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The background of the cover features a stack of several books with light-colored pages on the left, and a globe on the right. The globe is partially obscured by the books and has a dark wooden frame. The globe's surface shows a map with various geographical features and labels, including 'AFRICA' and 'EUROPA'. The globe's top edge has text: 'ZONA FREDDA SETTEN' and 'ZONA TEMP SETT'. The entire scene is set against a warm, blurred background.

# THESIS SUPERVISION IN INTERNATIONAL MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAMMES IN FINNISH UNIVERSITIES

Kalypso Filippou





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*Dedicated to my parents  
&  
to students who travel  
to follow their dreams*

TURUN YLIOPISTO

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KALYPSO FILIPPOU: Tutkielmien ohjaus yliopistojen kansainvälisissä maisteriohjelmissa

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## TIIVISTELMÄ

Väitöskirjassa tarkastellaan tutkielmien ohjausta kansainvälisissä englanninkielisissä maisteriohjelmissa suomalaisissa yliopistoissa. Tarkoituksena on selvittää sekä tutkielmien ohjausprosessia että opiskelijan ja ohjaajan välistä suhdetta tutkimalla molempien osapuolten kokemuksia ja odotuksia ohjaukselta. Erityisesti tavoitteena on tunnistaa yhtäläisyyksiä ja eroavaisuuksia opiskelijoiden ohjausta koskevista odotuksista, tutkia opiskelijoiden akateemista minäpystyvyyttä suhteessa tieteenalaan ja kulttuuriseen taustaan sekä tuoda esiin ohjaajien pedagogisissa lähestymistavoissa ilmenevää vaihtelua suhteessa kulttuurienväliseen ohjaukseen eri tieteenaloilla. Tutkimuksen käytännön tarkoitus on edistää ohjaajien ammatillista kehittymistä tutkimalla ja jakamalla käytäntöjä, jotka tukevat kulttuurienvälisiä tutkielmien ohjausta.

Väitöskirja koostuu yhteenvedosta ja neljästä osatutkimuksesta. Tutkimukset I ja II keskittyvät kansainvälisiin tutkinto-opiskelijoihin ja tutkimukset III ja IV pro gradu -töiden ohjaajiin. Tutkimuksessa I käytetään monimenetelmällistä lähestymistapaa tarkasteltaessa verkkopohjaisen kyselyn ja avoimen kysymyksen vastauksia ( $n=302$ ). Tässä ensimmäisessä tutkimuksessa vertaillaan sekä kansainvälisten tutkinto-opiskelijoiden odotuksia tutkielman laatimisesta että tarkastellaan opiskelijan ja ohjaajan välistä ohjaussuhdetta kiinnittämällä huomiota kulttuuriseen taustaan ja oppiaineeseen. Tutkimuksessa II ( $n=493$ ) analysoidaan kvantitatiivisesti kansainvälisten opiskelijoiden akateemista minäpystyvyyttä. Tutkimus III on laadullinen tutkimus, jossa selvitetään puolistrukturoituihin haastatteluihin ( $n=20$ ) pohjautuen ohjaajien käsityksiä tutkielmien ohjauksesta ja ohjauksen malleja. Tutkimuksessa IV selvitetään, huomioivatko ohjaajat, ja jos, niin miksi, ohjauksessaan opiskelijoiden odotukset ja aikaisemman kokemuksen tieteellisen tekstin kirjoittamisesta ohjausprosessissa.

Tutkimus tuo esiin opiskelijoiden ja ohjaajien erilaiset odotukset ohjaukselta: opiskelijat arvostavat erityisesti toimivaa henkilösuhdetta ohjaajan kanssa, kun taas ohjaajat korostavat enemmän ohjauksen akateemista prosessia. Opiskelijoiden näkemykset opiskelijoiden vastuusta ovat yhteneväiset, mutta opiskelijoiden odotukset ohjaajien vastuusta ohjauksessa eroavat kulttuurisen taustan mukaan. Tutkimus osoitti enemmän yhteneväisyyksiä kuin eroavaisuuksia tarkasteltaessa opiskelijoiden odotuksia tutkielmien laatimisesta eri tieteenaloilla. Tutkimuksessa tuli ilmi, että keskustelut kulttuurisista seikoista ovat yhä harvinaisia ohjausprosessin aikana. Lisäksi samankaltaisuudet opiskelijoiden akateemisessa minäpystyvyydessä

olivat yhteydessä kulttuuriseen taustaan, kun taas tilastollisesti merkitseviä eroja tunnistettiin opiskelijoiden alan mukaan.

Vaikka saman tieteenalan ohjaajat voivat käyttää erilaisia ohjaamisen malleja, tutkimus osoittaa monien ohjaajien soveltavan opettamismallia. Tämä malli, joka perustuu opiskelijoiden riippuvuuteen ohjaajasta ja ilmentää ohjaussuhteessa vallitsevaa vallan epäsymmetriaa, ei sovi kulttuurienväliseen ohjaukseen, koska se ei tunnista opiskelijoiden aiempia kokemuksia ja taitoja. Tulokset osoittavat ohjaajien kamppailevan tasapainosta ohjaustilanteessa. Ohjaustilanteen tekee haasteelliseksi ohjaajan epävarmuus opiskelijan tarvitsemasta tuesta. Tutkimus osoitti myös, että ohjaajat toivovat enemmän mahdollisuuksia reflektoida ohjaukseen liittyviä pedagogisia lähestymistapojaan. Tarkempi tutkimus ohjaajien asenteista toi esiin kaksi ensisijaista ohjauksen tapaa; diagnosoivan ja säätelevän ohjaustavan sekä vastustavan ja opiskelijoiden aloitekykyyn luottavan ohjaustavan. Nämä asenteet ovat yhteydessä siihen, miten ohjaajat huomioivat opiskelijoiden aikaisemmat kokemukset ja yleiset odotukset opinnäytetyön tekemisestä ja suhteesta.

Väitöskirja tuo uutta tietoa opiskelijoiden ja ohjaajien odotuksista koskien tutkielmien laatimista, ohjaussuhdetta ja ohjaajien pedagogisia lähestymistapoja kulttuurienvälisessä ohjauksessa. Tutkimuksen tulokset osoittavat, että lisää tukea tulisi suunnata ohjauksen pedagogiseen kehittämiseen. Väitöskirjan johtopäätöksissä esitetään suosituksia opiskelijoille ja ohjaajille, yliopiston hallinnolle ja jatkotutkimukselle.

**AVAINSANAT:** Monikulttuurinen ohjaus, kansainväliset maisteriohjelmat, opinnäytetyön ohjaus, opinnäytetyön ohjaajat, maisteriopiskelijat, korkeakoulutus, Suomi

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## ABSTRACT

This doctoral thesis focuses on thesis supervision in English-medium international master's degree programmes (IMDPs) in Finnish universities. The purpose of this project is to explore the master's thesis supervision process and the student-supervisor relationship by investigating both parties' experiences and expectations. The specific goals are to identify the similarities and differences in students' expectations of thesis supervision and their academic self-efficacy according to their field of study and cultural background, as well as to reveal the supervisors' pedagogical variations and approaches to intercultural thesis supervision across a range of fields of study. This work's practical aim is to promote thesis supervisors' professional development by identifying and sharing practices that support intercultural supervision.

This thesis consists of a summary report and four original studies. Studies I and II focus on international degree students while Studies III and IV concentrate on master's thesis supervisors. Study I follows a mixed-method approach to examine the results of an online questionnaire with a survey and one open-ended question ( $n = 302$ ). Study I investigates the international degree students' expectations of the thesis process and student-supervisor relationship according to their cultural background and field of study. Study II ( $n = 493$ ) uses a quantitative approach to analyse international degree students' academic self-efficacy. Study III is a qualitative study ( $n = 20$ ) that uses semi-structured interviews to explore master's thesis supervisors' perceptions of thesis supervision and the models of supervision they apply. Finally, Study IV ( $n = 20$ ) investigates whether and why master's thesis supervisors consider their students' expectations and previous writing experiences during the thesis supervision process.

The primary finding reveals a possible mismatch of views between students and supervisors regarding supervision; students highly value the interpersonal relationship whereas the supervisors place more significance on the academic process. The students share similar views on their responsibilities but have different expectations regarding their supervisors' responsibilities during the thesis process according to their cultural background. More similarities than differences were identified regarding students' expectations of the thesis process according to their field of study. The results reveal that discussions on cultural matters are rare. Additionally, similarities among students' academic self-efficacy appeared linked to



their cultural background, while statistically significant differences are identified according to students' field of study.

Although supervisors within the same field of study may use different supervision models, this work indicates many apply the teaching model. The teaching model relies on students' dependency on the supervisor and reflects the power asymmetry. However, it is not suited to the context of intercultural supervision, as it does not recognise students' prior experiences and skills. The findings reveal the supervisors' balance struggle which is related to the uncertain amount of effort, pressure, support and freedom that they need to provide to each student. Moreover, the supervisors' need for more opportunities to reflect on their pedagogical approaches regarding supervision is highlighted. This work identifies two primary supervisory attitudes: diagnosing and adjusting supervision, and resisting and relying on student initiative. These attitudes are linked with the supervisors' consideration of their students' prior experiences and overall expectations of the thesis process and relationship.

This doctoral thesis provides new information on students and supervisors' expectations of the master's thesis process and relationship, and the supervisors' pedagogical approaches in intercultural supervision. The findings demonstrate that more support and development of supervisors' pedagogical approaches in supervision is needed. This dissertation concludes with recommendations for students and supervisors, university administrators and future research.

**KEY WORDS:** Intercultural supervision, international master's degree programmes, master's thesis supervision, thesis supervisors, master's students, higher education, Finland

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Sincerely,  
*Kalypso Filippou*  
EDU 371  
26/9/2019

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# List of original publications

This dissertation is based on the following four studies:

- I. Filippou, K., Kallo, J. & Mikkilä-Erdmann, M. (2017). Students' views on thesis supervision in international master's degree programs in Finnish universities. *Intercultural Education*, 28(3), 334–352. doi: 10.1080/14675986.2017.1333713.

Filippou contributed to the study conception and design, data collection, analysis and interpretation, and was responsible for the writing of the manuscript. Kallo and Mikkilä-Erdmann contributed to the study conception and design, and revision of the manuscript.

- II. Filippou, K. (2019). Students' academic self-efficacy in international master's degree programmes in Finnish universities. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 31(1), 86–95.

- III. Filippou, K., Kallo, J. & Mikkilä-Erdmann, M. (2019). Supervising Master's Thesis in International Master's Degree Programmes: Roles, Responsibilities and Models. *Teaching in Higher Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2019.1636220>.

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- IV. Filippou, K. (2019). Identifying thesis supervisors' attitudes: Indications of responsiveness in international master's degree programmes. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*. doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2019.1621764

The publications are referred to in the text by Roman numerals.



# 1 Introduction

This doctoral dissertation focuses on thesis supervisors' and students' expectations and experiences of supervision during the master's thesis process, in international master's degree programmes (IMDPs). Drawing from a number of empirical studies, this work examines and compares the perspectives of the main actors: the student and the thesis supervisor. This dissertation will contribute to the field of master's thesis supervision<sup>1</sup> in the culturally diverse<sup>2</sup> environment of IMDPs by identifying the supervision models and pedagogical approaches of the supervisors in intercultural supervision. The studies are conducted in English-medium programmes in Finnish higher education. The literature reveals a lack of studies on master's thesis supervision compared to doctoral theses (Anderson, Day, & McLaughlin, 2006, 2008; Drennan & Clarke, 2009). While the supervisory process, the student-supervisor relationship and the art of thesis<sup>3</sup> writing itself share many similarities, the intellectual requirements and time frames vary widely (Anderson et al., 2008, p. 33). Pilcher (2011) highlights a research gap regarding how master's thesis supervision alters over time.

University teachers frequently bemoan the lack of professional development opportunities applicable to teaching and supervising international students<sup>4</sup> (Skyrme

<sup>1</sup> The term 'thesis supervision' is commonly used in Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, while the process is often known as 'thesis advising' in the United States (Grant & Manathunga, 2011). Other terms such as 'mentoring' or 'counselling' are used to describe the process; however, this dissertation limits itself to 'thesis supervision' or simply 'supervision'.

<sup>2</sup> The term 'culturally diverse students' is used in this dissertation. This term includes more than the nationality or cultural background of students such as the diversities of skills, languages, expectations, motivations and preferences of teaching styles.

<sup>3</sup> In this doctoral project, 'thesis' is used to describe the written report students are required to write to demonstrate their research skills.

<sup>4</sup> This dissertation adopts Ryan and Carroll's (2005) terminology, using the term 'international students' to describe: [S]tudents who have chosen to travel to another country for tertiary study. They may or may not have attended some secondary or preparatory education in the country they have selected for higher education but most of their previous experience will have been of other educational systems, in cultural contexts and sometimes in a language that is different (or very different) from the one in which they will now study. (p. 3)

& McGee, 2016). Similarly, Sanderson (2011) underlines the lack of research on teachers' skills and knowledge related to teaching international students. Additionally, many supervisors mention insufficient guidance on effective intercultural supervision (Manathunga, 2011). Ryan (2011) notes a research gap regarding curricula, pedagogy and assessment practices in international education. To support supervisors' development in intercultural supervision it is vital to examine 'what supervisors do and why' (Pearson & Brew, 2002, p. 135). As such, an examination of supervisory pedagogy in the IMDPs context is necessary. The research questions explore:

1. Students' views and expectations of the thesis process and relationship, their academic self-beliefs, and possible influence of background variables
2. Supervisors' experiences and expectations of the thesis process and relationship, thesis models and responsive pedagogical approaches

This dissertation comprises four articles; Studies I and II examine the students' point of view and academic self-efficacy<sup>5</sup> while Studies III and IV explore the supervisors' positions. This summary is divided into five sections. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 contextualizes IMDPs, investigating the Finnish higher education policies linked with these programmes; their definition, development and expansion through the years; and their characteristics. Chapter 3 introduces and explores the previous research on thesis supervision, supervisory pedagogy and models, and intercultural supervision. The research aims and methods are explained in Chapter 4. It begins by examining the research questions and the methodological considerations undertaken for each of the four studies. The chapter concludes by discussing reflexivity, validity, reliability and research ethics. Chapter 5 provides an overview and the main results of the four studies. In the final chapter, Chapter 6, the main findings, implications and recommendations, as well as the limitations and directions for future research, are discussed.

<sup>5</sup> Self-efficacy refers to a person's belief that he or she is capable of successfully completing a task in a designed environment (Bandura, 1986; 1997).

## 2 Contextualising international master's degree programmes

### 2.1 Finnish higher education in the global and Nordic context

The last decades, Finland has undergone numerous changes, including transitioning from a Nordic welfare state model toward a competition state (Kettunen, 2006) with European market-driven policies (Rinne, 2000). Education is viewed as a primary means of maintaining and increasing the nation's competitiveness. Currently, Finland adheres to a quasi-market higher education model with neoliberal new public management policies (Rinne, Jauhiainen & Kankaanpää, 2014; Välimaa & Muhonen, 2018). This model supports entrepreneurial activities but also relies upon performance indicators and quantifiable results (Rinne et al., 2014). Academia is influenced by the marketisation of higher education, governance, policy and funding reforms that promote increasing competition between and within institutions (Välimaa, 2004; Ylijoki & Ursin, 2015). Part of those working in Finnish higher education admit to insecurity about temporary working contracts and administrative work overload due to these changes, while others perceive them as progress leading to success and career mobility (Ylijoki & Ursin, 2015).

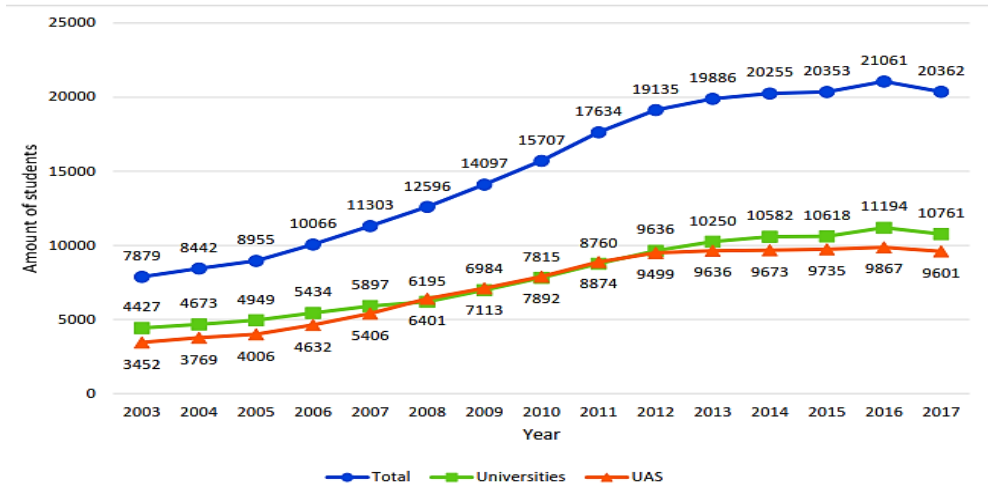
A brief history of IMDPs is necessary to understand the wider context. At the beginning of the 1990s, the neighbouring Soviet Union collapsed, affecting the trade relationship with Finland and leading Finland into an economic depression (Rinne, 2000). Finland joined the European Union (EU) in 1995 and the Bologna Process in 1999. Around the same time, the number of people moving to Finland rapidly increased; from approximately 100,000 in 1999 to 300,000 in 2017 (Official Statistics of Finland, 2017). Following the Bologna Process and degree structure reform, many universities in EU countries established English-medium degree programmes (Airey, Lauridsen, Räsänen, Salö & Schwach, 2017).

Higher education institutions have long attempted to enhance their competitiveness by establishing international degree programmes (IDPs) and attracting international students. Both the EU and the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) influence and provide legitimacy for Finnish higher education reforms (Kallo, 2009; Niukko, 2006). The *Thematic Review of*

*Tertiary Education* in 2006 (Davies, Weko, Kim & Thulstrup, 2006) indicates IDPs and international students in Finnish higher education are essential for educational, societal and economic development. One reason for this is the thread of ‘brain drain’ due to the increasing number of Finns in the labor force electing to emigrate. The OECD *Reviews of Tertiary Education* (2009) indicates the low number of international exchanges of researchers from Finnish higher education leads to fewer opportunities for cost sharing in research projects and access to new research results. Research strongly suggests that internationalization of higher education in the Nordic countries is necessary for economic growth due to the region’s small populations and restricted local markets (Airey et al., 2017).

Globally, the number of international students studying abroad has drastically increased; from 200,000 students in the mid-1950s, to more than 500,000 in 1970, to one million in the late 1970s (Teichler, 2009). The ever-rising numbers reflect the worldwide trend of studying abroad. While these numbers are impressive, the overall increase in the number of university students worldwide means the proportion of ‘foreign’ students in higher education has remained steady at 2% (Teichler, 2015). According to a recent OECD report (2018), 3.5 million international students were studying in member countries of the organization. In Finland, 8% of students in higher education are international students, which is slightly higher than the OECD average of 6% but noticeably lower than Luxembourg (47%), New Zealand (20%), Switzerland and the United Kingdom (18%) and Australia (17%), the countries with the highest proportion of international students (OECD, 2018, p. 228).

The number of international students in Finnish higher education has steadily increased since 2003. In 2016 the number of international students in Finnish universities and universities of applied sciences reached 21,061 (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2017a). In 2017 when tuition fees were applied for non EU/EEA students, this number decreased to 20,362 (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2018a). This was the first time that these numbers have dropped since 2003. In 2017, 7% of students in Finnish universities were international students; in universities of applied sciences, the percentage was 6.8% (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2017b). At master’s level studies the percentage of international students in Finland was around 12% (OECD, 2018). **Figure 1** depicts the changes in the number of international degree students in Finnish universities and universities of applied sciences (noted as UAS in **Figure 1**).



**Figure 1.** International degree students in Finnish higher education institutions 2003–2017 (adapted from the Finnish National Agency for Education, 2018a).

## 2.2 The development of the international degree programmes

Finland began to implement IDPs in the late 1980s, when Finnish educational policy sought to internationalise education (Lehikoinen, 2006). Prior to this point, the government considered ‘the very few visiting scholars that came to Finland and the handful of students that went abroad for studies’ as internationalisation (Clarke, 2005, p. 481). The Ministry of Education (1987) then published the first internationalization plan, which led to the development of English-medium degree programmes (Saarinen & Nikula, 2013). Policy makers viewed international interaction as necessary to enhance the quality of education and its relevance to labour market as well as a means to increase educational opportunities for Finnish students (Lehikoinen, 2006).

Fifteen years later, the first internationalisation strategy, *An International Strategy for Higher Education* (Ministry of Education, 2001), considered internationalization a way to increase the attractiveness of the country and strengthen the international competitiveness of Finnish higher education and research (Lehikoinen, 2006). This strategy was deemed necessary due to shifts in the universities’ operating environment (from the cooperative to competitive approach), the development of other higher education institutions, the polytechnics (now the universities of applied sciences) as well as technological developments and the changing labour force (Lehikoinen, 2006). After Finland implemented this strategy,

the number of international students increased significantly (Jokila, Kallo, & Mikkilä-Erdmann, 2019).

The second internationalisation programme, *Strategy for the Internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions in Finland 2009–2015* (Ministry of Education, 2009), sought to develop the quality and attractiveness of Finnish higher education institutions and their research community, particularly in the international arena, and to increase the number of international students, researchers and teachers in Finnish higher education, thus creating an international higher education community (Ministry of Education, 2009). Other objectives included the export of expertise, the support of a multicultural community and society, and guiding the institutions toward seeking solutions for global problems (Ministry of Education, 2009).

This strategy viewed international students, teachers, and researchers as a resource to support internationalisation at home (Ministry of Education, 2009). However, the presence of international students on campus alone does not ensure significant intercultural interaction with local students (Jackson, 2014). In fact, research reveals a separation between local and international students (Harrison, 2015; Kidman, Manathunga & Cornforth, 2017; Lehtomäki, Posti-Ahokas & Moate, 2015; Volet & Ang, 1998). Practical everyday issues related to moving to a new country (e.g., housing, immigration information) force international students to be more dependent on the university than local students (Kauko & Medvedeva, 2016). As Kauko and Medvedeva (2016) contend, a strategic plan involving activities and common courses should be established to create opportunities for interaction between local and international students.

In 2012, the Ministry of Education and Culture characterised the progress of international education and research cooperation as slow, and decided take measures ‘to help foreign students to anchor in Finnish society and labour market by means of targeted instruction of the national languages’ (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2012, p. 50). The universities and universities of applied sciences developed their own institutional strategies to meet this aim.

The latest internationalization strategy, *Better Together for a Better World: Policies to Promote Internationalisation in Finnish Higher Education and Research 2017–2025*, aims to elevate Finnish higher education to the highest levels of international higher education community (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2017). The steps to achieve this goal include simplifying the immigration processes for studying and working, and investing in improving the attractiveness of cities with higher education institutions (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2017). In general, each of these strategies position international students and internationalisation activities as a vital component of the Finnish ‘knowledge-based’ economy.

The rapid increase of IDPs in Finland is evident. The first English-medium programmes were established in 1989 (Välimaa et al., 2013). By 1996,

approximately 75 IDPs existed in Finland (Saarinen, 2012). After only three years, this number had almost doubled. Between 2006 and 2007, EU grants offering funds to continue developing IDPs in cooperation with institutes outside of Finland caused the programmes to flourish (Välímáa et al., 2013). In 2008, they numbered 287, out of which two were Swedish-taught, and five taught in 'other' languages such as Finnish and Fenno-Ugric (Saarinen, 2012). In 2012, 257 remained (Välímáa et al., 2013); however, more than 400 IDPs are in place in Finland (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2019). This includes only IDPs at the bachelor's and master's level, although many doctoral programmes exist as well.

Currently, Finland is one of the leading providers of English-taught programmes in Europe, considering the proportion of universities and IDPs offered in Finnish higher education (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014). Finland is also the fourth leading country considering the proportion of universities, number of IDPs and students (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014). The number of IDPs is considered an indicator of the internationalisation of higher education (Airey et al., 2017). Two other indicators of internationalisation, which affects university funding, are the number of international degree students and their graduation rate (Kauko & Medvedeva, 2016). Due to funding being dependent on the number of graduates, university departments consider student retention and the prolongation of studies to be challenges (Ylijoki, 2001). This has led to an increase in attention to improving supervisory practices and the thesis writing process (Ylijoki, 2001).

The Constitution, the Language Act and the University Act, determine the language policies of Finnish higher education and permit both monolingualism (Finnish or Swedish) or bilingualism (Finnish and Swedish) (Haapakorpi & Saarinen, 2014). Until the late 1990s, most institutions taught in Finnish; a few taught in Swedish or in both languages. However, because the Finnish language was perceived as an obstacle in attracting international students it became essential to develop courses and programmes taught in English (Clarke, 2005). Thus, English began to be used in Finnish higher education, and spread widely after the 2004 amendments to the University Law (Saarinen, 2012). Policy documents may refer to 'a foreign language' when discussing IDP; however, it is evident English is the *de facto* language (Saarinen & Nikula, 2013). Higher education institutions use English as the means to reach 'global, multicultural and international objectives' outlined at the policy level (Saarinen & Nikula, 2013, p. 14).

## 2.3 Outlining international master's degree programmes

Välímáa and colleagues (2013) define IDPs as bachelor's and master's degree programmes 'in which the language of instruction is not Finnish, Swedish or Sámi

and for which the students are recruited also from outside of Finland' (p. 12). The label also indicates these programmes instill students with 'global or international skills for a global and international future in the labour market' (Saarinen & Nikula, 2013, p. 7). As Saarinen and Nikula (2013) argue, labeling programmes as 'international', 'intercultural' or 'global' is a marketing strategy that distinguishes them from 'regular' programmes.

The Finnish Higher Education Evaluation Council conducted an evaluation in that offers a variety of statistics and practices related to IDPs (Välímää et al., 2013). The evaluation reveals a lack of complete information regarding IDPs as well as the division between them and Finnish-taught programmes (Välímää et al., 2013). This dichotomy is also noticeable in the separate administration and teaching staff. The evaluation indicated IDPs are 'moving targets' in higher education, with a flexible and temporary organisation that allows new programmes to constantly emerge, merge with other programmes or be discontinued altogether (Välímää et al., 2013, p. 20). As Garam (2009) notes, more than a third of the programmes do not specify their target audience. While older programmes seem to target both local and international, newer programmes clearly aim to attract international students (Garam, 2009).

The 2012 evaluation concentrated on the provision of teaching rather than pedagogical aspects or the learning processes (Välímää et al., 2013). At the time, more than 5000 teachers taught in IDPs; around 70% were Finnish (Välímää et al., 2013). The IDP teachers' multicultural pedagogy skills, international experience (e.g., studying abroad, teaching abroad) and intercultural skills (intercultural sensitivity, positive attitude towards counselling 'foreign' students) were not considered important, unlike their English language proficiency. The students found the expected independent attitude toward their studies and the lack of distinct instructions challenging (Välímää et al., 2013).

The evaluation highlights the challenges of accessing the Finnish labour market after graduation (a difficulty also identified by Kärki, 2005). A frequent challenge mentioned by students was the lack of internships on offer due to the students' lack of 'perfect' Finnish language skills (Välímää et al., 2013). Although students realise Finnish language proficiency is essential to enter the Finnish workforce, their lack of time and the strict curriculum prevent them from attending Finnish language courses further developing their language skills. On the other hand, the administration and teaching staff believe the strict curriculum is one of the primary strengths of the IDPs.

In Finnish universities, the IMDPs are English-medium two-year master's level programmes (corresponding to 120 European Credit Transfer System [ECTS]). The students' admission procedure differs from the Finnish-taught programmes in which students are admitted through matriculation and entrance examinations. Some



IMDPs accept students each year, while others do so biannually. Admitted students are granted four years of study rights. The general structure of a master's degree includes a major subject, minor subjects, general studies, language and communication studies and a master's thesis (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2018b). In some programmes, introductory Finnish or Swedish language courses are compulsory (Välímáa et al., 2013). Some IMDPs require academic writing courses and English language support is provided. Depending on the institution, an internship or work placement may be required (Välímáa et al., 2013). Furthermore, some IMDPs are supported by the EU as part of the Erasmus-Mundus joint programmes, where the students study at a different university every semester.

Students commonly attend orientation, where they receive information on their schedule and study curriculum, university services and student life (Filippou, 2019). The tutor system is a popular practice at many institutions; current students help new students navigate the practicalities, including campus and city life. However, Välímáa et al. (2013) reveal students do not share the positive view that teachers, administrators and support staff have regarding the tutoring system and student organisations. In addition, institutions often offer 'survival' booklets to new international degree students that provide information about daily life, career planning and facts about the university, city and country. However, these documents have been criticised for their ethnocentric and culturalist perspectives (Dervin & Layne, 2013).

During the application period, students must verify their eligibility by submitting their educational documents, a motivation letter and proof of their English language skills. Some IMDPs conduct interviews with applicants before acceptance, request a letter of recommendation in English and/or a written essay based on an exam question. Admission requires proof of English language skills, based on either a test or the student's previous studies. Common European Framework of Reference, a B1/B2 level of English is required. Each programme sets a minimum score requirement for these tests, which include: International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), Pearson Test of English, Certificate of Proficiency in English or Cambridge ESOL's Certificate in Advanced English, the National Certificate of Language Proficiency in English, or a minimum 'C' in the Finnish matriculation examination. Students with a degree from an upper secondary school where English was the medium of instruction from the following countries are not required to prove their language skills: Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Great Britain, Iceland, Ireland, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden and the United States (Saarinen & Nikula, 2013). The same applies to students with a bachelor's degree in which English was the medium of instruction, which includes institutions from the countries listed above as well as all other EU/EEA countries. Some programmes do not require a language test from students who are native

English speakers (Saarinen & Nikula, 2013). The students' English language skills and experiences with English-medium instruction often vary (Saarinen & Nikula, 2013).

Saarinen and Nikula (2013) examine the role of language, especially English, used in the IDP websites and criticise the English test exemption as it applies to students from specific countries due to the inequalities it might produce. It is unclear whether this exemption is meant to encourage students from Australia, Europe, New Zealand and northern America to participate in the IDPs, or signals a lack of trust in English-medium programmes in Asia, Africa or South America. The categorisation of different Englishes can 'be interpreted as a hierarchisation of the students' origins, language varieties, and the higher education systems they come from' (Saarinen & Nikula, 2013, p. 14) and can lead to 'a certain level of inequality among international students.'

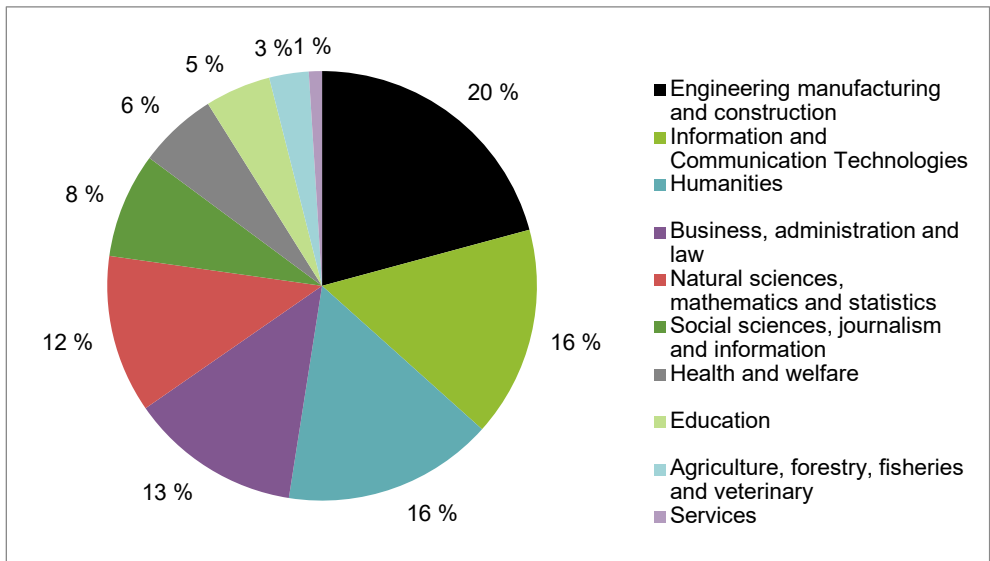
Practices and procedures related to finances and language skills have created inequalities amongst the students. Non EU/EEA students must pay tuition, obtain health insurance and apply for a residence permit. They must also prove they have the necessary funds to live in Finland, which is estimated to be at least 560 euros per month (Migri, 2018). From 2017, students from non EU/EEA countries have been required to pay tuition fees of 4,000 to 18,000 euros per academic year (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2018c) Although a number of scholarships are available, this has also increased inequality, as poorer students are unable to afford to attend. Unsurprisingly, introducing tuition fees prompted a decrease in the number of applications; universities saw 32% fewer applicants while universities of applied sciences experienced a 6% drop (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2017a). However, based on Sweden's experience (Tse, 2011), university officials expected the numbers would rise again. In fact, Finnish universities have seen a recent uptick in the number of applications received (Aalto University, 2019; Salmivaara, 2019; Tampere University, 2019; University of Turku, 2019; Yle, 2019).

The IDP student population is often culturally and linguistically heterogeneous (Saarinen & Nikula, 2013). In 2013, Finnish students comprised the largest percentage of students in IDPs, around 24% (Välímää et al., 2013). The other 76% represented numerous countries, most commonly Russia, Vietnam, China, Nepal, India, Estonia, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Germany and Iran (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2017c). In 2017, students from 151 different countries were enrolled in IDPs; 43 countries in Asia, 40 in Europe, 38 nationalities in Africa, 23 in Latin America and in the Caribbean, 5 in Oceania, and 2 in North America (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2018d). **Table 1** shows the percentage of international degree students in Finnish universities by continent 2006–2017, revealing a gradual increase of students from Asia and decrease in students from Europe.

**Table 1.** Nationalities of international degree students by continent 2006–2017 (adapted from the Finnish National Agency for Education, 2018e).

University	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
<b>Africa</b>	7.2	8.2	9.5	9.9	9.2	8.5	8.7	9.0	9.3	9.4	8.7	9.2
<b>Asia</b>	30.7	32.4	34.4	34.5	38.3	41.4	42.4	42.8	42.9	42.8	46.9	46.2
<b>Europe</b>	53.7	51.3	48.7	48.2	44.5	42.1	41.7	40.6	40.0	40.0	36.3	36.4
<b>Latin America/ Caribbean</b>	3.1	3.4	3.2	3.5	3.8	3.8	3.6	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.8
<b>North America</b>	3.9	3.6	3.4	3.5	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.7	3.7
<b>Oceania</b>	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
<b>Unknown</b>	1.0	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.1
<b>Total</b>	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Total number of students</b>	5434	5897	6195	6984	7815	8760	9578	10250	10582	10618	11194	10761

Most international degree choose to study IT, engineering or the humanities, as shown in **Figure 2** (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2017d).



**Figure 2.** International degree students in Finnish universities by field of education (adapted from Finnish National Agency for Education, 2017d).

Clearly Finnish higher education policy has focused on IDPs and international students. As the landscape changes, activities related to the marketisation of higher education and international student recruitment have drawn attention. However, it is crucial to consider not only the numbers of students and programmes, but also the implications of teachers' practices and pedagogical approaches.

## 2.4 The thesis process and supervision in international master's degree programmes

A master's thesis is a compulsory component of IMDPs. Ylijoki (2001) defines a thesis as 'a small piece of research demonstrating a good command of the theme of the thesis, mastery of the research methods utilised and capability for academic writing' (p. 22). Completing a master's thesis requires sufficient knowledge of a specific subject and advanced research skills (Anderson et al., 2008). Drennan and Clarke (2009) note the outcomes of master's level studies include students' ability to engage in self-directed learning and the development of their critical thinking, problem solving and research skills.

The process of topic selection and supervisor-student allocation differ amongst IMDPs. Certain programmes divide students amongst supervisors according to their motivation statement provided in their application and the suggested thesis ideas therein, while others examine the workload of supervisors and assign students accordingly; students may also reach out to a supervisor and request supervision. In addition the individual face-to-face meetings with their supervisor, students typically participate in thesis seminars, in which they present their ideas and receive information about the process from their supervisor. Thesis seminars also differ amongst IMDPs. In many IMDPs thesis seminars begin during the first semester, but the frequency of the meetings varies according to the field of study and thesis stage. Students are usually required to develop their own research project or participate in a team research project, collect and analyse data (where possible), and write their thesis, which is approximately 60–100 pages long. During the evaluation process, two examiners assess the thesis, one of whom is the supervisor. In IMDPs, the master's thesis is often graded on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being passing and 5 being outstanding, in certain programmes a final presentation of the study is expected.

Three common characteristics of IMDP students are their diverse 'educational, linguistic and cultural backgrounds', their interest in a specific field and a 'shared non-nativeness' (Hahl, 2016, p. 84). While the supervisors own supervisory experience as students influences their supervisory practices (Guerin, Kerr & Green, 2015), it is important for supervisors to take it a step further and consider the diverse backgrounds of IMDP students when designing their pedagogical approaches. At the same time, university educators who aim to develop responsive and inclusive

pedagogies ought to reflect on their own teaching strategies (Robson & Turner, 2007). Supervisors have the freedom and ability to make pedagogical decisions, and may negotiate and shape supervision 'rather than merely following the traditions of the disciplinary culture or local routines' (Vehviläinen & Löfström, 2016, p. 509). Similarly, a student is 'responsible for the process and the product, not just someone who enjoys the benefit of supervision' (Vehviläinen & Löfström, 2016, p. 521). The research shows it is essential for teachers and supervisors to develop inclusive and responsive strategies (Larke, 2013) as well as implement more flexible and culturally diverse teaching methods and learning environments (Leask, 2009).

Culturally diverse students have various learning style preferences (Charlesworth, 2008). In joining a new learning environment, students bring their own frames of reference (Hahl, 2016), expectations (Stier, 2003), and experiences and developed skills (Acquah & Commins, 2018), which teachers and thesis supervisors should consider and utilise when imparting new knowledge (Biggs & Tang, 2011). Acknowledging students' prior knowledge and previous experiences could increase their learning opportunities and influence teachers' practices (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2012).

## 3 Research on thesis supervision

This literature review evaluates and discusses previous studies on supervision, theoretical models and related concepts and identifies a research gap regarding IMPD thesis supervision. From the early stages, it was clear that, due to its hidden and complex nature, thesis supervision, the pedagogy of supervision and the supervisory relationship have been widely and deeply studied, especially at the doctoral level. However, there are fewer studies on master's thesis supervision (Anderson et al., 2006, 2008; Drennan & Clarke, 2009). Given the range of studies on doctoral supervision, and the similarities it shares with master's thesis supervision a large percentage of this literature review pertains to doctoral level.

### 3.1 Overview of thesis supervision research

*It is an interesting mixture of the personal, the rational and the irrational, the social and the institutional, full of possibilities of all kinds, a source of great pleasure to some students and supervisors.*

(Grant, 2003, p. 176)

Interest in thesis supervision is evidenced by the myriad of studies conducted on the topic, which involve a wide range of methods and environments. A number of studies focus on students' experiences (Anderson et al., 2008; Sayed, Kruss & Badat, 1998), challenges (Sayed et al., 1998) and expectations of supervision (McGinty, Koo, & Saeidi, 2010; Pole, Sprokkereef, Burgess, & Lakin, 1997). The literature also addresses supervisors' views (Anderson et al., 2006; Franke & Arvidsson, 2011; Skyrme & McGee, 2016), challenges (Brown, 2007), support (Hu, van der Rijst, van Veen, & Verloop, 2016), roles and responsibilities (Anderson et al., 2006; Barnes & Austin, 2009) as well as expectations of supervision (Woolhouse, 2002).

Studies analyse and concentrate on different aspects of supervision. Some studies focus in exploring supervisory models (Acker, Hill & Black, 1994; Dysthe, 2002; Gatfield, 2005) while other studies investigate collective supervision (Nordentoft, Thomsen & Wichmann-Hansen, 2013; Wichmann-Hansen, Thomsen & Nordentoft, 2015; Samara, 2006) and narratives of the thesis writing process (Ylijoki, 2001). The

target population in studies also varies. For example, the study of Anderson and colleagues (2008) examines students who are experienced professionals and study part-time (Anderson et al., 2008). Furthermore, studies focus on supervisors who are considered to be novice (Maritz & Prinsloo, 2015; Vereijken, van der Rijst, van Driel, & Dekker, 2018) or experts (Guerin et al., 2015; de Kleijn, Meijer, Brekelmans, & Pilot, 2015).

Supervision studies also centre on specific fields, such as education (Anderson et al., 2006, 2008; Dysthe, Samara, & Westrheim, 2006; Sayed et al., 1998; Woolhouse, 2002) natural sciences (Pole et al., 1997), laboratory-based electrical and electronic engineering (McClure, 2005), nursing (Drennan & Clarke, 2009) and the medical field in general (Vereijken et al., 2018), or they combine various fields (Barnes & Austin, 2009; Dysthe, 2002; de Kleijn et al., 2015; Ylijoki, 2001). Most studies on supervision focus on one higher education context rather than compare them. However, several exceptions exist, such as a study comparing expectations of students from Malaysia and the United Kingdom (Sidhu, Kaur, Fook, & Yunus, 2014), and research comparing students from Australia, Malaysia and Iran regarding their expectations of supervisory roles and responsibilities (McGinty et al., 2010).

A variety of data collection methods are used such as surveys (McGinty et al., 2010), interviews (Anderson et al., 2006, 2008; Barnes & Austin, 2009; Franke & Arvidsson, 2011; Hu et al., 2016; de Kleijn et al., 2015), log-journals (Sayed et al., 1998), action research projects (Manathunga & Goozée, 2007; Woolhouse, 2002), and videotaped data and conversation analytic studies (Vehviläinen 2009a, 2012). Similarly, various research methods are used such as qualitative methods underpinned by constructivism (McClure, 2005), narrativism (Guerin et al., 2015; Ylijoki, 2001), phenomenography (Franke & Arvidsson, 2011) and experiential and feminist methodology (Bartlett & Mercer, 2000).

From a global perspective, New Zealand, United Kingdom and Australia have the highest proportion of international students (OECD, 2018, p. 228), as mentioned in the section 2.1. It is evident that these countries also have a strong tradition on supervision research. Yet, the theoretical lenses used to analyse the phenomenon of supervision vary. For example, Barbara Grant (2003, 2005) follows a post-structuralist and critical discourse approach emphasizing the power asymmetries in supervision. Catherine Manathunga's work (2007, 2011, 2014) on intercultural supervision follows a post-colonial approach with a focus on the supervisors' pedagogies. Gina Wisker's work (2009, 2012) follows a more liberal discourse. Their approaches will be discussed further in sections 3.2 and 3.3

In the Finnish context, research on thesis supervision primarily centres on doctoral supervision. Recent studies focus on doctoral students' disengaging experiences (Vekkaila, Pyhältö, & Lonka, 2013), conceptions of research (Stubb, Pyhältö, & Lonka, 2012) and challenges and their effect on students' wellbeing

(Pyhältö, Toom, Stubb, & Lonka, 2012; Stubb, Pyhältö, & Lonka, 2011). Another stream of research concentrates on doctoral students' academic writing and conceptions of writing (Lonka, 2003; Lonka et al., 2014). Löfström and Pyhältö examine ethical issues in doctoral supervision (2012, 2014).

Pyhältö, Vekkaila and Keskinen (2012, 2015) explore *fit matters* between doctoral students and supervisors. *Fit* and *misfit* matters refer to congruent and different supervisory perceptions, respectively, between students and supervisors regarding their relationship and working environment, which may influence their experience and study completion. Their 2012 study demonstrates how the alignment between students' and supervisors' views of the working environment, challenges involved, and resources available influences the overall doctoral experience. They conclude that the supervisory relationship is an important factor in students' progress and satisfaction. In a later study, they show that fit between students' and supervisors' views regarding supervisory tasks correlates with students' satisfaction with their studies and the supervisory relationship (Pyhältö, et al., 2015). Furthermore, Cornér, Löfström and Pyhältö (2017) explore the interrelations between supervision and burnout amongst doctoral students. Their study shows how the lack of satisfaction with supervision and a low frequency of supervision are related to students' experiences of burnout (Cornér et al., 2017).

Vehviläinen (2009a, 2009b, 2012) is the rare researcher who examines master's level supervision in the Finnish context. She compiles case studies of master's thesis supervision regarding critical feedback, and how students perceive their supervisors' feedback and comments during the development of their master's thesis (Vehviläinen, 2009a, 2009b, 2012). Her results show two types of questions students ask when they seek help from their supervisors: invoking incompetence, and proposing potential problems and solutions (2009a). Her findings also show that during the supervisory encounter, the student and the supervisor have separate agendas regarding what is relevant to the thesis and what could be considered a challenge. Overall, what can lead to a successful supervision 'is whether the participants share a view on what is relevant' (Vehviläinen, 2009a, p. 198).

Together, Vehviläinen and Löfström (2016) investigate supervisors' perceptions of supervision, as well as their rewarding aspects, concerns and good practices. They identify two discourses regarding the supervisors' assumptions of their supervisory practices: *the traditional supervisory discourse* and *the process-oriented dialogical supervision*. A few supervisors considered student diversity as evidenced in their skills, attitudes and needs to be a problem; these supervisors seemed to expect a traditional supervisory culture in a more homogeneous environment, which would allow for a tailored procedure involving general tools and practices applicable to everyone (Vehviläinen & Löfström, 2016). Like Vehviläinen, this work concentrates on master's level thesis supervision. However, it focuses on IMDP students' and



supervisors' expectations of the thesis process and the supervision models used, while she concentrates on Finnish-taught master's programmes (part of the five-year degree).

### 3.2 Pedagogy and thesis supervision models

This dissertation views thesis supervision as a university pedagogy which develops through educational discourse, evaluating the 'social rules and meanings' of each context's 'social rules and meanings' (Grant & Graham, 1999, p. 79). Supervision is a teaching activity (Brown & Atkins, 1988) and a pedagogical relationship (Franke & Arvidsson, 2011; Pearson & Brew, 2002); however, in this reciprocal learning environment and relationship, both supervisor and student have an active role (Grant & Graham, 1999). The master's degree and thesis process positions students in a transitional stage between pursuing curricular goals and 'becoming a professional pursuing personal goals' (de Kleijn et al., 2013, p. 8).

In general, supervision is a 'poorly understood' pedagogy (Grant, 2010, p. 88). Due to the intellectual and interpersonal dimensions of supervision, and the varied responsibilities of both the student and the supervisor during the process, supervision is seen as complicated (Barnes & Austin, 2009). Yet, adjusting supervision according to the student's needs is widely acknowledged as an important and effective strategy (Anderson et al., 2006; Barnes & Austin, 2009; Derounian, 2011; Halse & Malfroy, 2010; Kam, 1997; de Kleijn, Bronkhorst, Meijer, Pilot, & Brekelmans, 2015, 2016; McClure, 2005; Pearson & Brew, 2002; Todd, Smith, & Bannister, 2006). Moreover, balancing the amount of pressure and freedom the supervisor provides to students is a critical skill (Woolhouse, 2002).

De Kleijn, Meijer, Brekelmans and Pilot (2015) label the ability to supervise according to each student's needs as *adaptivity*. To further understand adaptivity, the authors conducted a small-scale study in which they examine supervisors' adaptivity by evaluating their practical knowledge of adaptive supervision. They conclude that supervisors observe their students' competence and determination, take into account the context, then decide which strategies to follow (e.g., dividing responsibilities) that most benefit the students. Pilcher (2011) characterises this supervisor's role and process as the *elusive chameleon*.

Roberts and Seaman's (2018) study on undergraduate good and problematic supervisory experiences defines 'good supervision' as a trusting relationship 'where students and supervisors share research interests and supervisors provide advice without undermining students' ownership of projects, resulting in evolving supportive relationships that foster student growth' (p. 33). Like in studies on master's or doctoral level supervision, the supervisors raise issues such as differing expectations, personality conflicts, supervisors' busy workloads, relationships that

do not evolve and the students' lack of support, interest and ownership (Roberts & Seaman, 2018). Several key characteristics students and supervisors value in a supervisor are evidence of subject knowledge, realistic expectations and being responsive and encouraging but firm when necessary (Derounian, 2011).

The next studies on students' and supervisors' expectations, of the thesis process and relationship are closely related to the main aims of this dissertation which is to explore the students' and supervisors' expectations of the thesis process and relationship inside the context of the IMDPs. Winchester-Seeto et al. (2014) discuss a number of themes and issues that affect doctoral candidates and supervisors. In their literature review, they identify four main areas that thesis supervision research focuses on: 'issues outside the thesis; mismatched expectations of roles and responsibilities; maintenance of a positive candidate/supervisor relationship; and written and oral communication' (p. 612). Additionally, Kidman and colleagues (2017, p. 1217–1218) state that students' experiences are highly dependent 'on how well their expectations and needs are mediated by supervisors and other members of the academic community within their institutions'.

Studies on students' expectations of the thesis process highlight numerous and multidimensional expectations. Understanding the reasons behind students' expectations and seeking clarification is essential in supervision (Wisker, 2009). Students' expectations may focus on the practical matters of supervision; for example, helping them locate reading material (Woolhouse, 2002) or assisting with time management and receiving constructive feedback (Lessing & Schulze, 2002). The students also expect emotional support and a strong interpersonal relationship; they want their supervisors to be friendly and readily available, take a genuine interest their lives and understand when they face academic challenges (Anderson et al., 2008; de Kleijn et al., 2012, 2014; McGinty et al., 2010; Pilcher, 2011).

Supervision is also perceived as a negotiated practice between supervisor and student (Roberts & Seaman, 2018), and challenges can arise when the parties have different expectations (Woolhouse, 2002). Thus, it is essential to negotiate expectations with students at the beginning and throughout the supervision process (Wisker, 2009; Woolhouse, 2002). Factors leading to students' attrition include limited interaction between student and supervisor, a lack of trust and a general mismatch between the two (Golde, 2005).

In half of the dyad cases de Kleijn et al. (2013) examine, the student and the supervisor do not share the same goals regarding the master's thesis project; the authors state, 'students focus mainly on knowledge and understanding whereas supervisors often focus on applying knowledge and understanding' (p. 8). They also do not share their goals, leading to students not being aware what was expected from them. This suggests curricular, supervisor and student goals should be discussed at

the beginning of supervision and the discussion continued on a regular basis (de Kleijn et al., 2013).

In addition to the differences in expectations related to the thesis process and student-supervisor relationship, the students' academic writing experiences may vary. Studies exploring the influence of the English language in the supervisory process highlight the need to discuss different writing approaches and experiences of writing in English (Doyle, Manathunga, Prinsen, Tallon, & Cornforth, 2018). Ylijoki (2001) identifies four main narratives of writing a master's thesis: heroic, tragic, penal and business-like. Ylijoki (2001) emphasises that both the supervisor and student are 'part of the same story' (p. 32) and that students should reflect on the story they wish to be part of because it influences their relationship with the writing process. Meanwhile, Strauss (2012) indicates linguistic expectations can create difficulties during the thesis process. For example, participants in Strauss' (2012) study possessed English skills adequate for one higher education system, but inadequate in another, in this case in New Zealand. Thus, the students perceived themselves as deficient, which influenced their self-esteem during their studies (Strauss, 2012).

Regardless of their linguistic and cultural backgrounds, students share similar views about the thesis writing process, the roles of supervisees and the importance of cultural knowledge, although expectations of their supervisors' roles and students' degree of independence vary depending on their location; in the study by McGinty et al. (2010), the locations were Iran, Malaysia or Australia (McGinty et al., 2010). Similarly, students studying in Malaysian and British universities hold comparable views regarding expectations of their supervisors' expertise in the field and guidance during the research process (Sidhu et al., 2014). However, students studying in Malaysian universities stressed the importance of the supervisor's attitude (e.g., treating supervisees as adult learners and fellow researchers), while those at British universities focused on the academic aspects and process. A study on English-medium IMDPs in Finland, which will be discussed in detail in later chapters, indicates that regardless of cultural background, students hold similar views regarding their own responsibilities; however, they have different expectations of the supervisors' responsibilities depending on their cultural background (Filippou, Kallo, & Mikkilä-Erdman, 2017).

Researchers have proposed various models to analyse and illustrate the relationship and power dynamics involved in supervision. Acker and colleagues (1994) identify two well-known models of supervision. The first is the *technical rationality model*, which focuses on achieving specific goals through predictable and structured steps. In contrast, the *negotiated order model* centres on the student and supervisor interaction, including their prior and present experiences. This responsive model includes negotiations of mutual expectations throughout the process. Acker

et al. (1994) suggest the latter model is ‘a more accurate description . . . of what actually happens’ (p. 496).

Gatfield (2005) developed a dynamic conceptual supervisory model that includes two dimensions: support and structure. Combining these dimensions leads to four main supervision styles: the *laissez-fair* style (low structure and low support), the *pastoral* type (low structure and high support), the *directorial* style (high structure and low support) and the *contractual* style (high structure and high support). Gatfield (2005) indicates that different styles are noticed at different times during supervision.

This dissertation draws from Olga Dysthe’s (2002) work on sociocultural and dialogical perspectives involving power relations between the student and the supervisor reveal three models of supervision. These models are further examined in Study III, where her work and models are introduced in detail. Dysthe’s work is chosen both because it focuses on master’s thesis supervision and because it was conducted in a Norwegian university. Norwegian and Finnish universities have similar traditions; the Nordic university model aim to the ‘principles of social and educational democracy’ (Rinne, 2010, p. 108) and the Humboldtian ideas and values of ‘institutional independence, academic freedom (also for students), and research-based teaching’ (Dysthe, 2002, p. 495). Moreover, these models consider student–supervisor expectations, responsibilities, communication patterns and the power dynamics of the supervisory relationship as well as pedagogy; hence, they correspond to the goals of this thesis.

Dysthe’s (2002) supervisory models are the *teaching model*, the *apprenticeship model* and the *partnership model*. In the teaching model, the relationship is asymmetrical; in other words, it reflects the strong dependency of the student on the supervisor. This model derives from monologism and focuses on the knowledge transfer from the expert supervisor to the novice student. The expert supervisor corrects the student’s text, provides advice and offers directive feedback. Meanwhile, under the apprenticeship model students have more independence; however, while the relationship focuses on cooperation, the supervisor still leads the research project. The apprenticeship model is often found in team-, project- and laboratory-based environments where students commonly observe the supervisor’s practices before performing them. In this model, the students’ texts are reviewed in groups. The teaching and the apprenticeship model are more likely to be found in cases where the student lacks academic writing experience (Dysthe, 2002).

The partnership model is more symmetrical, as it focuses on developing the student’s autonomy and independent thinking through collaboration with the supervisor. However, due to the supervisor’s expertise, position and authority, this relationship remains asymmetrical (Dysthe, 2002). Dialogism is central to the partnership and the apprenticeship models, where knowledge is built through interaction and discussion (Dysthe 2002). It is important to note, ‘[T]he

conceptualizations of supervision as teaching, partnership, or apprenticeship are not mutually exclusive, as elements of one may appear in another' (Dysthe, 2002, p. 537). Moreover, Dysthe's study (2002) demonstrates that even within the same field of study different models are used. In addition, the supervisor's prior experience can influence the selection and use of the supervisory model (Dysthe, 2002). In a later study, Dysthe and colleagues (2006) provided the participants with three supervision environments: individual supervision, student colloquia and combining supervision groups. The availability of different supervision spaces created more opportunities for dialogue, shifted the power toward the students and decreased their dependency on their supervisors. In so doing, the partnership model of supervision became more usable (Dysthe et al., 2006).

The work of Barbara Grant (2003, 2005) has inspired parts of this dissertation which explore the power relations of supervision and supervisors' practices. Grant (2003, 2005) critically analyses the complexities, dynamics and different layers of power relations in supervision. She identifies four main discourses that form supervision: the *psychological*, the *traditional-academic*, the *techno-scientific* and the *neo-liberal*. Based on these four discourses, she concludes psychological discourse is the most prevalent discourse because supervision is 'first and foremost an interpersonal relationship' (Grant, 2005, p. 350). To express her 'view of supervision as a complex and unstable process, one filled with pleasures and risks' Grant (2003) creates a map of supervision, with four unfolding layers (p. 175). The first layer illustrates supervision as a simple traditional relationship between the supervisor and the student, where 'the supervisor is an authoritative knowing teacher and the student is an agreeable and cooperative listener' (p. 179). The second layer adds the pedagogical layer, the knowledge (thesis), and illustrates the pedagogical power relations between the student, the supervisor and the thesis. While both the student and the supervisor have the ability to act and be transformed through the process, they are not positioned as equals; the combination of the experienced researcher and the inexperienced needy student creates power asymmetry. The third layer bypasses the roles and responsibilities of the relationship to examine a number of social positions, using labels such as age, class, gender, ethnicity, religion and sexual orientation. The fourth layer includes the student's and supervisor's conscious and unconscious desires.

In her experience-based book *The Good Supervisor*, Gina Wisker (2012) outlines the multifaceted aspects of supervision from the initial stages, to the research processes and practices, the issues that arise, completion and finally the after-completion stage. In addition, she offers practical examples and suggests a number of activities for students and supervisors encourage reflection and learning dialogue. When discussing supervising international students, she emphasises the need to

consider ‘culturally influenced ways of undertaking research and culturally influenced constructions of knowledge’ (Wisker, 2012, p. 282).

### 3.3 Intercultural thesis supervision

*We do not leave our identities as raced, classed and gendered bodies outside the door when we engage in supervision; instead, our personal histories, experiences, cultural and class backgrounds remain present.*

(Manathunga, 2011, p. 368)

This work examines the context of intercultural thesis supervision, taking into account the diverse backgrounds and experiences of IMDP students. This section introduces and explains the concept of *intercultural supervision* through the findings of previous research. Generally, in the Finnish context, intercultural education is rooted ‘in multicultural education, intercultural communication, sociolinguistics and speech communication’ (Layne, 2016, p. 23). This dissertation follows Manathunga’s (2011, 2014) steps on applying the term ‘intercultural supervision’, but applies it to the master’s rather than doctoral level. In addition to Dysthe’s models (2002) the power relations of supervision explored in this dissertation (Study III) have been influenced by the work of Manathunga (2011, 2014) and Grant (2003), as well as the focus of Study IV on the supervisors’ practices has been influenced from the effective intercultural supervision analysed by Manathunga (2007) and Grant’s views (2005) on the interpersonal relationship of supervision.

In this dissertation, the term ‘intercultural supervision’ draws on the concept of intercultural communication. Jackson (2014) defines intercultural communication as:

*[The] interpersonal communication between individuals or groups who are affiliated with different cultural groups and/or have been socialized in different cultural (and, in most cases, linguistic) environments. This includes such cultural differences as age, class, gender, ethnicity, language, race, nationality and physical/mental ability. (p. 3)*

Therefore, intercultural supervision is observed when students and supervisors from diverse cultural backgrounds work together and ‘engage with alien cultural and institutional contexts, different educational systems and unwritten assumptions or expectations’ (Manathunga, 2011, p. 369). People involved in an intercultural relationship have the potential to be mutually transformed when they have an open and reciprocal interaction:

An intercultural education is a relational education in which all parties in the encounter open themselves to transformative learning and change, enabling them to see the world through each other's eyes and evolve new practices while interacting with each other. (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p.169)

McClure (2005) notes, '[S]tudents' expectations of the student/supervisory relationship were based on previous cultural and educational experiences and their perceptions of whether or not those expectations were fulfilled' (p. 8). The students expressed feelings of anxiety 'concerning independent research work, distance from supervisors, learning roles, and communication with their supervisors' (p. 8). Overall, despite the challenges faced when beginning their studies, McClure (2005) remarks upon the students' determination and increasing self-awareness.

A later study compared Chinese and Dutch supervisors, revealing that despite their different contexts, the groups showed many similarities, particularly in regards to tangible support (Hu et al., 2016). One of the primary differences is the Chinese supervisors focus on preparing their students for future employment opportunities, using specific instruments to evaluate their progress. On the other hand, the Dutch supervisors tended to support their students' wellbeing, provide emotional support and ask questions to promote their learning. The study not only recommends supervisors reflect on their own viewpoints regarding education but also 'become aware of their own cultural 'biases' and the consequences this has for their perceptions of students from other cultures' (p. 922). The authors also emphasise students' awareness regarding teaching and learning in their new and previous educational context (Hu et al., 2016). Harwood & Petrić (2017) examine international students' and supervisors' experiences of the thesis supervision process in the United Kingdom, and reveals a diverse range of supervisory approaches, practices and attitudes, not only across but also within departments (Harwood & Petrić, 2017).

International students are perceived as an important part of 'the economic and cultural life' of New Zealand (Kidman et al., 2017, p. 1208) and their needs, expectations and sense of belonging in the university environment can strongly influence their learning. The study reveals international students established informal collective doctoral groups in which Māori and Pacific Islander staff members participated. These gatherings facilitated open discussions about their experiences, challenges and academic issues (Kidman et al., 2017).

In intercultural supervision, cultural assumptions about the pedagogy of supervision might differ between a student and a supervisor (Manathunga, 2007). In such cases, the position each of the main actors takes and their view on how supervision works likely will be interpreted accordingly. For example, a student might feel overwhelmed during supervision not because the supervisor is in a position of authority, but because of their own expectations. Students' and

supervisors' attitudes and behaviours are not solely shaped by their cultural background; their personality, preferences, experiences and intellectual histories are similarly present during supervision (Manathunga, 2011).

Manathunga (2014) shows how intercultural supervision is perceived as either a productive or a problematic approach. Her work on post-colonial theory and intercultural supervision (2007, 2011, 2014) is based on Pratt's (1992, 2008) postcolonial concept of the *contact zone*, which is 'the social spaces where disparate cultures meet, clash and grapple with each other, often in highly asymmetrical relations of domination and subordination' (Pratt, 2008, p. 7). The research identifies two pedagogies related to intercultural supervision: *assimilation* and *transculturation* (Manathunga, 2007, 2011, 2014).

Assimilation is 'a unidimensional, one-way process by which outsiders relinquished their own culture in favour of that of the dominant society' (Abercrombie, Hill, & Turner, 1984, p.18 as cited in Manathunga, 2014, p. 84). In the context of intercultural supervision, assimilation occurs when a person arrives in a different research environment and dismisses their own cultural and knowledge-making practices in an attempt to meet expectations and become part of the dominant group (Manathunga, 2014). Assimilationist practices in supervision include the supervisor holding deficit or negative views about place and culture, failing to build upon students' prior knowledge and experience, devaluing personal experiences and challenges, focusing on the lack of language skills and providing destructive feedback, all which have a negative impact on students' confidence (Manathunga, 2014).

On the other hand, transculturation is used to describe a situation in which:

*[S]ubordinated or marginal groups select and invent from materials transmitted to them by a dominant . . . culture. While subjugated peoples cannot readily control what emanates from the dominant culture, they do determine to varying extends what they absorb into their own and what they use it for. (Pratt, 1992, p. 6)*

Transculturation may occur during intercultural supervision when the supervisor constructs upon, focuses upon and uses their students' previous experiences and prior cultural knowledge. Transculturation approaches include creating support networks, providing structured supervision and respecting each other's communication styles and patterns. Supervisors who adopt transcultural supervision pedagogy will offer structured assistance with the literature review and other research tasks, provide constructive oral and written feedback, encourage their students to use recorders in meetings and assist them in developing their own voice (Manathunga, 2014, p.177).



Manathunga (2014) identifies moments of *unhomeliness* that occur when culturally diverse students must adapt to the ‘Western’ educational system. Bhabha (2004) describes unhomeliness as:

*The estranging sense of the relocation of home and the world—the unhomeliness—that is the condition of extra-territorial and cross-cultural initiations* (p. 13).

Unhomeliness can be defined as ‘the cultural alienation, sense of uncertainty and discomfort that people experience as they adjust to new cultural practices’ (Manathunga, 2007, p. 98). Students speak of moments of unhomeliness during supervision, in the university environment, and in their everyday life in general. These moments arise when using a new language, adjusting to different cultural norms of communication, dealing with feedback, trying to fit into the academic community and research culture of the institution, and encountering research practices differ from their previous experience (Manathunga, 2014). Furthermore, supervisors experience moments of unhomeliness as well. For example, they might experience unhomeliness when a student agreed to do something but did not, or when their workload was increased because of their reputation as compassionate supervisor (Manathunga, 2014).

Significantly, Manathunga (2014) notes only a few differences between the field of study and the approach to supervision. Across the fields of study, supervisors used both transcultural and assimilative approaches. Furthermore, regardless of the field of study, both the students and the supervisors experienced moments of unhomeliness. Crucially, Manathunga (2014) finds that even if a supervisor has researched topics such as culture and language, this does not necessarily mean they will adopt transcultural approaches to supervision or understand how their practices influence their students’ development of transcultural knowledge.

Manathunga’s earlier study (2007) concludes that effective intercultural supervision includes students’ and supervisors’ cultural exchange, where the supervisors reflect on their practices and focus on increasing their knowledge and understanding of the supervisees’ cultural practices, educational systems and approaches to learning (pp. 111–112). Furthermore, Manathunga (2007) recommends the supervisor facilitate opportunities for students to combine and/or compare their cultural knowledge with other ways of thinking, to support and provide scaffolding opportunities for their students in an attempt to develop their independence as emerging researchers, and to view ‘cultural difference as a dynamic for the mutual growth of both students and supervisors’ (p. 112).

# 4 Research aims and methods

## 4.1 Research aims and questions

The purpose of this dissertation is to deepen our understanding of the master's thesis supervision process and student-supervisor relationship. The empirical aims of this study are to explore and explain students' and supervisors' experiences and expectations of the master's thesis process in English-medium IMDPs in Finnish higher education. In doing so the work will identify similarities and differences in students' expectations and academic self-efficacy and discern supervisors' pedagogical approaches and variations during their supervision of culturally diverse students. Drawing from prior empirical studies, this doctoral study intends to provide in-depth insights into current supervisory approaches across a range of fields and a basis for further examination of the supervisors' pedagogical variations in intercultural supervision. One practical aim of this study is to promote supervisors' professional development by identifying and sharing practices that support intercultural supervision.

The aims of this dissertation are approached through the following research questions:

1. What do students expect from, and experience during, the supervision process and relationship?
  - 1.1. How do students perceive their roles and responsibilities in thesis supervision? How do students' views differ according to their field of education and cultural background?
  - 1.2. How do students' academic self-efficacy in social and course performance tasks vary?
  - 1.3. What aspects do students consider important for master's thesis supervision?
2. What do supervisors expect from, and experience during, the supervision process and relationship?
  - 2.1. How do supervisors perceive their roles and responsibilities in thesis supervision?

- 2.2. Which models of supervision do supervisors exercise during the thesis supervision process?
- 2.3. Which aspects of master's thesis supervision do supervisors consider most important?
- 2.4. Do supervisors share certain attitudes regarding the creation of a supportive and responsive environment?
- 2.5. Do supervisors consider their students' prior knowledge and writing experiences during the thesis process? If so, why?

## 4.2 Methodological considerations

After considering the literature review and research gap it revealed, four sub-studies for this doctoral project were developed. From the beginning, it was vital to investigate the perspectives of both students and supervisors. For Studies I and II, mixed methods and quantitative methods are used, while qualitative methods are employed in Studies III and Study IV. The mixed methods approach was chosen to gain a more complete understanding of the topic and open doors 'to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions' (Creswell, 2014, p. 11). Moreover, the different methods and types of data used, alongside the investigation of thesis supervision from both the students' and supervisors' perspectives, lends itself to the concept of triangulation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Flick, 2018).

In an attempt to collect as many reports of students' attitudes and experiences, for Studies I and II an online questionnaire was created, combining a survey and open-ended questions (Creswell, 2014). Study I outlines the variety of students' expectations while Study II highlights the need for social support, which can increase students' self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). The question of 'what' is considered when analysing roles; for example, what roles teachers' adopt as the students' research work proceeds. After analysing their responses and comparing them to a number of variables, the lack of discussions on students' cultural background and comparisons between their prior studying experiences and the Finnish context became obvious. Hence, the results of Studies I and II shaped the focus of Studies III and IV.

The supervisors' pedagogical approaches, experiences and reflections are investigated through semi-structured interviews in Studies III and IV. By extending the analysis to include models of supervision, the underlying principles of supervision are explored; this answers the 'how' by revealing how supervisors supervise and how those practices embody certain features common to the models suggested by Dysthe (2002). Study IV builds upon Grant's view (2005) that supervision is above all an interpersonal relationship and Manathunga's (2007) conclusion that 'effective intercultural supervision occurs when the supervisor recognizes the student's cultural perspectives' by investigating the effort supervisors

put into their relationships with students and whether they experience cultural growth and change when doing so.

This dissertation follows a constructivist approach; understanding and explaining students' and supervisors' perceptions, expectations and experiences of the thesis process and relationship. Constructivism shares the:

*the view that all knowledge...is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings...and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context* (Crotty, 2003, p. 42 as cited in Barnes & Austin, 2009, p. 302).

Despite using the survey as a tool which is not typical in the constructivism paradigm the data analysis, interpretation and the overall purpose of Study I and II are in line with the foundations of constructivism. These studies do not aim for statistical generalisability but on expanding our understanding of the students' expectations and experiences. The exploratory nature of Study III was approached from a constructivist epistemological perspective similar to Barnes and Austin (2009) where supervisors' understanding of their roles was in focus. Moreover, a combination of *how* and *why* (concerned with supervision narratives), and *what* questions (concerned with supervision structures) were analysed in Study IV (Silverman, 2014).

The following sections divide the studies into two groups—Studies I and II, and Studies III and IV—and describe the methods, participants, instruments, procedures, data collection and analysis for each. The chapter concludes with the research ethics statement. **Table 2** provides an overview of the dissertation research topics by presenting the studies, participants, type of data collected and data analysis used for each.

**Table 2.** Articles, participants, methods of data collection and analysis.

Study	Article	Publication Status	Participants	Data collection	Data analysis
I	Students' views on thesis supervision in international master's degree programs in Finnish universities	<i>Intercultural Education</i> , 2017	Students (n = 302)	Online questionnaire (Survey, open-ended questions)	Quantitative analysis (descriptive statistics, chi-square, Cronbach's alpha, t-test, one-way ANOVA, post-hoc tests), and content analysis
II	Students' academic self-efficacy in international master's degree programmes in Finnish universities	<i>International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education</i> , 2019	Students (n = 493)	Online questionnaire (Survey)	Quantitative analysis (descriptive statistics, principal component analysis, chi-square, Cronbach's alpha, t-test, one-way ANOVA, post-hoc tests, eta square)
III	Supervising Master's Theses in International Master's Degree Programmes: Roles, Responsibilities and Models	<i>Teaching in Higher Education</i> , 2019	Thesis supervisors (n = 20)	Semi-structured interviews	Content analysis (deductive and theory driven analysis)
IV	Identifying Thesis Supervisors' Attitudes: Indications of Responsiveness in International Master's Degree Programmes	<i>Innovations in Education and Teaching International</i> , 2019	Thesis supervisors (n = 20)	Semi-structured interviews	Content analysis

## 4.3 Methods of Study I and II

### 4.3.1 Selection of universities and participants

In 2012, my supervisors, Adjunct Professor Johanna Kallo and Professor Mirjamaija Mikkilä-Erdmann, began a research project called ‘Developing the International Master’s Degree Programmes’. As a master’s student, I participated as a research assistant, contributing to the development of the questionnaire and the selection of instruments to be included in the questionnaire. I was responsible for creating the online Webropol tool, conducting the pilot studies and contacting universities and key people to ask that the questionnaire be distributed. Moreover, I was the contact person for answering any enquiries.

For the online survey, I searched the websites of each university in Finland to determine their number of IMDPs and the fields of study they included. I then contacted the IMDP coordinator at six universities. These universities were selected due to their location, the size of the geographical area they covered and the fact they offered IMDPs. Only one university declined to participate, due to a similar research project they were conducting. Hence, data was gathered from IMDP students in five universities.

### 4.3.2 Instrument selection and design

A survey design involving quantitative data and open-ended questions deemed suitable to obtain information regarding students’ background, expectations and experiences of the thesis process (Creswell, 2014). A survey was chosen due to its convenience and efficiency; it provides descriptive information and data which can be examined statistically (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007) and allows researchers the ability to analyse students’ academic self-efficacy and their expectations of supervision (Cohen et al., 2007; Neuman, 2012). As Cohen and colleagues (2007) explain:

*[S]urveys gather data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions, or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared, or determining the relationships that exist between specific events (p. 205).*

The online questionnaire consisted of five parts (see Appendix A). Part A asked for students’ demographic information: gender, nationality, educational qualifications, field of study, year of enrolment, mode of attendance (full or part time) and number

of years in Finland. Part B required participants to respond to statements regarding their learning strategies and satisfaction with their programme. Part C related to academic self-efficacy and Part D inquired about thesis seminars and students' expectations of thesis supervision, and was comprised of three open-ended questions regarding students' views on important aspects of thesis supervision, their future study and work goals and suggestions for improving IMDPs. For this doctoral thesis, Part A, Part C, Part D and the open-ended question about the important aspects of thesis supervision, were selected. More specifically, Parts A and D were used for Study I, and Parts A and C were used for Study II. It should be noted that where necessary, statements were paraphrased to fit the university environment.

Study I was based on Part D, which included 22 statements. Seven were developed in cooperation with my supervisors, three were adapted from Nilsson and Dodds' (2006) International Student Supervision Scale and the remainder from Brown and Atkins' (1988) Role Perception Rating Scale. Although my 2017 article attributes the statements used in Part D to McGinty et al. (2010), in 2018 I realised the article did not properly cite to Brown and Atkins (1988, p.146–147), who had originally created the scale. We adapted the College Self-Efficacy Inventory (CSEI), developed by Solberg, O'Brien, Villarreal, Kennel and Davis (1993), for Study II.

### 4.3.3 Procedure and data collection

After piloting the survey, two participants provided feedback regarding the design, length and content of the survey. After updating the survey based on their feedback, the programme coordinators were contacted regarding participation via email, in which a cover letter inviting students' participation and a link to the online questionnaire was enclosed (see Appendix B). The coordinators disseminated the online questionnaire to their students. To establish a clear idea of the study's population the coordinators were asked to share the number of IMDP students at their universities. The survey was shared with students in various fields and at different stages of study to increase the number of participants and depth of analysis. The data was collected in two phases, during the 2013 spring and autumn semesters.

### 4.3.4 Participants

Students enrolled in IMDPs in 2011, 2012 and 2013 participated in Studies I and II. The Study I population was comprised of 1280 students from four universities; the response rate was 23.6% ( $n = 302$ ). Study II had an estimated population of 2915 students from five universities and a response rate of 17% ( $n = 493$ ). **Table 3** provides descriptive information about the participants from both studies.

**Table 3.** Participants’ descriptive information.

Characteristics		Study I	Study II
<b>Population</b>		1280	~2915
<b>Respondents and response rate</b>		302 (23.6%)	493 (17%)
<b>Gender</b>	Female	154 (51%)	248 (50.3%)
	Male	148 (49%)	245 (49.7 %)
<b>Age</b>	Youngest	21	21
	Oldest	56	56
	Average	27.66	27.29
<b>Educational background</b>	Bachelor’s degree	129 (42.7%)	42.8%
	Master’s degree	159 (52.6%)	54%
	PhD	2 (0.7%)	0.4%
	Other/Specialist	10 (3.4%)	2.8%
<b>Number of nationalities represented</b>		63	76
<b>Participants by nationality</b>	Finnish	45 (15.6%)	89 (18.1%)
	Russian	22 (7.6%)	32 (6.5%)
	Pakistani	20 (6.9%)	31 (6.3%)
	Chinese	18 (6.3%)	46 (9.3%)
	Indian	-	32 (6.5%)
<b>Field of study</b>	Business	1 (0.4%)	56 (11.3%)
	Humanities	59 (19.5%)	58 (11.7%)
	IT	79 (26.2%)	87 (17.7%)
	Natural sciences	61 (19.9%)	60 (12.2%)
	Social sciences	46 (15.2%)	45 (9.2%)
	Technical sciences	56 (18.8%)	187 (38%)

### 4.3.5 Data analysis

For Studies I and II, statistical analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics Version 20. **Table 4** shows the statistical analyses used in each study and their purpose. First the participants’ demographic information was explored using descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean, standard deviation and correlation. Categorical variables were created to analyse the variables of gender (male/female), type of attendance (full-time/part-time) and previous educational diplomas (BA/MA). Second, the chi-squared goodness-of-fit test was implemented to



determine whether there was strong evidence of relationships between the statements and the variables. Third, the reliability of the quantitative data was confirmed using Cronbach's alpha. Study I and II both had a high level of internal consistency ( $\alpha = 0.89$ ), in addition, the subscales of Study II course self-efficacy ( $\alpha = 0.82$ ) and social self-efficacy ( $\alpha = 0.85$ ) both had strong internal consistency levels.

Fourth, in both studies an independent sample t-test was used to compare students' expectations and academic self-efficacy, and to determine whether there were significant differences based on gender, attendance type or previous educational degree. Results at a significance level of  $p \leq .05$  (confidence interval of 95%) were interpreted. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine significant differences between the means of the expectations statements and academic self-efficacy, with the students grouped according to their nationality and field of study. The programmes were categorized into one of the fields of study according to their IMDP department and/or their faculty. Post-hoc tests were performed depending on whether the data met the assumption of homogeneity of variances. When it did so, Tukey's test was conducted; when it did not, Duncan's test was used. Post-hoc tests were run to confirm where differences between groups occurred. For Study II, eta-square was also calculated to indicate the variable's effect, then the examination of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy suggested the sample was factorable (KMO = 0.85) and a principal component analysis was conducted. The two components together explained 38.74% of the variance, indicating the division between social and course self-efficacy items is statistically supported.

For the open-ended question in Study I, 'In your opinion, what are the features of successful thesis supervision and guidance?' many features were frequently repeated when performing a conventional qualitative content analysis; in such cases, a quantitative content analysis was conducted. The features were counted, summed and converted to a percentage.

**Table 4.** Statistical analyses and their purpose for Study I and Study II.

<b>Statistical analysis</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Purpose</b>
<b>Principal component analysis</b>	II	Explore academic self-efficacy statements sub-scale division
<b>Descriptive statistics</b>	I, II	Describe the participants information
<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>	I, II	For reliability of measures
<b>Chi-square test</b>	I, II	Examine the association between the statements and gender, attendance type and previous education
<b>Independent sample t-test</b>	I, II	Explore differences in expectations and self-beliefs by gender, attendance type and previous education
<b>One-way ANOVA</b>	I, II	Explore differences in expectations and self-beliefs by field of study, and nationality
<b>Post-hoc tests</b>	I, II	Examine the differences between the specific groups
<b>Eta-square</b>	II	Explore the variable's effect

## 4.4 Methods of Studies III and IV

### 4.4.1 Selection of universities and participants

For the interviews, data was gathered from twenty thesis supervisors in five universities during spring 2016. The participants were supervisors from the same IMDPs whose students participated in Study I and II. The main selection criterion for the thesis supervisors was that they currently supervise theses in an IMDP.

### 4.4.2 Instrument selection and design

As qualitative data is ‘a source of well-grounded, rich descriptions and explanations of human processes’ (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014, p. 43 as cited in Koro-Ljungberg, MacLure, Ulmer, 2018, p. 484), semi-structured interviews were chosen to examine the supervisors’ point of view. These provide flexibility to both the interviewee and the interviewer, allowing them to navigate the interview toward what they perceive to be important and what the interviewer wishes to focus on according to the research project (Brinkmann, 2018). Brinkmann and Kvale (2015) define semi-structured qualitative research as ‘an interview with the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewee in order to interpret the meaning of the described phenomena’ (p. 6)

The semi-structured interviews were thematic and divided into five sections: (1) introduction and background information, (2) thesis supervision in IMDPs, (3)

teaching in IMDPs, (4) intercultural supervision and discussions on culture and (5) concluding remarks (see Appendix C). No questions were provided to the interviewees in advance. The participants were informed about the purpose of the study and ethical issues in the introduction. For the data collection to be meaningful, the supervisors were asked to provide a detailed description of the supervision process they follow, the students and supervisors roles and responsibilities, discussions with the students and thesis seminars. They then evaluated themselves as supervisors. The students' responses from Study I regarding cultural discussions led supervisors to be questioned about discussions on culture, international students' studying and living experience in Finland and their own experiences in intercultural thesis supervision, as well as the challenges that accompany it. Finally, the supervisors were asked to recommend ways in which IMDPs could be improved in future. Two pilot studies were conducted prior to the interviews to improve reliability (Neuman, 2012), which resulted in feedback regarding the interview questions and the interviewer's skills.

#### 4.4.3 Procedure and data collection

Qualitative data was collected through semi-structured interviews; purposeful and snowball sampling were used to contact the IMDP thesis supervisors (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002). The process began with a list of IMDPs created from the programmes participants mentioned in the online survey. A list of possible supervisors to be interviewed was formulated based on information from the IMDP websites. If the supervisors' emails were available on the website, they were directly contacted (see Appendix D). If any related information was not available, snowball sampling was used (Neuman, 2012), asking the coordinators to share the thesis supervisors' contact information if possible. Then an email invitation was sent informing them about the research and inviting them to participate in an interview. If they agreed, they were asked to suggest a time and meeting location.

Twenty semi-structured interviews were conducted: 14 face-to-face and 6 through Skype. All interviews were conducted in English. Each was audio-recorded digitally. The average duration of the interviews was 1 hour; the shortest was 35 minutes and the longest 70 minutes. The data was collected during the 2016 spring semester. This time of year was chosen as most IMDPs had begun their thesis process and the supervisors' experiences would be fresh in their minds.

#### 4.4.4 Participants

The supervisors had varied work backgrounds, supervisory training and international experience, and held various positions in their departments. They also

had diverse supervision histories, ranging from having begun just that year to having supervised more than 50 master’s theses. **Table 5** summarises the participants’ characteristics.

**Table 5.** Interviewees characteristics.

Characteristics		Study III and STUDY IV	Total
<b>Gender</b>	Female	8	20
	Male	12	
<b>Field of study</b>	Business	5	
	Humanities	3	
	IT	3	
	Natural sciences	2	
	Social sciences	5	
	Technical sciences	2	
<b>Number of theses supervised</b>	0–15	5	
	16–50	7	
	More than 50	8	
<b>Supervision training</b>	Yes	8	
	No	12	
<b>Nationality</b>	Finnish	16	
	non-Finnish	4	

#### 4.4.5 Data analysis

The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed immediately after each interview. The data was organised using NVivo 10. The analysis of the interview data began with a close reading of the transcripts, during which notes were taken. Then the transcripts were read once more, underlining phrases and noting ideas for themes. In the next step, similarities and differences in the supervisors’ descriptions were noted. The evident commonalities of practices and expectations between the supervisors were put in focus. The data was coded by organising the material into specific topics.

In Study III, the supervisors’ perceptions of the supervisory process, roles and responsibilities were analysed using a deductive approach. The data was then compared with the roles described by Brown and Atkins (1988) and the sub-categories were created based on the supervisors’ common roles and responsibilities

(Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). The supervisors' roles suggested by Brown and Atkins (1988) were subsequently used to identify if, when, and in which cases the IMDPs supervisors' roles corresponded, and if any roles not mentioned by Brown and Atkins were present.

Theory-driven content analysis was applied to Study III's next research question. Each participant was categorised into one of the three supervisory models developed by Dysthe (2002) based on the description of how they supervise and the expectations they have of the process and their students. A quantitative content analysis similar to that used in Study I was conducted in Study III to count the features' frequency and importance. The transcriptions from Study III were used in Study IV and Miles and Huberman's (1984) steps of qualitative data analysis, data reduction, data display and conclusion-drawing/verification were followed.

## 4.5 Validity and reliability

Certain challenges cannot be completely erased when discussing validity and reliability; but it can only reduce their effects as much as possible (Cohen et al., 2007). To improve reliability, the questionnaire and interviews were piloted and considered the participants' feedback when revising (Neuman, 2012). In an attempt to establish reliability in Study I, a reliability check was conducted by another researcher who checked the classification of the responses to the open-ended question. The reliability checker received 25% of the qualitative data, which was selected using systematic random sampling (selecting every five answers). The agreement proportion was 77% and disagreements were resolved through discussion. The coordinators from Study I have received adequate information on the study results and at the end of this doctoral project the supervisors will receive feedback. To establish reliability in Study IV, another researcher checked the classification of the responses of ten participants regarding the two questions in focus. The inter-rater reliability was 86.7%, and disagreements were resolved through discussion.

In order to increase legitimation of the analysis and provide credibility and validity to the findings in Study III, a number of strategies based on Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007) and Creswell (2014) were followed. One of them was the collection of rich and thick data, with long and detailed descriptions to help readers apply and transfer the study information to other contexts. Another strategy was the use of peer debriefers, discussing parts of the process such as the interview questions, the analyses and the reporting of the results (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2014; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). Throughout this journey, peer reading, discussions about the Studies' manuscripts and feedback from presentations at conferences and

doctoral seminars were valuable to the research process and the project's overall credibility.

Reflecting on the response rates in Studies I and II might have occurred due to the students' busy schedules, the time needed to complete the questionnaire (approximately 15–20 minutes) and the frequent survey requests sent to students by researchers. As the coordinators were responsible for disseminating the link to the online questionnaire, the number of emails sent, received, opened or marked as spam, or even how many email addresses were valid and in use, is uncertain. Consequently, the population and response rate are considered to be estimations (Filippou, 2019). As suggested by Cohen and colleagues (2007), a follow-up reminder was sent by email to the coordinators in an attempt to increase the number of participants. Previously it has been noticed that online surveys have lower responses in higher education context than in-class surveys (Dommeyer, Baum, Hanna & Chapman, 2004). Furthermore, while Nulty (2008) argues paper surveys usually have higher response rates than those conducted online, an online survey was chosen due to cost, distribution convenience, the length of the questionnaire and the ease of management of the online data registry. The number of interviews, 20 participants, was deemed as a feasible goal. The process of contacting the supervisors proved challenging due to a lack of up-to-date information, while few did not respond to emails or answered but were not interested in participating, indicating that finding more interviewees would have been difficult.

In Studies I and II, when grouping participants according to nationality, the largest groups were selected not only because the sample numbers were enough to conduct the statistical analysis but also because the most common nationalities of international degree students in Finland include these groups (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2017a). The samples of Studies I and II are representative of student demographics because they correspond to the overall percentage of international students registered in Finnish universities (Filippou et al., 2017; Filippou, 2019). **Table 6** presents the percentages of international students registered in all Finnish universities in 2017 by continent alongside the percentages of those who responded to Studies I and II (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2018c).

**Table 6.** Percentage of international students in Finland by continent.

Continent	Finnish National Agency for Education %	Study I Respondents %	Study II Respondents %
Africa	9.2	10.4	7.3
Asia	46.2	43.7	45.1
Australia and Oceania	0.5	0.0	0.4
Europe	36.4	38.9	38.4
North America	3.7	2.8	3.8
Latin America and the Caribbean	3.8	4.2	4.8

Considering validity and be reflective, being honest and open about the entire project was important throughout the research process (Creswell, 2014). Therefore, the name, position, university and contact information were available to all participants. It was also important to consider possible bias and the use of stereotypes throughout this dissertation. My position as a female international doctoral student and IMDP graduate rarely influenced the supervisors' position during the interviews. Most participants commented on the usefulness of the interview, as it provided them time to reflect on their practices and experiences. Therefore, the interviews were conducted in a safe and comfortable environment. Finally, although this study explicitly examines IMDPs in Finland, due to the intercultural perspective it is likely many of the results can be transferred for use in studies on other non-English speaking countries, on intercultural supervision and within English-medium programmes (Urbanovič, Wilkins, & Huisman, 2016).

## 4.6 Research ethics

As advised by the National Advisory Board on Research Ethics (2009), the participation of all participants was voluntary. For the online questionnaire, the invitation presented the coordinators and students with information about the research topic, the data collection method, the estimated time required, the purpose for which the data would be collected, how it would be archived and my contact details. For the interviews, the research ethics were outlined to the supervisors through the online invitation, which also included my contact information, the research topic, the data collection method, the estimated time required, the purpose for which the data will be collected, how it would be archived and kept confidential, and emphasised the voluntary nature of participation.

In the first email communication, the supervisors were asked to suggest an interview location to ensure it would be convenient to them and they would be comfortable in a familiar environment. The interviewees were not my supervisors, any of my colleagues or any person whose course I had attended; I had not been in contact with any of the supervisors before this project began. At the beginning of each interview, the participants were informed about the study purpose, how the interview would be conducted, that their information would be kept anonymous and confidential and that their participation was voluntary. They were also informed that they could ask for clarification at any time, and they had the right to request a break or end the interview without providing a reason. In addition, the supervisors' oral consent was asked. Finally, a permission to record the interview was requested. At the end of the interview, the supervisors were asked if they wished to volunteer their answers to the same set of questions asked of the students regarding thesis supervision expectations. My contact details were available to all participants, allowing them to contact me if they wished to receive further clarification or information about the research. Moreover, the transcribed data has been kept and archived in my computer and I am the only one who has access to it.

To secure anonymity, participants in Studies I and III are referred by letters and numbers. In Study I, the students were assigned a random number and referred to as 'R 1', R 2' and so forth, with the 'R' indicating 'Respondent'. In Study III, the supervisors are referred to by non-personalised abbreviated numbers, beginning with SV01. In Study IV, the participants are given pseudonyms in alphabetical order and with a gender indication. To enhance anonymity, the IMDPs are not mentioned; the study refers only to their general field of study such as social sciences or humanities.

Considering the terminology of this dissertation the term 'international students' is used since it refers to students who reside in Finland for long-term study (as opposed to exchange students, who stay for a short time), regardless of whether their country is part of the EU/EEA. Like every student, an international student is a 'reflexive and self-determining person, guided by agency freedom' (Marginson, 2014, p. 11). Adopting the position of Marginson and Sawir (2011), international students are seen as self-determining 'strong human agents' (p. 10), despite numerous studies presenting them as 'learning and cultural deficit' (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p.10). In line with Benzie (2010), who suggests that when the presence of international students is linked with a lowering of academic standards, it should be perceived as a form of 'othering' that leads to stereotypes. Because this study does not examine the participants' residence status or reasons for moving to Finland beyond their education, the terms 'migrants' or 'immigrants' are not used.

A number of studies and policy documents refer to students as 'foreign'. For instance, Välimaa and colleagues (2013,) report the word 'foreigner' 'is a popular term in Finland' and participants use it to distinguish Finnish and non-Finnish



students and teachers (p. 15). While they recognise the term is problematic and ‘can easily be used as a category of exclusion’ (p. 16), they state this is not their intention; rather, they choose to use the terms ‘foreigner’ and ‘international student’. The latter is meant to refer ‘to a person who has lived in more than one culture or society’ (Välilmaa et al. 2013 p. 16). The OECD (2018) defines ‘foreign students’ as ‘students who do not have the citizenship of the country in which they studied’ (p. 212). This term is not used in this dissertation as it can carry negative connotations and can be used as a term of exclusion and ‘othering’. However, in cases when an author uses the phrase, it was kept in quotation marks to maintain the writer’s position and voice.

In this dissertation, the students are occasionally referred to by their nationality, even though significant differences exist within cultural groups and between individuals. The variable of nationality was chosen in an attempt to group students who experienced similar educational environments prior to their arrival in Finland. Studies indicate a relationship between students’ cultural background and their learning styles, strategies, orientations and preferences; their conceptions of learning and pedagogy; their assessment feedback preferences; and their expectations of the thesis process and relationship (Charlesworth, 2008, Evans & Waring, 2011; Lum, 2006; Marambe, Vermunt, & Boshuizen, 2012; McClure, 2005; McGinty et al., 2010; Wu, 2002). Thus, students’ educational experiences often shape their perceptions, expectations and study approaches in a new environment and in the supervision context. Like Harrison (2015), this dissertation views culture from a constructivist approach, where cultural fluidity, hybridity and possessing multiple cultural identities are recognised.

## 5 Summary of the main results

This doctoral thesis includes four articles that examine and deepen our understanding of intercultural supervision by investigating students' and supervisors' experiences and expectations of supervision. This chapter provides a summary of each article's main results. The main findings of the four studies indicate that students and supervisors may have mismatched views and expectations of the interpersonal relationship in supervision. Students' expectations of the supervisors' responsibilities and their academic self-beliefs can differ between student groups. Moreover, many supervisors face a 'balance struggle' during supervision and they tend to apply the teaching model in supervision. In addition, heterogeneity within academic fields regarding the supervision model was also noticed. Two main attitudes were identified regarding supervisors' responsiveness during supervision diagnosing and adjusting supervision, and resisting and relying on students' initiatives. These results will be discussed further in Chapter 6 as well as be compared with previous literature results.

### 5.1 Study I

The primary aim of this study was to examine students' expectations of the roles and responsibilities of the parties in the supervisory relationship, and the features they consider essential during supervision. The study also sought to compare students' views according to their cultural background and field of study. Therefore, this article's research questions were: (1) What are students' views on the roles and responsibilities of the supervisor and student during thesis supervision? (2) What differences and similarities on students' views can be identified according to their field of education and cultural background? (3) What aspects do students consider important for master's thesis supervision?

The results of Study I indicate very few students and supervisors have discussions regarding students' cultural background, cultural differences between Finland and the students' countries of origin and aspects of Finnish society the students did not understand. The students' responses relating to their supervisors'

responsibilities reveal asymmetric views regarding the division of responsibilities between themselves and their supervisors. Statistically, the study shows only three different expectations amongst students from various fields; they concern the supervisors' role in selecting the topic and the theoretical framework. Students in IT and the technical and natural sciences are more amenable to having the supervisor choose a thesis topic compared to students from the humanities and social sciences.

Regardless of their cultural background, the students generally share similar views of their own responsibilities, but not of their supervisors'. Fewer Finnish students believe it is the supervisor's responsibility to initiate frequent meetings, select a promising master's thesis topic or direct students in selecting their topic than students from Pakistan, who feel these responsibilities lay with the supervisor. Furthermore, Finnish students do not think the supervisor should decide the appropriate theoretical framework or know at all times the problems the student was working on. Students from Pakistan, China and Russia expect their supervisor to assume a larger share of these responsibilities. Moreover, students from China have a higher expectation of receiving feedback from their peers compared to the other groups. The students identify frequent communication, regular meetings, an interesting topic and emotional support from the supervisor as the important aspects of supervision. As seen in the responses to the open-ended question, students highly value the interpersonal aspects of supervision.

## 5.2 Study II

Based on empirical studies and considering international students' wellbeing and practical challenges in a new educational environment, the research questions for this article were: (1) What are the differences in students' academic self-efficacy according to their field of study? (2) What are the differences in students' academic self-efficacy according to their nationality? The overall results of Study II reveal students have high self-efficacy in talking with the academic staff and understanding course literature. However, the students have lower self-efficacy in using different research methods, managing time effectively and joining a student organisation. The most statistically significant differences are noted between students' groups according to their field of study. The students' field of study has a medium influence on their self-efficacy and appears linked with professors and staff discussions. More specifically, humanities students' overall social self-efficacy is statistically significant and higher than that of IT and business students. The students in the IT field seem to have less self-efficacy in non-practical and communicative tasks, while they feel more capable of using various research methods.

The results reveal no statistically significant differences between students from Finland, Russia, India, Pakistan and China related to their overall course and social self-efficacy. However, the one-way ANOVA tests demonstrate Finnish students have higher self-efficacy in talking to university staff and completing assignments involving writing compared to the other groups of students. Students from China have lower self-efficacy compared to the other groups in writing papers, succeeding in exams and understanding course literature. Recent studies indicate Chinese students studying abroad find these tasks challenging (Brunton & Jeffrey, 2014; Vinther & Slethaug, 2015).

Recommendations for improving students' self-efficacy illustrate the need for more organised social events and activities that promote academic interaction between the students and teaching staff in the IMDPs as well as between local and international students. The respondents also suggested knowing students' profiles, understanding their beliefs regarding academic tasks and providing them with positive feedback and encouragement.

### 5.3 Study III

The aim of this study was to explore how master's thesis supervisors perceive their role, the student-supervisor relationship, the process of supervision and supervision models used in the IMDP context. The specific goal was to provide insight into the supervisors' perspective as a response to Study I, deepening our understanding of the field of supervisory pedagogy and the underlying principles of supervision in master's level education. To examine how supervisors perceive their supervisory practices, this study addresses the following research questions: (1) What are supervisors' views on the supervisory process during master's thesis supervision? (2) What models of supervision do the supervisors implement during the thesis supervision process? (3) What aspects of master's thesis supervision do supervisors consider most important?

The interview data shows most of the roles the participants refer to align with Brown and Atkins' (1988) roles. The roles of manager, supporter and critic are especially evident during the supervisory process. However, a variation regarding the roles of teacher and friend is evident. The findings indicate the supervisors' supervision process and relationship closely resemble Dysthe's teaching model (2002). Based on their descriptions, 15 IMDP supervisors mainly apply the teaching model, while 4 practice the partnership model and 1 uses the apprenticeship model. The supervisors linked with the teaching model represent all fields of study, while the supervisors within the partnership model are from IT, business and the technical

sciences. The only supervisor connected with the apprenticeship model works within the natural sciences.

The participants emphasise their flexibility during the process; however, the teaching model relies on the students' dependency on their supervisor, reflecting power asymmetry and monologism. Compared to the results of Study I, this study reveals mismatched views between the student and the supervisor regarding the interpersonal communication the students expect. The supervisors consider trust, topic selection, the supervisor's support and the initial stage of supervision to be most important. Moreover, in line with Dysthe (2002), the findings demonstrate that different models of supervision can be used in the same field of study. The study highlights the need to provide supervisors with opportunities to reflect on their practices and raise awareness about the various supervisory pedagogies.

## 5.4 Study IV

The aim of this study was to examine the various practices supervisors implement and how they try to foster a responsive environment for their students. Due to the variety and diversity of students' studying experiences and educational backgrounds, the study sought to concentrate on responsive pedagogies such as knowing students' expectations and considering their previous educational experiences during supervision. Therefore, this article investigates if and for which reasons thesis supervisors inquire about their students' prior thesis writing experience and expectations of the thesis process, and how they use this information in their supervision process. The research questions of this article were: (1) How responsive are IMDP supervisors to their students' prior thesis writing skills (if any)? (2) How responsive are the IMDP supervisors towards their students' expectations of the thesis process? (3) What kinds of activities do supervisors organise to create a supportive environment in the IMDPs?

The results of Study IV reveal two main attitudes regarding the supervisors' initiation of discussions regarding students' expectations and previous thesis writing experience: diagnosing and adjusting supervision, and resisting and relying on students' initiatives. Nine supervisors actively initiate discussions about their students' expectations and, they consider it a crucial step in getting to know the students so they can adjust supervision according to their needs and future aspirations, and clarify responsibilities related to supervision. On the other hand, nine supervisors rarely discuss students' expectations, because they do not perceive them as important to the thesis process or rely on students' initiative in bringing up these topics. In addition, only 5 of the 20 responded positively to inquiring about

previous thesis writing experience as a strategy for recognising students' skills that might assist them in their teaching or supervisory planning.

The responsive supervisors actively aim to create a supportive environment in their programme. The events and practices they have established or participated in include outdoor excursions, introducing students to incoming students, organising informal gatherings—especially during the first semester—and creating links with the department's student association. They adopt this supportive attitude because they want to encourage peer support or believe it is important to create a supportive community between the students and staff members. As a result of these findings, the study proposes the development of supervision competencies, more collaborative and reflective supervision practices and the organising of informal events.

## 6 Discussion and conclusion

The first section of this chapter discusses the main findings related to expectations and academic self-efficacy while comparing students' and supervisors' perspectives. The same section explains the supervision models used in the IMDPs and supervisors' attitudes regarding responsiveness. The key findings are compared with the results of previous studies. For clarity, the subheading titles reflect the key findings. The second section outlines the implications and suggestions for supervisors, IMDP coordinators and universities. The third section examines the study limitations and possibilities for future research.

### 6.1 Comparing expectations and practices in thesis supervision

#### 6.1.1 Students and supervisors may have mismatched views and expectations of the interpersonal relationship in supervision

Study I's findings demonstrate that students concentrate more on the supervisors' responsibilities than their own and highly value the interpersonal aspect of supervision. The students' responses to the survey's open-ended question reveal a tendency to concentrate on their supervisor's roles and responsibilities and diminish their own position in the master's thesis process. However, such asymmetry did not appear in Study III, indicating the supervisors are not disproportionately concerned with their students' responsibilities.

Study I found different expectations and a lack of communication between students and supervisors, which was later confirmed by the supervisors in Study IV; half the participants indicate they do not initiate discussions about students' expectations or previous writing experiences. Previous studies demonstrate diverging expectations are a significant challenge in supervision (Roberts & Seaman, 2018; Woolhouse, 2002). Therefore, at the beginning and during the supervision process it is essential to discuss and negotiate goals and expectations regarding the

procedure and the project (Filippou et al., 2017; de Kleijn et al., 2013; Wisker, 2009; Woolhouse, 2002).

The results of Study III reveal supervisors are expected to show genuine interest and project a friendly attitude toward their students. Previously, de Kleijn et al. (2012) illustrated that emotional involvement is linked to student satisfaction and learning. The supervisor is not only perceived as the director of the thesis process but also as a sounding board for the students' concerns. Regarding these interpersonal aspects of supervision, this study is in line with the findings of Anderson and colleagues (2008) and Derounian (2011) who show students highly value an accessible and available supervisor. In agreement with Johnston (1999) and Grant (2005), Study I demonstrates the students expect interpersonal communication and support. However, the comparison between the results of Study I and Study III indicates supervisors focus more on the practical aspect of supervision, highlighting the mismatched expectations of several students and supervisors regarding the interpersonal relationship in supervision.

The findings of this study align with McGinty and colleagues' (2010) assumption that mismatched views on supervision exist because students expect the supervisor to be emotionally supportive while the supervisors focus on the academic aspects of supervision. Both the students and the supervisors mention their personality could be influencing their attitudes and expectations of the thesis supervision process. This result reinforces the idea that supervision should be regarded both as a complex process and an interpersonal relationship (Barnes & Austin, 2009; Grant, 2003, 2005).

Based on Study III, it is evident supervisors recognise how their roles and responsibilities change through the different stage of supervision. The supervisors emphasise the initial stage of supervision because they recognise it as the foundation for the thesis process and the time to begin building a trusting relationship, which they highly value. This is in line with Derounian (2011), who also indicates the starting stage is critical to the thesis process. The supervisors understand the importance of communication, possessing psychological skills and maintaining an adaptive approach. This is supported by previous research which stresses that adjusting supervision according to the individual's needs is an essential strategy (Anderson et al., 2006; Barnes & Austin, 2009; Derounian, 2011; Halse & Malfroy, 2010; Kam, 1997; de Kleijn et al., 2015, 2016; McClure, 2005; Pearson & Brew, 2002; Todd et al., 2006).



### 6.1.2 Expectations of the supervisors' responsibilities and academic self-beliefs can differ between student groups

One of the key findings of Study I is that few discussions on cultural issues occurred in supervision. As Nilsson and Dodds (2006) note, cultural discussions correlate with students' satisfaction; different practices between academic institutions can be challenging for students (Harwood & Petrić, 2017; Pilcher, Smith & Riley 2013). Nonetheless, Study I indicates that regardless of their cultural background, students share similar views on their own responsibilities; however, their expectations of their supervisors' responsibilities differ. The cross-cultural comparison shows there are aspects where international students have higher expectations than local students. Both results are in line with the findings of Sidhu and colleagues (2014) and McGinty and colleagues (2010). These findings can be explained by recognising that students from Finland are already familiar with the university environment, and in certain cases may have established a relationship with their supervisors during their bachelor's degree. Furthermore, the familiarity with the socio-academic environment of the university might have contributed to the students' self-efficacy levels (Wright & Lander, 2003).

The comparisons between students according to their field of study reveal a general homogeneity of views. The differences primarily relate to the supervisors' role in selecting the topic and theoretical framework. These expectations might have resulted due to the different practices and traditions in certain fields. For example, in IT and the natural and technical sciences, it is common for students to conduct their thesis work in laboratories or work on projects with other students and their supervisor. Considering the field of study, the results in Study II suggest students' field of study has a medium influence on their self-efficacy, apparently linked with professors and staff discussions. The overall social self-efficacy the IT and business students is statistically significant and lower than that of humanities students. The students in the IT have high self-efficacy in using various research methods but feel less capable in non-practical and communicative tasks, yet. These findings imply that study support might not be relevant to every field and every student group.

### 6.1.3 Many supervisors face a 'balance struggle' during supervision

The supervisors frequently view their busy workload as a challenge, but also remark on the value of reflection during the supervision process, a finding supported by Roberts and Seaman (2018). Study III identifies a critical aspect of supervision, that of the 'balance struggle'. The term refers to the difficulty supervisors have in establishing limits in supervision, deciding how close they should be with their

students and how much effort, pressure, support and freedom they should provide. Prior literature also identifies and references this challenge (Dysthe, 2002; Guerin et al., 2015; Vehviläinen & Löfström, 2016). However, researchers consider balancing an important skill (Woolhouse, 2002) and ways to combat this struggle must be analysed and discussed further. McClure (2005) reports on the students' struggles, including communication issues, anxiety regarding the research work and perceived distance from their supervisors. This indicates the thesis process requires an emotional involvement and affects both students and supervisors; as such, attention should be paid to the wellbeing of both parties.

#### **6.1.4 Most supervisors tend to apply the teaching model in supervision, but the studies reveal heterogeneity within academic fields**

The results of Study III suggest most supervisors' supervision process and relationship closely resemble Dysthe's teaching model (2002). The 15 IMDP supervisors linked with the teaching model hail from all fields of study, the 4 connected with the partnership model are involved in IT, business and the technical sciences, and the only supervisor linked with the apprenticeship model is from the field of natural sciences. The analysis reveals that while the supervisors highlight their flexibility during the supervision process, their responses reflect the power asymmetry and monologism of Dysthe's (2002) teaching model. These findings imply a heterogeneity of pedagogical approaches in supervision and are supported by Dysthe's (2002) findings, in which different models are used in the same field of study, and the findings of Harwood and Petrić (2017), which indicate a diverse range of practices even within departments. Dysthe (2002) believes that different supervision models in the same discipline 'arise from disciplinary, institutional, and personal factors' (p. 531). The use of different models might also relate to the variety of supervisors' experiences and approaches in supervision.

Both students and supervisors agree that an important characteristic of a supervisor is their responsiveness (Derounian, 2011). In Study III, the supervisors report that their students are novice researchers who are expected to familiarise themselves with the thesis process. This is in contrast with the students' educational background information. Therefore, the teaching model's tailored procedure does not reflect the student population or meet their needs.

### 6.1.5 Two main attitudes regarding supervisors' responsiveness during supervision

The findings suggest supervisors initiate discussions on students' expectations of supervision and previous writing experiences when they wish to diagnose and adjust supervision. Meanwhile, others do not initiate these discussions and rely on students' initiative. This supportive attitude contributes to the development of peer support and a supportive community between the students and staff members. Researchers endorse such practices as a means of showing the campus' culture to the students (Leask, 2009), supporting their learning (Stier, 2003) and increasing their self-efficacy (Telbis, Helgeson, & Kingsbury, 2014).

Studies III and IV provide evidence that the supervisors' pedagogical choices and attitudes are often linked with their personality and experiences, as previously discussed by Manathunga (2011). Supervisors with a more responsive attitude toward their students' prior experiences reveal their personal interests compel them to initiate events and activities in the IMDPs. These supervisors had many years of supervision experience, represented all fields of study, and were not limited to one gender. This thesis also suggests supervisors' personality might be linked with their responsive attitude.

Looking beyond the findings to Manathunga's approach to post-colonial theory in intercultural supervision (2007, 2011, 2014), the participants' attitudes might suggest assimilation and transculturation practices. Assimilationist practices can be identified in Study IV, where the supervisors resist learning about and building upon students' prior knowledge and experiences. On the other hand, the supervisors that engage in a more collaborative approach and adopt a responsive attitude, who are interested in students' previous experiences and initiate activities that create supportive networks, reflect a transcultural supervision pedagogy.

One troubling observation this thesis reveals is that a few supervisors believe there is no difference in supervising 'local' and international students. The educational system in Finland has a strong commitment to the ideal of equality which may have shaped their thinking. However, their belief in the lack of difference undermines this ideal and the value of educational equity, as it can be linked with assimilationist practices and liberal discourse that argues supervisors should treat all students the same (Manathunga, 2014). The consideration of the students' expectations and prior experiences are vital to intercultural supervision (Wisker, 2012); therefore, the results of Study IV can be seen to indicate a lack of awareness regarding effective intercultural supervision approaches.

## 6.2 Implications and recommendations

The findings of the four studies included in this doctoral project carry theoretical and practical implications for university students, supervisors and IMDP coordinators. The purpose of this dissertation is to increase awareness of the master's thesis supervision process, identify the parties' expectations of the student-supervisor relationship and question supervisory practices implemented in the context of intercultural supervision. The findings are likely to be useful to future research on intercultural supervision, carry implications for policy and theory development and even prompt further reflection. Students and supervisors might use this doctoral study to consider their approaches, their expectations of the thesis process and their views of the student-supervisor relationship.

This work provides further evidence of the importance of focusing on an individual's needs, skills and expectations of the thesis process (Anderson et al., 2006; Barnes & Austin, 2009; Derounian, 2011; Halse & Malfroy, 2010; Kam, 1997; de Kleijn et al., 2015, 2016; McClure, 2005; Pearson & Brew, 2002; Todd et al., 2006). The responses to the open-ended questions suggest that recognising the individual's voice is vital to avoiding stereotyping while positioning the student's needs at the forefront of the relationship. This doctoral project shows supervisors possess a variety of expectations regarding the process, which they often reveal in their approaches. To better focus on a student's individual needs, the supervisors can initiate discussions on goals and expectations of the thesis process at the beginning and during supervision (Filippou et al., 2017; de Kleijn et al., 2013; Wisker, 2009; Woolhouse, 2002). The pedagogical space of thesis seminars supports peer learning; this is another arena where the participants and the supervisor can negotiate practices and expectations.

On the whole, this dissertation reveals many policies related to the supervision process that should be changed or implemented. For example, the student-supervisor allocation, IMDPs might consider matching the parties' research interests and the thesis topic rather than assigning students based on the supervisors' workload (Harwood & Petrić, 2017). In cases involving intercultural supervision, IMDPs should take into account supervisors' intercultural competences when matching students and supervisors (Wisker, Robinson, & Jones, 2011). The departments could appoint an arbitrator the student and/or supervisor could turn to (Harwood & Petrić, 2017), but they could also develop guidelines and negotiation contracts for supervisors and students to strengthen the regulatory basis for thesis supervision. The guidelines should prioritise students' learning styles, expectations, prior experiences and behaviours (Wisker et al., 2011) and highlight contentious subjects such as thesis topic selection and communication frequency; these topics can be reinforced during supervisors' training (Harwood & Petrić, 2017). However, such

guidelines should not limit inventiveness or the exploration of practices (Waghid, 2006). These guidelines might be distributed to new students and provided to novice supervisors, and could be a useful resource to the parties when negotiating supervision.

Study III, which shows supervisors often turn to the *teaching model* of supervision, highlights Clarke's (2005) finding on teachers' lack of preparation time (especially when using a 'foreign' language), which frequently leads to the use of traditional pedagogical methods. As such, universities need to provide thesis supervisors with more preparation and planning time. The results of this study and Dysthe's (2002) models indicate it is essential to initiate discussions on supervision models so that supervisors can learn the practical aspects each represents, understand the differences between them, become more aware of which model they follow and have the opportunity to evaluate and criticise their own practices. Dysthe (2002) highlights the heterogeneity within fields of study, a finding this study reinforces by illustrating the importance of having support practices for individual supervisors and for those from a common field of study. Universities do provide generalised trainings (i.e., all fields participate) related to supervision; however, the study results show a diversity of practices even within departments, indicating institutions might consider developing supervisory training for specific fields of study.

The studies' empirical data confirms supervisors lack opportunities for professional development in the context of intercultural supervision (see also Skyrme & McGee, 2016). Previous research supports the findings of this study; for example, almost all thesis supervisors stated the interviews were useful as they provided an opportunity to reflect on their role, practices and supervision overall, a result that aligns with the findings of Robson and Turner (2007). There are a number of ways to provide support for staff development and greater understanding of intercultural supervision. The supervisors' need to reflect on their role suggests departments and programmes can organise workshops and meetings between thesis supervisors to provide such opportunities, and to exchange practices regarding intercultural supervision. Supervisors can familiarise themselves with studies and theories on intercultural supervision, pedagogy and models.

The results of Study III reveal supervisors are often unable to identify their own supervision practices. According to Manathunga (2007), this suggests supervisors' supervision strategies should be monitored, and if necessary, modify their supervision styles. This will allow supervisors to reflect upon and consider cultural variations as an opportunity to learn and grow (Manathunga, 2007); those involved in intercultural supervision must understand and include students' cultural practices regarding research and knowledge construction (Wisker, 2012). At the same time, they must also consider the development of new practices while interacting with the students (Marginson & Sawir, 2011).

As Leask (2005) suggests, it is important that teachers receive opportunities to engage with their culturally diverse students and reflect on the influence their own culture and values have on their teaching practices. This doctoral study demonstrates students and supervisors do not often discuss culture and studying practices. Researchers of supervision in culturally diverse environments (Wisker, 2012) and intercultural supervision (Manathunga, 2007) highlight the need to consider these aspects. Being unfamiliar with the institutional setting, routines and terminology creates an obvious asymmetry host institutions need to consider and commit to reducing through the development of intercultural competences (Leask, 2009; Otten, 2003). To benefit from internationalisation, it is essential the academic staff have new opportunities for professional development (Leask & Carroll, 2011) and are aware of internationalised teaching practices and frameworks (Leask, 2009; Sanderson, 2011). The universities have a duty to provide developmental procedures and training for culturally unaware supervisors (Wisker, 2012).

The supervisors' transcriptions and students' open-ended responses are perceived 'as evidence of cultural norms, expectations and assumptions' (Vehviläinen & Löfström, 2016, p. 511). Interactional practices in the university context, and specifically in pedagogical supervision contexts, are embedded 'within particular languages, cultural contexts, and organizational arrangement' (Vehviläinen, 2009b, p. 189). Departments should re-examine their traditions and collegial support; insisting on individualistic teaching cultures and supervision rather than adopting collective pedagogical activities can limit staff openness to problem sharing (Vehviläinen & Löfström, 2016). For example, the supervisors' balance struggle can be a topic for discussion and workshop. In addition, cultural practices and norms in different university contexts should be examined, as identifying them is the first step to increasing awareness and respect, and to exploring other teaching and learning approaches (Wisker et al., 2011).

Considering social support is a primary source of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), Study II suggests organised events and social activities as a means of promoting communication and academic interaction between the students and teaching staff. These can also foster friendships between local and international students and provide social support (Telbis et al., 2014). Study IV reveals the supervisors have established or participated in a number of informal events. Such initiatives help build a supportive community between IMDP students, assist in peer learning, extend students' social networks and build bridges between current students and alumni especially since lack of contact with IDP alumni was earlier reported by Välimaa et al. (2013). Supervisors and coordinators should attempt to establish similar practices at their institutions.

Thesis supervision process requires attention, due to the internationalization of Finnish higher education and policy which aim to compete in education markets

globally. The marketing strategy of labeling these programmes as ‘international’, ‘intercultural’ or ‘global’ (Saarinen & Nikula, 2013) is insufficient if the overall pedagogical strategies and practices do not respond to this intercultural environment. Hence, considering students’ prior experiences as well as developing supervisors’ intercultural competences are essential.

### 6.3 Limitations and directions for future research

Certain limitations regarding the studies comprising this doctoral project must be addressed. The first methodological limitation is the number of interviewees and the choice of interviewing only supervisors which was based on the ratio of supervisors to students (for example, an IMDP of 20 students might have only 2 or 3 supervisors). As such, ensuring a sufficient number of respondents to be able to perform a quantitative data analysis would have been more challenging than conducting interviews. In addition, as it was difficult to find even 20 supervisors willing to participate—despite being flexible about the time and location, and even offering alternative interview methods such as Skype (Neuman, 2012)—the supervisors were only interviewed once.

Considering the low number of interviews within a field of study, generalisations should be done cautiously. However, generalisation was not the main aim of this research. The results provide additional support for existing models and empirical studies. Still, more interviews and further empirical evidence are needed to extend our understanding of the supervision models. More longitudinal studies could also be useful in exploring the supervisory relationship and thesis models through time. A future study might follow dyads of thesis supervisors and students from the beginning of the thesis process until the end, using methods such as interviews and reflection journals. Topics such as intercultural supervision, discussions regarding their prior experiences and their expectations of the thesis process and interpersonal relationship could also be a focus.

Like the supervisor interviews, the students’ responses were only collected once. Hence, replicating Studies I and II could develop further our understanding of thesis supervision; additional interviews could be added to collect more in-depth information regarding students’ expectations and their previous experiences. Replicating the questionnaire (after re-evaluating and possibly updating the instrument) could increase the response rate and strengthen the conclusions. In addition, further studies could include universities of applied sciences in order to compare expectations of the thesis process, students’ academic self-efficacy, supervisory models and supervisors’ initiatives between the two institutions.

The CSEI instrument developed by Solberg and colleagues (1993) is a limitation specific to Study II. As described in the study, other researchers have used the instrument and have examined its validity. However, it includes only 13 statements. On the one hand, this decreases the time needed to complete the questionnaire, but on the other, statements that are more explicit or the use of another instrument may have provided more information about students' academic self-efficacy. Another reason for using the CSEI is that, at the beginning of this doctoral process, there was a plan to develop a model connecting students' expectations of supervision, satisfaction and learning orientations (Vermunt, 1998) and their academic self-efficacy (Solberg et al., 1993). However, the analysis found no significant statistical value, indicating no connection between these variables. Therefore, the analysis continued based solely on academic self-efficacy, comparing students' background information and field of study. A combination of instruments that include academic self-efficacy alongside other emotional constructs, and even learning outcomes during students' studies, could provide more information regarding the connections between these aspects and groups of students.

Studies I and II use cultural background as a variable during their quantitative analyses. However, the students were not specifically asked where they were educated prior their arrival in Finland. Similarly, students with Finnish nationality were not asked about their familiarity with the Finnish educational environment or if they had studied abroad. Furthermore, there was no systematic data collection about the educational norms and traditions, or the supervision practices used in the countries compared in the studies. Future studies examining this information in depth could shed light on the differences between contexts. To ensure further validity of the results and empirical evidence, it would have been interesting to conduct a cross-cultural study to compare the findings of this study to students' and supervisors' expectations of the thesis process and interpersonal relationship in other university environments.

Study III shows 12 of the 20 supervisors had not received formal training on supervision (see Table 5). Nine of them were linked with the teaching model of supervision, two with the partnership model and one with the apprenticeship model. Moreover, Study IV shows attending formal supervisory training did not seem to influence the supervisors' interest in establishing events and/or participating in building a supportive community within the IMDP. However, a common characteristic that the supervisors with resistant attitudes shared was that none of them had any thesis supervision training. This suggests a connection between the supervisors' formal supervision training and their resistant attitudes; thus, this study recommends the aspects and content of formal training and models of supervision be explored further. Moreover, future studies could examine possible connections



between supervisors' personalities and their approaches in supervision as well as their responsive attitudes in a culturally diverse environment.

The findings of this dissertation highlight the need to continue conducting studies on thesis supervision at the master's degree level. The literature review supports this recommendation, as relying on many doctoral studies was necessary due to the volume of research conducted at that level. In addition, the results of this research suggest it is worth exploring further the relationship between students and supervisors from the post-colonial perspective, as this could increase awareness of power relations and transcultural pedagogical practices in intercultural supervision.

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# Appendices

## Appendix A: Online Survey for Study I and Study II

Dear student of master's degree studies,

This questionnaire is addressed to students who have enrolled in one of the international master's degree programmes of the University of Turku, University of Tampere, University of Oulu, University of Eastern Finland, Åbo Akademi or Aalto University.

The purpose of this study is to support the development of international degree programmes, to gain a better understanding of the learning environment, and thereby to support the supervision process during the writing of students' master's thesis. Answering the questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes and your answer is highly valuable for developing the international degree programmes in the future.

A summary of the results will be provided through the international office at your home university. The responses will be dealt in a secure manner, remain anonymous and confidential.

Thank you.

### Part A - Personal details

Please fill in the empty fields.

1. Sex \*

Male

Female

2. Age \*

Age \_\_\_\_\_

3. Nationality\* \_\_\_\_\_

4. Educational qualifications to date\*

Bachelor's degree

Master's degree

Phd

Other \_\_\_\_\_

**5. Field of study of previous educational qualifications \***

- Applied Sciences
- Arts
- Architecture
- Business
- Economics
- Education
- Humanities
- Law
- Medicine
- Natural Sciences
- Social Sciences
- Other \_\_\_\_\_

**6. Years living in Finland\***

- 0-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 6-10 years
- more than 10 years

**7. Current university\***

- Åbo Akademi University
- Aalto University - Master's degrees in English language
- Aalto University - International double degree programmes
- University of Eastern Finland
- University of Oulu
- University of Tampere
- University of Turku

**8. Title of master's degree programmes – Åbo Akademi University****9. Title of master's degree programme - Aalto University****10. Title of master's degree programme - Aalto University - International double degree programmes****11. Title of master's degree programme - University of Eastern Finland****12. Title of master's degree programme - University of Oulu****13. Title of master's degree programme - University of Tampere****14. Title of master's degree programme - University of Turku****15. Year of enrollment \***

- 2011
- 2012
- 2013

**16. Mode of attendance \***

- Full-time
- Part-time

**Part B – Studying in International Master's Degree Programme**

**17.** Please read and rate each one of the following statements where 1 represents 'strongly disagree' and 7 'strongly agree'.

The courses of the Master's degree programme have met my expectations so far.

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The teaching methods in the courses of my Master's degree programme are suitable for the learning content.

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

My learning strategies match the requirements of the programme in which I study.

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I do these studies out of pure interest in the topics that are dealt with.

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I study above all to pass the courses.

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I have chosen this subject area because I am highly interested in the type of work for which it prepares me.

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I am afraid these studies are too demanding for me.

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I am generally satisfied with my learning outcomes.

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I am generally satisfied with my studies at my university so far.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The time I spent on studying for the courses correspond to my performance in these courses.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I cooperate with my fellow students for better learning.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Part C - Feelings about studying

**18.** Please read each of the following 13 statements and choose the number that represents how confident you are about successfully completing the following tasks.

1 = Not at all confident, 7 = Extremely confident

Using different research methods.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Writing essay papers and assignments.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Doing well in exams.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Taking good notes during the lectures.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Keeping up with academic work.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Managing time effectively.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Understanding course literature.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Participating in class discussions.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Asking a question in class.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Talking to professors.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Talking to university staff.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Making new friends at the university.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Joining a student organization.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

**19.** From your perspective, how would you rate your academic performance so far in your study programme? \*

- Poor
- Satisfactory
- Good
- Very good
- Excellent

**20.** Do you have any suggestions or ideas about the future development of your Master's degree programme?

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Part D - Master's thesis seminars and guidance

**21.** In your master's degree programme, how often do you have master's thesis seminars? \*

- Not at all
- Seldom
- Occasionally
- Quite often
- Regularly



22. How often do you attend these master's thesis seminars? \*

- Not at all
- Seldom
- Occasionally
- Quite often
- Regularly

23. Please choose the number that represents how active you are in these seminars:  
\*

Not active at all = 1, Very active = 7

I do not attend 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Activeness

- 

24. How often do you need individual guidance for your thesis work from your supervisor? \*

- Not at all
- Seldom
- Occasionally
- Quite often
- Regularly

25. Please choose which stage of your master's thesis you are currently at \*

- Starting stage
- Middle stage
- Finalizing stage

26. Please read and rate each one of the following statements where 1 represents 'strongly disagree' and 7 'strongly agree'.

It is the supervisor's responsibility to select a promising topic.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- 

In the end, it is up to the supervisor to decide which theoretical frame of reference is most appropriate.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- 

Students have a right to choose their own theoretical standpoint even if it conflicts with the supervisor's.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- 

The supervisor should direct the student in the selection of his/her master's thesis topic.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

-

Staff/student relationships are purely professional and personal matters should not intrude.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

It is the student's responsibility to select a promising topic.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I expect to take more initiative during the process of my thesis research.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The supervisor should take into consideration the student's ideas and give advice.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A close professional relationship is essential for successful supervision.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The supervisor should initiate frequent individual meetings with the student.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

It is up to the student to decide when he/she wants meetings with the supervisor.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The supervisor should know at all times which problems the student is working on.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The supervisor should lead the student to a new topic if he/she thinks that the present topic is not realistic for the student.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The supervisor should support the student right through until the thesis has been submitted, regardless of his/her opinion of the work.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

My supervisor and I have talked about how people study in my native country, and how this may differ from the way of studying in Finland.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

My supervisor and I have talked about my cultural background in supervision.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

My supervisor and I have discussed aspects of the Finnish society that I did not understand.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

In the Master's thesis seminars, I expect to receive feedback from my peer students.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

In the supervision sessions, I feel comfortable talking about my concerns about studying and doing research work in a foreign language.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The supervisor should initiate frequent Master's thesis seminars with the students.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

In the Master's thesis seminars, I expect to learn from other students as much as from my own individual supervision sessions.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

In the Master's thesis seminars, I expect to learn from other students' research topics.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

**27.** In your opinion, what are the features of successful thesis supervision and guidance?

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**28.** What are your goals and expectations for studying and later working life?

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**29.** Do you have any other comments or suggestions that you wish to add for the future development of your Master's degree programme?

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**Appendix B: Email Invitation and Request to Disseminate the Online Survey**

Dear Student,

You are invited to participate in a research titled “Developing International Master’s Degree Programmes in Six Finnish Universities”. This research is conducted by Johanna Kallo, Mirjamaija Mikkilä-Erdmann and Kalypso Filippou from the Faculty of Education at Turku University.

The present research focuses on students’ views about studying in an international Master’s degree programme and students’ expectations on supervision and thesis writing. The collected data will provide useful information for improving international Master’s degree programmes in the six case universities in the future - University of Turku, University of Åbo Akademi, University of Tampere, University of Oulu, University of Eastern Finland, and Aalto University.

In this survey, you are asked to fill an electronic questionnaire, which takes approximately 15 minutes to complete. All the responses will be recorded anonymously, and the survey collects no identifying information of any respondent. Below you find the link to the questionnaire. Please provide us with your response no later than October 30.

[Link]

In case you have already answered the questionnaire, you may ignore this invitation and we thank you warmly for your participation in the survey.

If have any questions about the research, please do not hesitate to contact us at [kalypso.filippou@utu.fi](mailto:kalypso.filippou@utu.fi)

Thank you for your participation in this research in advance.

Best regards,

Johanna Kallo, PhD (Ed.), Turku University

Mirjamaija Mikkilä-Erdmann, Professor of Education, Turku University

Kalypso Filippou, BA, Research assistant, Turku University

**Appendix C: Interview Themes for Supervisors, Studies III and IV****1. Introduction and background information**

- 1.1. Purpose of interview
- 1.2. Confidentiality, anonymity, and the voluntary aspect of participation
- 1.3. Background information (personal, work, teaching duties, prior international working or studying experience, supervision experience and training)
- 1.4. Information regarding the IMDP (number of years since implementation, number of students)

**2. Thesis supervision in IMDPs**

- 2.1. Supervision process
- 2.2. Roles and responsibilities
- 2.3. Features of good/successful and bad/low quality supervision
- 2.4. Providing and receiving feedback
- 2.5. Students' expectations of thesis supervision and previous experiences
- 2.6. Characteristic of field of study
- 2.7. Thesis seminars
- 2.8. Self-evaluation and enjoyment
- 2.9. Good practices
- 2.10. Challenges
- 2.11. English-medium programmes and language skills
- 2.12. Suggestions for improving practices

**3. Teaching in IMDPs**

- 3.1. Teaching experience and courses
- 3.2. Feedback on teaching
- 3.3. Comparisons between programmes
- 3.4. Challenges and advantages to teaching in an IMDP
- 3.5. Positive and negative experiences
- 3.6. Good practices
- 3.7. Training

**4. Intercultural supervision and discussions on culture**

- 4.1. Discussions on cultural background and studying practices, traditions, and norms in various contexts
- 4.2. Common problems when moving to and studying in Finland and coping strategies
- 4.3. Positive and negative experiences
- 4.4. Student community and socialisation between Finnish and international students

**5. Concluding remarks**

- 5.1. Recommendations for IMDPs future development

**Appendix D: Request for Interview**



Turun yliopisto  
University of Turku

[Date]

Dear [Supervisors title and name],

I would like to inquire whether it would be possible to interview you for my doctoral study. The focus of my study are students' and university teachers' experiences in International Master's Degree Programmes (IMDPs) in five Finnish universities; the University of Turku, the University of Åbo Akademi, the University of Tampere, Aalto University and the University of Eastern Finland. The supervisors of my doctoral thesis are post-doctoral research fellow Johanna Kallo and Professor Mirjamaija Mikkilä-Erdmann from the faculty of Education at the University of Turku.

Currently, I am in the process of data collection and I would kindly like to ask you to participate in an interview. The interview would take approximately 45-60 minutes. The main topics of the interview will be thesis supervision and teaching of international degree students. Would it be possible to interview you for this doctoral project in the coming weeks? If so, please indicate a convenient time for us to meet or arrange a skype interview.

I look forward to your reply.

Yours sincerely,  
Kalypso Filippou

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