, while 27% believed that it was somewhat ready. Further, 50% of the policymakers communicated that the idea was good, encouraging, and worthy of consideration, while 50% implied their support for internationalising the College by indicating the need for sustainability.

Riya S2 remarked: “The lecturers are educated, and with the help from the administration, they can change the institution.” Torrin S8 believed that the College’s readiness was ‘responsive’ in that internationalisation is already a trend in higher education globally, while “the College must catch up with the regional and international standard of teacher education,” while Shadeen S7

stated that “the institution already has a relationship with the state university, and it could strengthen this relationship and extend it”.

Question 10(b). Do you agree that policy should drive the internationalisation process?

This question was only for policymakers and academic staff. All policymakers agreed about the policy decision to ‘drive’ internationalisation; 57% strongly agreed, and 43% agreed. Most of the policymakers also identified a lack of policy as the number one impeding factor. Eighty-nine per cent (89%) of the academic staff agreed; 22% strongly agreed, and 67% agreed, while 11% was unsure. The academic staff identified the lack of policy as the number two inhibiting factor to internationalisation.

Capt (2013) and Ota (2018) have argued that policy encourages internationalisation. In the researcher’s experience, a policy is the signal to move ahead and implement plans and that those plans will receive funding – whether wholly or partly – from the Ministry. The policy is also necessary for the financing of, for example, staff training for capacity building as well as curriculum adjustments which will require the input of experts within and outside the context.

Question 11. What would the teacher’s college look like if it were to internationalise?

Accreditation would bring recognition to the institution at the regional and international levels, according to 43% of policymakers. About 29% of them cited improved technology, internet access and online teaching service, while 14% of respondents believed that library facilities would improve, with 14% feeling that the College would experience improved physical infrastructure and services.

The academic staff participants provided fifteen responses to this question. Twenty-seven per cent (27%) believed that the most improved aspect of the College would be curriculum improvement, while 20% indicated the emergence of a diverse student population, including international students. Improved technology, internet access and online teaching and recognition, and accreditation and better staff quality garnered 13% of responses. Seven per cent (7%) indicated improved physical infrastructure and services as well as partnership and collaboration as other areas that would develop. Twenty-five per cent (25%) of the student

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participants cited recognition through accreditation, while 25% mentioned a diverse student population with international students in a multicultural environment, and 13% each indicated modern curriculum, improved physical infrastructure, a better quality of staff, and improved technology/internet access/online teaching/reaching students in other parts of the country.

Question 12. What are the policy implications for internationalising the teacher's college?

This question was for policymakers and academic staff only. For the policymakers, the policy implications were: an internationalisation policy for the curriculum (17%); attracting overseas staff (17%); remuneration for staff (17%); blended and online learning (33%); a total of 17% were unsure. The academic staff's views regarding policy implications were: an internationalisation policy that would support curriculum adjustment (60%); policy to support blended learning (10%); an accreditation policy (10%); support the free movement of students, (10%); a further 10% were unsure. One policymaker identified an internationalised college as an accredited one but did not indicate the need for an accreditation policy because "it is mandatory for the College to have accreditation status" (Janet PM6).

Question 13(a). What do you see as your role/responsibility in the internationalisation efforts?

This question was for policymakers and academic staff only. Advocacy and support of the internationalisation effort and advancement of studies to garner an understanding of internationalisation were the roles indicated by 83% and 17% of policymakers, respectively. A majority of academic staff cited advocacy and support (70%), while 30% mentioned the advancement of internationalisation studies. Both groups recognised advocacy and support as more important than acquiring knowledge about internationalisation. The majority felt their major role was to advocate for policy by discussing the research findings with MoE and BoG. Shelly AS1 remarked on the need to "advocate for technical support to build staff capacity."

Question 13(b). How do you see the role/responsibilities of other educational institutions/departments, including offices (please name specifically in your response), changing or evolving in any internationalisation effort of the teacher's college?

Policymakers identified responsibilities at the College (33%), tertiary institutions collaborating with the College (50%), and the Regional Education Officers (liaisons between the College and those teachers in training in the various regions) (17%). In comparison, the academic staff identified the College (30%), tertiary partners (institutions where students take practicum or transition to continue their training) (10%), MoE's Planning Department (which is responsible for monitoring evaluating of new initiatives) (10%), and the Chief Education Officer (50%).

Question 14. Which office (either within or external to the Ministry of Education) should be the 'driver' in the College's internationalisation efforts? Why?

The internationalisation 'driver' refers to an individual, groups of individuals, or offices that will bring about change. Twenty-nine per cent (29%) of policymakers believed the lead to be the Chief Education Officer, the College (29%), the Board of Governors (21%), Deputy Chief Education Officers, Planning Department of the MoE and other related institutions and departments (for example, schools where students take their teaching practicum) (7% each). The College leadership and staff should lead the internationalisation agenda according to 60% of the academic staff, and the MoE (20%), the Head of State (10%), and a new office (10%).

Regarding having responsibilities for the College's internationalisation agenda, 67% of the student participants identified the College Administration and 33% the government ministries and departments within and external to the MoE. Government ministries and departments suggest to the researcher an intersectoral relationship involving the Education Ministry and other government ministries. This intersectoral linkage conforms to the governance model (Stoker, 1998; Enders, 2004; Altrichter, 2015) adopted in this research. One of these ministries is the Ministry of Health, which caters for improved medical services for students and staff. Also, linkages with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs are essential to support any collaboration between the Guyana diaspora (CARICOM, 2014) and medical services in order to support international students on campus. Another relevant ministry is the Ministry of Public Service in

order to access support through scholarship opportunities for students and staff who might require financial assistance for study abroad and exchange programmes.

Question 15. What other comments would you make about the teacher's college and internationalisation?

Policymakers felt the intention to internationalise the College was encouraging (17%); the idea was a good one and worthy of consideration (33%); sustainability should be the watchword (50%). There was support for the idea to internationalise the College. The academic staff believed that the idea was worthy of consideration (63%); sustainability should be the watchword (13%); there should be buy-in (13%); the College should have the autonomy to conduct its functions (13%). According to the students, the end product, or student graduates should be: of a higher standard (33%); students must be international ready (33%); learning experiences would be exciting (17%); and the idea was a good one worthy of consideration, (17%). Two student participants did not respond.

Focus group findings

This section reveals the themes and subthemes from the academic staff and student focus groups. The researcher interrogated the data and found patterns of expressions that were similar or divergent and combined the patterns to represent three (3) primary themes and eleven (11) subthemes (see Figure 2).

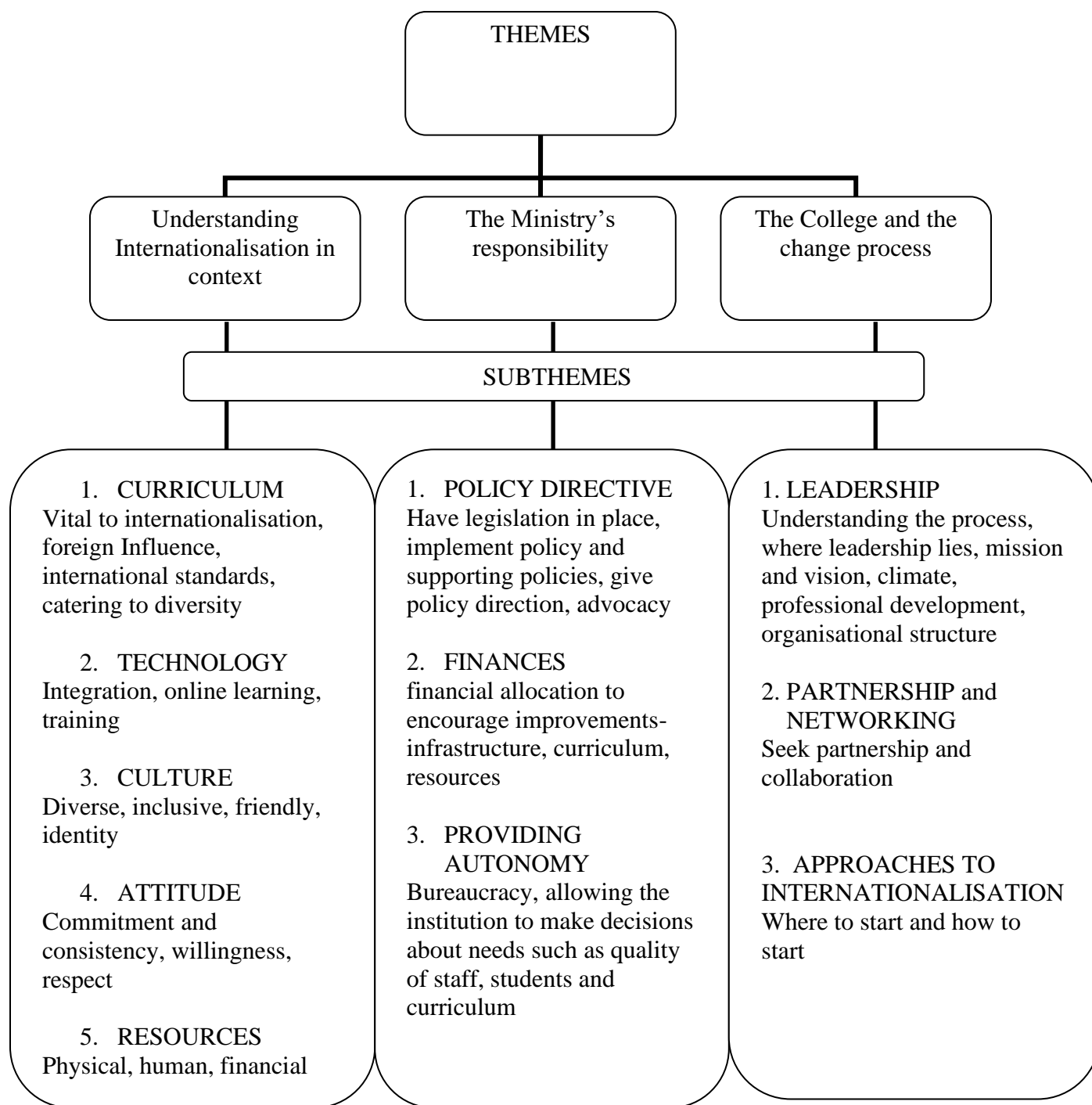


Figure 2. Themes and subthemes from academic staff and student focus groups

Theme 1: Understanding internationalisation at the College

Subtheme 1: Curriculum.

Internationalising curriculum and curriculum activities appeared to be at the core of the process of internationalisation (Luxon & Peelo, 2009). Keke AS2, Lucy AS6, Iris AS7 and Paw AS10 thought that that curriculum upgrade was a good foundation for the College's internationalisation effort. Nonetheless, Dolly AS4 and Paw AS10 felt that the curriculum should reflect international standards. Paw AS10 reasoned that:

The curriculum should have an international standard to be seen as an internationalised one. We cannot plan for all cultures because it would be difficult, but the curriculum could be generic in that it should reflect educational concepts that are global, but concepts that can help students reflect on their situation, such as their culture and the cultures of other contexts.

Additionally, the focus group's reason for the curriculum to meet international standards appeared to the researcher to be influenced by the participant's epistemes regarding where superior knowledge lies (Stier, 2006). It was remarked that:

The College is in a small developing country that may not be known to the international community. Therefore, internationalising the curriculum is not only about the content. The curriculum should be accredited at the national level and at least at the regional or international level. It means the College must seek international accreditation so that the curriculum will be recognised and accepted at the international level if the College were to attract international students and staff. (Dolly AS4)

In the researcher's experience, accreditation of the College's curriculum was not a determinant of whether the College programmes are accepted, as evidenced by the example of the acceptance of College graduates in foreign countries following teachers' migration (World Bank, 2010).

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Additionally, academic staff and students argued that there was a need for a new and upgraded curriculum. Iris AS7, Paynett S1, Shelly AS1, John S4, Kay S5 and Shadeen S7 believed that foreign language education should extend beyond the narrow offerings of Spanish and Portuguese. Jaah AS9 supported the idea of a new College curriculum and believed that the “curriculum should be able to take [foreign ideas] on board” but expressed concerns about “losing our value as Guyanese, the uniqueness, and what we do here at the College.” Jaah AS9 went on to explain:

We have our values and cultures, and we must maintain them; we should not get carried away by bringing foreign ideas into our curriculum. Gender will be one of the conflict areas for us in internationalising, say, our Social Studies curriculum to teach about gender and family. We will have to be careful that we do not steer away from our values while at the same time, we try not to offend students who may come from liberal societies where all gender types are accepted.

The students perceived the need for “a curriculum that exposes students to the way of life of others, not only their cultures but knowledge about the history of others” (Kay S5), while Riya S2 added that “intercultural and global dimensions” should be part of the curriculum. As Bai S6 stated, “We would have a wider knowledge base learning about the cultures and way of life of persons from other countries, while foreign students will learn about the Guyanese way of life, how we dress, celebrate national and religious holidays”.

The researcher surmised that, in internationalising the curriculum, the College must be mindful that the inclusion of international and global education does not replace the values of what is vital to the curriculum at the local and national levels. Also, there should be a mix of curriculum topics and content that respond to national needs while including topics and contents that are global.

Theme 1, Subtheme 2: Technology

The subtheme 'technology' yielded responses about the use of technology as a tool and online learning. Participants discussed technology use and associated challenges. From the academic staff discussion, the need for "technology to support the curriculum delivery was cited:

The technology we [namely the College] have is not ready for internationalisation. We have been trying to do that technology integration by using laptop computers, projectors and screens in the classroom, but it did not always work because it was difficult to upload and project videos from YouTube because the internet is a big challenge. (Shelly AS1)

I had similar problems at my centre, but it wasn't so bad because we (staff at that satellite centre) receive internet on and off. It is those distance education TTC centres that will have the most problem with technology integration because of internet issues. (Dolly AS4)

In addition to the argument for internet upgrades for use in the classroom, academic staff argued for the College to be visible on the world wide web and for it to be accessible to international students: "[The College] probably may have to do more with our website" (Dolly AS4) so that "we (the College) can be visible to students everywhere in terms of our curriculum and other experiences at the College and technology could reach a diverse student population in other countries" (Jaah AS9). For example, "more persons must be trained in the use of Moodle for teaching" (Jaah AS9), while Iris AS7 remarked:

Lecturers must get on board with the technology. The administration should make technology mandatory so that all staff will be trained to use it. Right now, all of us don't know and until we know how we will not be ready. If we start to deliver the internationalised curriculum, we have to sustain it by having lecturers with the skills to deliver using the technology, whether online or face-to-face. Then there is fear for the use of technology. When I started teaching on Moodle, I was fearful. Do not ask me why; I know I felt a sense of fear just to go to the Moodle platform.

As Paynett S1 observed:

Lecturers insist that we [the students] give them typewritten work and insist that we use technology to get our work done, but they are not willing to use the technology. We will plead with some lecturers to use PowerPoint and projector, but they don't. Lecturers have to be willing to use the technology if we are internationalising our curriculum.

Further, "even when we [the students] try to get our work done in the computer laboratories, we sometimes have problems with insufficient computers" (Kay S5), therefore "We [the College] need more computer laboratories" (Riya S2).

Staff training in technology use is critical to technology integration, as emphasised by academic staff and students during focus group discussions. Writers such as Lu, Tie and Chua (2013) argued that lack of knowledge in the use of technology is a barrier. From the focus group discussion, absence of technology, lack of knowledge, unwillingness to use the technology or fear of technology emerged as barriers.

Theme 1, Subtheme 3: Culture

Academic staff and students argued that internationalisation would encourage diversity, but this may lead to local students changing their culture, as discussed by, for example, Cardoza (2015) and Stier (2006). One participant remarked that internationalisation would "encourage a diverse student population" (Keke AS2), while another stated that "Students will come to the College with different cultures, and as lecturers, we must have social activities for local and foreign students to share cultures and learn from each other" (Shelly AS1).

The sharing and learning of cultures are not automatic because Sawir (2013) found that local students were not mindful of the new cultures in their environment and did not contribute to cultural learning. Nonetheless, Iris AS7 said:

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We [the College] know how we do things here, and we are accustomed to our culture and practices here, but I think there is so much happening all over, particularly other cultures in other places that we need to tap into if we are going to arrive at diversity as we internationalise. As we prepare to embrace other cultures from a lot of other educational institutions in other countries, we can have that kind of work as an international/internationalised institution.

Emma AS5 remarked on her belief that “we can still have our unique culture and national identity as we internationalise”, which “is not always easy” (Jaah AS9). Jaah AS9 further observed:

As Guyanese, we can be vulnerable to what is new as we sometimes perceive new or foreign things as better. It might be consciously or unconsciously, but we have to be in the company of someone from a different country, and by the time you know it, we are talking or trying to speak with the accent or something like the accent of the person. Then we dress like the other person and imitate all actions in admiration of what looks better. Put a West Indian in Nottinghamshire, overnight he is an Englishman.

Participants were sceptical about leaving culture to chance. John S4 said:

Activities for cultural sharing with international students will have to be planned and not left to students. We do have planned activities, but we need more. On-campus, our student population comprises at least three different ethnic groups and more than six tribes, and though we talk with each other and participate in culture day activities, we still do not know much about the cultures of some of our peers.

Shadeen S7 further remarked that “I think it is because we do not take time to learn about each other's culture, so we need to start learning about it here. It is a good idea to have international students, and we are always happy to welcome foreigners”. The researcher's view is that the vulnerability Jaah AS9 mentioned is rooted in Guyana's colonial history and continues to influence Guyanese thinking today, even as a sovereign nation, as the writers such as Lavia (2012) and Cardoza (2015) observed.

Higher education could adopt both informal and hidden curricula (Leask, 2013) through which cultural learning occurs. However, in the researcher's opinion, the College, for example, should have planned activity programmes to promote cultural sharing. The latter should occur without students' feeling inferior or others promoting themselves as having superior learning (Stier, 2006).

Theme 1, Subtheme 4: Attitude

Attitude is vital to the internationalisation process; for example, Stier (2006) has argued that students must be tolerant and respectful of the cultures of others, while Sawir (2013) has emphasised an attitude of willingness on the part of local students to embrace global cultures. Knight and de Wit (1995) and Qiang (2003) have explained the importance of attitude in their "ethos approach" – interpreted by the researcher to mean courtesies of greetings and respect for culture, ambience, clear principles and procedures, and approaches to new ideas.

Attitude emerged as a subtheme as participants believed that stakeholders' reactions to the internationalisation process were a vital consideration. For instance: "As students, we have to find the time to ask questions about the cultures of others and do not only rely on our observation because persons may suppress who they are and try to fit into what may be seen as the norm" (Riya S2). There "has to be a change in attitude" (Emma AS5). "The attitude change must be positive" (Sharon AS8), "with persons moving away from their comfort zone, using technology, sharing positive experiences" (Iris AS7), "respecting others and having a willingness to make necessary adjustments" (Sharon AS8).

Theme 1, Subtheme 5: Resources

The internationalisation "agenda requires 'care and feeding' in the forms of resources -financial, human and infrastructure" (Rumbley, Altbach, & Reisberg, 2012, p. 23). In light of this, the narratives from the 'Resources' subtheme generated responses about their inadequacy, such as physical, material, human and financial resources. Emma AS5 and Paw AS10 thought the resources were inadequate because internationalisation requires, for example, necessary infrastructure such as a "learning management system and internet access, which the College did not have to facilitate online

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learning because its mission is not part of the mission of the College” (Iris AS7). The lack of access to technology resources is a barrier (Lu Tie & Chua, 2013). However, this technology barrier does not preclude the institution from internationalising because there are other aspects such as partnerships and exchange programmes as well as research. These aspects would not require the technology necessary for online learning. Chan and Dimmock’s (2008) translocalist internationalisation model does not identify online learning or technology as a strategy.

The inadequacy of human resources does not necessarily refer to the number of staff but the number of teaching staff (faculty) with exposure to internationalisation. Faculty members are not always certain about their role in the internationalisation process (Qiang, 2003) and must be trained to acquire international education and experiences and understand their roles and responsibilities. Although at the time of this research, all the staff had the opportunity to benefit from international education through GITEP, staff migration had since depleted the number of College staff exposed to higher education at international institutions (College, 2016). Paynett S1, Kay S5, and Shadeen S7 expressed that if the College were to implement the new initiative, it has implications for the training up of human resources to respond to the institution’s internationalisation agenda.

The training of faculty has financial implications and the inadequacy of finances as expressed by Emma AS5 and Paw AS10, given that “staff will not pay out of pocket to get trained in internationalisation because their salary is small and government should fund it” (Emma AS5). “They [the government] gave scholarships under GITEP and will have to budget for same now” (Paw AS10). Chan and Dimmock (2008) have discussed how government support can promote internationalisation, while Lugovtsova, Krasnova and Torhova (2012) have shown how government underfinancing hinders internationalisation efforts.

Paynett S1 and Kay S5 felt that the physical environment was an important consideration in internationalising higher education. Shadeen S7 said: “We have to work on our physical environment”, and Riya S2 believed “to some extent, our classrooms,” continuing that:

The physical environment is necessary to ensure that international faculty coming as visiting or working for full-time staff, and foreign students coming in person on campus, come to a place

that looks like one of higher learning. [...]. The physical environment could improve through the use of signage and the removal of vending carts from the entrance of the main campus, which makes the place look like a high school. (Shadeen S7).

The views of Paynett S1, Kay S5, Riya S2, and Shadeen S7 suggested, to the researcher, the need for the College to reach a certain standard for its physical environment in order to appeal to international students and faculty. International students come to higher education for global and diverse experiences (Sawir, 2013). Therefore, the curriculum (Leask, 2013) will be of interest to them and, with adequate infrastructure, the programme will be online (Shadeen S7).

Emma AS5, Lucy AS6, and Iris AS7 supported the assertion that internationalisation does not necessarily require physical structures such as buildings. However, financial resources were necessary for the College to acquire other supplies needed because the “bureaucracy of government could prevent these resources from moving institution” (Paw AS10). Other supplies include technology, a curriculum review, and staff training.

Theme 2: The Ministry of Education's responsibility

“If our top, the people who make the decisions, policymakers, do not change, then we at the bottom cannot do anything. [...]. They have to make the policy” (Iris AS7) and give the College the autonomy to seek other avenues of funding (Keke AS2; Jaah AS9).

One academic staff member remarked: “The general role of the MoE is to promote education, draft regulations, design policies, implement developmental projects, provide financing for state-owned education institutions and give oversight of the improvement in the system” (Lucy AS6). Hence, “the MoE's involvement from the onset is crucial for buy-in” (Yochanan AS3), and support” (Emma AS5). As Dolly AS4 observed, “The implication is for the College to advocate for internationalisation by presenting the findings to MoE and BoG”.

Theme 2, Subtheme 2: Finances

Another subtheme revealed in the focus group data was finances. Shelly AS1 and Keke AS2 felt financial allocation to be a government's responsibility must include encouraging improvements

in infrastructure, curriculum, human and physical resources. As such, Yochanan AS3 believed that, in bringing internationalisation to the College, other sources of funding were necessary. Others remarked that finance “is way too important to the process” (Iris AS7), that it “can grow over time” (Riya S2), while “The recruitment of international students could improve the financial resources of the College” (Lucy AS6).

Generally, for administrators, financing will always be insufficient (Capt, 2013) for the continuity and sustainability of new initiatives because, in the researcher's experience, the budget is never enough for activities except those financed by external donors. One example is the continuation of one laptop distributed per teacher under GITEP, which was discontinued at the end of the project (College, 2016). The allocation of state funds to the Ministry of Education means competing for funding with other ministries (Ministry of Education, 2014). It follows that, like any new initiative, internationalisation requires financing for activities such as technology infrastructure, training, and curriculum adjustments to include international components.

Further, new activities must be justified and presented to policymakers for consideration for budgetary releases (Board of Governors, 2019). Knight (2004) has argued that internationalisation is one way for higher education to supplement public financing income. The researcher believes that financing can come from other sources; hence there is a need for the College to review its mandate to reflect its value for internationalisation and chart a direction for private sector involvement in teacher education as an alternative source of financing internationalisation activities.

Theme 2, Subtheme 3: Providing autonomy

The academic staff focus group believed the College should have the freedom to make decisions about its needs, such as the quality of staff, students and curriculum, because “bureaucracy of government can prevent these resources necessary for moving the institutions forward” (Paw AS10). Yochanan AS3 felt that “autonomy is essential for the College to conduct its business with less bureaucracy”. Keke AS2 observed that “a less bureaucratic governance system where significant groups such as the College Administration and the BoG have shared responsibility with MoE for resource mobilisation would support the internationalisation process”.

In the researcher's experience, policy directions and approval for financing to support these policy initiatives come from policymakers. However, "the College should have the autonomy to decide on staffing in terms of number, qualification and experience, and staffing apart from the in-house Professional Development Sessions" (Keke AS2). Meanwhile, Shelly AS1 remarked that:

We [namely academic staff] know the Ministry recruiting and sending staff to the College who did not have the right skill-mix, and the training staff needed was beyond the budget for in-house sessions. Internationalising the College will need lecturers with international experience, or the College must have the autonomy to recommend staff for such training apart from the in-house sessions or advocate for technical support to build staff capacity.

Theme 3: The College and the change process

Subtheme 1: Leadership

The academic staff believed leadership was essential to bringing internationalisation to the College. Paw AS10 asserted that leadership should encourage a climate that would support change. Dolly AS4 iterated that the organisational structure of the institution should be flatter in order to aid a smoother flow of communication and decision making. Sharon AS8 and Yochanan AS3 felt that the CEO who oversees education across the country should set the tone by advocating for internationalisation at a policymaker level, then sensitise the public to the new initiative. Sly S3, Kay S5, Shelly AS1 and Sharon AS8 also argued that the College's leadership must direct the internationalisation process. "College leaders must set the tone for the change" (Sly S3) and "work collaboratively with staff to make it happen, but everyone must want the change" (Kay S5). "They must see the need to change the overall student outcome and the image of the College" (Shelly AS1). Sharon AS8 stated: "Setting the tone by communication to staff and students, through every available channel, notice boards, memoranda, emails, meetings on the policy decision to internationalise, and provide the guidance and support as the College goes through the process of internationalisation".

Participants' responses recalled the governance model adopted from Stoker (1998) and Altrichter (2015). Its participatory nature allows for clear roles and responsibilities among stakeholders. In the researcher's view, the researcher is the lead advocate for both bringing internationalisation to the institution and training opportunities for academic staff to acquire and enhance their knowledge of internationalisation.

Theme 3, Subtheme 2: Partnership and networking

Shelly AS1, Dolly AS4, Iris AS7 and Paw AS10 shared that collaboration, partnerships, and mergers with other institutions support the internationalisation of higher education. Bai S6 stated that this would be "for the betterment of education." Also, the College could "partner with institutions from abroad, so we would be able to have students take courses online" (Torrin S8). Academic staff argued for exchange visits; for example, Jaah AS9 remarked:

We can go to see what is happening in those countries. Tutors as well as students go to see first-hand. We know that there is a difference when you see things in action that can be done, and you can ask questions to bring knowledge and the experience to improve what is happening here.

The students discussed the benefit of partnerships supporting student placements abroad. Torrin S8 observed: "Internationalisation will support partnerships and student attachments so students studying foreign languages could go to a country that speaks the language," while Sly S3 remarked, "The College has to establish, and sustain partnerships with similar higher education institutions nationally, regionally, and internationally".

The ways in which the College can establish partnership were discussed by academic staff as: "The College alumni in the diaspora are one avenue through which the institution can initiate partnership contacts" (Dolly AS4) while "Establishing a partnership also implies the involvement of staff in conferences and seminars" (Sharon AS8). The researcher perceived that the dissemination of this research through conferences and seminars is one way to encourage and create networks. Dolly AS4 and Shelly AS1 argued that the College and the state university must review existing agreements in light of the delivery of an internationalised curriculum at the

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College because the College offering an internationalised curriculum will affect the follow-up courses of its graduates at the state university.

Further, Paw AS10 and Lucy AS6 remarked that the College and the state university should review their partnership to allow for collaborative research mainly because the College does not engage in research for publication and required partnership support to develop in that regard, which is another area of internationalising the institution. As Iris AS7 stated, “Partnership through internationalisation will help us as lecturers improve our research skills and share published work as a higher education institution. The College has been in existence for decades, and I am unsure if it has ever made any publication”.

Theme 3, Subtheme 3: Approaches to internationalisation

Participants had varying views about what the College should internationalise first, whether that be its administration, curriculum, technology infrastructure, or policy. Lucy AS6 stated: “We need to dig into personnel to cause it to happen with the administration within a broader framework,” while Emma AS5 observed, “Information and communication technology because globally, that is one of the driving forces for internationalisation”. Findings for approaches revealed that “there is one job at the beginning; designing policy” (Shelly AS1). In addition, Bai S6 and Shadeen S7 also believed the policy to be the first consideration.

Interview findings

This section relays the themes and subthemes from the policymakers, academic staff and students' interview protocols. The researcher interrogated the data and found patterns of expressions that were similar or divergent, and those patterns and divergences were combined to represent one (1) primary theme and a total of six (6) subthemes (see Figure 3).

Themes derived from the interviews

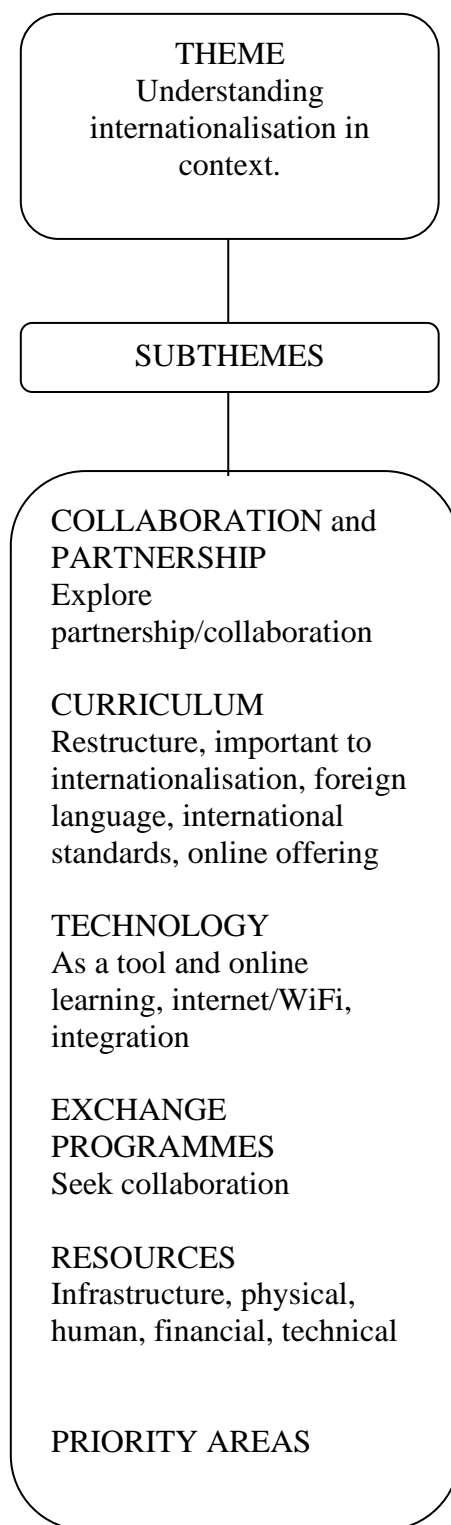


Figure 3. Perceptions of internationalisation's dimensions

Interview respondents believed that bringing internationalisation to the College would require: collaboration and partnerships at different levels; curriculum restructure; technology and distance education; exchange programme for student and staff; resources; and areas of priority. The responses in keeping with the theme and subthemes were as follows:

Theme: Understanding internationalisation in the context of the College

Subtheme 1: Collaboration and partnership

Policymakers, academic staff and students emphasised the importance of collaboration and partnership to support an internationalised curriculum, capacity building, exchange programmes, and the sustainability of these partnerships, respectively. For example, Dolly AS4 remarked:

If we reflect on maybe let us see a decade, eight years, seven years we would have seen structural changes at the College in terms of implementing the new ADE programme. Part of the structure, too, came with the merger with the state university to offer this new programme which I believe is a good thing for the College. The curriculum and the merger, because students don't have to take courses at the university that they completed at College, so they finish their study in a shorter time. I believe that now with internationalisation, the university will have to internationalise their education programme because I do not know what it would be like for students to have part of their curriculum internationalised and the other part not internalised.

The College partnered with other institutions overseas for “leadership exchange programmes and faculty members completed graduate studies with foreign universities online” (Yochanan AS3). Yochanan AS3 explained:

Collaboration is necessary for internationalisation because, as an institution, we cannot do it alone. We can get international exposure, which will give us some experience, but it does not mean we have the skills to internationalise. I was part of the group that

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benefitted from the management and leadership training done partly online and face-to-face. I received coaching in new teaching methods, but I do not believe that was enough for internationalisation. We need to collaborate with others who have the know-how.

Internationalisation of the College would allow better collaboration between institutions, the exchange between that of different academic institutions. When I say better collaboration, I mean that the agreement is sustained for a longer period, unlike GITEP and one-off training for staff. I know GITEP was a funded project, but if we think of, for example, exchange programmes for staff, it should not be a one-off arrangement. Such a partnership should cater to the new staff coming to the College over time. (Paw AS10)

Student participants also argued for collaboration “to support student taking courses online in international universities and also students travelling to those universities on exchange programmes” (Torrin S8). As remarked on by others:

Partnership building is necessary for influence and support. For example, collaboration with other educational institutions, especially institutions that are themselves internationalised or are moving in that direction, will boost the College's image and probably influence international students to enrol. We need collaboration for research support to build a research culture as we are not about research, and I need to improve my research skills. There are many research areas we can collaborate on, such as how students learn in hinterland areas with limited resources. Then we also have to collaborate with institutions for student and staff exchange for international experience. (Pamela PM5)

Collaboration must be sustainable, and “success depends on support from both internal and external entities, both the College and the international institution it is collaborating with must be willing to work for the benefit of all students” (Sly S3).

Subtheme 2: Curriculum restructuring

Restructuring the curriculum should result in “a more solid curriculum” (Emma AS5), a “diverse curriculum” (Paw AS10), while “the College may have to borrow ideas to make the curriculum international” (Iris AS7). As others observed,

It means that the training process can no longer focus entirely on the natives (students from the local and national contexts within a country) and the whole structure of the training curriculum. The approaches should be such that a person from a different situation could train to function in another situation. (Iris AS7)

The idea to internationalise the curriculum to offer global education to students across context must accompany the idea to have the curriculum accredited with an internationally recognised accreditation body for recognition and acceptance. Accreditation at the local level is good, but this might not give the College the recognition as one from an internationally recognised institution. (Rebecca PM1)

Participants discussed that the curriculum is one area for renegotiation (of partnership) with the state university because, for example,

Internationalising the College's curriculum might have implications for what happens at that institution. The College students continue their education and training at the state university to get their first degree. If we were to internationalise our curriculum and the same does not happen at the state university, then the College graduates will take an international education curriculum for two years and complete their bachelor's degree with a none-internationalised curriculum. (Shelly AS1)

The student participants' arguments for curriculum restructure for internationalisation included that:

The curriculum can make the College acceptable to international students by offering local programmes depicting our cultures and way of life. These programmes will be encouraging because we have a rich culture given our multi-ethnic society. So

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multicultural teaching must be in the restructure. We have a base, the new ADE, but it must include those areas to internationalise. (Bai S6)

Participants also discussed the scope for foreign languages in the curriculum and the importance of being selective in any curricula adjustments:

Should include courses that are attracted to students worldwide, so foreign language is a must. The curriculum cannot cater to all foreign languages, but we can select depending on the resource personnel we have in Guyana. We presently have Spanish and Portuguese, and we can add, say, Dutch because of our geographic neighbour, Suriname. (Torrin S8)

Other participants discussed the issue of culture and language barriers. As Keke AS2 stated:

An international curriculum may attract international students, but the language and cultural barriers may impede teaching and understanding various pedagogical concepts, especially for international students. I am thinking about international students who may want to join our programme and are proficient in the written English language but have challenges speaking the language. Either way, the curriculum needs adjustment.

Subtheme 3: Technology and distance education

Technology, distance education and connectivity are modes of internationalisation of higher education (Siemens, 2008; Middlemas & Peat, 2015; Zakaria, Saquib, & Bashir, 2016).

Billingham, Cragg and Bentley's (2003) study found technology to be helpful in internationalising higher education. Participants Dolly AS4, Lucy AS6, Jaah AS9, Paw AS10, Rebecca PM1, David PM3, Pamela PM5, Byron PM7, Riya S2, Kay S5, and Torrin S8 referred to technology as desktop computers, laptops, netbooks, projectors, internet connectivity, smart classroom, smart boards, virtual libraries, and online/virtual/e-learning. These technological advancements or modernised technology (Tech Quintal, 2021) support the internationalisation aspect of online teaching and, by extension, the involvement of international students and

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faculty in the virtual space, in addition to technology integration (Billingham, Cragg, & Bentley, 2003; Engwall, 2016).

The use of projectors along with laptops and netbooks facilitates the integration of technology in the classrooms at the College (World Bank, 2010), which defines internationalisation as discussed by writers such as Billingham, Cragg and Bentley (2003), Bleiklie and Kogan (2006), and Lu, Ti and Chua (2013). Byron PM7 remarked: “The College has the ICT base such as projectors and laptop computers, but I believe that there is a need for improvement in that the library should be automated, so students and lecturers will have access to virtual library catalogues.”

In the view of one academic member of staff: “The College must move beyond library automation to online databases and online library access for students studying online, and distance education staff will also access teaching resources virtually” (Paw AS10). Other observations included, “Technology needs to be modernised to smart classrooms” (Rebecca PM1) because “smart classrooms are modern and very interactive and students can share their ideas easily, unlike the traditional chalkboards. Smart classrooms could aid virtual learning” (Lucy AS6).

Also, the College’s “lack of facilities for online studies will impact internationalisation through the use of technology for online teaching and learning. There are lecturers at the College who should know how this works because they did online courses with international universities and should be comfortable with the online environment” (David PM3).

Another policymaker observed, “Technology should be in all processes, including human resource development, online registration, online teaching”, and the institution should “improve internet access” (Pamela PM5). From the perspective of one academic staff member concerning technology use and fears that might be associated with it:

The nature of the delivery of the curriculum has to be more in keeping with technology trends such as teaching online or in a smart classroom. Training in technology use must

not be optional because some persons may not want to train to use the technology because they may be fixed in their traditional teaching methods or maybe fearful, like when I just started using the Moodle platform. We have to overcome fear, get on with the training, and use technology for internationalisation online or in-person face-to-face classrooms. (Iris AS7)

Subtheme 4: Exchange programmes and international students

Exchanged programmes are characterised as, for example, “students will be attached to a College which offers an international curriculum” (Sly S3). In addition, participants felt that exchange visits were necessary for students to have international experience but pointed to a possible challenge of culture ‘adoption’, for instance, Jaah AS9 stated:

Exchange programmes have implications for ‘maintaining individual identity’, that is, who you are as a student or a staff. For instance, a student can benefit from exchange programmes but must guard against foreign cultures’ adoption. They might return with adopted cultures in their mode of dress, accent, food choice, and general attitude to others’ annoyance.

“We need to keep our unique culture even as we bring internationalisation to the College” (Emma AS5). Other participants remarked: “We should not force our culture on others nor accept their cultural identity. Exchange programmes should help us to understand each other so that we can work in an environment of tolerance and mutual respect” (Iris AS7); “Staff and students must be able to go on exchange programmes where they could share and learn from others in international universities” (Kay S5); “International students will want to come” (Sly S3); and “So, what I thought when I talk about internationalisation is also to have some aspects of exchange visitors’ experiences; exchange visits from different institutions” (Paw AS10).

In an extended comment, Emma AS5 observed:

Even when we internationalise online, if we do so, we must still plan for exchange visits because the experiences you gain in person will not be the same you acquire online. I remembered when I was identified as a staff to take a three-week course at an

international university, I was reluctant to go and wanted to take the programme online. However, I went eventually, and the experience was good. I remembered the chaperon, and I went to a flea market one day, and I was excited about the fact that the market was about farmers produce only. I was allowed to taste locally made jams, jellies, cheese. The market was different from my experience at-home. When I shared my excitement with my chaperon, the response was, “You couldn’t get this online.” So, the exchange is important for students and staff to get experience from the actual, not virtual environment.

As David PM3 remarked: “Exchange visits or the mobility of students and staff have implications for planning for students’ exchange visits because everyone cannot go, but disparity will not help the process so all students should take an internationalised curriculum, but some will go on exchange to enhance the internationalisation programme overall”.

Subtheme 5: Resources

The findings from students, academic staff and policymakers revealed the inadequacy of physical, material, financial and human resources. Resource allocation must meet corresponding demands necessary for internationalisation (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbly, 2009; Caribbean Conference on Higher Education, 2010). One student argued regarding the lack of physical resources:

If we are going to internationalise, we need to make sure that our surroundings and our environment are welcoming not only to us but to people living in other areas of the country, often that attracts people if you have a well looked after the environment and our environment the physical beauty that would attract people. (Riya S2)

Riya S2’s opinions were about the campus aesthetics and implication for financial and material resources to maintain an aesthetic appeal from the researcher's perception, which could relate to the ethos need in internationalising (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 16; Qiang, 2003). Paynett S1 stated: “The expressive arts should not suffer, and resources must be adequate to cater for this area.” Paynett S1’s view implied, to the researcher, that adequate staff with skills in the

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expressive arts and appropriate space to deliver these courses would benefit the internationalisation process, thereby aligning with the competency approach (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 16; Qiang, 2003).

Paynett S1 also observed: “A special room for arts and drama, and you have a tutor to go there.” Kay S5 felt “the physical infrastructure was not ready” while Keke AS2 said:

I have been teaching at the College for over twenty years, and I have had challenges getting material resources to teach the practical courses. I know that resources are not always adequate. When it is not material resources, its human resources, internationalisation or not we need more staff, but for the internationalisation, agenda staff must come to the College with skills in internationalisation or be trained to acquire the knowledge.

Policymakers David PM3, Roxanne PM4, Pamela PM5, and Byron PM7 believed that the resources from GITEP were enough base for the College to start to internationalise while Byron PM7 remarked that “GITEP has set a base of a new curriculum, technology and other resources which could be a good start”.

Pamela PM5 believed “insufficient financial resources and inadequately qualified staff would negatively impact the internationalisation process”, while Roy PM2 said:

The College does not have sufficient staff qualified to deliver an internationalised programme, and finances from the budget [approved by the state] would always be insufficient, and then tuition cost is free, so there again, no money can come in from tuition and the physical resources can do with some bit of upgrading.

Another participant remarked that:

I do not think our lecturers know about internationalisation, I know persons who study abroad, including my lecturers, but I do not believe that is enough. I do not know if they

studied internationalisation, but because it is new to the College, all staff should be trained in it to understand what to do. (John S4)

John S4 spoke from the perspective of a student, but policymakers had other views. They believed that the experiences staff members garnered from GITEP's capacity-building component were enough base for the College to start the internationalisation process. For example, Pamela PM5 said:

The College does not have to start internationalisation from scratch; it is in a place of readiness with the staff members who received training and coaching from foreign consultants and partners, and with some more training in human resources specific to internationalisation will be ideal, but I think the College is ready now.

Roxanne PM4 observed:

Staff members, including the administration, have international exposure and can start the process with a plan about how to go about internationalising the College. The College has to present and justify an internationalisation plan and the resources necessary for endorsement by ESC. I am sure that the Board would support the plan if it is convincing enough as a good initiative for improving the overall student quality and ultimately the quality of students they teach in schools to which they are attached. Quality means students with experiences to work effectively anywhere.

Subtheme 6: Priority areas to internationalise

Participants had varying views regarding where internationalisation should begin. For example, they prioritised the following areas for internationalisation:

(i) The curriculum

Policymakers Rebecca PM1, Roy PM2, and Pamela PM5 believed the curriculum was the priority area for internationalisation at the College, while students Sly S3 and Bai S6 felt the curriculum would attract international students. The reasons academic staff gave for prioritising

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the curriculum as an aspect of internationalisation was because Shelly AS1, Keke A2, Lucy AS6 and Paw AS10 believed the curriculum should be the first order of priority because it is the nucleus of the College, and “especially because research for publication is not our key focus” (Shelly AS1). Furthermore, “our business is teaching and learning. We upgraded the curriculum under GITEP, and so, I do not think we will have to do much more with the curriculum to bring it to international standard and to include other foreign aspects to bring about internationalisation” (Lucy AS6).

The “curriculum is the core of all activities and should be the priority” (Shadeen S7). Another participant remarked, “it is the vital area in any educational institution. That is what students come for, like me, I will access the internationalisation curriculum offered to become a trained teacher who can feel comfortable working outside of Guyana” (Sly S3). Paw AS10 stated: “It is the curriculum that can change to include foreign language and international education, which would appeal to local and international students even before they come on campus”.

Participants also argued for internationalisation to promote cultural diversity. For example, “The curriculum would also teach about diversity” (Keke AS2). To return to Paw AS10, “There are books in the library, but I do not know if our students borrow them. I think we take diversity for granted because we have our campus week activities with cultural programmes, but we have to plan to ensure that learning takes place when we take internationalising on board”.

(ii) Human resources

David PM3 and Roxanne PM4 identified human resources as a priority since they thought staff must be equipped with internationalisation knowledge and have the competence to deliver an internationalised programme. Meanwhile, Emma AS5, Lucy AS6, Sharon AS8 and Jaah AS9 prioritised the human resource capacity as a critical area because “people with the necessary skills are important for transformation” (Sharon AS8).

(iii) Technology

Technology would support online teaching for international and regional students who are not resident in Guyana as well as local students from satellite centres (Roxanne PM4; Roy PM2).

(iv) Administration

Further, “the College Administration should be exposed to strategies and systems to help them implement and monitor an internationalised programme” (Emma AS5), while another participant remarked that “It is the administration that is responsible for implementing the policies of the Ministry, and they must know how to deliver on any internationalisation policy” (Sharon AS8).

(v) Physical Infrastructure

Paynett S1 and Riya S2 believed the physical infrastructure to be the priority and expressed the view that this was an area that needed to improve to support internationalisation, while John S4 identified it as the least area of priority.

Participants’ arguments regarding the ‘least’ important areas of priorities as:

(i) Physical environment

There are other ways or approaches to internationalisation, such as virtual classes (Lucy AS6). For example, the students said there was no need to access a physical campus given online classes. Diverse students could be in the online classes and share cultures. Local students at-home are used to their home conditions, for example, a broken light bulb, hanging rafters, and no signage (Sly S3; Bai S6; Shadeen S7; John S4).

(ii) Institutional climate

From the policymakers’ perspectives, the institutional climate at the College was good (Rebecca PM1; David PM3; Pamela PM5; Chad PM8). Similar views were shared by students Riya S2, Bai S6, and Torrin S8.

(iii) Student intake

The College cannot start internationalisation with a foreign student intake. The institution does not have an international curriculum in place (Sharon AS8). Staff also said they must be trained to use technology for online and other virtual learning formats (Yochanan AS3; Sharon AS8).

From the students' perspectives, including Sly S3 and Kay S5, the least prioritised area is student intake "because this will take some time to plan" (Kay S5).

Findings from the observation checklist

Mapping and Profiling Internationalisation Toolkit

The researcher employed the Indicators for Mapping and Profiling Internationalisation Toolkit (IMPI, 2007) to ascertain the College's position regarding internationalisation activities. The IMPI Toolkit comprises twenty-two (22) broad indicators and a total of four hundred eighty-nine (489) sub-indicators. Twenty-three per cent (23%) of the general IMPI indicators matched activities at the College and revealed 4.1% positive observations of the total number of IMPI sub-indicators. Results from observations of activities within the five (5) broad indicators related to this study concerning the total number of IMPI sub-indicators were as follows: academic staff 34%; administration 0%; curricula and academic services 9.6%; general student data 16.7%; and institutional profile 25%. The researcher also selected and customised five (5) of the broad IMPI indicators to check 'yes' and 'no' answers. These were the indicators related to the College's activities at the time of this study (see Table 4).

Table 4. Applicability of indicators adapted from the IMPI Toolkit (2007)

Broad indicators		Total number of sub-indicators	Number of unrelated indicators	Related indicators (N)	
				The number of indicators observed positive (NP)	Number of indicators observed negative (NN)
Academic staff	20-029 to 02-097	31	2	10	19
Administration	03-001 to 03-037	37	2	0	35
Curricula and Academic services	05-001 to 05-098	87	35	5	47
General student data	01-024 to 01-114	36	12	4	20
Institutional profile	06-021 to 06-065	8	4	1	3
Total		199	55	20	124

Further, of the five (5) broad indicators and one hundred and ninety-nine (199) sub-indicators, 27.6% of the sub-indicators were not related to the study. Of the one hundred and forty-four (144) related indicators, 13.9% garnered 'positive responses', and 86.1% showed 'negative responses' about internationalisation and the College. A 'positive response' refers to College activities observed at the time of this research. A 'negative response' relates to actions that seemed a part of the College's routine but yielded 'no' responses. The researcher customised the IMPI indicators to check 'yes' and 'no' answers. The results of the five related measures were as follows:

Academic staff indicators observed as positive

About thirty-four per cent (34%) of the activities the researcher found as positive under this broad group were related to the academic staff member who in any given year: IMPI #

Activity	
20-029	Completes a full degree abroad.
02-031	Attends international seminars and conferences.
02-032	Has affiliation to the global professional or academic body.
02-036	Takes an English course.

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02-037	Takes a foreign language course apart from the English language.
02-038	Delivers a class in a foreign language.
02-077	Involves in international mobility/exchange programmes.
02-079	Has professional experience from an international institution.
02-083	Is of the female gender.
02-084	Is of the female gender compared to the previous year.

Administration

No indicator from the category administration revealed a positive response. The related sub-indicators refer to, for example, internationalisation policies, internationalisation procedures, research, international students, and internationalisation systems.

Curricula and academic services

The related indicators revealed 9.6% positive observations for curricula and academic activities that in any given year were about:

IMPI #	Activity
05-018	Foreign language courses offered;
05-030	Courses taught in a foreign language;
05-078	Strategy used to integrate ICT to support students;
05-083	The incorporation of international content in the curricula; and
05-086	The number of foreign languages taught.

General student data

Under general student data, 16.7% of the related indicators revealed positive responses concerning:

IMPI # Activity

01-037	Students who take foreign language classes.
01-100	Students who were of the female gender.
01-101	The number of female students compared to the previous year.
01-102	Students with special educational needs.

International profile

Twenty-five per cent (25%) of the observed indicators were positive and related to the IMPI indicator number 06-059 and activity-partnerships that resulted in at least one event.

Findings from organisational documents

The researcher interrogated materials related to the College for elements associated with internationalisation activities such as *access, cultural diversity, distance education, foreign language, global, globalisation, international, international education, internationalisation, internet WiFi, electronic, online learning, partnership/collaboration, staff and student exchange, and technology and ICT*.

Overall, the organisational materials observed revealed the frequencies of the word *globalisation* and the word *internationalisation* were 1 and 0, respectively. The 'national documents' revealed the highest number of events, 298, followed by 'international documents', 'regional documents' and 'local documents' with 137, 172, and 68 occurrences. The breakdown, according to the document category, were as follows: *Global* was the most frequent word with 36 appearances among the 137 results in the international document. *International, technology/ICT, access, internet/WiFi/electronic, partnership/collaboration* and *culture/diversity* followed in the same order with 29, 22, 12, 10 and 1 occurrences respectively.

The documents at the regional level revealed 172 occurrences. *Access* had the highest frequency of occurrence, at 65, then *international* and *global* with 29 each, *technology/ICT/electronic* 14, *partnership and collaboration* 11, *culture and diversity* 10, *distance education* 8, *online* 5, and *globalisation* 1.

The six (6) documents grouped under the national level yielded a total of 298 occurrences. Ninety-eight (98) of those occurrences were for *international* and, in descending order, the frequencies of events for *technology, access, partnership and collaboration, distance learning, internet/WiFi, electronic, global, cultural/diversity, online, and foreign language* were 79, 70, 16, 13, 12, 4, 3, 2 and 1, respectively. The national-level board documents revealed two elements: *partnership/collaboration* and *technology*, with their frequency of occurrence being 3

and 1, respectively. Out of the 68 results in the local documents, *distance education* accounted for 22 appearances, *foreign language* 12, *cultural/diversity* 11, *technology and partnership* 8, each, *internet/WiFi* 3, *international* 2, and *staff and student exchange* 1, each and *international education* 1.

Observing the occurrences across all documents revealed that international (127), technology (129) and access to higher education occurred more than 120 times, with access having the most appearances, 157 times. Partnership, distance education, internet/electronic/WiFi, global, cultural diversity and foreign language had double-digit occurrences, with global with the most appearances and foreign language the least. The researcher observed single-digit events for online, international education and staff and student exchange.

Summary

Findings from the policymakers, academic staff and students conceptualised internationalisation as foreign elements in the curriculum, 91%, diversity of students and staff population, 84%, partnerships, 61%, international borders (exchange programmes), 26%, accreditation, 21%, and online studies, 8%. In addition, activities under GITEP that resembled internationalisation were identified as enablers and opportunities for the College's internationalisation agenda. Those were curriculum, ICT integration in the curriculum, and ICT resources upgrade with the highest frequencies of 57%, 50 % and 25% for policymakers, students, and academic staff.

Findings across participant groups reveal three significant challenges: inadequate resources, the lack of an internationalisation policy, and reluctance to buy-in. Thirty-six per cent (36%) of policymakers, 38% of academic staff, and 88% of students identified inadequate resources, while 57% and 70% of policymakers and academic staff, respectively, knew nothing about an internationalisation policy level of MoE, neither the College. Also, findings from 25% of academic staff and 27% of policymakers reveal a reluctance to buy-in as a challenge to internationalisation. For example, “the MoE’s involvement from the onset is crucial for buy-in” (Yochanan AS3), and there was also a need for “support” (Emma AS5). Academic staff, 13% cited: the lack of autonomy and the myopic current mandate structure, vision and mission of the

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College. The student participants, 25%, mentioned unappealing physical resources, while 12% indicated the lack of an international programme.

Concerning the readiness of the College to internalise, 70% of the academic staff, 63% of the students, and 14% of policymakers believed that the College was not ready to internationalise. Reasons to support the College's lack of internationalisation readiness included inadequate infrastructure and resources, technology, financial and human resources, lack of international content in the curriculum, poor attitude towards the idea to internationalise, and reluctance to buy-in.

Forty-three per cent (43%) of policymakers, 30% of academic staff and 38% of students identified the curriculum as the priority approach to internationalising the College. Sly S3, Keke AS2, Lucy AS6, Paw AS10, Rebecca PM1, Roy PM2, and Pamela PM5 believed the curriculum is the priority area for internationalisation at the College. One reason cited was "foreign aspects to bring about internationalisation" (Lucy AS6). Thirty per cent (30%) of the academic staff also identified the administration because "the College Administration should be exposed to strategies and systems to help them implement and monitor an internationalised programme" (Emma AS5).

All participant groups indicated that the College and its leadership should drive the internationalisation agenda – 60% of academic staff, 29% of policymakers, and 67% of students. In comparison, 83% of policymakers and 70% of academic staff identified their roles as advocacy, while 17% of the policymakers and 30% of academic staff indicated their roles in acquiring internationalisation knowledge.

Findings from the IMPI adapted checklist revealed five (5) broad indicators that matched the College's activities: Academic Staff (94%), Administration (95%), Curricula and Academic Services (57%), General Student Data (67%), and Institutional Profile (50%). Positive observations were *Academic Staff activities* (34%), *Institutional Profile* (25%), *General Student Data Curricular* (16.7%), and *Academic Services* (9.6%). No positive activity was observed for *Administration* measured by research, international students and systems, internationalisation

policy and procedures. From the organisational documents, the frequencies of the use of the words “globalisation” and “internationalisation” were 1 and 0, respectively. Findings from the document search show the highest frequencies for “access”, “technology including ICT”, and “international” were 157, 129 and 127, respectively.

Chapter 5.

Discussion

This chapter is the presentation of the research findings concerning the main research question and six subsidiary research questions. The research's focus was to understand the teacher's college concerning its readiness to internationalise against the following backdrop: (i) globally, to explore higher education in light of internationalisation (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbly, 2009); (ii) regionally, to align the research to the regional focus of the internationalisation of higher education in the Caribbean (Caribbean Conference on Higher Education, 2010); and (iii) locally, in that for internationalisation work, it needs to focus on the realities at the *local level* to understand, for example, the interests and concerns of academic staff, policymakers, and students (Willis & Taylor, 2014).

Ultimately, the researcher's goal was to seek perspectives on bringing internationalisation to the teacher's college. The researcher explored – from the perspectives of key College stakeholders, such as policymakers, academic staff and students – the institution's readiness to internationalise. The research purpose was to provide insights into an internationalisation framework for the College and not to generate statistical generalisations. The complementary nature of the mixed research method where the researcher placed more weight on the qualitative techniques of the approach facilitated the exploration of the phenomenon (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017), which was bringing internationalisation of higher education to the local level, in this case, the teacher's college in Guyana. This topic is an area for which there seemed to be no previous research. Part of this discussion concerned the extent to which Chan and Dimmock's translocalist model and Stoker (1998) and Altrichter's (2015) governance model provide a framework for internationalising the College.

The main research question

How ready is the College to internationalise?

The subsidiary questions:

1. How has international, regional, or national policies influenced the College's changes?
2. According to the participants, to what extent is the College ready to internationalise?
3. What does the term 'internationalisation' mean in the context of the College?
4. What would (a) enable and (b) challenge the internationalisation of the College?
5. Which institutional activities, if any, at the College are internationalisation opportunities?
6. What should the College internationalise and how?

This study's findings guided the researcher's organisation and interpretation of the results under the headings *conceptualisation of internationalisation, enablers, challenges and opportunities, the need for policy decisions, internationalisation approaches, and institutional readiness*.

Interpretation of the results

The researcher's approach to the discussion of results was to present the findings of the study in the context of the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) and the governance model (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) to ascertain the extent to which the models were applicable, or not, in terms of internationalising the teacher's college in Guyana. In this study, the translocalist model for internationalisation worked in conjunction with the governance model. The translocalist model facilitates internationalisation and the governance model the administrative aspects of the process regarding the necessity of policy decisions, financing, monitoring, and sustainability. The College cannot internationalise in any deliberate and significant way without a policy directive, namely, an internationalisation policy. Against that contextual reality, the researcher believed that Chan and Dimmock's (2008) translocalist model is limited because it does not consider policy and governance as part of its internationalisation strategy.

The translocalist model has emphasised internationalisation on campus (at-home). This strategy for internationalising higher education is through the 'curriculum' by incorporating international elements and supplementing some study abroad efforts such as partnerships and study-abroad

programmes (Chan & Dimmock, 2008). Leask (2013) has argued that “internationalising the curriculum is a critical component of any internationalisation strategy” (p. 103). Therefore, regardless of the motive of internationalisation (Willis & Taylor, 2014; Engwall, 2016), the curriculum remains the core of the process of internationalisation (Luxon & Peelo, 2009) (also reflected by Shadeen S7). Incorporating elements into the curriculum is synonymous with curriculum adjustment (Black, 2004).

Conceptualisation of internationalisation

From the organisational documents reviewed in this study, the frequencies of the words ‘globalisation’ and ‘internationalisation’ are 1 and 0, which indicate to the researcher that the words are not familiar in context. Findings from policymakers, academic staff, and students conceptualised internationalisation as *foreign elements in the curriculum* (91%), *diversity of students and staff population* (84%), *partnerships* (61%), *international borders (exchange programmes)* (26%), *accreditation* (21%), and *online studies* (8%). These descriptions aligned with the general concepts of internationalisation from the literature reviewed in this study. For example, Leask (2013) has characterised the curriculum as the syllabus, unplanned activities, student support, student services, campus culture, values and beliefs. Zupanc and Zupanc (2009) have defined it as the inclusion of foreign language, and for Knight (2012b), Prensky (2004), Stenensson and Wihlborg (2010), Middlemas and Peat (2015), and Zakarias, Saquib and Bashir (2016) it related to technology and online learning.

The Curriculum

The translocalist internationalisation model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) means adjusting the College’s curriculum (Black, 2004) to include elements to give students an international experience at-home. The findings in this study support the curriculum focus in order to bring internationalisation to the College. Shelly AS1 said it included “the nucleus of the College”, and Paw AS10 remarked that was “the first order of priority”. Rebecca PM1, Roy PM2, and Pamela PM5 believed the curriculum is a priority area for internationalisation at the College.

Leask (2013) has explained curriculum experiences as formal, non-formal and hidden. This international focus “is the purpose of internationalising education” (Sawir, 2013, p. 366). From

the findings arrived at in this study, the majority of participants in each group identified the curriculum as a priority approach to bring internationalisation to the College: 43% of policymakers, 30% of academic staff, and 38% of students stated so for the following reasons: Roy PM2 observed: “benchmarking of the curriculum with the international standard would attract none-nationals”. Also, the curriculum would have to meet an international standard and “other foreign aspects to bring about internationalisation” (Lucy AS 6). Additionally, “it is the curriculum that can change to include foreign language and international education, which would appeal to local and international students even before they come on campus” (Paw AS10), while “the curriculum would also teach about diversity” (Keke AS2) and “I will access the internationalisation curriculum offered to become a trained teacher who can feel comfortable working outside of Guyana” (Sly S3).

Foreign elements in the curriculum

A foreign element or foreign influence involves the inclusion of foreign languages (Zupanc & Zupanc, 2009; Yan Yan, 2010; Lugovtsova, Krasnova, & Torhova, 2012) and international content such as specific courses on multicultural, global and international education, and comparative studies (Knight, 2012b). Courses that emphasise an international focus on teaching and learning help students to acquire “a sense of global citizenship” (Yemini, 2014, p. 21), which equips them with the knowledge and skills to work at-home and abroad. Participants in this study – including David PM3, Lucy AS6, Dolly AS4, and Sly S3 – supported the curriculum as a way to provide global education. Dolly AS4 said: “integrate more international knowledge” or global education in the curriculum. The inclusion of ‘global education’ in the curriculum is posited by, for example, Crosling, Edwards and Schroder (2008). At the College, international content exists in subject disciplines, for example, foreign languages (Spanish and Portuguese), Caribbean History, Clothing, Textiles and Fashion, Physical Education, Literature, and Music Education. These courses are not deliberately shaped by the idea of global education and are therefore examples of unplanned internationalisation, which validate Luxon and Peelo (2009) and Hoey’s (2016) claim that these unintended internationalisation activities often occur in the classrooms. Except for foreign languages, the extent to which these courses provide students with international experiences that can be defined as internationalisation elements did not emerge from the data.

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The College offers at least one foreign language for all students as part of its curriculum. The researcher observed foreign languages as a positive internationalisation activity at the College in 60% of the IMPI Checklist's broad indicators, which further supports the existence of unintended internationalisation activities (Luxon & Peelo, 2009; Hoey, 2016).

In 1999 CARICOM mandated the teaching of at least one foreign language in primary schools in every CARICOM state. The mandate's implication is for the College to continue to offer at least one modern language so that students would have the requisite knowledge and skills to teach the subject to learners at a primary school level. The College now offers two foreign languages. However, this narrow scope may have to extend because of the apparently growing number of foreign nationals in Guyana, its trade partners, foreign-speaking territorial neighbours, and potential international students' target countries. 'Foreign language' appeared once among the public documents and thirteen times in the local documents analysed in this study, indicating that foreign language is relevant to the local context. The findings, however, did not reveal the reality of Guyana's situation regarding the scarcity of foreign language teacher educators skilled in multiple foreign languages, which is impeding the College's efforts to offer more than one foreign language at a secondary specialisation level of training.

The 'foreign' element in the curriculum refers to personnel from abroad. The College has benefitted from Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) and Peace Corps (PC) programmes. These programmes did not involve the exchange of staff but the recruitment of international volunteers to fill vacant positions and build capacity within the College. These experiences are possible sources of influence on the curriculum and methodology, and which Engwall (2016) has described as insourcing and outsourcing, namely bringing international expertise to higher education and sending persons abroad to return with international skills. Many volunteers opted to work in the hinterland areas. However, the lack of amenities in those areas made it challenging for some volunteers to remain there. The results did not reveal VSOs and PCs' influence because students and academic staff from the hinterland centres did not participate in the study.

Foreign influence through practicum

Practicum is a core course taught at the College that exposes students to teaching skills through school placements and attachments. The practicum is indicative of internationalisation because of the new components, mentorship and induction, in its curriculum under GITEP (Lucy AS6). The curriculum adjustment (Black, 2004) required to incorporate induction and mentorship components into the practicum course makes it an internationalisation activity. To the researcher, practicum attachments seem similar to Simm and Marvell's (2017) field attachments to acquire experiences. In keeping with the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008), practicum experiences abroad would supplement the curriculum with foreign influence.

The practicum component involves three phases. The first is observation, where students observe the teaching environment, for example, school ethos, specific classroom, records, approaches to teaching and learning, and classroom management. The second phase is guided team teaching (teaching in an environment with an experienced classroom teacher who serves as a mentor). The third is individual teaching, guided, and individual teaching (final assessment). The practicum component also comprises action research. Altbach (2004) has argued that through the approaches and methodology, students experience foreign influence. The experiences acquired from placement abroad may not always be applicable in context because of the resources available. For example, the exposure to teaching methodology abroad using electronic boards will not apply to classrooms in the hinterland and riverain areas. Nonetheless, students will return with comparative ideas (Knight, 2012b) and a sense of global learning (Yemini, 2014), or perhaps return with the feeling of operating in an inferior culture (Cardozo, 2015).

Diversity of students and staff population

Internationalising the curriculum should cater to diverse cultures (see Harari, cited in Knight & de Wit, 1995; Engwall, 2016). Deardoff (2006) has posited that internationalising the curriculum can encourage the understanding and appreciation of various cultures. In alignment with the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008), students on campus can learn about others' cultures through books, films, and documentaries as student mobility (Knight, 2012b; Ota, 2018) is not a characteristic of this model.

However, 84% of students and academic staff indicated a value for international students on campus to support cultural sharing. Internationalisation would “encourage a diverse student population” (Keke AS2). It is a good idea to have international students, and we are always happy to welcome foreigners (Shadeen S7). A diverse culture facilitates cultural learning (Sawir, 2013). One way of planning for cultural learning is by applying Leask's (2013) non-formal and hidden curricula, where diverse students interact socially on campus through sports and games or everyday greetings and observations. The College cannot plan for all cultures but must have a curriculum that will be generic to all cultures (Paw AS10).

Planning for cultural learning, even with foreign and local students in the same space, does not guarantee that it will happen because the sharing and learning of cultures are not automatic. Sawir (2013) found that local students were not mindful of the new cultures in their environment and did not contribute to cultural learning. It requires all students to commit to an international attitude of respect for diversity and the willingness to learn about different cultures. From the findings, there “has to be a change in attitude” (Emma AS5). As others remarked, “The attitude change must be positive” (Sharon AS8), while people needed to start “moving away from their comfort zone, sharing positive experiences” (Iris AS7), “respecting others, and having the willingness to make the adjustments necessary” (Sharon AS8).

Cultural sharing should occur without the sense of students' feeling inferior and others, promoting themselves as having superior learning (Stier, 2006). Cardoza (2015) argued that some cultures perceive themselves as superior to others. Given Guyana's colonial history, the North American society's values remain etched in the way of life of the people, even as the nation struggles for a post-colonial Guyanese culture with its national food, cultural way of dress, music, art form, and a creole language which is not recognised in official settings (Lavia, 2012). A post-colonial Guyanese culture is perhaps challenging to define and attain because of Guyana's multi-ethnic society. Cultural shifting seems easy to Guyanese: “put a West Indian in Nottinghamshire overnight he is an Englishman” (Jaah AS9). Jaah AS9's argument suggests to the researcher that the physical presence of international students, especially those from North America, might motivate students in the local context to adopt new cultural identities, such as the change in clothing from their local wear to another context's cultural wear. This cultural

borrowing in itself is not harmful and would help students understand and relate to other cultures. Also, interactions among different cultures could help develop foreign language skills, even at basic conversational levels. The problem might be local students shifting between identities borrowed and displaying different behaviours when among international students, such as trying to imitate accent to fit in and then shifting to the local accent when among local counterparts, and not use the opportunity for international students to learn about the Guyanese culture. This behaviour could lead to cultural confusion or, like Abdi, Shultz and Pillay (2015) argued, loss of identity.

Therefore, “we need to keep our unique culture even as we bring internationalisation to the College” (Emma AS5). Internationalising at-home and planning for diversity among local students would facilitate cultural learning among the ethnic groups and tribes within the College population (John S4). Students are from different cultural backgrounds, tribes and ethnic groups. Additionally, in context, students plan social activities to showcase their unique ethnic lifestyles and social and athletic abilities. These activities include the annual track and field athletics championships, social clubs, campus week, and pastoral care (Paw AS10). These in-house activities are opportunities to promote cultural learning through, for example, Leask's (2015) curriculum and support the internationalisation on campus, at-home concept of the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008).

Partnerships and networking

Partnership and collaboration are used synonymously in this study to mean educational institutions are working together and with varying levels of responsibility in all partners' interest. Across the three data sets, 61% of the participants in this research conceptualised internationalisation as partnership and networking. From the IMPI indicators, the researcher observed 25% positive activities under the subheading ‘Institutional Profile’, which hints at unintended internationalisation activity (Luxon & Peelo, 2009; Hoey, 2016) and supports overseas partnerships as an internationalisation opportunity in context. Shelly AS1, Dolly AS4, Iris AS7 and Paw AS10 shared that collaboration, partnerships, mergers with other institutions support higher education's internationalisation.

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The translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) explained overseas partnerships as an abroad-internationalisation activity to supplement the curriculum's internationalisation at-home activities. The College does not research for publication, and therefore bringing internationalisation through partnership research will improve research competence (Iris AS7; Paw AS10; Lucy AS6). The College partnering to conduct research will build the staff's research capacity and the institution's profile. In addition to research, student participants argued for partnerships “to support student taking courses online in international universities and also students travelling to those universities on exchange programmes” (Torrin S8) and partnering with the alumni in the diaspora (Dolly AS4).

The College and the state university share an existing partnership that needs review as it has implications for the acceptance of College graduates transitioning to the state university for continuity of their B.Ed programme. Existing partnerships between the College and the state university and collaboration with the schools are not arrangements that guarantee internationalisation as partnerships for international influence are deliberate (Chan & Dimmock, 2008). The College partnered with other institutions overseas for “leadership exchange programmes” and “faculty members completed graduate studies with foreign universities online” (Yochanan AS3). The College could explore the resuscitation of these networks' even as it explores new partnerships. There is a need for sustainability to any partnership arrangement in bringing internationalisation to the College (Paw AS10; Sly S3) to cater to new staff exposure in internationalisation.

International borders (exchange programmes)

The researcher interpreted international borders as the movement or mobility of, for example, students discussed by writers such as Knight and de Wit (1995), Qiang (2003), Knight (2012b), and Ota (2018) because mobility leads to international educational experiences Harari (cited in Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 15). In the context of Chan and Dimmock's (2008) translocalist model, international borders facilitate the movement of persons abroad for short periods to return with experiences to support the international influence in the curriculum. These movements involve exchange programmes, travel for conferences, seminars, and meetings and similar to overseas partnerships, international borders (study-abroad) are a supplementary

internationalisation activity. Findings across the three data sets show 26% of the participants defined the curriculum as international borders/exchange programmes. Observations from the IMPI checklist show positive results of 34% of the internationalisation activities – international engagement, study abroad, seminars, and affiliation – under the subheading ‘Academic staff’, which indicated, to the researcher, value for overseas partnerships at the College.

In the experience of the researcher, the exchange programme identified by Shelly AS1 and Paw AS10, for example, is not a budgeted activity but happened under GITEP, where academic staff (senior administrative staff) benefitted from exchange programmes in regional and international institutions (World Bank, 2010). The College's experience with academic staff exposure to international contexts to complete full degrees abroad, conferences and seminars, exchange programmes are symptomatic internationalisation and an indicator of the IMPI Toolkit.

Exchange programmes facilitate the acquisition of knowledge and skills to enhance teaching (Jaah AS9; Pamela PM5; David PM3) through methodologies and approaches (Altbach, 2004). The extent to which new methodologies can be applied to enhanced experiences at the College depends on the resources to support the new experience across centres; for example, lack of internet would hamper technology integration (Shelly AS1; Dolly AS4; Sharon AS8; Riya S2).

Accreditation

Accreditation is the review of programmes higher education institutions offer (Guyana National Accreditation Council, 2016). Twenty-one per cent (21%) of the participants defined internationalisation as accreditation. Accreditation is not a feature of the translocalist model but that of the globalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008), which the researcher rejected because its characteristics do not apply to the study's context. Accreditation is not among the IMPI indicators for mapping the internationalisation of higher education. These indicators were prepared in a developed country, and in the opinion of the researcher, accreditation is mandatory, and there is confidence in the accreditation bodies.

The issue of confidence is relevant to the researcher because of participants’ implicit distrust of the local accrediting body. Rebecca PM1, David PM2, Lucy AS6, and Sly S3’s felt that an

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international or regional accrediting body must endorse the College's internationalised curriculum for recognition. As a participant remarked, “The College must seek international accreditation so that the curriculum will be recognised and accepted at the international level if the College were to attract international students and staff” (Dolly AS4). Other responses included that “Accreditation at the local level is good, but this might not give the College the recognition as one from an internationally recognised institution” (Rebecca PM2) while “International accreditation connotes a seriousness associated with external accreditation bodies, which is perceived as lacking in the local body as the College is not accredited at this research time” (Janet PM6).

Applying the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) means that accreditation would not necessarily bring internationalisation to the College as accreditation itself is not a strategy in the translocalist model. Notwithstanding that, accreditation might help build confidence in potential international students and staff regarding the standard of the programme offered and enable internationalisation, providing the College's strategy is to recruit and import international students (Engwell, 2016) for programmes on campus or online. In addition, accreditation could also encourage partnerships between the College and other higher education institutions to encourage the ease of students' transfer (Yean, 2012; Yesufu, 2018), staff and course credits across higher education. It follows that partnering institutions should have a common standard, one endorsed by an accrediting body.

In the researcher's experience, accreditation of an internationalised curriculum does not determine whether the College programmes are accepted, as evidence by the acceptance of College graduates in foreign countries following teachers' migration (World Bank, 2010).

Online studies: Technology

The findings from 8% of the academic staff defined internationalisation as online learning. Though the response was infrequent in the context of internationalising the College, technology – online learning – has become an essential feature in internationalisation (Saquib & Bashir, 2016). Further, the researcher did not observe online learning as a positive activity in context. On the contrary, the checklist revealed 9.6% positive observations for integrating technology

into teaching. Technology integration is “a very effective internationalising practice” (Billingham, Cragg & Bentley, 2003, p. 25) and “the driving force of internationalisation” (Emma AS5). Technology, with the use of the internet, can remove physical barriers to higher education access (Knight, 2002; Billingham, Cragg & Bentley, 2003; Prensky, 2004; Siemens, 2008; Zupanc & Zupanc, 2009; Yan Yan, 2010). Other writers who argued about the significance of online learning in higher education include Cantwell and Maldonado-Maldonado (2009), Knight (2012b), Yemini (2014), Stenensson and Wihlborg (2010), Middlemas and Peat (2015), and Zakaria, Saquib and Bashir (2016). However, the College does not have adequate technology and internet facilities for online classes and use in the classrooms across centres (MoE, 2008; Shelly AS1; Sharon AS8; Dolly AS4; Riya S2).

Online education in remote areas locally and abroad is not supported due to internet challenges and a vision oblivious to online learning. Through a government country-wide technology drive, “the government engaged in the deployment of e-government services and improvement of internet connectivity in public administration” (MoE, 2019, p. 53), including the main centre of the College. However, “the information technology hardware and network infrastructure are weak” (MoE, 2019, p. 53) and the WiFi network is unreliable (MoE, 2019). Further, “school connectivity remains low, except in and around Georgetown, with many remote schools not having any network connectivity nor an up-to-date computer” (MoE, 2019, p. 53). Eighty-nine per cent (89%) of Guyana’s distance education in-service satellite centres use school houses, banabans or under trees as classroom spaces (College, 2019).

Willis and Taylor (2014) have emphasised that higher education will internationalise according to institutions’ goals and objectives, resource availability and, in the case of the College, its policy directives. Also, applying the translocalist model (Chan and Dimmock (2008) in context, the absence of the model’s online feature and the lack of internet provision should not preclude the use of technology on the College campus for technology integration. The use of projectors along with laptops and netbooks will contribute to the integration of technology in the College’s classrooms (World Bank, 2010), but slow or no internet is inhibiting (Dolly AS4; Riya S2; Shelly AS1; Sharon AS8).

Staff training, as well as competence (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 16; Qiang, 2003) in technology use, is critical to technology integration, as emphasised by participants Iris AS7 and Jaah AS9. Lu, Tie, and Chua (2013) have argued that the lack of knowledge in the use of technology is a barrier. Iris AS7 and Jaah AS9 argued for staff training to acquire the requisite skills in technology use.

Challenges, enablers and internationalisation opportunities

Challenges to internationalisation

Internationalisation also has its challenges. Findings from policymakers, academic staff, and students reveal three significant challenges: inadequate resources, including financial, technological in terms of online and connectivity, human resources, and physical infrastructure; the lack of an internationalisation policy; and reluctance to buy-in. Thirty-six per cent (36%) of policymakers, 38% of academic staff, and 88% of students identified *inadequate resources*. The *lack of policy* was restated as a challenge under other challenges by 36% of policymakers, 21% of academic staff, and 13% of students. Findings from 13% of the academic staff, including Iris AS7, show the *current mandate* of the College to be a challenge to internationalisation. Also, findings from 25% of academic staff and 27% of policymakers reveal a *reluctance to buy-in* as a challenge to internationalisation. For example, “the MoE’s involvement from the onset is crucial for buy-in” (Yochanan AS3) and its “support” (Emma AS5). Another challenge to internationalisation is its perceived relative lack of autonomy as it “is essential for the College to conduct its business with less bureaucracy” (Yochanan AS3).

Inadequate resources. *Financial allocation* as a government responsibility is inadequate to encourage the implementation of an internationalised programme. The seven per cent (7%) of the annual higher education budget (Ministry of Finance, 2013-2017) granted to the College accounts for eighty per cent (80%) of its request (College, 2014). The 20% gap between budget request and budget allocation is not constant but highlights the need for additional funding. State financing is competitive across government departments. The institution needs to seek non-state sources such as alumni and donations from the private sector (Altbach, 2006) to support its internationalisation effort. Another source to boost revenue

generation is international students' recruitment (Knight, 2004; Engwall, 2016; Seeber, Cattaneo, Huisman & Paleari, 2016). Funds are required for staff training and resource mobilisation, including the recruitment of specialists to assist local staff in adjusting the curriculum (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 16; Qiang, 2003). Chan and Dimmock (2008) have discussed how government financing has helped the internationalisation process, while Lugovtsova, Krasnova and Torhova (2012) have shown how government underfinancing has hindered the effort.

Physical resources. "Internationalisation does not necessarily require physical structure such as building when there are virtual classrooms/spaces", according to Lucy AS6; therefore, the physical environment is not a significant issue in terms of internationalisation. Improved physical conditions have implications for accreditation status. As Sly S3 opined, "we do not have a problem of infrastructure here, but if we do not cater for that in the future, then that [poor infrastructure] will be a major hindrance to internationalisation". If on-campus activities become the thrust for internationalisation in line with the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008), Paynett S1, Riya S2 and Kay S5 believe that physical resources should be the priority. Rebecca PM1 and Riya S2 remarked that the physical space was inadequate for a growing local student population and should be expanded to accommodate international students on campus. Rebecca PM1 and Riya S2 identified physical space as necessary based on aesthetics and given that international students need to interact in comfortable and appropriate areas. It follows that physical space for internationalisation is implicit in student mobility because institutions must have physical accommodation for students to interact during planned classroom activities and appropriate 'space' for social activities, for example, physical contact sports and games (such as dancing, track and field), as these activities encourage cultural learning (Sawir, 2013). However, for the institution's managers, physical space could also be the space required to accommodate technology such as servers and computers to deliver online programmes and integrate technology into the teaching-learning process and internationalisation activity (Leask, 2013).

Human resources "Human resource is the base for required anticipated changes" (David PM3). In addition to the availability of people, if "the relevant people are in place, we [the College]

will have the experiences to motivate and create transformation” (Sharon AS8). Knight and De Wit (1995) and Qiang (2003) argued the importance of relevance or what they referred to as the competency required to manage internationalisation activities. Based on Knight and De Wit (1995) and Qiang’s (2003) argument, the inadequacy of human resources is about the number of teaching staff (faculty) with internationalisation exposure. Faculty members are not always sure about their role in the internationalisation process and must be trained to acquire international education and experiences (Knight & De Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003) and understand their roles and responsibilities (Paynett S1; Kay S5; Shadeen S7). At the time of this research, all academic staff had the opportunity to benefit from education from international universities, though not under an internationalisation agenda. However, staff migration has since depleted the number of College staff exposed to higher education at international institutions (College, 2016). Building competency (Knight & De Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003) and sustaining it are critical (Paw AS10).

Myopic vision and mission. The narrow scope of the College’s vision and mission statements would challenge the internationalisation effort. Iris AS7, Yochanan AS3 and Dolly AS4 identified the College’s mandate, vision and mission statements as internationalisation challenges. The vision and mission have their strengths in that they communicate to stakeholders the institution’s purpose, the direct beneficiaries, delivery mode, outcomes and impacts. The College’s mission is to prepare teachers for Guyana, which is contextual and fitting and limited to Guyana System. The limitations of the mission and vision statements in light of globalisation and internationalisation fail to address, for example, the facets of higher education services in a globalised world. For example, technology, international education, online education, diverse student population, international partnership and collaboration are absent from the College’s mandate (College, 2014). However, internationalising the College would need a broader mission and vision, meaning the mission and vision must focus on the local realities while embracing the incorporation of internationalisation elements.

Lack of autonomy. In the researcher’s experience, the College is not autonomous and does not have the authority to make critical decisions like those concerning new programmes such as internationalising the institution, quality of staff, students, and financing sources. According to the participants, the College needs the autonomy both to seek other avenues of

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funding (Keke AS2; Jaah AS9) and to decide on staffing (Shelly AS1). Nonetheless, the College Administration has the scope to propose and present areas for improvement, such as the College's need to internationalise to MoE and BoG. Decisions sometimes come from higher tiers – the Permanent Secretary, the Minister of Education, or cabinet minister levels.

The authorisation of, for example, the decision to internationalise the College is a discussion that will take place at the level of the BoG with the involvement of the College Administration and forwarded to the ESC and channelled up the hierarchy. This arrangement is understandable since new programmes have implications for national development, and the MoE has oversight for ensuring new initiatives align with the country's broader agenda. Additionally, the College's lack of autonomy prevents the institution from accessing resources – both financial and material – to circumvent any issues associated with the bureaucracies in the governance structure, thereby exacerbating resource acquisition delays. As the administration does not have the authority to make critical decisions for the institution, buy-in becomes critical. Autonomy is essential for the College to conduct its business with less bureaucracy (Yochanan AS3).

Lack of Buy-in. Rebecca PM1 felt that buy-in is crucial for the success of any project as a lack of buy-in or the unwillingness to do so would discourage, in this instance, the internationalisation efforts. Buy-in should come from all stakeholders, including the MoE, the political leadership, the ESC, CEO, Permanent Secretary, the BoG, teachers' union, and staff. The political will to view internationalising the College as a “smart investment” (Sharon AS8) will lead to a policy decision internationalising the institution, which means internationalising the College will also benefit the education system.

In the Guyana experience, the absence of political will could be a deterrent to new initiatives, as the political Head (the education sector minister) makes representations at the cabinet-level regarding, for example, the rationale for the acceptance of the action and the allocation of financial resources to the sector. Programmes that do not fit the government's broader vision are not likely to be financed. Participant Paw AS10, for example, discussed the issue of government bureaucracy hampering progress.

Yochanan AS3, Emma AS5, Rebecca PM1 and Roxanne PM4 believed the MoE's role and, in particular, the Education Systems Committee would be crucial in the process. Therefore, the Ministry should be involved from the onset to establish policies and guide the process. Emma AS5 talked about the Head of State as the internationalisation driver. The College Board has a fundamental role in the process, according to participants Roxanne PM4, Pamela PM5, and Byron PM7. Hence, there should be buy-in also at the BoG level. Buy-in is necessary from both top decision-making bodies, including collaborative decision-making, so that neither would accuse the other of interfering (Lang, 2016).

There should also be buy-in from the teachers' union who have an affiliation to other teachers' unions regionally and internationally and who can advocate for the internationalisation agenda locally and abroad. This fits with Keke AS2's perception that the College cannot develop on its own and need support from, for example, regional teachers' colleges.

Buy-in is also necessary from the academic staff who would implement the initiative. Findings from this study suggest that "buy-in should come from the administration" (Torrin S8). The latter would lead and manage the process and advocate for the necessary resources to make the teaching staff comfortable enough to accept and participate in bringing internationalisation to the College. As a result of the College's monopoly on initial teacher training in Guyana, local students have no other option. The multiple levels from which buy-in is necessary suggests, to the researcher, a collaborative approach to bringing internationalisation to the institution.

Absence of an internationalisation policy. Fifty-seven per cent (57%) of policymakers and 70% of academic staff did not know of any internationalisation policy in context. However, findings from 36% of policymakers and 21% of academic staff indicate that a lack of internationalisation policy would impede internationalisation at the College. Knowledge of an internationalisation policy's nonexistence does not mean that internationalisation does not exist in context as there may be different interpretations and manifestations of existing policies across contexts (Soilemetzidis, 2010). For example, in this study, 43% of the policymakers and 20% of the academic staff mistook GITEP for such a policy. The lack of an internationalisation policy in context is not necessarily inhibiting because of unintentional internationalisation, which

might occur at the classroom level (Luxon & Peelo, 2009; Hoey, 2016). While 'unintentional' internationalisation might exist, it is not supported in context and requires policy. The College operates within a hierarchical structure, which requires policy directives from policymaking bodies within that structure. An internationalisation policy in context would require collaboration and consensus between these two policymaking bodies to obviate any disconnects as this could hinder internationalisation progress and may result in a situation where policymaking bodies may have conflicting views (Lang, 2016). Hence, applying the governance model (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) encourages collaboration and consensus.

Enablers and internationalisation opportunity

Activities that resemble internationalisation are likely to enable internationalisation, and activities that challenge it, if addressed, would enable the process.

Technology, for example, is a limitation to internationalisation when it is inadequate, meaning that the internet may be unreliable or absent or if there is a "lack of facilities for online studies" (David MP3), but acts as an enabler in other cases: "The College has the ICT base" (Byron PM7). This perception was universal among the three participant groups where the technology focus was the highest enabler frequency, scoring 33%, 31%, and 29% from policymakers, academic staff, and students, respectively. Participants Dolly AS4, Lucy AS6, Jaah AS9, Paw AS10, Rebecca PM1, David PM3, Pamela PM5, Byron PM7, Riya S2, Kay S5, and Torrin S8 referred to technology as desktop computers, laptops, netbooks, projectors, internet connectivity, smart classroom, smart boards, virtual libraries, and online/virtual/e-learning. Technology is a driving force for internationalisation, according to Emma AS5. The College has integrated technology into teaching and learning (Shelly AS1; Iris AS7; Paynett S1; Riya S2; Kay S5). Technology would help the College's visibility and reach a diverse student population in other countries (Jaah AS9). Lecturers and administrators know how online technology works because they have had exposure to an online environment (David PM3).

The challenges and opportunities of technology for use in context are discussed under the subhead technology in order to help conceptualise internationalisation in context.

Supportive, friendly environment. For example, Keke AS2 believed that the welcoming culture of the College would encourage internationalisation once it was established. Over the years, the institution has instituted measures to foster a supportive and friendly environment. For example, in 2015, the College introduced its Pastoral Care Initiative to focus on enhancing soft skills and attitudes such as basic courtesy, respect for self, others and the environment, tolerance for what is different, and volunteerism (College, 2016). Perhaps that programme was responsible for the apparent supportive and friendly environment perceived by Keke AS2. This environment has potential as a base that could be improved with supportive student support systems to encourage a diverse population's internationalisation. Notwithstanding that, equally important is the need for a friendly, respectful, and welcoming online presence during virtual space interactions. A supportive environment aligns with Knight and de Wit (1995) and Qiang's (2003) 'ethos approach' to the internationalisation process.

Quality assurance is assured through accreditation and would benefit internationalisation by signalling to potential students and staff the internationalised curriculum's standard (Roxanne PM4; Lucy AS6; Dolly AS4; Iris AS7; Sly S3; John S4; Bai S6). Like other higher education institutions in Guyana, the College operates within a legal framework to assure educational service quality stakeholders (National Accreditation Council, 2004). The external quality assurance runs through the national accreditation body, which has responsibilities for ensuring higher education quality by reviewing institutions' awards and programmes, whether national or foreign, promoting training standards, determining programmes' equivalence, and registers institutions to operate as legal entities. The College was not registered (National Accreditation Council, 2017) at the time of this study but "is not operating in oblivion to the quality imperative in our business of initial teacher preparation" (College, 2018, p. 23). The College has a quality policy that communicates the quality objective and the regulating bodies and standards to which it conforms. This policy is an indication that the College is aware of quality assurance and its importance, which serves as a place from which the College will commence its accreditation process in the face of internationalisation. Quality assurance signals to stakeholders the importance of standards to a given higher education institution and helps to increase the institution's selection by foreign students (Engwall, 2016). Quality assurance is not reflected in the translocalist model (Chan &

Dimmock, 2008) as an internationalisation strategy but, like accreditation, can support internationalisation (Engwall, 2016).

Public awareness. Fourteen per cent (14%) of the students, 20% of policymakers and 40% of academic staff said public awareness would support internationalisation. Shadeen S7 felt public awareness should be through public lectures utilising the Guyana Learning Channel. This television station is available to educational institutions as a potential medium for disseminating information about the College's intention to internationalisation and for public awareness for buy-in. The Learning Channel is generally accepted to have extensive viewership in Guyana and abroad, which could boost public awareness of the College's internationalisation agenda. In the researcher's experience, new initiatives in Guyana that are likely to impact the education system go through consultations with country-wide stakeholders in order to generate awareness and support. Public awareness as an enabler will not bring about internationalisation but could lead to support and policy development.

Internationalisation opportunities

Activities that enable internationalisation are also opportunities for internationalisation. In addition to curriculum improvement, practicum, ICT resource upgrades, academic staff exposure to online learning, study abroad programmes, partnership and collaboration, and foreign language inclusion, as the researcher discussed earlier, participants also identified physical space and a 'latter' organisational structure as internationalisation opportunities.

Adequate physical space. Rebecca PM1 supports aesthetics, accreditation and co-curricular activities in the curriculum (Leask, 2013) to encourage cultural learning (Sawir, 2013). Physical space is not an activity. As such, it is not an internationalisation strategy. The extent to which it will support internationalisation depends on the given internationalisation strategy. For example, recruiting international students for on-campus studies might require adequate physical space as there is a specific seating capacity depending on the intake's size. If the internationalisation strategy was based on online access, then adequate physical space is irrelevant.

A flatter organisation structure is indicative of the governance model (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) adopted in this study due to the governance limitations of the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008). This flatter structure will enable internationalisation through the governance model (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) in that it allows actors' faster communication and decision-making (Rishipal, 2014). Actors include the MoE, tertiary institutions with whom the College collaborates, the College, Regional Education Officers, and other government ministries as discussed by Pamela PM5; Roy PM2; John S4; Byron PM7; Jaah AS9).

Policy decisions

The lack of policy is one of the challenges which, if addressed, will mean the implementation of the internationalisation initiative. Knight and de Wit and Qiang discussed in their "process approach" to internationalising higher education (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p.16; Qiang, 2003, p. 251) the importance of institutional policies to support internationalisation. These writers did not position policy as the first activity in their four-process internationalisation stages but as the last activity. Contrary, in Guyana, policy documents give directions for new initiatives: internationalisation policy is no different. This reality also conflicts with Luxon and Peelo (2009) and Hoey's (2016) views about not needing policymakers because of unintended activities at the classroom level based on teachers' international experiences.

Internationalisation at the College has to happen deliberately, and a policy decision is critical according to 100% of the policymakers and 89% of academic staff (disaggregated as policymakers: 57% strongly agree, 43% agree, academic staff: 22% strongly agree, 67% agree). Internationalisation policy and procedures are indicators on the IMPI checklist under the subhead *Administration*, but these were observed 0% in context. Fundamentally, buy-in from the policymakers is also critical; no buy-in means no policy. Capt (2013) and Ota (2018) have argued that an internationalisation policy encourages higher education internationalisation.

Regarding who should take the lead in the internationalisation process, 29% of policymakers believed that the lead should come from the CEO, 21% felt the BoG was responsible, 7% each believed the DCEO, the planning department of the MoE, and other related institutions and departments (for example, schools where students take teaching practicum) were the relevant

parties. The College leadership and staff should lead the internationalisation agenda according to 60% of the academic staff, 20% MoE CEO, and 10% Head of State. In contrast, the student participants identified the College (67%) and government departments and ministries within and external to the MoE (33%) as having responsibilities for the College's internationalisation agenda. In addition, the involvement of health practitioners is essential to an internationalised curriculum (Leask, 2013).

This intersectoral linkage of persons from the College, ESC, BoG, other members within the education system, and government ministries outside the MoE confirm the governance model (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) adopted in this research. Also, these linkages are essential for partnership and collaboration, as indicated by Bai S6, Iris AS7, Dolly AS4, Shelly AS1, and Paw AS10. In interpreting the results, the governance model (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) is used in conjunction with the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) to compensate for the latter's policy limitations.

The governance model (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) recognises the importance of a clearly defined role for tiers within a Qiang. Generally, governance is about who has power, what relationships exist between actors within the structure, and who is accountable (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015; Asaduzzaman & Virtanen, 2016). This model is significant because the College is state-owned, and one argument for its role is that the state alone cannot cause institutional change to realised (Altrichter, 2015). The discussion was based on the premise that the state-owned institution relied on the ESC's functions, the BoG, and the College Administration and staff. Thus, an internationalisation plan would require sanctions from the state's policymakers, the ESC and BoG, and staff support to generate the desired change.

The governance model (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) is not marked by hierarchical control and top-down decisions but is inclusive, thus supporting shared responsibilities between non-state and state actors (Enders, 2004) and the decisions required to sustain initiatives (Stoker, 1998; Eddy, 2010; Altrichter, 2015; Yesufu, 2018). A flatter organisational structure supports faster communication and decision-making flow (Rishipal, 2014). Shared decision-making can boost employees' morale (Dolly AS4) through distributed leadership among actors, which

Knight and Trowler (2001), Morrill (2007) and Marshall (2007) have argued are fundamental to the internationalisation process.

The approach to internationalising the College

Applying the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) regarding approaches to the College's internationalisation, the focus is the curriculum (Leask, 2013). Forty-three per cent of policymakers, 30% of academic staff, and 38% of students indicated the curriculum as the most prioritised area for internationalising the College. Additionally, 30% of academic staff also identified the issue of administration as a priority area.

Knight and de Wit (1995) and Qiang's (2003) four-stage approach (activity, competency, ethos, and process) can guide the College's internationalisation to the extent that all stages are relevant but not necessarily in the same order. First is the *activity stage*, which accounts for the identification of the activity – the curriculum. Also, critical to identifying the activity is determining what international elements can be incorporated into the curriculum and for which centre. As Dolly AS4, Riya S2, Shelly AS1, and Sharon AS8 indicated, technology did not work well in some centres because of their peculiar situations. Deciding on what internationalisation element will work in particular centres is what the researcher referred to as the 'filter'. Second, the identification of the activity alone will not bring about internationalisation. It requires competency because "people with the necessary skills are important for transformation" (Sharon AS8). Hence, the *competency stage* requires knowledge in curriculum adjustment to ensure it reflects the internationalisation goal, for example, whether it is a stand-alone international course, a placement abroad for practicum, technology, or provision to teach foreign languages. From GITEP's example, international consultants were hired for curriculum adjustment (World Bank, 2010), so there is a possibility that the same approach might be taken to internationalise the curriculum. Also, at this stage, staff members are exposed to internationalisation roles and approaches to building capacity to implement, teach, supervise and sustain the effort. Activities can include study abroad, exchange programmes or insourcing of personnel (Engwall, 2016). The study results show that finances are limited while the College has no autonomy to seek additional funding. Hence, training depends on support as a result of the policy. Third, the curriculum and knowledge require a

supportive environment (Emma AS5) marked by understanding, appreciation and camaraderie – the *ethos stage*. Finally, there is the *process stage*, where policy is critical (for example, Byron PM7; Janet PM6; Sharon AS8) to guide the activities in the first three stages. From the study findings regarding the critical role of policy in bringing internationalisation to the College, the *process stage* must move from fourth to first as policy needs are prominent in the context. Without a policy, there will be no formal and organised internationalisation at the College.

Institutional readiness

Higher education's readiness to internationalise is critical to the process (Rumbley, Altbach, & Reisberg, 2012). Concerning the College's readiness to internalise, 57% of the policymakers believed that the College was ready, while 29% thought the institution was 'somewhat' ready, and 14% felt it was 'not ready'. Seventy per cent (70%) of the academic staff said the College was not ready, 20% said 'somewhat ready, and 10% was unsure, while 63% of the students felt the institution was 'not ready', and 38% said it was ready. The responses from the different participant groups reflected their perspectives and vantage points. For example, policymakers David PM3, Roxanne, PM4, Pamela PM5, Byron PM7 remarked about GITEP activities as supporting an internationalisation agenda. GITEP resulted in "improvements in, for example, technology infrastructure, academic staff profile, curriculum, and student intake" (David PM3), so the College is supposedly ready to internationalise. Other policymakers, for example, Pamela PM5, argued that "the College does not have to start internationalisation from scratch" as there is a foundation given the training and coaching staff members received from foreign consultants and partners (Pamela PM5). Also, Roxanne PM4 stated: "Staff members, including the administration, have international exposure and can start the process with a plan about how to go about internationalising the College".

Apart from policymakers' involvement with GITEP, in the researcher's view, policymakers may demonstrate some ego in wanting to promote the College as ready because they see internationalising the College as a spill-off from GITEP with which they were involved and secondly, that it is indeed a good idea, worthy of consideration, and must be sustained, according to 17%, 33%, and 50% of policymakers respectively.

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The experiences staff received through coaching and training by overseas educators and the technology integration at the classroom level have made the College somewhat ready for internationalisation (Emma AS5; Sharon AS8). Also, “the lecturers are educated, and with the help from the administration, they can change the institution” (Riya S2) while Torrin S8 “believed that the readiness was responsive [as] the College must catch up with the regional and international standard of teacher education”. Additionally, the College’s relationship with the state university can be strengthened to increase its readiness (Shadeen S7).

Seventy per cent (70%) of the academic staff, 63% of the students, and 14% of policymakers believed that the College was not ready to internationalise. These participants operated on the physical campus daily, and possibly, in the researcher’s view, their experiences and interactions with facilities, processes, and their perception of what an internationalised College is, for example, online offering, international standards, international students, shaped their perceptions of the institution’s lack of readiness. Further, 80% of the academic staff who participated in the study had experience in international universities either online or on-campus abroad, and their knowledge and conceptualisations of internationalisation perhaps influenced their ‘not ready’ responses.

Reasons for the College’s lack of readiness include the lack of an internationalisation policy, international content in the curriculum, buy-in, or knowledge about internationalisation, respectively, as well as inadequate infrastructure or resources (be they physical, financial, human, and technological), and a negative attitude towards the idea to internationalise. For example, Paynett S1 remarked: “The physical infrastructure is not ready”, while Bai S6 stated that there was a “lack of multicultural teachings in the curriculum”. Further, lack of technological provision is impeding internationalisation (Dolly AS4, Riya S2; Sharon AS8; Shelly, AS1). Specifically, computer provision for on-campus internationalisation in keeping with the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) is insufficient (Kay S5; Riya S2). The lack of physical and material resources due to lack of finances is another issue impacting the College’s readiness (Emma AS5; Paw AS10).

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Twenty-eight per cent (28%) of the participants said the College was ready, 16% said 'somewhat ready', 52% said 'not ready', and 4% was 'unsure'. The combined percentage of 'ready' and 'somewhat ready', 44%, is not higher than the number who said 'not ready'. However, the unsure 4% could have gone either way if participants made a decision. Nonetheless, the results across groups show that the College is not ready to internationalise. From the study results, internationalisation in context does not denote the presence of internationalisation activities, such as those under GITEP and a culturally diverse student population. Internationalisation is a deliberate and strategic effort.

Significance of the results

This study's results contribute to higher education's internationalisation, as they provide new insights into internationalisation at the local level, namely at the teacher's college in Guyana. The results show Chan and Dimmock's (2008) translocalist model's applicability to internationalising the College. However, this model requires policy decision input as a strategy because of the importance of policy to initiate change in context. Additionally, the concepts of accreditation, online studies, and students' diversity, which also characterise internationalisation in context, are lacking in this model and must be included for use in context. Another area of significance derived from the results is the governance model (Stoker, 1998; Enders, 2004; Altrichter, 2015), which was used in conjunction with the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) to address aspects of administration and governance in the internationalisation process.

This study brings to the body of research an internationalisation framework with a scope beyond the two models identified in the study's theoretical framework. Given the number of satellite centres and the challenges with some centres regarding resources, infrastructure and utilities, international ideas need a 'filter' in order to help determine their suitability. 'Filter' as used by the researcher means the sifting of foreign ideas and activities to match centres realities. Hence, it seems to the researcher that, based on the study results, an internationalisation framework has emerged, which not only applies the translocalist (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) and the governance models (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) in tandem but extends these with a possible 'filter' component to internationalising the teacher's college in Guyana, in other words, a 'translocalist

governance filter model'. It must be borne in mind that an international idea that may be suitable for one centre may not work in another.

Implications for practice

Owing to the inevitability of globalisation (Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009) and the impact of globalisation on Guyana concerning teacher migration, preparation, and development, respectively, the College must be cognisant of regional and global trends and how they impact teacher preparation. In preparing teachers for a global space, the College has to eventually take on a global look and thereby improve all aspects of its operations and processes for relevance in an internationalisation era. The College has to ensure that internationalisation changes and benefits reach students in locations on the coastland and all satellite centres. The researcher in the role of College Principal will assume the role of internationalisation champion and:

1. With permission from research supervisors, present research findings – the framework for bringing internationalisation to the College – to policymakers;
2. Advocate for an internationalisation policy;
3. Disseminate internationalisation knowledge across stakeholder groups, including policymakers, Regional Education Officers, the state university, the teachers' union, and heads of institutions to which students are placed for practicum; and
4. Develop a strategy that will guide the internationalisation process.

Limitations

There are three significant limitations in this study, as follows:

Firstly, the absence of one set of participants from the focus group discussion inhibited the data quality and the strength of comparison across data sources. All participants responded to questionnaire items and interviews. However, only two data sets – the academic staff and the students – were available for focus group discussions. The policymakers were unavailable because some persons changed jobs, and those willing to meet had different meeting times. Hence, the collective policymakers' response (group input), where participants build on others' ideas, is missing from the data.

Secondly, the sample did not include demographics from satellite centres in the hinterland and riverain areas because of access issues. This lack of access impeded the quality of the data from hinterland demographics and the subsequent discussion and findings. The study revealed the challenges of technology and transportation, for example, in the hinterland and riverain communities. The non-involvement of participants from centres in those areas limit the data and conceptualisation of internationalisation in those communities.

Thirdly, there seemed to be no previous research on internationalising the teacher's college in Guyana or internationalising higher education at the national level, hence constituting a limitation to the findings and approach used to add experience to this study. The proposed future work could address the limitations of this study.

Further research

There is a need for new research on higher education and, in particular, on the teacher's training college in Guyana to understand how initial teacher education impacts the education system, considering that the College is the feeder institution for trained teachers in Guyana's schools (both public and private). The shortage of publication on higher education internationalisation in Guyana impedes policymakers and education planners' ability to plan effectively for the growth and development of initial teacher training in Guyana in light of the internationalisation trend in global learning. This issue is understandable as the word 'internationalisation' did not occur once in the 677 finds from the document search. Against that backdrop, there is a need for future studies to:

1. Investigate the College's readiness to internationalise based on the perceptions of distance education students and academic staff from satellite centres located in the hinterland and riverain regions.
2. Explore College students' views about the internationalisation of two years of a four-year education programme.

Reflections

In conceptualising the study, the researcher reflected on the context and experiences of GITEP and, based on institutional knowledge and understanding of the College's processes, believed that the institution was ready to internationalise. The researcher reflected on the data that led to

different results from what the researcher perceived and was satisfied that the power difference (Anyan, 2013) between the researcher and academic staff and students did not prevent the free flow of conversation during focus group discussions and interviews.

Reflecting on the research planning, in explicitly selecting the mixed methods approach, the researcher experienced challenges deciding how to mix 'what', 'when' and 'how'. The researcher found Schoonenboom and Johnson's (2017) mixed methods with a qualitative focus helpful and employed a quantitative instrument that required frequency and percentages (descriptive statistics) and two qualitative data instruments. The researcher also reflected on the challenges of deciding on 'where' to mix and found Ponce and Pagán-Maldonado's (2015) parallel phases mixed design (p. 117) adaptable because qualitative and quantitative methods were used simultaneously and at the discretion of the researcher. The research questions were, therefore, designed to collect both quantitative and qualitative data.

Developing the items for the data collection instruments was another challenge because the researcher did not find previous research using internationalisation-based questions at the local level and therefore developed the items. The validation process was time-consuming, possibly because the researcher used both a pilot test and a pilot study. In retrospect, both were necessary because the items for the instruments were new and needed to be tested for soundness.

The conduct of the research was a struggle for the researcher. For example, the researcher could not gather the policymakers for focus group sessions, and academic staff found it challenging to agree on a date for a focus group session, as they were not all from the same centre (though none was from the hinterland region); thankfully, they eventually agreed to a date. During the academic staff focus group, the discussion was suspended for a while because Iris AS7 fell ill. Iris AS7 asked for the discussion to continue and re-joined subsequently. Understandably, it took some time for the group to refocus.

The Nvivo software was helpful with transcription time, but the transcriptions were not always understood in all sections, as there was data loss due to low-quality recordings and word pronunciation. The researcher's review of the transcripts addressed the data loss issue.

Members' checks took an inordinate amount of time, and three participants said they did not remember what they shared in any detail but endorsed the transcripts.

Recommendations

In terms of bringing internationalisation to the teacher's college, the following are recommended:

1. Public awareness for support and buy-in and the use of the research findings to advocate for an internationalisation policy;
2. Policy enactment on internationalisation for the College, not only because internationalisation will enhance the educational opportunities at the local level (Willis & Taylor, 2014) but, because the study fits within current global education trends (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbly, 2009) while it supports the regional higher education internationalisation vision (Caribbean Conference on Higher Education, 2010);
3. The revision of the College's vision and mandate so that it caters to internationalisation;
4. Financing for research on the internationalisation of higher education studies at the local and national levels.

Summary

When composing the chapter's discussion, the researcher employed Chan and Dimmock's (2008) translocalist model for internationalisation because its characteristics aligned with the study context. The results from policymakers, academic staff and students defined internationalisation as *foreign elements in the curriculum* (91%), *diversity of students and staff population* (84%), *partnerships* (61%), *international borders (exchange programmes)* (26%), *accreditation* (21%), and *online studies* (8%).

Applying the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008), the emphasis is on internationalisation on campus by internationalising the curriculum. The curriculum should be adjusted (Black, 2004) to include internationalisation characteristics from the study findings. The curriculum as a priority approach to bringing internationalisation to the College is supported by most participants in each group, including 43% of policymakers, 30% of academic staff, and 38% of the student participants. The College offers two foreign language courses,

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Spanish and Portuguese, but internationalisation should consider Guyana's trade partners and neighbouring territories and expand these courses.

The presence of VSO and PC volunteers added to the foreign influence and capacity building at the College. As a course within the curriculum, the practicum could be enhanced by study abroad attachments in keeping with the translocalist model's study abroad element through partnership (Chan & Dimmock, 2008). Internationalisation also characterises diversity in context as it "encourage[s] a diverse student population" (Keke AS2). Diversity provides cultural learning for local and international students, but this should not be taken for granted because some cultures perceive themselves as superior (Cardoza 2015). International partnerships for exchange programmes, research, and student placement are valued as activities that would bring international influence to the College as aligned with the translocalist internationalisation model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008). Technology and online studies can also bring with them an international influence, but they are not strategies in this model. Though online learning facilitates an international student population, issues surrounding limited connectivity in many satellite centres would impede access.

According to 50% of the policymakers and 63% of the academic staff, the idea of internationalising the College is a good one. The other policymakers and academic staff said it should be sustained. The narrow vision and mission, lack of autonomy, lack of buy-in, inadequate resources (including technology, human, financial, physical space), and the absence of an internationalisation policy will hamper the internationalisation agenda. Chief among the internationalisation challenges is the absence of a designated policy, according to 36% of policymakers and 21% of academic staff. Against these challenges, the results across groups show that the College is not ready to internationalise. If these challenges were addressed, in addition to instigating an accredited curriculum adjustment, they would enable internationalisation. The College has needed policy decisions to internationalise, and a suitable governance model (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) was adapted to account for a policy as it is not a strategy in the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008). The discussions also support the need for what the researcher identified as a 'filter' model where foreign activities and ideas

are sifted to match individual centres. Borrowing international ideas will not apply to all centres because of their specific challenges.

The approach advocated here to internationalise the College is an at-home one based on a 'translocalist governance filter model'. The diversity experience could be through student placement for teaching practice (Simm & Marvell, 2017) and technology integrated into teaching and learning. Knight and de Wit (1995) and Qiang's (2003) four-stage approach (activity, competency, ethos, and process) will guide the at-home approach.

Conclusion

A mixed methods approach (Bryman, 2006; 2009; Creswell, 2006; 2009; Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2015) and a single case study strategy (Yin, 2003; Collis & Hussey, 2009) guided by the main research question along with six subsidiary questions guided the study. Additionally, the study involved twenty-five participants – seven policymakers, ten academic staff and eight students – who helped to provide data that established the parameters for a framework designed to bring internationalisation to the teacher's college in Guyana. Although the researcher employed a mixed research method case study (including the use of questionnaires) the qualitative techniques of the research had more weight because of the study's exploratory nature. Schoonenboom and Johnson (2017) have characterised such an approach as being 'qualitatively driven'.

The internationalisation framework which emerged from this study is applicable for bringing internationalisation to the teacher's college in Guyana. Within the study's concept, Chan and Dimmock's (2008) translocalist model alone is inadequate. A significant limitation of this model is its lack of a policy strategy essential for internationalisation in context. Hence, incorporating a governance model (Stoker, 1998; Altrichter, 2015) that addresses governance, policy, and administration issues is required. The two models in tandem are sufficient for internationalising the College in broad terms, including in terms of policy, international influence in the curriculum, and the diversity dimensions, which would help to internationalise the College. Given the satellite centres' locations, the models in tandem are limited and require another strategy, one allowing international ideas to be implemented in satellite centres based

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on their actual situation using available resources, hence the inclusion of what the researcher describes as a 'filter' to ensure that ideas going out to centres match their situation.

The approach of the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008) to internationalisation is through curriculum adjustment (Black, 2004) by incorporating international elements into the curriculum (Knight, 2004; Chan & Dimmock, 2008; Leask, 2013) (Jaah AS9; Emma AS5; Roxanne PM4; Pamela PM5; Byron PM7). The results show the curriculum as the priority area to internationalise, as reflected by 38% of students, 43% of policymakers, and 30% of academic staff. There are several other approaches, strategies or aspects the College can use to internationalise because the process is not prescribed. These include research partnership building and affiliation, importing and attracting international students, and exchange programmes, but these are not within the translocalist model's parameters (Chan & Dimmock, 2008).

Notwithstanding the presence of activities (GITEP) that resemble internationalisation, the College is not ready to internationalise. The overall responses across participant groups reflected that 28% said the College was ready, 16% said somewhat ready, 52% said not ready, and 4% was unsure. In addition to the need for policy and curriculum adjustment, internationalisation requires competent personnel to teach and manage the internationalised curriculum (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Qiang, 2003) (David PM3; Roxanne PM4; Emma AS5; Lucy AS6; Sharon AS8; and Jaah AS9). As Sharon AS8 said: "People with the necessary skills are important for transformation". Also, there was a call for buy-in from all stakeholders: "The MoE's involvement from the onset is crucial for buy-in" (Yochanan AS3) and support" (Emma AS5). A revision of the College's vision and mandate to reflect the new internationalisation direction was necessary, according to 13% of the participants.

Activities and processes that are currently impeding, if addressed, will encourage internationalisation, which offers many benefits to the teacher's college in Guyana. These include education, collaboration and research, income generation, recognition, improvement in resources, institutional strengthening, accreditation, and diversity.

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Notwithstanding its benefits, colonialism continues to afflict post-colonial cultures, which are shaped by colonial education, psychology, social organisation, and habits (Lavia, 2012), therefore internationalising in such a context and bringing foreign influence can shroud the looks of twenty-first century colonialism (Altbach, 2004). The strategy to internationalise through diverse populations brings with it cultural and identity issues such as conflicts between supposedly inferior and superior cultures, lack of respect, and intolerance (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009; Stier, 2006; Lavia, 2012; Cardoza, 2015; Sawir, 2013). Therefore, cultural learning should not be left to chance but must be planned (Jaah AS9) to ensure its effectiveness. Leask's (2015) curriculum dimensions (formal, non-formal and hidden) would allow planned and unplanned international and cultural learning experiences.

Based on the translocalist model (Chan & Dimmock, 2008), the approach to internationalising the College is at-home. Knight and de Wit (1995) and Qiang's (2003) four-stage approach (activity, competency, ethos, and process) is applicable in terms of guiding the process. The diversity experience would be implemented through student placement in terms of teaching practice (Simm & Marvell, 2017), while the technology would be integrated into teaching and learning with the online aspect used for online exposure of staff and students to international contexts.

Internationalisation in context is not a label denoting the presence of activities that resemble internationalisation, such as those advised and implemented under GITEP or a culturally diverse student population. Internationalisation is a deliberate and strategic effort requiring policy, the collaboration between state and non-state actors, foreign influence incorporated into a curriculum, and accreditation, all working together to ensure that College graduates can live and work in a global environment, appreciating and respecting persons who are culturally different. de Wit and Hans (2011) have argued that internationalisation is a process that can occur at any point in the higher education system and is not necessarily a goal in itself but a way for higher education institutions to enhance education quality (de Wit & Hans, 2011).

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Appendix A

Permission to use name of College



2018-12-12

The Chief Education Officer
Ministry of Education
Georgetown, Guyana

Approved
M.R. Wilson
2019/12
CHIEF EDUCATION OFFICER
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Dear Sir:

I would like to take this opportunity to express sincere thanks to the Ministry of Education for granting me authorisation to access organisational data, facility use, people - students, academic staff, policymakers - and their information as well as to use personal time for the conduct of my research.

Kindly note that during the conduct of my research I have confirmed to the ethical principles underlying the Declaration of Helsinki and good practice guidelines on the proper conduct of research. For instance, measures were employed to reduce the psychological risks of, for example, participants' feeling of being coerced or pressured, feeling of fear of victimisation and, or perception of favouritism.

Additionally, I have implemented measures to ensure confidentiality and anonymity of participants and the information shared as well as privacy of the specific organisational documents used in the conduct of the research and in the thesis write-up.

However, I found it challenging to conceal the privacy of the **case researched**, that is, the Teacher's College in Guyana as it was the only Teacher's College in the country up to the time the research was conducted. Also, the inclusion criteria for participants, especially, policymakers who were from the Education Systems Committee and the College Board of Governors were identifiers which could be easily linked to the Institution researched. Hence, permission is sought to use the name of the Institution, the Cyril Potter College of Education in the final report of my study.

I appreciate the opportunity to engage in research involving my organisation. Please contact me and/or the Research Participant Advocate at the University of Liverpool with any question or concerns you may have.

My contact details are: [Home Address- Viola Rowe, 575, 10th Field Cummings Lodge, Georgetown, Guyana, Tel # 222-7004(H), Email-violarowe@gmail.com, Skype-violarowe
Office Address- Cyril Potter College of Education, Turkeyen, Georgetown, Guyana
Tel # 222-4441]

Research Participant Advocate at the University of Liverpool

Appendix B
Authorisation Letter



Authorisation Letter

I, Viola Rowe am enrolled in the Doctor of Education (EdD) Programme at the University of Liverpool in partnership with Laureate Education.

I entered the programme in order to develop doctoral-level depth of knowledge and research skills across areas in higher education such as higher education management, innovative approaches to educational leadership, decision making, as well as ethics, social responsibility, and social change. As an EdD student I am required, as part of this programme, to undertake research projects during the taught modules. These projects provide an opportunity for me to reflect on critical issues that I encounter in the context of my work, apply my scholarly learning to these issues, and, in the end, develop as an agent of positive change in our organisation.

In the context of my research in the EdD programme, I hereby request authorisation to access organisational data, facility use, and use of personnel time for research purposes relevant to my required assignments. This includes permission to access documents from the archives of the organisation which are not necessarily in the public domain and which I may normally have access to when performing the responsibilities of my job. This also includes authorisation to conduct an interview with an employee of the organisation about the organisation's policies, programmes, and practices. I also request permission to provide my personal reflections on the collected data. I have included with this letter a Participant Information Sheet which outlines in greater detail the nature of the current research project I am required to complete for the EdD programme.

I appreciate the opportunity to engage in research involving my organisation. Please contact me and/or the Research Participant Advocate at the University of Liverpool with any question or concerns you may have.

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My contact details are:

[Home Address- Viola Rowe, 575, 10th Field Cummings Lodge, Georgetown, Guyana

Tel # 222-7004(H), 692-6993(C) Email-violarowev@gmail.com, Skype- violarowe

Office Address- Cyril Potter College of Education, Turkeyen, Georgetown, Guyana Tel # 222-4441]

The contact details of the Research Participant Advocate at the University of Liverpool are:

001-612-312-1210 (USA number)

Email address liverpoolethics@ohcampus.com

Sincerely,



Viola Rowe

EdD student

Appendix C
Questionnaire

Internationalising higher education
Policymakers and academic staff questionnaire

[N:B Students responded to similar questionnaire items excluding questions on policy)]

Dear Participant:

The purpose of this survey is to explore the readiness of the teacher's college to achieve internationalisation.

Please take about 25 to 35 minutes of your time to complete this survey. There is no penalty or negative consequence for skipping questions.

When you have finished, please scan and return questionnaires via email to me, (please see Participant Information Sheet for contact details) or you may drop off same in the collection box located at 26, Brickdam.

All data, names of persons who shared data, and names of organisations from which data are collected would be treated with confidentiality and anonymity.

Thank you.

Student researcher

Some questions require you to tick the box that best represent you, one requires that you rank responses, while others require written responses.

Demographics

1. How would you classify your gender?

2. What is your age range?

≤ 25 years ☐ 26-35 years ☐ 36-45 years ☐ 46-55 years ☐ ≥55 years ☐

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3. Did you pursue academic studies

Outside of Guyana?

Yes ☐ No ☐

At an offshore university in Guyana?

Yes ☐ No ☐

At a regional/international university online?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Professional Profile

4. How long have you been working with the Ministry of Education?

≤ 15 years ☐ 16- 25 years ☐ 26-35 years ☐ ≥ 36 years ☐

5. (a) What is your major role/responsibility at the Ministry of Education?

(b) How long have you been carrying out these functions? ≤ 5 years ☐

6-10 years ☐ 11-15 years ☐ 16-20 years ☐ ≥ 20 years ☐

Internationalisation concept

6. In relation to education, what is your understanding of the concept 'internationalisation'?

7. What would you say are the benefits of internationalising the teacher's college?

8. What factors do you see, if any, as impeding internationalisation efforts at the teacher's college?

Policies and Practices

9. What do you know about the Ministry's policy/regulation on internationalisation of education?

10. (a) What aspect(s) of the teacher's college, if any, would you say is (are) indicative of

internationalisation?
.....

(b) At what level were these aspects influenced? (Tick all that applies)

Local ☐ National ☐ Regional ☐ International ☐

11. Which current practices/procedures at the teacher’s college do you believe would enable its internationalisation efforts?
.....

Internationalisation approach

12. (a) How would you prioritise the following in relation to internationalisation efforts at the teacher’s college? (*1 represents most prioritised and 7 least prioritised*)

- Administration ☐
- Curriculum ☐
- Human resource ☐
- Institution climate ☐
- Physical infrastructure ☐
- Student intake ☐
- Technology ☐

(b) Explain your choice for 1- the most prioritised, and 7- the least prioritised.
.....

13. (a) What other approach would you recommend to bring internationalisation to the teacher’s college? (b)Why
.....

14. (a)What are your views on the readiness of the teacher’s college to internationalise?
.....

15. What would the teacher’s college look like if it were to be internationalised?
.....

16. What are the policy implications for the internationalisation of the teacher’s college?

.....

Roles/responsibilities

- 17. What do you see as your role/responsibility in the internationalisation efforts of the teacher’s college?
- 18. How do you see the roles/responsibilities of other education institutions/ departments including offices (please name specifically in your response) changing or evolving in any internationalisation effort of the teacher’s college?

.....

- 19. (a)Which department/office should be the ‘driver’ of internationalising the teacher’s college. (b)Why?

Any other comment

- 20. What other comments would you make in relation to the teacher’s college and internationalisation?

.....

Thank you!

Appendix C

Focus Group/Interview Protocols

(Policymakers and academic Staff and students)

[N:B Students responded to a similar protocols excluding questions on policy]

Introduction

Good day. Thank you for coming to this focus group session. Please be reminded that for reason of anonymity and privacy, you are kindly asked to assume a pseudonym which you would be referred to throughout this discussion as you respond to fourteen (14) main questions. My role is to guide the discussion and to encourage participation by all. However, if you feel uncomfortable about responding to any particular question please feel free to pass on the question by not responding. Also, if you have any reason for withdrawing from the process at any point, please feel free to do so. You are encouraged to respond in the language (Standard English or Guyanese creole) you feel most comfortable using at the time and to be respectful of the views of others. Please be reminded about not divulging any information shared in this discussion after the session would have ended.

1. Title of research

An analysis of the readiness to achieve internationalisation in higher education:

The case of the teacher's college in Guyana

2. The objectives of the interview are to:

- (i) Elicit from the interviewees, collectively (focus group) and individually (interviews), responses for at least fourteen (14) questions in relation to the readiness of the College to internationalise.
- (ii) Have an insight into interviewees' collective perceptions on suggested areas to be considered in an internationalisation framework for the College.
- (iii) Ascertain interviewees' opinion on what the College would look like if it were to internationalise.

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- (iv) Ascertain interviewees' perception on the policy initiatives that would support the internationalisation efforts at the College.
- (v) Understand from participants who/what should drive the internationalisation process at the College.

3. Type of information needed

General information on mission and vision statements of the College and its practices and processes such as programmes offered, modalities, types of students, curriculum also the Ministry of Education Strategic imperatives and policy statements, the strategic focus of the CARICOM Human Resource Development 2030 Strategy and objectives, scope and outcomes of the Guyana Improving Teacher Education Project (2010-2015).

4. Interview questions

- (i) What is your understanding of the concept 'internationalisation'?
- (ii) What would you say are the benefits of internationalising the teacher's college?
- (iii) What factors do you see, if any, as impeding internationalisation efforts at the teachers' College?
- (iv) What do you know about the Ministry's policy/regulation on internationalisation of education?
- (v) (a) What aspect(s) of the teacher's college, if any, would you say is (are) indicative of internationalisation?
(b) At what level were these aspects triggered?
- (vi) Which current practices/procedures at the teacher's college do you believe would enable its internationalisation efforts?
- (vii) Consider the following: Administration, Curriculum, Human resource, Institution climate
Physical infrastructure, Student intake, Technology
Which areas should be most prioritised, and the least prioritised? Why?
- (viii) (a) What other approach would you recommend to bring internationalisation to the teacher's college?
(b) Why?
- (ix) What would the teacher's college look like if it were to be internationalised?

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- (x) What are the policy implications for the internationalisation of the teacher's college?
- (xi) What do you see as your role/responsibility in the internationalisation efforts of the teacher's college?
- (xii) How do you see the roles/responsibilities of other education institutions/ departments including offices (please name specifically in your response) changing or evolving in any internationalisation effort of the teacher's college?
- (xiii) Who/what should be the 'driver' of internationalising the teacher's college and why?
- (xiv) What other comments would you share in relation to internationalising the College?

5. Possible organisational documents

General information on mandate of the teacher's college and in particular its practices and processes such as programmes offered, modalities, types of students, policies, the mission and vision statements of the College, Ministry of Education Strategic Plan for the 2007-2013 and 2014-2019 strategic periods, objectives, scope College, Ministry of Education Strategic imperatives, strategic focus of the CARICOM Human Resource Development Strategy and outcomes of the Guyana Improving Teacher Education Project.

Some possible organisational documents that may be used to prepare for the discussion:

- Ministry of Education 2008-2013, 2014-2019 Strategic Plans
- Guyana Improving Teacher Education Project Appraisal Document (2009)
- College curriculum
- CARICOM Human Resource Development 2030 Strategy

6 How findings would be recorded

The entire interview would be recorded by electronic voice recordings. In addition, the researcher would make notes primarily where there seem to be gaps in the response to restate the question or ask follow up questions.

7. The use of data

All data would be used for the benefit of this research.

Appendix D**VPREC Form**

Dear Viola Rowe			
I am pleased to inform you that the EdD. Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC) has approved your application for ethical approval for your study. Details and conditions of the approval can be found below.			
Sub-Committee:	EdD. Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC)		
Review type:	Expedited		
PI:			
School:		Lifelong Learning	
Title:	An analysis of achieving internationalisation in higher education: The case of the Teachers' College in Guyana.		
First Reviewer:	Dr. Lucilla Crosta		
Second Reviewer:	Dr. Morag Gray		
Other members of the Committee	Dr. Martin Gough, Dr. Julie Regan, Dr. Victoria O' Donnel, Dr. Kathleen Kelm		
Date of Approval:	6 th January 2017		
The application was APPROVED subject to the following conditions:			
Conditions			

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1	Mandatory	M: All serious adverse events must be reported to the VPREC within 24 hours of their occurrence, via the EdD Thesis Primary Supervisor.		
<p>This approval applies for the duration of the research. If it is proposed to extend the duration of the study as specified in the application form, the Sub-Committee should be notified. If it is proposed to make an amendment to the research, you should notify the Sub-Committee by following the Notice of Amendment procedure outlined at http://www.liv.ac.uk/media/livacuk/researchethics/notice%20of%20amendment.doc.</p> <p>Where your research includes elements that are not conducted in the UK, approval to proceed is further conditional upon a thorough risk assessment of the site and local permission to carry out the research, including, where such a body exists, local research ethics committee approval. No documentation of local permission is required (a) if the researcher will simply be asking organizations to distribute research invitations on the researcher's behalf, or (b) if the researcher is using only public means to identify/contact participants. When medical, educational, or business records are analysed or used to identify potential research participants, the site needs to explicitly approve access to data for research purposes (even if the researcher normally has access to that data to perform his or her job).</p>				
Please note that the approval to proceed depends also on research proposal approval.				

Kind regards,

Lucilla Crosta

Chair, EdD. VPREC

Appendix E
Consent Form



PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project:

An analysis of achieving internationalisation in higher education: The case of the teacher's college in Guyana.

Researcher: Viola Rowe

**Please
initial box**

1. I confirm that I have read and have understood the Participant Information Sheet dated [2016-12-24] for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions, and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my rights being affected.

3. I understand that, under the Data Protection Act, I can at any time ask for access to the information I provide and I can also request the destruction of that information if I wish.

4. I agree to take part in the above study.

5. The information you have submitted will be published as a report; please indicate whether you would like to receive a copy.

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6. I understand that confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained and it will not be possible to identify me in the reports that result from the research neither from any publications.

☐

7. I understand and agree that my participation at interviews will be audio recorded and I am aware of and consent to your use of these recordings for the purpose of this current research.

☐


8. I agree for the data collected from me to be used in relevant future research.


☐

9. I understand that I am participating in the capacity of a stakeholder (specifically graduate, current student, academic staff, policy maker) of the institution.

☐

_____	_____	_____
Participant Name	Date	Signature

Viola Rowe	2016-12-24	
Name of Person taking consent	Date	Signature

Viola Rowe	2016-12-24	
Researcher	Date	Signature

The contact details of lead Researcher (Principal Investigator) are:

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